

**A Narrative Enrichment Programme in literacy
development of Afrikaans-speaking Gr.3-learners in
monolingual rural schools**

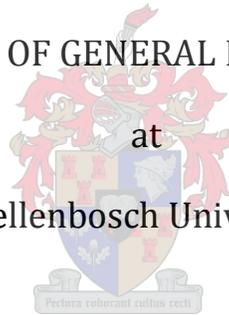
Irene Brand

Dissertation presented for the degree of

DOCTOR OF GENERAL LINGUISTICS

at

Stellenbosch University



FACULTY OF ARTS AND SOCIAL SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF GENERAL LINGUISTICS

Promoter: Prof. C.A. Anthonissen

December 2015

Declaration

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof (save to the extent explicitly otherwise stated), that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

Irene Brand

25 July 2015

Abstract

This study is motivated by existing information on the discontinuity between home literacy practices and school literacy expectations of learners who typically speak a local variety of their mother-tongue which is in various ways different from the standardised language of learning and teaching (LoLT). In this particular case the study refers to Afrikaans as a home language and language in education. The main concern is that these learners typically perform below par in standardised South African literacy tests such as the Annual National Assessment (ANA) and the Systemic Evaluation Test. They show slower achievement of literacy milestones, higher school drop-out rates and less achievement of access to higher learning opportunities (Lahire, 1995; Siegel, 2007).

A Narrative Enrichment Programme was developed as a means of investigating questions concerning learners' levels of language awareness, their understanding and use of different spoken and written genres, registers and varieties of Afrikaans (including their own), and their general appreciation for spoken and written forms of language in narrative and in other everyday uses. The purpose of such an investigation is to better understand the apparent discontinuity between home language practices and school language expectations, and to suggest new ways of addressing difficulties that arise in literacy development as a result of such discontinuity.

The first part of the Narrative Enrichment Programme provided learners with an enriched reading, listening and writing environment in which they could engage with novel stories and work towards producing their own little books. The second part of the programme consisted of supporting exercises that addressed narrative structure issues that arose in the course of the first part. Specifically, exercises of picture-sequencing, picture-sentence matching and an exercise called Beginning, Middle and End were used to assess how learners recount the various components and the chronology of a story that was presented to them in the form of a set of topically connected pictures, and in a longer narrative that was read to them.

Findings show that learners have a keen appreciation of the spoken form of language in that they loved listening to the stories. One group showed special enthusiasm for retelling stories that they had heard at home. Another aspect of the programme to which learners responded enthusiastically, was the activity of illustrating little books; this they appeared to enjoy more than writing them. Enthusiastic responses of learners are attended to because learning is much more likely to proceed successfully if learners enjoy the developmental activities. Levels of linguistic awareness with

regards to genre, register and grammatical aspects such as spelling differed from learner to learner. Learners showed varying degrees of dependence on the already familiar genres of fables and fairy tales. Regarding writing conventions they also showed varying degrees of awareness of (e.g.) appropriate punctuation. Interesting examples of regional language use which included phonological awareness of the spoken form are discussed in considerable detail. There were unexpected findings regarding the influence that learners' life experiences have on their narrative products. The picture sequencing activities reflected learners' use of familiar everyday events and artefacts rather than reference to ones unfamiliar to them, which were apparently intended in the set of pictures.

The rich and varied data that was collected, illustrates theoretical positions regarding the different kinds of habitus learners encounter, the ways in which educational systems privilege some linguistic resources above others, the connections between language and identity, and the ways in which new forms of literacy may assist in better facilitating learners' emerging literacy and the learning that such literacy should facilitate.

Opsomming

Hierdie studie is gemotiveer deur inligting oor die diskontinuiteit tussen tuisgebaseerde geletterdheidspraktyke en skoolgeletterdheidsverwagtinge van leerders wat tipies 'n plaaslike variant van hulle moedertaal praat, wat op verskeie maniere verskil van die gestandaardiseerde taal wat as medium van onderrig gebruik word. In hierdie geval verwys die studie na Afrikaans as huistaal en taal-in-onderrig. Die kwessies wat hier ter sake is, is dat hierdie leerders tipies benede die verwagtinge presteer in gestandaardiseerde Suid Afrikaanse geletterdheidstoetse soos die Jaarlikse Nasionale Assessering (ANA) en die Sistemiese Evalueringstoets. Hulle bereik geletterdheidsmylpale stadiger as die norm, vertoon hoër skooluitsakysfers en minder van hulle behaal toegang tot hoër onderwysgeleenthede (Lahire, 1995; Siegel, 2007).

'n Narratiewe Verrykingsprogram is ontwikkel as 'n instrument om vroeë te ondersoek wat verband hou met leerders se vlakke van taalbewustheid, hulle begrip en gebruik van verskillende gesproke en geskrewe genres, registers en variante van Afrikaans (insluitend hulle eie), en hul algemene waardering vir gesproke en geskrewe vorme van taal in narratief en in ander alledaagse gebruike. Die doel van so 'n ondersoek is om die ooglopende diskontinuiteit tussen huistaalpraktyke en skooltaalverwagtinge beter te verstaan, en om voorstelle te ontwikkel vir die aanspreek van probleme wat in geletterdheidsontwikkeling ontstaan as gevolg van so 'n diskontinuiteit.

Die eerste deel van die Narratiewe Verrykingsprogram het leerders voorsien van 'n verrykte omgewing waarin hulle aktief betrokke kon raak by nuwe verhale en kon werk aan die produksie van hul eie klein boekies. Die tweede deel van die program het bestaan uit ondersteuningsoefeninge wat spesifiek kwessies van narratiefstruktuur wat in die eerste deel na vore gekom het, aangespreek het. Meer spesifiek, prentorganiseringsoefeninge, die verbind van sinne aan illustrasies, en 'n oefening genaamd "Begin, Middel en Einde" is gebruik om na te gaan hoe leerders rekenskap gee van die verskillende komponente en die chronologie van 'n verhaal wat aan hulle voorgehou is in die vorm van 'n stel tematies verwante illustrasies, en in 'n langer narratief wat aan hulle voorgelees is.

Bevindinge toon dat leerders waardering vir die gesproke vorm van taal het, soos geïllustreer in hulle luistergereedheid as stories voorgelees word. Een groep het entoesiasme getoon vir die oortel van stories wat hulle by die huis gehoor het. 'n Ander aspek van die program waarop leerders met entoesiasme gereageer het, was die aktiwiteit van illustrasie van hulle boekies; hulle het kennelik die aanbod van visuele illustrasies meer geniet as die skryfproses. Entoesiasme van

leerders is as belangrik beskou omdat leerprosesse baie meer waarskynlik geslaagd sal wees as leerders die ontwikkelingsaktiwiteit geniet. Vlakke van taalbewustheid ten opsigte van genre, register en grammatikale aspekte soos spelling, verskil van een leerder tot 'n volgende. Leerders het verskillende grade van afhanklikheid getoon van die fabel- en sprokiegenres. Betreffende skryfkonvensies het hulle wisselende grade van bewustheid getoon van (bv.) gepaste leestekengebruik. Interessante voorbeelde van die gebruik van streektaal, wat fonologiese bewussyn van die gesproke vorm insluit, word in besonderhede bespreek. Daar was onvoorsiene bevindinge betreffende die invloed wat leerders se lewenservaringe op hulle narratiewe produkte gehad het. Die prentordeningsaktiwiteite het leerders se gebruik van bekende alledaagse gebeure en artefakte gereflekteer; hulle het nie verwys na wat vir hulle onbekend was nie al het die stel prente oënskynlik iets anders beoog as wat die leerders daarvan gemaak het.

Die ryk en gevarieerde data wat versamel is, illustreer teoretiese posisies rakende die verskillende soorte habitus waarmee leerders gekonfronteer word, die wyse waarop onderwysisteme party soorte taalvaardighede bo ander reken, die verbande tussen taal en identiteit, en die maniere waarop nuwe vorme van geletterdheid ingespan kan word om leerders se ontluikende geletterdheid en die leergeleenthede wat sodanige geletterdheid fasiliteer, te bevorder.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the following people without whom this research would not have been successful. My gratitude for the love and support you have shown me runs deeper than a mere page can express:

Prof Christine Anthonissen, my supervisor, for her unfailing inspiration, rational guidance and burning the midnight oil until the very last moment. It was a pleasure to learn the skills of academic writing from a true master; they will stand me in good stead for the rest of my career, and life in general.

The educators and learners, for graciously allowing me time and space in their classrooms and lives to collect data, without which this study would not have been possible.

The members and my friends from the Spirituality, Philosophy and Yoga Society, for keeping me balanced and enriching my heart and soul during all the phases of this journey.

A special thanks to my dearest mentors and friends, Kavi-karnapura, Harivilasa, Laryn, Nilacala and Saradiya for all your advice, motivation and friendship. You were and still are my lifelines!

Ms Lesley Bergman, for all her technical help and invigorating discussions. Thank you for the innumerable cups of ginger tea, and helping me to keep the bigger picture in mind.

My colleagues at the Linguistics Department, for keeping life light and full of laughter.

My parents, for their unquestioning support and love in all that I had to do to make this study successful and for keeping me grounded when life and academics got a bit stormy.

Very special thanks to my colleagues and friends at the EDP and on the fourth floor: Mrs Anita Jonker, Ms Jaydey Sass, Dr Karin Cattell, Ms Maryke de Wet, Mrs Nicky Steenstra, Mrs Shona Lombard and Dr Taryn Bernard. Your inspiration and support went above and beyond the call of duty and friendship!

The financial assistance of the National Research Foundation (NRF) towards this research is hereby acknowledged. Opinions expressed and conclusions arrived at, are those of the author and are not necessarily to be attributed to the NRF.

Table of Content

Declaration	i
Abstract	ii
Opsomming	iv
Table of Content	i
List of Figures.....	vii
List of Tables.....	viii
Glossary	x
List of Abbreviations.....	xv
Chapter 1: The Multidialectal Situation in Monolingual Communities in South Africa	1
1.1 BACKGROUND	1
1.1.1 Rationale.....	3
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT	4
1.3 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES	5
1.3.1 Research aims.....	5
1.3.2 Research objectives.....	6
1.4 CONCLUSION	7
Chapter 2: Situational Context of the Research	9
2.1 SITES AND POPULATION OF THE STUDY: SELECTED RESEARCH GROUPS	9
2.2 SCHOOL PROFILES AND SCHEDULE	10
2.3 COMMUNITY PROFILE	12
2.4 EXISTING LITERACY PRACTICES.....	13
2.4.1 School-based literacy practices: the Language period	13
2.4.2 Home-based literacy practices	15
2.4.3 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)	16
2.5 ANA AND SET: BROAD ASSESSMENT OF LITERACY SKILLS	19
2.6 CONCLUSION	22
Chapter 3: Literature Review	23
3.1 INTRODUCTION	23
3.2 THEORIES OF LANGUAGE, LITERACY AND LEARNING	26
3.2.1 Democratic teaching and active learning.....	26

3.2.2	Sociocultural approaches.....	27
3.2.3	Dialogic approaches.....	29
3.2.4	Narrative approaches.....	31
3.3	LANGUAGE AWARENESS.....	35
3.3.1	Definition of the term.....	36
3.3.2	Metalinguistic Awareness.....	37
3.3.3	Linguistic literacy.....	39
3.3.4	Sociopragmatic Awareness.....	40
3.3.5	Language awareness and ideology.....	41
3.4	LANGUAGE AND IDENTITY.....	43
3.5	HOME LITERACY PRACTICES AND SCHOOL LITERACY EXPECTATIONS.....	44
3.5.1	Home literacy and “membership”.....	44
3.5.2	School varieties.....	46
3.6	MODELS OF LITERACY.....	47
3.6.1	Autonomous Model.....	48
3.6.2	Ideological Model.....	48
3.7	LITERACY DEVELOPMENT.....	49
3.7.1	Milestones in pre-literacy.....	49
3.7.2	Milestones in Grade 3 literacy.....	52
3.7.3	Other studies done with Grade 3 learners.....	53
3.8	WRITTEN LITERACY.....	54
3.8.1	The Written Form vs. Spoken Form.....	54
3.8.2	Writing as a notational system.....	56
3.8.3	Writing as a discourse.....	58
3.8.3.1	Reading-writing connections in discourse.....	58
3.8.3.2	Written language awareness.....	59
3.8.3.3	Genres and Registers.....	61
3.9	LITERACY AND MULTIMODALITY.....	61
3.10	“LITTLE BOOKS”: A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW.....	63
3.10.1	The origins of “Little Books”.....	63
3.10.2	The “Little Books” in research.....	64

3.10.2.1	Research in Austria	64
3.10.2.2	Research in Finland.....	65
3.10.2.3	Little Books in Langa, South Africa	67
3.11	CONCLUSION	67
Chapter 4:	Methodology	70
4.1	INTRODUCTION	70
4.2	RESEARCH DESIGN.....	71
4.3	RESEARCH GROUP	72
4.3.1	Schools.....	72
4.3.2	Participating learners	73
4.4	DATA COLLECTION.....	74
4.4.1	Background to the Method	74
4.4.2	Narrative Enrichment Programme	76
4.4.2.1	Little Books	76
4.4.2.2	Small group language exercises.....	79
4.5	CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH DATA COLLECTION.....	84
4.6	CONCLUSION	85
CHAPTER 5:	Narrative Enrichment Programme Analysis of Little Books	87
5.1	INTRODUCTION	87
5.2	DATA SELECTION: WHICH LITTLE BOOKS ARE INCLUDED IN THE STUDY	89
5.3	OVERVIEW	91
5.3.1	Categorisation and thematic features.....	91
5.3.1.1	Categorisation of data	91
5.3.1.2	Thematic features.....	95
5.4	CHOICE OF TOPICS.....	97
5.4.1	Response to suggested topics	97
5.4.2	Degrees of dependence on existing stories	99
5.4.3	Reason for suggested topics.....	103
5.5	SUB-THEMES.....	103
5.5.1	Family, likes and dislikes.....	104
5.5.2	Personal history and physical description	105

5.5.3	Future plans	105
5.5.4	Stories from home	106
5.6	ANALYSIS IN TERMS OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES	107
5.6.1	Appreciation.....	109
5.6.1.1	The Written Form.....	109
5.6.1.2	The Spoken Form	110
5.6.2	Language Awareness.....	113
5.6.2.1	Genre awareness	114
5.6.2.2	Awareness of spelling and punctuation.....	117
5.6.3	Regional use of language	119
5.6.3.1	Vocabulary	120
5.6.3.2	Regional expressions.....	122
a)	“Resies vat” (Taking a race).....	123
b)	“Hom pa/ hom broer” (Him father/ him brother)	124
c)	“Is” instead of “As”	125
d)	Single occurrences	126
5.6.3.3	Borrowings from English	127
5.6.4	Unexpected findings	127
5.6.4.1	Self-affirmation and racial awareness	128
5.6.4.2	Effect of life experiences.....	130
a)	Effect on choice of stories.....	130
b)	Effect on choice of details.....	131
c)	Effect on interpretation	134
5.6.5	Signs of effect of program.....	135
a)	Third exercise set of books	135
b)	Willingness of formerly reluctant participant.....	136
c)	An inspired choice.....	137
5.7	CONCLUSION.....	140
CHAPTER 6: Analysis of Data from Small Groups.....		142
6.1	INTRODUCTION	142
6.2	PICTURE SEQUENCING AND PICTURE-SENTENCE MATCHING.....	144

6.2.1	Limited recognition of connections.....	146
6.2.2	Telling stories following pictures from right to left.....	151
6.2.3	Correct with other-repair	153
6.2.4	Awareness through self-repair	161
6.2.5	Stories between the stories – extra info	166
6.2.6	Novel interpretations	168
6.2.7	Vocabulary.....	172
6.2.8	Links with life experiences (Chapter 5)	175
6.3	BEGINNING, MIDDLE AND END	177
6.3.1	A New Story	177
6.3.2	The Activity	180
6.3.2.1	Degrees of Chronology	181
a)	Sound recognition of chronology	181
b)	Partial recognition of chronology	182
c)	Misunderstanding of given chronology.....	183
6.3.2.2	Picture-Sentence Matching	184
6.3.2.3	Intelligibility of pictures and sentences.....	186
6.4	MAIN FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION	189
Chapter 7: Final Conclusion and Recommendations.....		191
7.1	INTRODUCTION	191
7.2	SUMMARY OF THE REPORTED RESEARCH.....	191
7.3	MAIN FINDINGS.....	192
7.3.1	Appreciation	193
7.3.2	Awareness	194
7.3.3	Finding Relevance.....	195
7.4	LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	196
7.5	RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY	197
7.6	TEACHING SUGGESTIONS.....	197
7.7	FINAL THOUGHTS	198
Bibliography.....		199
Bibliography of Data collection stories.....		210

Addenda.....	211
ADDENDUM A: WCED APPROVAL.....	211
ADDENDUM B: TEACHER CONSENT FORM.....	211
ADDENDUM C: CHILD CONSENT FORM	211
ADDENDUM D: PARENT CONSENT FORM	211
ADDENDUM E: QUESTIONNAIRE ON HOME-BASED LITERACY PRACTICES	211
ADDENDUM F: PICTURE SEQUENCING PICTURE CARDS.....	211
ADDENDUM G: PICTURE-SENTENCE MATCHING CARDS.....	211
ADDENDUM H: BEGINNING, MIDDLE AND END	211

List of Figures

Figure 4.1 Little Book.....	78
Figure 4.2 Picture sequencing	80
Figure 4.3 Matching pictures and sentences.....	81
Figure 4.4 Narrative timeline activities	83
Figure 5.2 Hurting foot	116
Figure 5.1 Chickenpox	116
Figure 5.3 Looking after myself	132
Figure 5.4 Cheese man	134
Figure 5.6 Worm.....	137
Figure 5.5 Horse	137
Figure 5.7 Mrs Bakkenbrou	138
Figure 5.8 Gemmer in front of the oven	139
Figure 5.9 Another Gemmer.....	140
Figure 6.1 Rain Story.....	146
Figure 6.2 Drawing on the wall.....	147
Figure 6.3 Girl to Woman	148
Figure 6.4 Boy to Man	149
Figure 6.5 Stevie and the toothpaste	150
Figure 6.6 Writing letters.....	152
Figure 6.7 Building a house	153
Figure 6.8. Blooming flower	155
Figure 6.9 Going to School.....	155
Figure 6.10 Crossing the Street	156
Figure 6.11 Drawing on the wall (with text).....	157
Figure 6.12 Rain story (with text)	158
Figure 6.13 Broken pipe	159
Figure 6.14 Stevie and the toothpaste (with text)	160
Figure 6.15 Another rainy day.....	163
Figure 6.16 Painting.....	164
Figure 6.17 Thandi and the flowers.....	164

Figure 6.18 Baking a cake.....	166
Figure 6.19 Playing soccer.....	167
Figure 6.20 Butterfly	169
Figure 6.21 Balloon	170
Figure 6.22 Going to Sleep.....	171
Figure 6.23 Building a Snowman.....	172
Figure 6.24 Rocket to the Moon.	176
Figure 6.25 But he’s got more than me!	178
Figure 6.26 All good things happen in threes!	178
Figure 6.27 It’s not nice playing alone	179
Figure 6.28 The missing cookie	180
Figure 6.29 Correct sequence of pictures	182
Figure 6.30 Somewhat correct.....	183
Figure 6.31 Skipping rope	183
Figure 6.32 Mr Dear and the cookie	185
Figure 6.33 Lennie and Lina on a rock	185
Figure 6.34 Missing children	186
Figure 6.35 Spongebob	187
Figure 6.36 More cookies.....	187
Figure 6.37 More than me	188

List of Tables

Table 1.1 Average percentages scores per province in 2011	2
Table 1.2 Grade 3 results for Language by province in 2012.....	3
Table 2.1 School A learner profile for 2013	10
Table 2.2 School B learner profile for 2012	11
Table 2.3 Time allocations for Grade 3 Home Language	17
Table 2.4 National ANA results for 2012 and 2013.....	19
Table 2.5 ANA results for schools in comparison to national and provincial achievements.....	20
Table 2.6. Summary of Grade 3 Systemic Evaluation in School A and School B 2013.....	20
Table 2.7 Comparison of School A Grade 3A and 3B SET results.....	21

Table 2.8. Scores per category for 2013 (Learners calculated in percentage).....	21
Table 3.1 Achievements in 2012 and 2013 of Grades 1-6 and 9 ANAs	23
Table 3.2 Learners achieving more that 50% for performance in their Home Language	24
Table 3.3 Principles of Writing	57
Table 5.1 Summary of little books per class.....	90
Table 5.2.1 Distribution of little book categories.....	92
Table 5.2.2 Production of little Books in Percentages.....	93
Table 5.3.1 Statistics per theme	93
Table 5.3.2 Distinct word score per book.....	96
Table 5.4 Previously known topics of choice.....	99
Table 5.5 Literacy activities according to search words.....	108
Table 6.1 Distribution of Other-repaired sequences.....	154
Table 6.2 Instances of Positive and Nevative self-repair.....	162
Table 6.3 Summary of Novel Interpretations	168
Table 6.4 Degrees of chronology.....	181
Table 6.5 Picture Sentence Matching.....	184

Glossary

Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS): “CAPS contains the national curriculum for Grades 1 to 12 in public schools in South Africa” (Western Cape Education Department(c), 2014). CAPS has been introduced systematically over three years from 2012-2014 and has replaced the Revised National Curriculum Statement as the official curriculum document.

Coherence: The potential meaning that different parts of a text or conversation have and which is actualised by the processes of interpretation of the listener or reader. Coherence is possible only when the listener or reader is able “to relate the text to relevant and familiar works either real or fictional” (Blum-Kulka, 1986: 17).

Cohesion: The “togetherness” of a text or utterance as is created by certain linguistic markers and as such creates an overall comprehensible relationship between the different parts of a text or utterance (Blum-Kulka, 1986: 17).

Coloured: It is well understood that the word ‘coloured’ is a controversial term that harks back to the Apartheid era. It, however, has been deemed necessary to use this term in the context of the study in order to distinguish the particular community in which the research was conducted from other previously disadvantaged groups. The term is also still used in everyday conversation for reasons of specificity rather than derogation.

Conversation Analysis (CA): CA is a broad-spectrum approach to the analysis of real-time face-to-face conversations and how participants use underlying social organization, rule-bound processes to produce social and intelligible interactions (Goodwin & Heritage, 1990: 283).

Dialect: In general linguistic literature the term ‘dialect’ refers to the varieties of one language spoken by a particular group of people. These varieties are mutually intelligible, but differ in systematic ways (phonologically, syntactically, lexically and semantically) (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2011: 430). Crystal also states that ‘dialect’ is a variety defined in terms of regional social groups of users (1991: 101). Although ‘dialect’ sometimes has negative connotations with reference to its social prestige, for the purposes of this study, both ‘variety’ and ‘dialect’ are used as both terms refer to regional usage. See below for a definition of ‘variety’.

Genre: Genre refers to the situational use of texts and the specific features that those texts adhere to: language, format, structure and content (Duke and Purcell-Gates, 2003: 31). “Genre knowledge

[is] essentially textual in nature. Genres range across text types broadly defined by function, sociocultural practices, and communicative purpose - conversation, narration and exposition, information and poetry” (Ravid and Tolchinsky, 2002: 425).

Heteroglossia: This term refers to the stratification of language “not only into linguistic dialects...but also...into languages that are socio-ideological: languages of social groups, ‘professional’ and ‘generic’ languages, languages of generations and so forth” (Bakhtin, 1981: 271-272).

Heteroglossic environment: An environment in which different languages and dialects of languages, as described under ‘heteroglossia’, are used in different contexts.

Home Language: Within the parameters of this study, this term is specifically used when referring to the subject and learning area called Home Language (in this case Afrikaans) as opposed to First Additional Language (in this case English).

Language awareness (LA): This term refers to knowledge about language, how language works and how it is used creatively and in situated contexts such as the classroom or in the community. More importantly, language awareness can be developed intuitively, indirectly or in formal learning situations. For the purpose of this study language awareness will focus on the form and functions of spoken and written Afrikaans that the learners may use or come across in formal as well as informal domains.

Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT): LoLT refers to the language in which learners receive their education. It is the language of their textbooks and the language that they use to engage and learn. In many homes in South Africa the LoLT is not the L1 of the learners. In the current study learners receive teaching in Afrikaans, their L1, but it may not be the same variety of Afrikaans.

Linguistic literacy : Linguistic literacy refers to the ability of learners to “preserve their own dialectal or sociolectal identity, while also learning to participate in school-based activities in the standard language” (Ravid & Tolchinsky, 2002: 422).

Lingua Franca: Lingua Franca is a language, in this case English, which is used to enable “routine communication” in contexts where the people do not share a mutual mother-tongue (Crystal, 1991: 203).

Literacy: UNESCO defines ‘literacy’ as “the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts” (2005: 21). Ravid and Tolchinsky expands this definition by saying that “literacy has taken on a wide

range of meanings and implications, from basic reading and writing skills to the acquisition and manipulation of knowledge via written texts, from metalinguistic analysis of grammatical units to the structure of oral and written texts, from the impact of print on the history of mankind to philosophical and social consequences of Western education” (2002: 418).

Literacy practices: Literacy practices refer to any practice in which any of a wide variety of literacies is involved, such as writing (creative and academic), reading road signs, parents reading rhymes to their children etc. Such practices are in many cases culturally specific and many different cultural groups emphasise different forms of literacy, such as written (reading, writing) or oral (i.e. telling stories).

Metalinguistic awareness (MA): A person’s ability to view “language as an object” (Smith and Tager-Flusberg, 1982: 449) and also to be aware of faulty communications as well as the ability to fix these breakdowns in communication (Smith and Tager-Flusberg, 1982).

Migrant: “A person who moves regularly in order to find work especially in harvesting crops” (Miriam-Webster, 2015). In section 4.4.1 mention is made of migrant workers. The term ‘migrant’ vs. ‘immigrant’ is somewhat of a contested area. For this study ‘migrant’ refers to people who seek seasonal work in other countries, such as harvesting, and ‘immigrant’ refers to those who have permanent residence in a particular country. The social status of each of these individuals and their legal right to work do not fall within the scope of the study, and as such the terms are only used to refer to people’s mobility in search of employment and socio-economic advancement and to underline the fact that children of such people often find it difficult to adapt to the LoLT.

Mother-tongue education: This refers to the language in which learners receive their education. This specifically refers to learners learning in their first language. ‘Mother-tongue’ is also referred to as home language or first language. In this study the abbreviation ‘L1’ will be used when referring to mother-tongue speakers.

Multimodality: Multimodality refers to the availability of multiple “modes and semiotic resources” which shapes the process of meaning-making (Jewitt, 2005: 315). This term is specifically used to refer to visual components of texts that are interpreted in conjunction with the verbal part of the text to access the intended meaning of the whole.

Narrative Analysis (NA): NA can be seen as “an opening of a window into the mind” (Cortazzi, 2014: 2) or culture of a particular group of speakers regarding the way in which they use a wide array of narratives to represent, evaluate and ultimately make sense of the world around them.

Nexus: A point at which the historical trajectories of people, places, discourses, ideas, practices, experiences, and objects come together to enable some action that in itself alters those historical trajectories in some way as those trajectories emanate from this moment of social action (Pietikäinen & Pitkänen-Hutha, 2013: 232).

Nonmainstream language use: Patton Terry *et al.* (2010: 127) describe nonmainstream language use in terms of English, but it can very well be relevant to any language spoken by any group of people. It concerns speakers whose language is the same, for example Afrikaans, but “whose nonmainstream language use and practices are significantly different from those they encounter in formal mainstream environments such as schools” (2010: 127).

Non-standard: This term should not imply a lack of standard in any linguistic sense, and it is not a synonym for ‘sub-standard’ (Crystal 1991: 325). Non-standard varieties are just as functional as standard varieties, but are spoken by people from non-dominant socio-economic groups. For this study it is used to refer to a variety spoken by a community of lower socio-economic status and is thus isolated from the standard variety used in the dominant social groups.

Pragmatics: It is the “theory of utterance-interpretation” (Sperber and Wilson, 1981: 281). It differs from CA in that it covers a broader spectrum of utterances than just those that are spoken face-to-face. “Pragmatic theory incorporates “a general account of the processing of conceptual information in a context, and a particular account of whatever special principles and problems are involved in the processing of information that has been intentionally, and linguistically, communicated” (Sperber and Wilson, 1981: 281).

Register: “Register distinctions mainly express social dimensions such as power, authority, distance, politeness, and intimacy, which explore the boundaries of familiarity and formality” (Ravid and Tolchinsky, 2002: 424). The degree to which each of these dimensions or features takes shape depends on the particular genre in which it is used.

Repertoire: Repertoire refers to “a set of resources that a speaker actually commands” (Snell, 2013: 115) and the competence with which one uses these resources in communicating a message in any given context. Repertoire is thus grounded in practical life and not abstract theory.

Standard language: A standard variety refers to the variety that “cuts across regional differences”, thus it is intended as a unified form that will enhance intelligibility in a wide range of contexts. The standard language is often prescribed as an institutionalised norm, used in the mass-media and as a model for foreign language learners (Crystal 1991: 325). The “standardness” of a variety may refer to the degree to which it is socially acceptable and preferred by speakers from all socio-economic communities (Schilling-Estes, 2006: 312). This variety is usually spoken by the dominant socio-economic group. It is also the variety taught in schools.

Variety: ‘Variety’ is a term used in the field of sociolinguistics and is used to describe “a system of linguistic expression whose use is governed by situational variables” (Crystal, 1991: 370). Those variables include region and occupation. The classification of varieties has been done by using terms such as ‘dialect’, ‘register’, ‘medium’ and ‘field’.

List of Abbreviations

- ANA:** Annual National Assessments
- BME:** Beginning, Middle, End (activity)
- CA:** Conversation Analysis
- CAPS:** Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
- DoE:** (South African) Department of Education
- ELSEN/LSEN:** Education for Learners with Special Educational Needs
- L1:** Learner's mother-tongue e.g. Afrikaans, isiXhosa, isiZulu
- L2:** Learner's second language e.g. English
- LA:** Language Awareness
- LitNum:** Literacy and Numeracy (results)
- LoLT:** Language of Teaching and Learning
- MA:** Metalinguistic Awareness
- NA:** Narrative Analysis
- PS:** Picture Sequence (activity)
- PSM:** Picture-Sentence Matching (activity)
- RO:** Research Objective (section 1.3.2)
- WCED:** Western Cape Education Department
- ZPD:** Zone of Proximal Developments

Chapter 1: The Multidialectal Situation in Monolingual Communities in South Africa

1.1 BACKGROUND

This study intends to investigate a number of salient aspects of language awareness and literacy in a largely monolingual Afrikaans community of young learners who typically achieve less than the national median in standardised literacy tests. Language is a central instrument in achieving educational goals, academic success and eventually also employment opportunities and social mobility. Additionally, language is the medium through which societies communicate their value systems, history, beliefs and identity (Le Cordeur, 2010: 79). In fulfilling these functions, not only spoken varieties, but also their written forms, are used. Therefore, literacy and literacy development are important aspects of learning which any early schooling curriculum should attend to. UNESCO defines 'literacy' as "the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts" (2005: 21). The development of literacy, according to this definition, entails the development of a person's whole being, thus factors which may influence literacy development are likely also to influence other facets of a person's life, be they academic, social or economic. This study specifically focuses on how a selected group of Grade 3 learners exhibit and use their literacy skills in varying contexts. Because considerable numbers of young learners have been identified as having literacy skills below the expected level in the national literacy tests (one particular formal context), this study is interested in shedding more light on what skills they have in other contexts.

Related to literacy, is 'language awareness', as the "explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use" (Garrett & James, 2000: 330). Language awareness is an important characteristic of people with advanced literacy skills. The development of literacy is an international concern, even beyond developing countries such as those in Southern Africa.

Concerns regarding literacy development are already reflected in the initiative of the South African Department of Education (DoE) in that it has developed a system of assessing the literacy levels of all learners. This is done with a view to planning timeous enrichment in areas where development of the learners is under par. The Annual National Assessments (ANA) have been introduced to assess

literacy and numeracy levels of all Grade 3 and Grade 6 learners. These are nationally compiled, but locally administered and graded. Another literacy test, the Systemic Evaluations, is an initiative of the Western Cape Education Department (WCED). These tests are administered, invigilated and graded by WCED officials and teachers receive only the results for the whole grade and not the results for each individual learner. The Systemic Evaluation Tests are discussed in more detail in section 2.5.

Before 2008, during which the ANA were in the trial phase, Senior Certificate results were the only national indicators of learner success. The ANA intend to monitor learners' development at an earlier stage, i.e. they focus on the Foundation and Intermediate Phases of education. These assessments provide a broad overview of the literacy situation within South Africa. From 2012, the ANA also included a test for Grade 9 learners. These measures have been taken to assess literacy levels and help district offices to focus on schools in need of extra help. The results so far, however, are disheartening as they indicate a greater lag in literacy development than is to be expected amongst the various groups of learners. Table 1.1 below shows the achievement rates of Grades 3 and 6 for 2011 (Department of Basic Education (c), 2011: 20). The terms 'literacy' and 'language' are used for Grade 3 and 6 respectively in the document, but they both refer to the language component of the test.

Table 1.1 Average percentages scores per province in 2011

Province	Grade 3		Grade 6	
	LITERACY	Numeracy	LANGUAGE	Numeracy
EC	39	35	29	29
FS	37	26	23	28
GP	35	30	35	37
KZN	39	31	29	32
LIM	30	20	21	25
MPU	27	19	20	25
NC	28	21	27	28
NW	30	21	22	26
WC	43	36	40	41
NATIONAL	35	28	28	30

The above results show that in 2011 in the Grade 3 literacy assessment, nationally, only 35% of the learners had achieved the required standard for their age group. In the Grade 6 literacy assessment, nationally, the achievement was even less satisfactory, at 28%. In the Western Cape, with figures

slightly higher than the national ones, literacy levels are below standard for more than 50% of the learners. It is therefore fair to state that in the Western Cape, as in the rest of the country, there is a literacy development problem.

Table 1.2 Grade 3 results for Language by province in 2012

PROVINCE	AVERAGE PERCENTAGE MARK	PERCENTAGE LEARNERS ACHIEVING 50% AND MORE
EC	50,3	52,7
FS	56,3	65,2
GP	54,8	61,7
KZN	53,5	59,2
LP	47,9	48,8
MP	48,0	48,9
NC	49,4	51,4
NW	46,4	46,3
WC	57,1	67,4
National	52,0	56,6

The results in Table 1.2 (Department of Basic Education (d), 2012: 30) show a slightly improved picture of Grade 3 achievements in 2012. There has been a national increase of about 15% in literacy achievements. In the Western Cape alone almost 60% of Grade 3 learners passed the Annual National Assessments in 2012 as opposed to a meagre 43% in 2011. The cause for this increase in achievement is however not the focus of this study. It only serves as a backdrop to the Narrative Enrichment Programme, because, despite the increase of achievement, all provinces show that on average more than half the school-going Grade 3 learners do not achieve success in the ANA.

Relating this to the definition of 'literacy' given by UNESCO, it is clear that currently the ability of a large proportion of young learners to function optimally is lower than can reasonably be expected for them. This does not bode well for young learners individually, nor for a national economy that is dependent on the educational success of its youth for future prosperity.

1.1.1 Rationale

In South Africa (as in many other developing communities) it is a common occurrence that young learners who grow up in monolingual communities speaking a local variety of the language, have difficulties in adjusting to the requirements of a school curriculum that is developed with a standard different to the local one, in mind. It has also been indicated that among such learners there is

slower achievement of literacy milestones, higher school drop-out rates and less achievement of access to higher learning opportunities (Lahire, 1995; Siegel, 2007). The development of standardised language skills is often less successful than is possible in a more linguistically diverse context.

A study such as the one proposed here should be valuable in ascertaining a more accurate understanding of the literacy skills of learners from the above-mentioned settings because the Narrative Enrichment Programme, if it achieves its aims, will show the areas and levels of their awareness, how much they value their language and variety as a communicative instrument in a wide range of contexts, and awareness of multiple varieties and how they use genres and registers. In so doing, they should not only maintain their own variety, but also be able to function in a learning environment in which a standardised variety is very often still the norm.

From an academic perspective, the value of this study is that it addresses issues concerning the rate of literacy development in South Africa as well as matters concerning the linguistic variety of all South African communities. Within the field of Literacy Studies, this research links with other related programs and may inspire new ones, thus enriching the field of research for present and future researchers. This study is not only of academic interest; it could also have practical value for teachers in the field who want to improve learners' literacy as well as their social mobility.

Although English is a second language which is widely used as lingua franca, also to some extent in the rural communities investigated here, it was decided that the use and understanding of an L2 falls outside of the parameters of this study which chose to focus on the L1 literacy skills of largely monolingual learners in a monolingual setting.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

This study aims to investigate and address problems that relate to the discontinuity between home literacy practices and school literacy expectations. Limited experience of literacy and pre-literacy practices outside of the classroom apparently contribute to the delayed achievement of literacy goals that school curricula embody. Many learners tend to fall behind in achieving milestones and in progressing beyond the limitations of a relatively impoverished context.

A related problem to be addressed is one that considers the status of non-standard repertoires and their uses in the formal educational context. Hendricks argues that an "equal-level perspective" needs to be taken in order to make speakers of Afrikaans more aware of the legitimacy of their

regional varieties” (2012: 53). Teachers and learners have been known to underestimate the value of local repertoires, as if the linguistic resources of the home community cannot assist their speakers in functioning well within a multitude of different social and academic settings. (Blake and Cutler: 2003, 164)

This study then intends not only to investigate discontinuity between home literacy practices and school literacy expectations, but also to assess what it is that these learners are capable of in real life, away from the standardised tests and curriculum documents, with the aim to eventually incorporate what they have in order to facilitate what it is they need to learn.

The main research question would then be as follows:

“How does the Narrative Enrichment Programme developed for this study shed light on learners’ awareness of language, their recognition and appreciation of prevailing varieties, registers and communicative practices of classrooms where their mother-tongue is the LoLT, and on their achievement of basic literacy goals?”

1.3 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.3.1 Research aims

The study will introduce a Narrative Enrichment Programme in a predominantly L1 Afrikaans-speaking primary school community in which the prevailing variety or registers and communicative practices differ from the taught norm. In order to monitor how the educational aim of enhancing literacy proceeds, a broader understanding has to be developed of the awareness of language in participating learners.

The first two aims of this study are 1) to develop a Narrative Enrichment Programme and 2) to implement it in a setting where literacy levels are below par for the given age groups. Further aims are 3) to check, in using the Narrative Enrichment Programme, what the features are of spoken and written skills of these learners in an activity that is not part of the standard curriculum. In the process questions will be raised as to learners’ awareness of language, their appreciation of multiple varieties of their mother-tongue, and their achievement of basic literacy goals; 4) to record observations on the present level and possible development of ‘linguistic literacy’ during the implementation of the Narrative Enrichment Programme.

The degree to which any effects may be measurable is not a primary focus. This is not a therapeutic study in which the researcher aims to improve poor literacy; rather it intends to analyse the possible change in narrative practices and how these may affect learners' academic literacy practices. The language and literacy policy in South African education will be discussed only as a means to contextualise the study itself. The main aim is to enrich literacy practices within the existing literacy context of the South African educational system and not to evaluate or assess the system itself.

1.3.2 Research objectives

'Language awareness' [LA] entails an enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language (Carter, 2003: 64). Such 'language awareness' refers to the conscious attention a speaker develops and directs to the way language(s) function(s) in making meaning and in shaping identities as well as relationships. Related to language awareness, is awareness of language in literacy, i.e. direction of conscious attention to the nature and value of the written and printed word and how people participate in literacy practices. For this particular study the focus was on developing language awareness through literacy practices developed in school classrooms. Learners from homes where there are relatively poor literacy practices, were introduced to a wider variety of written texts than the regular programme allows, and was sensitised to contexts within which such literature is produced and used. Associated with enhanced awareness of such literacy practices, is the development of learners' own literacy skills, and the awareness they have of their own linguistic identities. The linguistic norms taught in schools did not form an explicit part of the programme; however, it is envisaged that greater exposure to the written word, will add to learners' awareness (and even gradual accommodation) of such norms. The main instrument used in this project was a Narrative Enrichment Programme, aimed at investigating the following:

- * Does use of the Narrative Enrichment Programme developed for this study show significant signs of the current state of learners' knowledge of their L1, achievement of expected literacy goals, language awareness, awareness of appropriate language forms (registers, genres etc.) for different contexts of language use? What does the programme disclose regarding learners' appreciation of the value of their first language as a social and communicative instrument?
- * In the use of their L1 as evidenced in the data from the Narrative Enrichment Programme, do learners show awareness of language variety/ in register/ genre/

literacy practices? Alternatively, what kind of awareness regarding language variety/register/ genre/literacy practices do the learners' project?

- * Does the Narrative Enrichment Programme disclose significant information on learners' appreciation of spoken and written narratives as forms of art and expression? If so, how and in which form is such appreciation indicated? Is there evidence that the programme has improved/fostered such appreciation?
- * Is there a difference between the home language of the learners and the language required in their schoolwork? Does the data give signs of school expectations regarding language use that is not a continuation of the home repertoires?
- * Are there indications in the data that learners appreciate the value of written narrative? What are the features of the written work learners produced that signal narrative proficiency of a more or less advanced level (also in relation to expectations for their age group)?
- * Are there any indications that learners' participation in activities that present language for enjoyment, such as language games and language for laughter (also as in reading stories and creative writing, i.e. activities included in the enrichment programme), had an effect on their engagement in reading and writing activities in school work?

In section 4.1 these objectives are articulated in more specific terms, in the form of questions that are addressed in the data analysis.

1.4 CONCLUSION

This study then is an attempt at understanding the literacy practices of learners at grass roots level. An attempt was made to cast some perspective on the learners' capabilities rather than that of which they are not capable. Furthermore, this study hopefully improved learners' enthusiasm and participation in a wider variety of literacy practices which may help them to adapt in the academic environment without losing their home varieties as legitimate mediums of communication.

The selection process of the participating schools is discussed in greater depth in Chapter 2, but a few precursors to the selection need to be discussed beforehand. Both schools were chosen for meeting a set of criteria regarding learners' and teachers' first languages and the language of education. Quite a number of schools could have been selected; the two eventually selected, were

ones where the principal and teachers were interested and willing to participate in such a study. Both schools are situated within the Overberg educational district and fall in quintile one¹. Anonymity was offered to the participants as an incentive for them to participate and that was accepted. From here on the schools will be named School A and School B².

Chapter 2 discusses the social context of the schools in more depth by looking at the home literacy practices of the learners. Chapter 3 gives an overview of the literature and theories on which this study is founded. Chapter 4 gives an in-depth discussion of the methodology of the study; both the Little Books as well as the picture sequencing exercises. Chapters 5 and 6 present and give an analysis of the data collected in the form of the little books and the narratives that emerged from the sequencing exercises respectively. Chapter 7 summarises the main findings of the study and also makes recommendations for futures studies and teaching practices.

¹ The quintiles refer to the rank of the school as determined by the socio-economic status of the community in which it is situated. Quintile 1 is the lowest and quintile 5 is the highest.

² "A" and "B" in no way refer to any degree of competency or ranking of the school; the sequence in which the schools were visited on the first occasion determined which is referred to as A and which as B.

Chapter 2: Situational Context of the Research

2.1 SITES AND POPULATION OF THE STUDY: SELECTED RESEARCH GROUPS

Due to the nature of the study and the fact that it set out to research Afrikaans L1 learners in predominantly monolingual rural schools, it was decided to situate this research in communities that were likely to be limitedly exposed to multilingual practices typical of urban areas in the region. The WCED website “Find-a-School”³ tool was used as a searching instrument for appropriate schools to take part in this study (Western Cape Education Department (a), 2012). The assignment in scrutinising the particular website was to locate two schools listed as Afrikaans medium in an area with relatively low exposure to English. In multilingual societies such as we find in South-Africa, where a single lingua franca such as English is dominant in public spaces and is also the strongest language of the media, it is very unlikely that learners have no exposure to English. ‘Limited exposure’ in this study thus refers to the learners being exposed to English only through television programs and within the language classrooms and is not used as an everyday language of communication in their community.

The interest of the study is in selected aspects of the literacy practices and language awareness of learners who have a non-standard variety of Afrikaans as the dominant language of communication at home and within the school. Another requirement for inclusion in this study was that the school had to be one that services a community which, according to Department of Education assessment, is rated as of a lower socio-economic group. This decision is motivated by the consideration that such a community has less access to additional educational resources than a better positioned group would have. Documents provided by the WCED were used to determine the position of the school in terms of quintiles based on the average income of the parent community of each school. The quintile in which a school is placed then denotes the socio-economic status of the community in which the school is located. The scale used in this categorisation ranges from 1 to 5, where 1 refers to a low-income school where no fees are levied from parents and 5 refers to a very well-resourced school in an affluent area where often exceptionally high school fees are levied additional to the state contribution.

Initially several schools that fitted the particular criteria were contacted via email and telephone in order to establish their willingness to participate. Finally, two schools were selected based on their

³ (<http://wcedemis.pgwc.gov.za/wced/findaschool.html>)

fulfilment of the criteria and willingness of the principal and teachers to participate. Both schools fall within the Overberg Educational District and within the same circuit in the Western Cape. The Western Cape is divided into eight educational districts and 49 circuits. Via the districts educational management network the circuits work to provide schools with professional support and guidance. (Western Cape Education Department (c), 2012). As the identity of the particular participating schools is not directly relevant and ethical procedures require anonymity, the schools are merely referred to as School A and School B.

2.2 SCHOOL PROFILES AND SCHEDULE

Both the schools included in the study serve rural communities. The system of placing every school within a quintile is used to signify how the school community is rated in terms of a poverty table. The poverty table is one based on the measured economic status of the adults or families that live in the service area of the school. “These poverty rankings are determined nationally according to the poverty of the community around the school, as well as, certain infrastructural factors” (Grant: 2013). Both schools are classified as quintile 1 schools and thus also as fees-free schools, meaning that the regular practice of families having to contribute to the educational facilities that the school provides is forgone. In terms of the number of learners and teachers the two schools differ considerably, but because both are placed within communities of similar socio-economic status, they are for purposes of educational support, considered to be of the same kind.

The following two tables outline the profiles of learner registration during the data collection period of 2013

Table 2.1 School A learner profile for 2013

GENDER	GRR	GR1	GR2	GR3	GR4	GR5	GR6	GR7	GR8	GR9	GR10	GR11	GR12	LSEN	TOTAL
Female	27	31	30	28	45	34	40	37	46	40	0	0	0	0	358
Male	16	29	35	21	53	38	30	31	39	20	0	0	0	0	312
TOTAL	43	60	65	49	98	72	70	68	85	60	0	0	0	0	670

School A has 30 classrooms for groups from Grade R to Grade 9 and 24 educators. There are 2 teachers for every grade except for grades R and 4 which each have 3 educators. As supporting educational facilities, the school has a library and one computer room (Educator interviews, 2014).

Table 2.2 School B learner profile for 2012

GENDER	GRR	GR1	GR2	GR3	GR4	GR5	GR6	GR7	GR8	GR9	GR10	GR11	GR12	LSEN	TOTAL
Female	14	25	19	11	15	26	14	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	132
Male	21	28	19	14	21	22	15	17	0	0	0	0	0	0	136
TOTAL	35	53	38	25	36	48	29	39	0	0	0	0	0	0	268

School B had a total of 8 classrooms as well as 9 groups from Grade R to Grade 7 of between 30-50 learners per group in 2013. There was one educator per grade for every grade, except for grade 2, where there were two groups. In 2014, on the basis of learner numbers, an additional grade 3 educator was appointed. During the research period, however, there was only one group of 40 Grade 3 learners and one educator allocated as the designated teacher for the group.

Neither of the schools qualifies for ELSEN or LSEN (Education for Learners with Special Educational Needs) (Western Cape Education Department (b), 2014) classes and educators. The appointment or not of an ELSEN educator is determined by the Literacy and Numeracy (LitNum) results and the size of the school. Bigger schools therefore get preference because there are more learners, so the registered need for special support is likely to be greater. The WCED does try to place ELSEN teachers where the need is most pressing. However, when the pass rates of learners are very low an ELSEN educator is placed regardless of class sizes (Personal communication, 2 Junie 2014).

This means that where learners in these schools present with special learning-and-teaching needs, they are dependent on the services of the WCED designated psychologists and learning support officers. These ELSEN educators are appointed by the circuits within every educational district and are expected to move between schools on a rotation basis, giving the necessary support to learners that experience exceptional learning difficulties. That Schools A and B do not have ELSEN educators on site has the effect that the teachers at these schools have to attend to learners with special needs as part of their regular teaching assignment. Besides them not being specially trained for special needs teaching, this entails that they have to manage time for attending to such learners – often at the expense either of learners in the main stream group, or of those who need more and different kinds of teacher attention. As will be indicated in the presentation of the data below in Chapter 5, each of the classes included in this study had learners who presented work that appeared to indicate special needs in terms of learning difficulties, without any specialist help being available.

2.3 COMMUNITY PROFILE

The majority of learners in these schools come from homes that are marked by economic hardships. Compared to school communities placed in higher socio-economic quintiles, the schools can therefore supply only limited resources.

The parent communities at the various schools, on the evidence of a number of interviewees, do not have strongly established literacy practices⁴ and are reported also to have relatively low levels of literacy⁵. At School A, for example, some of the parents were enrolled for Adult Basic Education and Training (ABET) classes that, incidentally, were taught by some of the school teachers. The certificate to be gained on successful completion of the ABET course, is equal to a Grade 9 certificate, i.e. the second year of secondary school. It is in this regard that the little books produced as part of this study illuminate one aspect of learners' home literacy practices and the effect their home literacy practices have on their classroom activities.

Although the participating schools were selected on the expectation that they would have registered decidedly Afrikaans L1 learners, there were also learners with other L1s in the groups. Among all the Grade 3 learners in School A there were one isiZulu and six isiXhosa L1 speakers, and in School B there was one Xhosa L1 speaker. All learners with L1s other than Afrikaans are expected to acquire Afrikaans when they enter the school. There are no limitations on registration of learners with L1s other than Afrikaans, but there are also no special arrangements for teaching such learners Afrikaans. Some of these learners are the children of migrant workers who came to the Western Cape from the Eastern Cape (mostly from the former "Transkei") where the LoLT they would have encountered is more likely to have been English than Afrikaans. One teacher at School A mentioned in her interview that these learners struggle with reading and phonics when coming to school for the first time because of this language gap. A second teacher specifically mentioned how much one of these learners had improved since starting school. Thus it appears that the acquisition of Afrikaans as a language of learning among learners from other language backgrounds varies from one learner to the next. For the purposes of this study, due to scope limitation, data from learners with L1s other than Afrikaans were disregarded.

⁴ See 'literacy practices' in Glossary.

⁵ Levels of literacy only assumed on the basis of school level passed – data not available, but employment patterns suggest minimum levels of formal education

Due to the distribution of learners whose homes are on farms of which the distance to each school is considerable, a school bus service is provided by the regional government. For School A they have a bus service that brings learners to school in the mornings, and then runs them home at two different times in the afternoon: one directly after school and another at 15:00 after the extra LitNum classes that are offered from 14:00 to 15:00.

2.4 EXISTING LITERACY PRACTICES

2.4.1 School-based literacy practices: the Language period

In the current study, literacy practices during the school hours were gauged before the commencement of data collection as well as continually during the data-collection period. The following literacy and language practices were observed during two days of observation in 2012 prior to the start of data collection in 2013. One day was devoted to each of the classes in School A and two full days were devoted to the one class in School B.

In both schools reading formed the basis of all activities aimed at language development during the Home Language period. The reading material available in classrooms is limited and the book sets such as “Stamstories” that they do have, are incomplete; nevertheless, the teachers and learners utilised all the resources they had.

In both Grade 3 classes in School A the learners were divided into reading groups according to the reading ability of the learners. Each group got special attention from the teacher while learners of other groups carried on with homework or class work as determined by the teacher. The group reading activities started out with group reading exercises and then turned to individual reading. Each learner would read a page or two while the teacher checked how they held the books and how they turned the pages. This was done as part of a broader aim of teaching how to work with books and other kinds of printed material. Each learner was asked a few questions on the page that they had read and the group got a spelling test after their reading.

During my observation they revised the written representation of sounds like the ones represented by “f” as in “feetjie” (fairy+diminutive) and “v” as in “voëltjie” (bird+diminutive) (in Afrikaans these represent homophones sounding like the “f” in “fish”). The weak reading group was given their turn last. They were asked many questions on what they had read so far and what they could remember. The teacher revised the story with them and then she read to them line-by-line and they repeated it.

Small groups of learners were given a chance to choose their own books from the collection in the classroom to read on their own while the other learners were busy doing class exercises. These small groups took turns to sit on the carpet in front and read to the teacher. The teacher said that they alternate between reading in the Home Language and the Second Language (English) each being attended to every second day; otherwise, they do not have time to cover everything that CAPS⁶ requires.

In the other Grade 3 class of School A, language revision of Grade 2 work was given more emphasis. They did degrees of comparison, parts of speech and antonyms. The reason for this emphasis was to consolidate the previous work. It is the opinion of educator E1a⁷ that CAPS is too fast paced and that they try to revise as much as possible of work done previously so that the learners have a better grasp of any new work. The learners functioned within their reading groups when doing revision exercises because they too are grouped according to their demonstrated level of reading. In their groups they first looked at flash cards of words from the story and then they read, repeated and recited them together. They also practised dividing these words into syllables by clapping. The class played Bingo with antonyms as another activity. In their groups they revised the story before reading individually to the teacher.

Both schools had various educational posters on the walls based on themes like the different body parts, multiplication tables etc. They started every morning reading from the Bible and singing a few songs. The readiness with which the learners participated in these activities shows that they do this every morning, and did not just do it while being observed. During the Home Language slot on the timetable they used the “Grootboek” (Big book) series of big storybooks. The teacher read the story to them and they repeated it, reading after her. This was done as a group reading exercise interspersed with individual reading. The learners from both School A and B were asked questions on what they had read and were tested on spelling from the readings after the reading exercise. They also checked their homework of the previous day while sitting in their group. They marked their own work, but when they were busy doing homework at their desks the teacher checked it herself. Discipline problems (such as overpopulated classrooms and restless and talkative individuals) in School B made small reading groups more difficult.

⁶ See Glossary and section 2.4.4

⁷ The educators were each assigned a code in order to protect their anonymity.

On the second day of my initial observation the class revised ‘diphthongs’ and long vowels such as “ei” in “leier” (leader), “ou” in “hout” (wood), “oe” in “moeder” (mother) that they should have learned in Grade 2 and earlier that year in Grade 3. They also were given a class exercise in which they had to rewrite sentences from the board. The sentences contained several spelling and punctuation mistakes, which the learners were expected to correct. After that, they had to write a story about the book that they were busy reading.

2.4.2 Home-based literacy practices

A questionnaire (see Addendum E) was distributed to the learners at the end of the first term of data collection in an attempt to learn more about their home-based literacy practices as well as to get feedback about the little books they had written. When asked whether they liked reading, most of the learners from both schools answered in the affirmative. The questions posed in the questionnaire focused on whether learners are used to story-telling and reading of stories at home. The questions also tried to determine how much reading material they are exposed to (newspapers, magazines and books) and how many of them are able to visit a library. Very few of them reported access to libraries. School B has a visit from the District Municipality Mobile Library once a month, but very few of the learners had library access on the farms where they stay. Only 13 out of 50 learners in School A had a library close to where they live; 11 of these were members of that library. In School B only 15 out of 38 learners who answered the questionnaire had a library close to home; 13 of these 15 learners were a member of that library. The main newspaper read at home is “Son”, and the two main magazines are “Kurier” and “Die Huisgenoot”, all of which are published by Media24. “Son” is a hugely popular Afrikaans tabloid newspaper published in the Western Cape and Eastern Cape.⁸ “Huisgenoot” is the most read Afrikaans magazine with over 2 million readers⁹ and “Kurier” is a bi-weekly magazine mainly aimed at Afrikaans speaking, coloured women focusing on giving advice on all aspects of everyday life.¹⁰ One learner even said that his aunt keeps their newspapers at her house.

Teacher E1a said that some of the Grade 3 learners were still at Grade R and Grade 1 level. She added that because of this lack of literacy resources and lack of parents’ literacy, there is an added burden on the teachers to teach learners how to read and interact with different kinds of media like

⁸ For more information go to: <http://www.media24.com/newspapers/son/>

⁹ For more information go to: <http://www.media24.com/magazines/huisgenoot/>

¹⁰ For more information go to: <http://www.media24.com/magazines/kuier/>

magazines and newspapers, and different genres such as printed news, cartoons, longer features as opposed to news clips, etc.

One of the reading related difficulties that learners present, according to their teachers, is to think of and relate events in hypothetical terms. One teacher in School A described a situation in which she had given her learners a topic “As ek ’n voëltjie was...” (If I were a bird...). She explained how the learners could not imagine or talk about what birds would do and that she had to guide them quite closely while they were writing. School B’s teacher reported the same problem with her learners, finding it difficult to get imaginary responses from them when they were confronted with an unknown topic. She described the literacy profile of the group, adding that they like reading stories, but that they struggle with writing.

2.4.3 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

Although this study did not set out to evaluate CAPS it is necessary to discuss it as a backbone document for the existing literacy practices being promoted in schools. This section will be devoted only to the document on Afrikaans Home Language as it is the language of the participants in question. It will not be compared to previous policy documents because such a comparison is not part of this study. However, a brief historical overview of the post-1994 educational system is necessary in order to understand the current situation.

The elections of 1994 introduced wide spread changes all over South Africa, especially in the educational sector. The year of 1998 saw the introduction of Outcomes Based Education (Lombard & Grosser, 2008). Six years later in 2005 OBE was replaced by Curriculum 2005 (C2005). This policy was replaced by the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (NCS) and the NCS was followed by a revised version known as the Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (RNCS). As of 2012 CAPS is the new curriculum policy and as such provides the backdrop to academic expectations for learners currently in the school system.

The rest of the section is devoted to CAPS and the components relevant to this study. Following is a brief description of the four language skills and the time allotted to each of these skills, followed by a brief overview of the sub skills required to master them. These skills in particular were used as a reference during data analysis in order to give a more nuanced understanding of the learners’ language skills used for writing their stories.

It is important to understand that this overview in no way aims to comment on the effectiveness of the document, but that it is an attempt to shed some light on the skills expected of learners. In knowing what the educational system expects of learners and how these expectations manifest in practical life in and out of school will hopefully give educators and policy developers a better idea of how to dovetail learners' funds of knowledge (Moll, Amanti, Neff & Gonzalez, 1992: 132) with what they are expected to do in class. The overview below is a summary of the CAPS document (Department of Basic Education (b), 2011).

According to CAPS learners must have 7-8 hours of teaching time for Home Language (in this case Afrikaans) and 3-4 hours for First Additional Language (in this case English) per week. Within this time the following skills: 1) Listening and Speaking, 2) Reading and Phonics and 3) Writing and handwriting are fostered. Table 2.3 shows the specific time allotted to each skill according to the maximum time of 8 hours per week (Department of Basic Education (b), 2011: 10):

Table 2.3 Time allocations for Grade 3 Home Language

Skills	Time allocation	Total hours per week
Listening and Speaking	15 minutes per day for 4 days	1
Reading and Phonics	Phonics: 15 min/day for 5 days	5
	Shared reading/ writing: 15 min/day for 5 days	
	Group reading: 30 min/ day (2 groups per day) for 5 days	
Handwriting	15 min/day for 4 days	1
Writing	20 min/day for 3 days	1
	Total per week	8

For Listening and Speaking teachers are encouraged to start every day with a whole class oral session in which they talk about the day ahead, special events etc. Shared and group reading refer to whole class reading activities and small group reading activities, respectively. For shared reading teachers focus on one of the following elements: print and textual concepts, text features, phonics and language patterns and word identification strategies. For these activities they use "Grootboeke" (Big Books) described in section 2.4.1. Shared reading should support shared writing as far as possible. Shared writing takes place when learners work together as a class to produce a text and

the teacher takes on a supporting role as facilitator. Group reading should be more focused with groups being between 6 and 10 learners. The teacher should compile these groups according to the ability of the learner to read fluently and with feeling without ‘finger-reading’¹¹. According to CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011: 15-16) there are five concepts of reading instruction:

- * Phonemic awareness
- * Word recognition (sight words and sounds)
- * Comprehension
- * Vocabulary
- * Fluency (determined by accuracy, reading speed, phrasing and comprehension)

To foster these skills learners engage in activities focusing on 1) *rhyming* such as finding words that rhyme with “cat”, 2) *word syllables* such as clapping the syllables of their names, 3) phonemic awareness such as the sounding of words and also breaking up and joining letters to form new words. These activities and skills will be discussed in more detail within the context of the collected data in Chapter 5.

Phonics and Handwriting have to support each other since the sounding of letters and the forming of letters go hand-in-hand and interestingly learners are, or should be, encouraged to form their own system of spelling while they are learning the correct way. Learners who spell phonetically more correct (for example, “baje” for “baie” and “tanne” for “tande” are more successful in learning standard rules of spelling.

For Writing learners have to be able to plan, edit and present a story of at least two paragraphs or 12 sentences for classmates to read. Also they have to be able to write and illustrate six to eight sentences about a topic in contribution to the class library. Obviously there are more sub skills involved in the writing process such as the ability to write a variety of text genres, to communicate ideas and sentences for class and/or individual stories and punctuate them correctly, but these two sub skills are of specific importance because they form the backbone of the Narrative Enrichment Programme as is explained in Chapter 4.

¹¹ Using the finger as a guide to follow the words on the page as one reads.

All these activities contribute to and support each other and for this study the act of writing is used as a tool to investigate to what degree these learners have mastered these skills and most importantly what skills they have that are not stipulated within the formal policy documents.

2.5 ANA AND SET: BROAD ASSESSMENT OF LITERACY SKILLS

The WCED uses two tests that track the literacy achievements in schools across the country, namely 1) the Annual National Assessments (ANA) and 2) Systemic Evaluation Test (SET).

This first test (ANA) is compiled externally by the National Department of Education, but the teachers of each school administer and mark their learners' tests themselves. The assessments are based on assignments and are completed over an extended period of time during September and October of each year. Grades 1 to 6 and grade 9 learners wrote these tests in 2013. Table 2.4 below gives the Home Language results in percentage of the 2012 and 2013 tests for all Grade 1 to 3 learners across the nation. As is visible from these results, Grades 1 and 2 improved with 2% each from 2012, but there was a national drop in Home Language achievement of 1% across the nation for Grade 3. These differences between 2012 and 2013 results nationally are, given the numbers of participants, not significant. Also not statistically significant, but from a particular perspective telling, is the gradual drop in performance from Grade 1 through to Grade 3.

Table 2.4 National ANA results for 2012 and 2013

Grade	Home Language 2012	Home language 2013
1	58	60
2	55	57
3	52	51

In order to get a more meaningful view of the results schools are also provided with a tailor-made report in comparison to the national average as well as the district averages and circuit averages. The results are summarised below in Table 2.5

Table 2.5 ANA results for schools in comparison to national and provincial achievements

	2011 (Literacy)	2012 (Language)	2013 (Language)	Afrikaans HL
National	35	52	50.8	
WCED	43	57.1	49.9	48.75
Circuit				53.63
School A				58.24
School B				66.37

In 2013 the Grade 3 results achieved in these tests for Afrikaans Home Language in School A delivered a pass rate of 58.24% and School B delivered a pass rate of 66.37%. The Circuit average in the same tests of the same year was 53.63%. Thus the Grade 3s of both schools scored higher than other schools in the circuit; they also performed much higher than the Western Cape overall where the average was 48.75% as School A's result was 10% higher and School B's result was 18% higher.

The Systemic Evaluation Tests (SET)¹² is a provincial diagnostic test (Western Cape Education Department(c): 2014) compiled by The Western Cape Education Department for the Western Cape schools. Departmental officials from outside the school administer the tests and no teacher is allowed to even see the test. They test language abilities as well as mathematical abilities. A summary of the results are mailed to the school by the Department.

Table 2.6 below gives a summary of the Grade 3 pass rate percentages in the SET for Schools A and B as well as the Grade 3 average percentage achieved in each school. It also gives the circuit pass rate and national pass rate for 2011-2013. Because these tests are only written in the Western Cape there are no national results against which to read the local outcomes.

Table 2.6. Summary of Grade 3 Systemic Evaluation in School A and School B 2013

	School A			School B		
	2011	2012	2013	2011	2012	2013
Pass rate percentage of school	17.5	31.9	29.2	22.2	60.0	77.5
Average percentage of school	31.2	37.0	38.1	30.7	56.8	58.4

¹² SET is not an official acronym for Systemic Evaluation Test, but will be used in this section for ease of reference.

Circuit pass rate	28.2	37.7	37.0	28.2	37.7	38.1
Circuit average	37.8	42.7	43.1	37.8	42.7	43.1
Provincial pass rate	30.4	38.9	37	30.4	38.9	37

In 2012 and 2013 School B achieved a SET pass rate well above the pass rate of School A and the circuit. The statistics in Table 2.6 also show a considerable rise in literacy and language achievement from 2011 to 2012 and 2013. School A's record shows more fluctuation with a low 17.5% pass rate in 2011 compared to the circuit pass rate of 28.2% in the same year. In 2012 and 2013, in spite of the overall improvement, they still performed below the pass rate of the circuit.

Within School A the achievements of the two Grade 3 classes are given separately, as shown in Table 2.7. The pass rates for the SET shows that Grade 3A did consistently better than Grade 3B with 25.9% vs. 10.0% in 2011, 36.0% vs 27.3% in 2012 and 32.0% vs 26.1% in 2013.

Table 2.7 Comparison of School A Grade 3A and 3B SET results

	2011	2012	2013
Grade 3A	25.9	36.0	32.0
Grade 3B	10.0	27.3	26.1

The SET results for 2013 are given not only per School and per Grade, but also in broad strokes, according to 8 categories (as given in Table 2.8 below) so that there is some indication to schools of how the performance of individual learners is distributed.

Table 2.8. Scores per category for 2013 (Learners calculated in percentage)

Categories	0-19%	20-29%	30-39%	40-49%	50-59%	60-69%	70-79%	80-100%
School A (%)	14.6	27.1	20.8	8.3	18.8	2.1	8.3	
School B (%)	5.0	5.0	7.5	5.0	17.5	37.5	17.5	5.0

As can be seen in Table 2.8 the largest groups of learners fall in the 20-29% (27.1% of the Grade 3s) and 30-39% (20.8% of the Grade 3s) categories in School A, and in the 60-69% category (37.5% of the Grade 3s) in School B.

Both tests show that the larger cohort of learners within South Africa does not perform on the level that can reasonably be expected of them. Even though the Western Cape performs better than the

other provinces, more learners' achievements still fall into the lower categories instead of the higher ones.

2.6 CONCLUSION

The current study aims to describe the literacy practices and abilities of the learners in the participating schools. The ANA and SET results discussed above serve as one leg of a triangle consisting of three parts: 1) nationally standardised and diagnostic testing as formulated by the National and Western Cape Education Department (ANA and SETs), 2) The literacy expectations as delineated in CAPS and 3) The actual day to day manifestation and implementation of these results and expectations in the classrooms on grassroots level. By triangulating these three aspects, the researcher aims to provide not only insight on how these learners actually practise their literacy, but also how current literacy expectations and tests relate to the learners they aim to test and how to bridge any gaps that might occur from discrepancies between the two.

These results and observations serve as a basis on which to build an overview of the effects of literacy practices on the development of skills in each of these schools. The information given in this chapter served as a guide to collecting literature relevant to this study which is given in the review in the next chapter. Particulars of the educational and literacy context of the participants in the study will also be discussed in more detail when an overview of the data is given in Chapter 5.

Chapter 3: Literature Review

3.1 INTRODUCTION

South Africa is a multilingual country with eleven official languages. Not only is the country multilingual in terms of official languages, but also in terms of varieties of each of these languages. In recent years, mother-tongue education has been argued for on many levels as the most beneficial approach to teaching and learning for all learners (Alexander & Busch, 2007). Researchers and teachers both advocate for mother-tongue in education¹³ in order for learners to have a stronger linguistic and cognitive framework in which to incorporate the masses of new knowledge that they receive when starting school. The concern regarding which language to use in education is in part, and justifiably, rooted in the poor literacy statistics of South Africa. The Annual National Assessment Report of 2013, which was also the year in which data was collected for the current study, states the following national statistics for Home Language. Home Language here refers to the subject or learning area as delineated in the CAPS document (Department of Basic Education (a), 2011).

Table 3.1 Achievements in 2012 and 2013 of Grades 1-6 and 9 ANAs

Grade	2012	2013
1	58	60
2	55	57
3	52	51
4	43	49
5	40	46
6	43	49
9	43	43

In the year of data collection, namely 2013, Grade 1 was the only group that achieved 60% while the other grades remained within a 43-57 percentage bracket. The Grade 3 group had dropped with 1% in comparison to 2012; no other grade-group improved with more than 6% from one year to the next. To further justify the concern regarding literacy, the next table shows how many of the learners in Grades 3, 6 and 9 achieved more than 50% in the ANA tests that assess their literacy skills in their Home Language.

¹³ Refer to Glossary. The term 'mother-tongue' will be used in this study unless reference is being made to the specific learning area called Home Language, as it is called in CAPS.

Table 3.2 Learners achieving more than 50% for performance in their Home Language

	2012	2013
Grade 3	57	57
Grade 6	36	68
Grade 9	39	33

As can be deduced from these figures, the concern regarding literacy development in South Africa is justified. Mother-tongue education is important when possible solutions to the problem of poor literacy development are sought. A possible reason for unsatisfactory results in literacy assessment could be that there is a multitude of varieties within mother-tongue groups, and that there may be a mismatch between the variety that is assessed and the variety that learners have as their L1. For this specific study we will focus on Afrikaans, even if similar concerns may be raised for L1 speakers of other South African languages.

South Africa is a rich field with regards to research on the relationship between different varieties of the same language and how that difference influences academic performance. Learners that speak a different variety of mother-tongue than the one prevalent in their schools have to negotiate these differences in order to progress academically. In some cases it is like learning a new language. In the cases of both of the chosen schools, learners and teachers come from the same community and thus have the same variety as their mother-tongue, although (perhaps due to the impact of their education) the teachers' language use approaches a more standard variety. What is defined as 'academic literacy' mainly refers to the written word, so that teachers try to use forms that they come across in the textbooks; this is also the form learners are taught to write when answering questions.

The primary interest of this study is in the linguistic resources that the learners, as speakers of a non-standard variety of Afrikaans, have and develop when entering and integrating into the formal education system. They enter a sphere of predetermined expectations as is stipulated in the curriculum document CAPS, and they are assessed annually by means of standardised tests; nevertheless, the language forms these learners use, also in everyday classroom communication, may be different to those captured in CAPS. The nature of such a possible mismatch needs to be understood for the impact it may have on how literacy skills are (or are not) satisfactorily developed.

The most prominent concepts to be discussed in this chapter are 'language awareness' and 'linguistic literacy'. Important themes to be addressed will be those of 'language and identity' and

'home literacy practices vs. school literacy expectations'. The relatedness of 'language awareness' and 'linguistic literacy' will be explained. 'Linguistic literacy' here refers to the ability of learners to "preserve their own dialectal or sociolectal identity, while also learning to participate in school-based activities in the standard language [or variety]" (Ravid & Tolchinsky, 2002: 422) or in this case the academic texts they encounter in school. This linguistic literacy can only be developed to its fullest extent when learners and teachers alike learn to capitalize on the linguistic resources already available to the learners.

The first part of the Narrative Enrichment Programme developed for this study (see aims set out in section 1.3.1) started with reading and writing exercises designated as "little books", in which learners were introduced to books and stories not part of the standard curriculum and then encouraged to write their own "little books". Underpinning this enrichment programme, is the work of researchers in Austria and Finland who developed practices of writing "little books" in addressing specific kinds of concerns within schools in their home countries. These practices were aimed at aspects of literacy development of learners who, for various reasons, needed more support than the standard programmes offered them. The second part of the Narrative Enrichment Programme entailed the use of picture sequencing activities by means of picture cards. These exercises were done with selected small groups to address the problem areas identified while doing the little books exercises.

The "little books" projects to which this study refers were developed on the basis of educational theories which I will briefly discuss. These theories are ones of active learning, dialogic approaches and sociocultural approaches to language and literacy. The works of Célestin Freinet of the 1930s (reprinted in 1979), Lev Vygotsky of the 1920s-1930s, (reprinted in 1976) and Mikhail Bakhtin of the 1930s-1940s (reprinted in 1975) will be foregrounded because of the great influence their work has had on how the little books have been used in practice and interpreted in research.

The key concepts of 'language awareness' and 'linguistic literacy' will be discussed next. I will also discuss an observed discrepancy between home literacy practices and school literacy expectations, followed by a summary of two models that seem to be at the heart of any discussion on language awareness or literacy development, namely the Autonomous Model and Ideological Model. In addition, I will also pay attention to literacy development and literacy in its written form, as it is the foundation of the little books that were used as a tool for investigation. I will conclude with a

historic overview of the “Little Books” project, its origins and its use in research, and briefly discuss the smaller group exercises.

3.2 THEORIES OF LANGUAGE, LITERACY AND LEARNING

3.2.1 Democratic teaching and active learning

The original “little books” project as created by Christian Schreger is based on Célestin Freinet’s theory of democratic teaching and focused on the principle of active learning. Freinet came to dislike the traditional rote learning system of the 1920s school context arguing that much of what learners were taught went directly against how they intuitively thought about real life problems (Temple and Rodero, 1995: 164). Freinet advocated for a system that would bridge the gap between knowledge and real world problems.

Temple and Rodero (1995) discuss four of Freinet’s pedagogical invariants. These are: 1) Respect for the child’s integrity, 2) Bringing real life into the curriculum, 3) Motivation through meaningful work and 4) Freedom from coercion. Looking at how Schreger organised the little books, it is clear that these four invariants lie at the core of this project.

Schreger, like Freinet, trusted the learners to choose their own topics and interests for learning and writing. “A child is like a tree not finished growing, but it nourishes itself, grows, and defends itself exactly like an adult tree” (Temple and Rodero, 1995: 165). Freinet emphasises that their choices may not be the best, but in terms of motivation the child would want to learn, because he had the freedom to choose.

For the best range of choices, it is absolutely necessary that children can see the links between what they learn in class and what they experience outside in their everyday lives. “Students bring with them an abundance of experience that is raw material for hands-on learning. The most important realm of knowledge is the world outside of the school” (Temple and Rodero, 1995: 165). In the M2 (Multigrade 2) class children could not only direct their own learning by writing their own books, they also had to use their personal knowledge of the world in deciding on topics and they also had free range in using their own language, thus validating what they already know as a useful tool in gaining knowledge about the yet unknown. In sharing with other learners, the child’s interest is not only validated but expanded, because they each feel like a worthy contributor to the learning environment. Freinet and Schreger both emphasise the importance of experience in addition to

observation, explanation and demonstration. The learners have to make their own books and not be shown how to do it over and over.

If learners feel that their efforts and choices are respected, they also feel a motivation to learn. If a learner is interested in what he or she is learning, there is no need to “sugar-coat” learning with “fun” as is done in the traditional school system (Temple and Rodero, 1995: 165). However, Freinet did state that the curriculum requirements cannot be disregarded completely, but should be plied so learners could have a choice. Schreger used this principle to the maximum by still covering the curriculum, but also allowing learners to write their stories in between.

Freedom from coercion simply refers to the child being able to choose his own learning and the teacher being the facilitator. He also impressed the importance of order and rules in which these choices are made. Without rules, democracy becomes chaos. Schreger never forced any learners to write any books they did not want to write, nor did he force them to hand in redrafts of stories if they did not want to.

Active learning is the key to the Freinetian theory of learning. This theory can be used when looking at the learners’ community interactions and the difference of language uses at school and home. The project reported in this dissertation focused strongly on investigating how actively learners are able to produce these booklets, but time was also a negative factor.

3.2.2 Sociocultural approaches

Vygotsky made several important contributions to the field of psychology as well as language. Three of them were his introduction of the concepts of ‘dialogism’, ‘interpsychological and intrapsychological functioning’ and most importantly the ‘zone of proximal development’ (Daniels, 2005). His concept of ‘dialogism’ has many points of convergence with the ideas of Bakhtin, who will be discussed in the next section.

Vygotsky considered dialogue to be the “concrete, psychological equivalent of the social nature of the mind, i.e., the totality of the social relations constituting the human essence” (Ball and Freedman, 2004: 126). He described the whole process of dialogue and subsequent culture that people develop as one that goes hand in hand with intra- and interpsychological functioning. These concepts refer to the internal dialogue that people have (intra) in their own minds and the external dialogue they have with others (inter). He is referring to the way in which people place themselves in the world and then relate to others around them. This “placing” occurs mostly through language,

either unspoken in thoughts or spoken/written in dialogue. Without this dialogue there can be very little sense of personal identity since all spheres of life are contained within the bounds of language.

For the current study this concept of 'dialogism' has bearing on the way in which the learners interact with their school environment, how or whether their home literacy practices are expressed within the school environment and how the two interact with one another. Learners' identities are integral to their way of using language and learning literacy. The little books may then serve as a bridge between thoughts and spoken words, between home literacy practices and school language expectations.

The zone of proximal development (ZPD) in Vygotsky's own words is "the distance between a child's actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and their higher level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers" (Daniels, 2005: 5). This means that there is a difference between how much learning learners can manage on their own and how much learning they can manage under the guidance of a teacher or a classmate who is at a higher level. The ZPD is therefore the mental space in which the child's own intrapsychological functioning meets his interpsychological functioning when communicating with the teacher and how the one helps the other to cover the zone in order to reach the potential developmental stage.

For the current study the ZPD is important because this is essentially the area in which the researcher is interested. The learners were invited to write stories. They had no restrictions as to the choice of topic and they were not stopped from asking help of classmates or the teacher and researcher. Learners thus had ample time and opportunity to draw on their intra- and interpsychological dialogues. They had to go through a process of choosing a topic, which involved a good deal of internal dialogue. In asking for help and listening to the teacher's instruction, they used intermental dialogue (the dialogue that takes place between the teacher, what she is explaining, and the student, how he is making sense of it. It is within this zone of proximal development that some language awareness manifests as the product of the little book that was being created.

Another valuable idea that Vygotsky proposed is that the meanings of words are not "static", but that they change in the course of the child's development (Miller, 2011: 181). They can change as the child develops his language capacity. At its most basic level this statement refers to the level of comprehension that a learner has of the words he comes into contact with in daily life. This comprehension can and should be fostered by reading and writing and other language-based

activities. The more children learn about words, the better they understand them. The more they understand the words the better they can use them and the richer the semantic depth becomes. But this idea also has bearing on the study in that learners with non-standard varieties as L1 are exposed to the standard variety. If speakers can manage how word meanings expand and change over time, then learners should be able to manage new dialects as part of the semantic change of words they already know. Where one idea can be expressed in both non-standard and standard language terms it can be taken as synonym expansion.

3.2.3 Dialogic approaches

“Language is a powerful mediator of learning. It is the dominant medium through which communication occurs, and it provides humans with symbolic resources through which to manipulate ideas and solve problems” (Lee, 1994: 129). It is with these words in mind that I now discuss Mikhail Bakhtin’s 1940s contribution to the field of language and psychology. He postulated four main concepts in his development of analytic theories, namely 1) ‘heteroglossia’, 2) ‘dialogism’, 3) ‘social language’ and 4) ‘authoritative discourse’ (Landay, 1994: 108). Bakhtin’s theories span a wide range of study fields, but for this current study, only the terms dialogism and heteroglossia will be discussed.

It is most important to understand that Bakhtin ascribes to a worldview that language, literacy and making sense of it is always a dialogical process, and that developing understanding is a dialogue between the self and the world (Morris, 1994: 11). The term ‘heteroglossia’¹⁴ was introduced by Bakhtin with a very specific meaning. He describes ‘heteroglossia’ as a way in which to view the world through language. Within a multilingual or multi-dialectal situation each participant’s language is the basis for a viewpoint of the world (Morris, 1994: 15-16). The speaker or writer, even in a monolingual community, has to navigate the heteroglossic environment¹⁵ to maintain mutual understanding within themselves and between any other participants in any linguistic activity (Morris, 1994: 75).

Ivanov (2000: 100) describes Bakhtin’s notion of ‘heteroglossia’ as “the simultaneous use of different kinds of speech or other signs, the tension between them, and their conflicting relationship within one text.” From the Bakhtinian perspective this means the differences that occur within one language are manifested in different ways and that these social uses of language cause tension. In

¹⁴ See ‘heteroglossia’ in Glossary.

¹⁵ See ‘heteroglossic environment’ in Glossary

the classroom that is obvious when one considers the difference between the home variety of learners and the school variety which they are expected to learn and according to which they are assessed. To better understand the possible conflict between two dialects it is necessary to refer to the work of Ball and Freedman (2004).

Looking at it from a wider angle, Ball and Freedman (2004: 3) discuss the “massive and global movements of people”. These global movements are caused by socially and politically driven religious and ethnic conflicts as a result of which much of the global population is divided in various ways. The divisions are mostly caused by differences in ideologies of communities and individuals. ‘Ideology’ refers to “[t]he body of ideas reflecting the social needs and aspirations of an individual, group, class, or culture” (Ball & Freedman, 2004: 4). Bakhtinian theory relies more on this explanation in its conceptualisation of ideology than a more politically charged definition.

Ball and Freedman (2004) state that in the field of language research researchers have looked at what happens when displaced and diverse people come together and how they navigate communication. Language use in general and the literate abilities that come with it “provide ways for people to establish a social place and ways for others to judge them (Ball & Freedman, 2004: 5). This statement is important in any classroom context, but especially those in which learners do not speak the standard dialect or language. Their work admittedly focuses on a larger scale of language difference and displacement than that of the two classrooms in a monolingual Afrikaans environment. Nonetheless, on a micro scale the same sort of displacement can be experienced by Afrikaans learners when they are confronted with classroom practices and academic expectations which include familiarity with prescribed registers. This is especially likely if that register carries with it a different ideology to the one that learners get at home and in the community outside of school:

Students make conscious and unconscious decisions about how much to identify with and acquire school language and school ways: they come to school with ways of talking that mark them as members of a particular socioeconomic class, and they decide whether to move away from those ways: they decide what to read and write and whether they care most about pleasing the teacher or their peers or both or neither (Freedman & Ball, 2004: 5).

Language is an inextricable part of identity because it is mainly through language that we express ourselves and foster our identities (Bolitho, Carter, Hughes *et al.*, 2003; Ioannidou, 2009 and Ravid and Tolchinsky, 2002). Also, there appears to be a strong connection between educational culture, language and identity (Clots-Figueras and Masella, 2013; Ioannidou, 2009; Ravid and Tolchinsky, 2002). In the current study these connections between linguistic identity, social interaction and

educational progress are an issue. The learners in rural schools are confronted with a standardised dialect formerly unknown or little known to them when they enter the classroom situation. What teachers and curriculum advisors expect of learners is limitedly transferred if the learners themselves do not make the choice to identify with and acquire the 'school language'¹⁶. In this regard, the Narrative Enrichment Programme developed for use in this study, intended to make learners more aware of language variety without devaluing the dialect they have as the local variety. Ball and Freedman also state that "[t]he role of the other is critical to our development: in essence, the more choice we have of words to assimilate, the more opportunity we have to learn. In a Bakhtinian sense, with whom, in what ways, and in what contexts we interact will determine what we stand to learn" (2004: 6).

The works of Freinet, Vygotsky and Bakhtin triangulate into an understanding that learners first need to be actively involved in making choices about what and how they learn before they will actually start to absorb and integrate new knowledge. Then, in a quite orderly manner, learners can be guided in their learning by bridging the gap between what they can do and what they could be doing with the proper support. An important principle emphasised by these theorists, is the recognition that language is not static, but dynamic in the richness it acquires as the child develops (Miller, 2011). Language is inherently the carrier of their identities and non-standard forms should therefore never be devalued in favour of some academic standard; rather, the home language of learners should be harnessed to expand their identity and learning through actively involving them in the process.

3.2.4 Narrative approaches

The current study was dependent on a newly developed enrichment programme which had first a narrative leg in which the data came from little books (narratives) written by the learners, and second a conversational leg in which the data came from engaging learners in sequencing and matching activities that required them to interpret visual narratives and give occasional oral feedback about their choices.

To interpret the data, the fields of Narrative Analysis and Conversation Analysis are of importance. The field of Narrative Analysis (NA) as pioneered by Labov and Waletzky (1997) in 1967 provides most of the foundation on which the narrative program is based. Conversation Analysis (CA), as

¹⁶ 'School language' here refers not only to the LoLT, but also to registers typically associated with formal academic literacy.

discussed early on by Levinson (1989, 2000) and much later by De Fina, Schiffrin and Bamberg (2006) and De Fina and Georgakopoulou (2008), provides more flexibility and leeway in how the theory of Narrative Analysis is applied.

In their seminal work of 1967 Labov and Waletzky, (republished in 1997) describe the features of spoken narratives by way of temporal organisation. Their work focused on oral texts, but a broader audience of researchers showed interest in their work so that the field of NA developed beyond spoken narrative only. Currently NA is used widely in fields beyond Linguistic analysis (See Riessman, 2004; Pavlenko, 2008). The following list describes the features of narrative discussed by Labov and Waletzky (1997).

- * Orientation: A narrative usually, but not always, begins with a section in which the reader/listener is oriented according to time, place, circumstance and people (Labov & Waletzky, 1997: 27).
- * Complication: A series of complicating actions and events that form the bulk of the narrative.
- * Evaluation: The evaluation is the break between the complication and the resolution of the narrative, a point at which the narrator provides some sense to the events that took place. It is making sense of everything that happened and the realisation of how things tie together.
- * Resolution: The resolution is the tying together of events of the narrative after the narrator has evaluated them. It gives some direction as to how to move forward, or what the effects of the events were as seen after the evaluation.
- * Coda: It is a feature of narratives in which the narrator can refer to the events of the narration from a point in the future. In a way it brings the reader and narrator both back to some point in the present, after the events of the narration have taken place. It helps the reader to understand how the narrator has moved forward after he has evaluated the events of the narrative (Labov and Waletzky, 1997: 35).

These features were originally mapped out in the analysis of oral narratives in which the narrators themselves were often characters in their own stories. The influence of this early work was so fundamental that the features Labov *et al* (1997) identified have been applied to many other types of narrative, spoken and written. As such, these features form an integral part of how the study was

approached and the perspective from which the data was analysed. For several reasons discussed below, features of both NA and CA were appropriated for the study at hand.

De Fina and Georgakopoulou (2008: 380) point out that not all narratives are highly organized in that they contain events deemed “highly tellable”. As Georgakopoulou (2006: 130) emphasises, there are “a gamut of under-represented narrative activities, such as tellings of ongoing events, future or hypothetical events, shared (known) events, but also allusions to tellings, deferrals of tellings, and refusals to tell”. De Fina and Georgakopoulou (2008: 381) reiterate that the main premise of CA is the fact that spoken narratives are not self-contained unified, meaningful entities and they are invariably situated in a social context, “shaped by previous talk and action”.

This study, from the outset, was not intended as a therapeutic study with a “corrective” function, but rather an investigative one with the intention of shedding light on a particular literacy situation. The study does however question how learners, who struggle in standardised literacy tests, can bridge the gap between their non-mainstream variety of Afrikaans and the standard¹⁷ Afrikaans that is taught and, more to the point, expected of them in school. For this reason, in attempting to address the “bridging” function of an enrichment programme, it is important not to lose sight of foundational approaches such as Labov and Waletzky (1997) put forth. One should nevertheless also endeavour to discover the less structured and haphazard nature of seemingly “untellable” tales which De Fina and Georgakopoulou (2008) describe.

One may ask then, what is the common function of narratives if they are not all well-ordered or especially noteworthy. In an attempt to connect the *how* of narrative analysis described by Labov and Waletzky (1997) and the *what* in terms of the broader range of material included in narratives and described by De Fina and Georgakopoulou (2008), Grice’s principles of conversational implicature may serve as a safe and steady middle ground.

¹⁷ Refer to the Glossary for an explanation of the terms ‘non-mainstream’ and ‘standard’ and the reason for using such controversial terms.

Grice's Conversational Principle, as discussed in Levinson (1989, 2000) is based on his postulating four maxims, namely:

- * the maxim of Quality: making one's contribution as true as possible,
- * the maxim of Quantity: making one's contribution as informative as possible without being too informative,
- * the maxim of Relevance: making one's contribution as relevant and appropriate to the situation as possible, and
- * the maxim of Manner: making one's contribution as unambiguous, orderly and brief as possible.

When applied to a narrative, such as the ones written for the purpose of this study, some of these maxims may be somewhat adapted, for instance, in telling a fictional story one does not necessarily have to be truthful, so quality would then refer to credibility within the framework of the story. The maxim of manner may also be understood as making one's contribution as cohesive and coherent¹⁸ as possible. It is understood that coherence and cohesion refer to those qualities of a text or utterance that bind it together as a comprehensible whole and ties in with the context in which the text or listener is experiencing it (Blum-Kulka, 1986).

Sperber and Wilson (1981) contradicted Grice by proposing that conversation is built rather on utterance-interpretation than utterance-comprehension, thus allowing for shades of interpretation: "comprehension shades off imperceptibly into a wider process of utterance-interpretation, in which responsibility for a particular conclusion sometimes falls wholly on the speaker, sometimes falls wholly on the hearer, and in many cases is shared in some proportion by both" (Sperber and Wilson, 1981: 283).

Together with changing the goal of Grice's Maxims to comprehension rather than interpretation, they also state that the Maxim of Relevance is most important, in that it becomes the primary tool with which speakers interpret utterances as relevant or not, and thus comprehensible or not. "The Principle of Relevance plays a unique role in the interpretation of utterances by providing a shared criterion against which possible interpretations can be tested (Sperber and Wilson, 1981: 248).

¹⁸ See glossary for definitions of coherence and cohesion.

The basis of their work thus propagates that participants in the communication process, be it written or spoken, have an underlying understanding that relevance is the key by which their messages will be understood. Most of the time these utterance-interpretations are shared and therefore lead to successful conversation, or communication, but other times not. It is within these more opaque shades of utterance interpretation that participants in communication have to learn about each other's points of reference and what informs their principles of relevance. For the current study this means that learners have fully functional communication within the home environment, but that their literacy practices may differ from that which is expected at school and thus learners and teachers may not reach a mutually manifested relevance (Sperber and Wilson, 1981). The theoretical approach to interpreting the narratives learners gave first in "little books" and afterwards in narrating verbally the stories they made in response to the stimulus of sequenced picture cards, is a triangulation of 1) the features of narrative analysis, 2) Grice's conversational principles and 3) the concepts of coherence and cohesion as they are introduced by Cook (1989) and Sperber and Wilson (1995). The point of entry for analysing written and spoken narratives ("small stories") produced by the learners who participated in the Narrative Enrichment Programme, thus was to investigate the level of coherence and cohesion that was already present in the learners' written stories, while keeping the "tellability" of a story open-ended and firmly rooted within the social contexts of the learners' everyday lives. Labov and Waletzky's (1997) features of orientation, complication, evaluation, resolution and coda were kept in mind as features that may be part of the developmental goals set in the curriculum and that might still need to be developed among the learners so that they may be more able to apply them in formal educational tasks as they progress through the school system.

3.3 LANGUAGE AWARENESS

Language Awareness (LA) is a very rich study field which will not be covered in depth in this particular study. The focal concepts that will be explained in this section are 'language awareness', 'metalinguistic awareness' and 'linguistic literacy'. It is granted that these terms do sound like synonyms and in some case are used interchangeably, but they in fact help determine the finer nuances of a broader notion of 'language awareness' as it is utilised in different contexts.

3.3.1 Definition of the term

Language Awareness (LA) is “a mental attitude” of a speaker who is able specifically and consciously to pay attention to how languages work on an abstract and meta-cognitive level. A person who has an interest in gaining a deeper understanding of what is often described as “unconscious knowledge” of the language(s) s/he uses, is said to have well-developed “language awareness” (Bolitho, Carter, Hughes, Ivanic, Masuhara & Tomlinson, 2003: 251). This awareness of rules and conventions of language use does not only refer to a speaker’s own L1, but also to other (second and foreign) languages s/he may know. Also stated by Bolitho *et al* (2003: 252), the LA approach to teaching and education came about as a reaction against “top-down transmission of language knowledge”. This reaction is connected to the Autonomous Model of Street (2003) described in section 3.6.1, in that the top-down method of teaching functions on the assumption that language can be transmitted like a neat package. However, cognitive or intellectual knowledge of language (meta-language skills) cannot be separated from the practical uses of language. Knowing a language does not mean one can use it effectively in every possible context. The field of Critical Language Awareness (CLA) (2003: 252) describes the need for learners to be guided towards knowledge of language within the social contexts they encounter. This focus on the social and pragmatic knowledge feeds into the Ideological model of literacy and the New Literacy Studies described in section 3.7.2, which states that literacy is learned through social contexts and not in isolation of those contexts.

James and Garrett (1991) divide language awareness into five domains that attend to the following five broad aspects: 1) affective, 2) social, 3) power, 4) cognitive and 5) performance. Their work emphasises the premise of the Ideological Model of literacy, namely that to read, write and manipulate language is not a neutral, skills-based ability alone, but very much an ability on which all social and cognitive functions depend. In terms of fostering language awareness of the kind in which this study is interested, an inductive approach has to be used (Bolitho *et al*, 2003: 254). Language awareness, like grammar skills and spelling, can be stimulated and nurtured, but as well as being taught it has to be discovered by the learners themselves. The teacher in this case has to maintain a role of facilitator and guide. It is exactly this role of facilitator that the researcher and teacher took on during data collection. In doing the little books exercises with intentionally little instruction, it was possible to determine the current level of language awareness of the participating students. With a view to future studies, knowledge of current and “naturally developing” language awareness

may be used to determine how further language awareness can be stimulated, also in helping learners to improve their spelling and grammar in line with regular curriculum expectations.

All the above theoretical stances are based in the belief that learners' autonomous skills need to be developed not in isolation, but within the diverse social contexts of the multilingual society of their everyday life. The skills-based approach of the Autonomous Model cannot be ignored; neither can the social contexts of the Ideological Model in which they are used. To achieve acceptable literacy aims, learners need to develop their awareness of formal aspects of language such as traditional grammar, spelling and semantics as well as the uses of these skills in everyday, practical situations.

The Narrative Enrichment Programme used in the current study (of which the history is described in section 3.9 below), lends itself to such an inductive approach specifically because learners have to construct their own narratives and in doing so become appreciative and more aware of their own spoken and written variety as well as other varieties, also the so-called "standard". As the learners wrote down their stories, the researcher and teachers did not prescribe certain ways of spelling and sentence construction. Learners were left to discover these rules on their own terms, also in an attempt not to inhibit them by those prescribed in syllabi and by the teachers. The absence of explicit grammar teaching while writing the little books helps other skills and abilities to come to the foreground. The data collected in this programme was analysed according to what the learners wrote, what their narratives tell us about their language awareness, knowledge of genre and the ability to follow templates. As is stated in the CAPS document, learners who discover conventional spelling patterns of their own accord are more likely to learn and appropriately use the standard version (Department of Basic Education (b), 2011: 16).

3.3.2 Metalinguistic Awareness

Language Awareness such as described above is a mental predisposition which assumes an ability to take a psychological distance from the language a speaker uses. Smith and Tager-Flusberg describe metalinguistic awareness as "...children's ability to reflect on language as an object" (1982: 449) as well as the ability to monitor and correct failures in the communicative process. According to their study children develop instinctive linguistic judgements in the following areas: "speech sound systems and phonology, words, semantic acceptability and syntactic wellformedness" (Smith and Tager-Flusberg, 1982:449). They conducted a study on 3 to 4 year olds in which they tried to determine what kind of linguistic competence these pre-schoolers had. The findings of their study are further described in section 3.8.2 on pre-literacy milestones.

Although their study focuses on learners younger than those used in the Narrative Enrichment Programme of this study, it still has significance for this study because early development of some features of literacy serves as the foundation on which later linguistic successes are built, especially in “the acquisition of written language, the learning of a second language, and the development of social skills in using language” (Smith and Tager-Flusberg, 1982: 450). This description of the value of early developing language skills strengthens the work of James and Garret’s (1991) claim referred to earlier, where they state that language awareness, or in this case metalinguistic awareness, is used to navigate all the aforementioned areas.

In order to understand ‘metalinguistic awareness’ as a concept Smith and Tager-Flusberg (1982) did several studies in which they determined that it can be viewed in two distinct ways. They have two hypotheses in this regard: a) the autonomy hypothesis, and b) the interaction hypothesis.

The autonomy hypothesis holds that there is a “...distinction between the initial acquisition of spoken language and the development of metalinguistic awareness” (Smith and Tager-Flusberg (1982: 450). These processes for the most part develop independently from each other. This hypothesis is based on the idea that learners do not need a metalinguistic awareness during the development of comprehension and production skills. These develop autonomously from an awareness of how language works in articulating, transmitting and interpreting meaning.

The interaction hypothesis on the other hand holds that there is a reciprocal relationship of influence between a child’s production and comprehension skills, his linguistic skills, and metalinguistic awareness. Primary linguistic skills of speaking and understanding, and secondary skills of reading and writing, are influenced by metalinguistic awareness; just as metalinguistic awareness is influenced by production and comprehension skills. This hypothesis, like the autonomy hypothesis, is based on two assumptions, namely 1) that metalinguistic awareness does not only play an important role in later language development, but also has an important part to play in the pre-literacy/preschool phase, and 2) that even pre-schoolers and not only older children give evidence of having mastered some elements of metalinguistic awareness.

The Narrative Enrichment Programme of this study is one that propagates the interaction hypothesis because of the reciprocal relationship between linguistic production and metalinguistic awareness. This interaction and the vital importance of metalinguistic awareness is further explained in the next section on linguistic literacy in which it is refined to describe the more precise social application thereof in specific contexts such as home and school environments.

3.3.3 Linguistic literacy

On Ravid and Tolchinsky's view 'linguistic literacy' is the ability "to recognize and apply precise, context-appropriate linguistic features in speech" (2002: 423). Blattner and Fiori refer to this skill with the term "multiliteracy" (2011:26). Gonglewski and DuBravac's (2006) explanation of 'multiliteracy' situates it more specifically within the multimedia social networking context, but the idea is the same as the one Ravid and Tolchinsky describe.

In their seminal work Ravid and Tolchinsky (2002) discuss the ability of people to be linguistically flexible in the varied situations of daily life. In his book on situated language use, Gee (2008) makes a clear distinction between 'vernacular' varieties and 'specialist' varieties in languages. These varieties do not specifically refer to spoken varieties and written varieties, respectively, but rather facilitate an understanding of different registers conventionally used in different contexts. 'Linguistic literacy' then is the ability that develops as one becomes more aware of how language functions in different kinds of situations. Ravid and Tolchinsky focus on linguistic literacy as a spoken ability, but when taking Gee's work (see section 3.5) on specialist varieties into account, it stands to reason that linguistic literacy is also applicable to written language.

According to Ravid and Tolchinsky (2002: 420) linguistic literacy "develops along with core language abilities and with an increasing ability to think about and analyse domains of language so as to create 'flexible and manipulatable linguistic representations' for metalinguistic reflections."

On one level, one may argue then that all people are linguistically literate because all people think about and analyse domains of language to some extent. It is, however, the degree to which one analyses and uses metalinguistic reflections that makes one linguistically literate.

As Ravid and Tolchinsky describe it, 'linguistic literacy' is an ability shaped by a multi-levelled process. The first step is for the learner to become aware of the differences there are between his/her spoken variety and other spoken varieties, as well as how these translate into writing. The learner has to become aware of the differences between what is known as 'register', 'genre' and 'modality' of speech and writing. Becoming aware of linguistic differences gives rise to the development of linguistic flexibility and adaptability (Ravid and Tolchinsky, 2002). In this step of the process the mere intellectual awareness of linguistic variety has to be transformed into a practice. The learner has to become aware of the contexts in which different linguistic varieties are used and

then start to use them according to conventionalised patterns. This kind of use is not restricted to the spoken sphere, but extends to the written sphere as well.

Learners have to know the difference (e.g.) between the way, and for whom, a newspaper is written versus a status update on Facebook (genre). They have to know the difference in addressing someone during a school debating competition versus discussing the same topic with their friends during a school break (register). Learners also have to know how the modality of spoken as opposed to written language restricts and affects the use and expression of each genre and register.

As stated above, learners' 'linguistic literacy' has to become evident in practice. It is this idea of practice that leads to the next concept up for discussion, namely 'sociopragmatic awareness'. Up to now only the mental attitudes and awareness of languages and its varieties have been discussed. In addition 'sociopragmatic awareness' is a predisposition that serves as the frame within which these terms of 'language awareness', 'meta-linguistic awareness' and 'linguistic literacy' each come into their own as cognitive abilities.

3.3.4 Sociopragmatic Awareness

The study of Blattner and Fiori (2011) revolves around the use of social networks as learning platforms for L2 learners of English to acquire sociopragmatic skills. In other words, Blattner and Fiori are interested in how English L2 learners expand their knowledge and use of register, style of writing and genre to be functional in their L2. Although the study focuses on a participant group of high school learners vastly different from the one of the current study, the idea of sociopragmatics is vital to understanding the success (or limited progress) of learners in any language classroom.

Their study partly relates to Wenger's (1998) concept of 'communities of practice'. He states that learning in a social context is always a "dual process of meaning making" (Wenger, 1998:1). His work here reminds of the foundation of the Ideological Model (Street, 2003) and the Sociocultural theories of Vygotsky (see section 3.3.2). This dual process refers to learners' direct activities of conversations, thoughts, reading, etc. and also the products of such direct interactions as in stories, documents, etc. It is within these "communities of practice, that individuals develop and share the capacity to create and use knowledge in any environment" (Blattner and Fiori, 2011: 25). Their view is that social networks may provide an opportunity for learners to create such a community of practice in which to develop their L2 skills. They observed how successful learners were the ones

whose metalinguistic awareness enabled them to make the necessary language changes “in order to communicate appropriately in a particular medium” (Blattner & Fiori, 2011: 27).

Although the Narrative Enrichment Programme developed for this study does not situate itself within the realm of social media and second language learning, the idea of a social community of practice is still very much applicable because it is within these communities that the larger community values, identity and meaning is situated. The Narrative Enrichment Programme provides exactly such a community of practice in which learners are allowed to co-author stories, read each other’s stories and choose their own topics – drawn from their own life experiences. In interacting with one another learners should pick up appropriate uses and registers for the story genre. In exposing them to the story genre in a social context they should gradually become more aware of the differences between this register and that of academic text books. It is then left to them to intuitively improve the level of their sociopragmatic awareness and linguistic literacy, to make changes that will assist them in communicating effectively in different registers suited to different contexts and tasks.

Parallel with sociopragmatic awareness and linguistic literacy are the awareness of one’s own “linguistic identity” and the recognition of other linguistic identities (Ravid and Tolchinsky, 2002: 421). Linguistic identity according to Ravid and Tolchinsky is the ability to know one’s own linguistic variety as one of many. The goal is for the learner not to see his own identity as inferior to that typified by the standardised form of a language, but merely to recognise it as another linguistic variety at his/her disposal to use appropriately in a given context. This linguistic versatility provides learners with multiple linguistic identities and enables them to appropriately use both vernacular varieties and specialist academic varieties according to differing contexts.

3.3.5 Language awareness and ideology

The concept ‘ideology’ was briefly discussed in section 3.2.3 where Bakhtin’s contribution to language and literacy theory was in focus. Although ‘ideology’ as a concept and research field does not form a central part of this study it does have bearing on language and language awareness as an implicit force which works on an unconscious level as a framework within which knowledge and actions of people are embedded. In this section ‘ideology’ will be defined and a closer look will be given to how it informs linguistic practices as well as how the underlying power relations have an effect on how people become aware of their own linguistic repertoires.

At a symposium “Language Ideology: Practice and Theory” held in November 1991 it was proposed “that ideology stands in dialectical relation with, and thus significantly influences, social, discursive, and linguistic practices” (Woolard, 1992: 235). Ideology can also be defined as “a systematic body of ideas organized from a particular point of view” (Kress *et al.*, 1982: 6) Ideology can thus be seen as a system of beliefs held by groups of individuals that inform their linguistic practices and attitudes.

Janks (2003) explains that the use of language, both spoken and written, hangs together with many choices: word choices, register choices, organisational choices, etc. Many of these are social choices. “Every society has conventions which govern people’s behaviour, including their language behaviour. There are social rules controlling who should speak, for how long when and where, and in which language” (Janks, 2003: 2). These social rules are shaped by the specific ideology held by any particular group and as such are governed by the amount of social power that particular group has.

This social power has great significance for education and specifically literacy teaching because it is through education that these power relations are either maintained and perpetuated or questioned (Freire, 1968). Linguistic power relations have many facets, but it is the notion of ‘standard’ vs. ‘non-standard’ language that has to be looked at for this particular study. The identification of some language forms as ‘standard’ dialects and others as ‘non-standard’ dialects is directly proportionate to the degree of social power that the community of speakers of each dialect has in society. Quite simply, even though these terms are becoming more and more contested in research, practices that govern literacy development and language education are still largely based on them for the simple reason that the language(s) a person speaks can either open or close doors of social mobility.

The view of this study is that for different situations each educational system has developed particular registers and genres that become conventionalised as “appropriate” and best suited for function. Even so, the researcher also maintains the perspective that ultimately, in and of itself, “all languages and dialects are systematic and complex... [with] their own sets of rules and [thus] reflect and serve the needs of the community that speak them” (Kallenbach, 2003: 6). This does give rise to an almost inevitable conflict: dominant social norms determine what counts as valuable linguistic resources. Educational systems, prescribed curricula and the educators that implement them have to decide whether they will induct children from peripheral communities into the dominant discourse, or whether they should defy the dominant discourse by emphasising the value of local, non-standard forms of knowledge and the accompanying linguistic resources.

These notions of linguistic ideology and power and whether teachers, parents or learners are aware of them were not explicitly investigated in this particular study. Nevertheless, it did have an interest in the kind of language awareness exhibited in literacy practices which could instil in learners a sense of power and pride in their own linguistic variety. Once learners and their teachers become aware of the power of the community's own variety in the way that is described by Kallenbach (as cited above), they will more likely than otherwise be able to address the issues of exclusionary ideology that are covertly written into the educational system.

3.4 LANGUAGE AND IDENTITY

Before discussing the discrepancy between home language practices and school literacy expectations, language and identity in a broader sense should be discussed. Language is the primary channel of expressing and transmitting any and all cultural ideas and practices, therefore it cannot be separated from identity. In cultural studies language is taken to be one of the strongest markers of group and personal identity (Edwards, 2009; Sperber, 1996). The interplay between the standard and non-standard varieties and different registers of language are of particular interest to this study.

From the point of view of Edwards (2009) one should have an understanding of the concept of 'language', 'dialect' and the attitudinal approach that people have to understanding these concepts. Most importantly, one should understand how society influences attitude, not only towards other dialects but also towards a speaker's own dialect.

According to Edwards (2009: 53) an understanding of 'language' is based on three elements. The first is that it is a system based on rules and order. Second, the system is arbitrary and only gains meaning based on the mutual agreement of the speakers (Edwards, 2009: 53). Third, language is used for communicative purposes. These elements are universally applicable to all languages and all dialect, although the latter is more contested in literature. A dialect "differs from other varieties of a language in vocabulary, grammar and pronunciation" (Edwards, 2009: 65). Dialects are mutually intelligible sometimes with difficulty and sometimes more in theory than in practice (Edwards, 2009: 65).

The above explanations of both 'language' and 'dialect' show that no dialect has the linguistic authority to be seen as superior to another, but in real life this is exactly what happens and this is where identity joins the debate. "Standard dialects are those that have risen socially with the historic fortunes of their speakers" (Edwards, 2009: 66). The dialect of the dominant group of speakers in any given society enjoys the same status as the speakers. The stronger the social

standing of the speaker base the stronger the social standing of the dialect. The 'standardness' of a dialect is thus based on purely psychosocial and economic principles and not on linguistic rules and orders as described above. Standard dialects are therefore those dialects used in formal contexts within the economic, political and educational spheres, to name a few. This dialect is usually also "enshrined in print" (Edwards, 2009: 66). A written dialect is more stable and longer lasting than a primarily spoken dialect. Even in spoken form the 'standard' has many ideolectal varieties, but because it is captured in writing it becomes more stable and enduring.

This social status is one based on the attitude of the speakers. Attitude according to Edwards (2009: 83) is made up of feelings and thoughts that manifest in behaviour. In the case of language, dialects can only be seen as 'superior' when there is an 'inferior' to compare it with. It has already been stated that these concepts of superiority have no linguistic basis, but because language is so inextricably part of the vehicle to any social movement, it is inevitable that one group of speakers is seen (by themselves and others) as the possessors of a 'standard dialect' and others are seen as possessors of a 'non-standard dialect'.

With this in mind, the Narrative Enrichment Programme aims to describe the identity of the participants as is reflected in their writing. Some of the samples collected will be discussed in order to ascertain not only how learners express themselves, but also to what degree they attach value to their dialect.

3.5 HOME LITERACY PRACTICES AND SCHOOL LITERACY EXPECTATIONS

The current study has been conducted in a rural, predominantly monolingual community, where the question of learners' comparatively poor linguistic ability, even in their L1, is often raised. Regarding the relation between language and disadvantage, Gee (2008) posits that contrary to many traditionalist viewpoints, children from poor homes do not have lesser language abilities than learners from affluent communities. Linguists know that "all children – including poor children – have impressive language ability. The vast majority of children enter school with vocabularies fully fit for everyday life" (Gee, 2008: 16).

3.5.1 Home literacy and "membership"

The supposedly well-developed language ability of children at school entry raises another question: How is it that despite their adequate oral language ability some learners are less successful with

learning to read, write and perform related tasks in the classroom? Patton Terry supplies part of the answer when she says,

Writing is not speech written down. Correspondences between spoken and orthographic representations of phonology, grammar, and vocabulary are not always direct, because print conventions do not always map to speech sounds, because speaking and writing are different language registers, and because social and regional language variations often are not reflected in standard written language systems (Patton Terry, 2006: 907).

Patton Terry (2006) made the above statement in the context of her research on the relation between African American English (AAE) and Standard American English in learning literacy, but it may be applied to other situations in which the norms for a spoken variety differ considerably from the norms of the written (standard) variety taught in schools. She elaborates on this statement by stating that this dissimilarity of the spoken variety and the written variety may be the cause of poor academic achievement. Therefore, learners from poor backgrounds may not be at such a disadvantage as is sometimes claimed; the divide between oral literacy and written literacy should be approached differently.

The concept of 'membership' as described by Willenberg in her study on family literacy environments further broadens Patton Terry's idea from not only spoken language vs. written language, but to a more general discontinuity between family literacy environments vs. school literacy environments. The family is not only the primary socializing group providing the precursors to literacy, but also the one constant through most of a child's educational career (Willenberg, 2002: 396). From the view point of the Ideological model of literacy, the family is the first and in many cases the most important informer of a child's literacy practices.

Families are part of a larger community and a larger culture and they provide the child with norms of literacy which may not always be in line with what is expected from the child in school. Home life may put more emphasis on oral literacy whereas the school holds written literacy as the norm. Due to this difference in preference of registers or types of literacy learners may find themselves in a situation which requires a register or variety of literacy in which they are not proficient. This then causes the discontinuity between home and school environments of literacy.

3.5.2 School varieties

In another article by Patton Terry, Connor, Thomas-Tate and Love (2010:127) this discontinuity between environments of literacy is described by using the term “nonmainstream language use” where a particular community’s use of a language is markedly different (nonmainstream) from contexts such as schools and other formal settings where they do use the mainstream version of that same language. Although their study is concerned with the use of dialects, this term of nonmainstream use of language may apply to genres and registers as well. Labelling it as mainstream vs. nonmainstream rather than standard vs. non-standard helps people to see each form as necessary and valuable in its own right but also understand that each register is applicable in certain contexts according to the particular linguistic context.

In his book on situated language use, Gee (2008) makes a clearer distinction between registers by calling them ‘vernacular’ varieties and ‘specialist’ varieties in languages. These varieties do not specifically refer to spoken varieties and written varieties. This distinction supports Patton Terry’s work in that it emphasises the difference between learners’ home varieties of language and the language they have to use in school. Gee describes the ‘vernacular’ as the first variety a child learns. The child uses it for everyday conversations and face-to-face communication within his community. Different groups of people use different varieties of the vernacular, but all for the purpose of connecting with people in the community and developing a sense of self and cultural identity (Gee, 2008). After acquiring the vernacular, or even while doing so, the child also acquires specialist varieties of language (spoken or written) that are specific to certain contexts like computer games, sport or religion. These are called the non-academic specialist varieties, but one also has a group of academic specialist varieties. The academic varieties are those of the education system, from the Foundation Phase through to university. Gee states that “[p]eople who learn to read the vernacular often have great trouble reading texts written in specialist varieties of language” (2008: 17). Gee states that these vernacular and specialist varieties differ in vocabulary and syntax (2008: 18) which means that when learners enter schools, they need to learn new “language”. This is especially the case when a learner’s vernacular variety is a non-standard form of the standard (academic) variety used in school, like it would be in the case of the current research.

As summarised by Hull and Birr Moje (2012) there is a wide spectrum of contexts in which specialized forms of literacy is required. One such context is the academic context. Literacy practices are often misinterpreted as inadequate or insufficient when a group using these specific practices

does not conform to the norm of the particular context. Judgement on the adequacy of literacy is usually made by people from a socio-economically more powerful position. Hull and Birr Moje (2012) emphasises that a “standard” form is promoted, but that it is often done at the cost of other literacy practices. It is clear from these sources that learners who are speakers of a non-standard variety need to have a multi-dialectal ability in order to function optimally in all situations, not only in academic situations.

Even though multilingualism has been on the foreground in the educational and political domains, the practical situations in schools still show favouritism to a standard variety, leaving minority varieties unacknowledged. Ioannidou declares that despite the attention to multilingualism in education some are still concerned about “the battle between the languages legitimated by schools and the language varieties used by students at home” (Ioannidou, 2009: 263). This discrepancy between learners’ language use for academic activities and the language they use for out-of-school activities needs to be researched within the context of South African literacy development.

The Narrative Enrichment Programme is an attempt at such research in which learners may use their home variety to write stories. Although the focus of this study is not to analyse the differences between the participants’ home variety and school variety, the project aims to determine what linguistic means learners choose to use or have at their disposal when faced with the task of writing. Written genres have not been discussed in this section and will be given due attention in section 3.8.

After discussing concepts and issues such as language awareness, language and identity and school and home varieties, one needs to put it into a more formal literacy-based framework. Thus I now turn the discussion to key literacy models in order to give a more in-depth view of how the concept of ‘literacy’ has been viewed over the years, how this view has changed and how it is applicable to this particular study.

3.6 MODELS OF LITERACY

Street (2003) describes two models of literacy; one model he calls the “autonomous model” and the other the “ideological model” (Street, 2003: 77). The Autonomous Model revolves around the view that literacy is a set of skills that can be taught as in the case of reading and writing. The ideological model situates literacy within the cultural context in which it is used; in other words, it describes ‘literacy’ as a “social practice and not simply a technical and neutral skill” (Street, 2003: 77). On the one hand the Autonomous Model refers to the set of skills learners have to learn in order to be

considered literate and on the other hand the Ideological Model places those skills within a context specific to the learners. In other words, the Ideological Model shows how literacy skills and language awareness should interact and support each other within a social context such as the classroom.

3.6.1 Autonomous Model

Prior to 1970, literacy education was primarily based on the so-called “autonomous model”. According to Kim (2003: 118) the Autonomous Model was “tied to specific views of the world and relations of power” in that it considered literacy to be a set of independent skills. The Autonomous Model, according to Street (2003: 77) posits that literacy skills (reading and writing) can be independently introduced into any situation, for example, literacy programs may be introduced into very poor, very isolated communities in order to enhance their cognitive skills (Street, 2003: 77). Literacy practices consisted of grammar translation, skill exercises and the learning of the rules that govern reading and writing. ‘Literacy’ was a set of “decontextualized skills” (Kim, 2003: 118) that learners had to be given by the teacher.

Not only did the teacher hold the position of lone authority on literacy, but there was very little recognition of linguistic diversity within classrooms. The ‘standard’ variety was taught and learners’ home varieties were excluded. In most cases the standard form was also the written form that was taught and it was seen as the only correct form. Linguistic variety was not recognised as a helpful resource for language teaching.

3.6.2 Ideological Model

During the 1970s, the view of ‘literacy’ began to shift from the Autonomous Model towards the Ideological Model. The New Literacy Studies (NLS) movement, incorporating this model, began to propagate the social context in which language use is situated. To the supporters of NLS, literacy is about knowledge. “[T]he ways in which people address reading and writing are themselves rooted in conceptions of knowledge, identity and being” (Street, 2003: 78), and, therefore, the skills involved can never be separated from the social function which they have to fulfil. There are myriad literacies in today’s age, ranging from traditional paper-based genres like newspapers, novels and manuals to the multimodality of the Internet. The digital sphere of society yields numerous hybrid forms of literacy, especially the sphere of social networking.

Mills emphasises the ‘digital turn’ in literacy studies in the 21st century. According to her, knowledge and literacy practices “are primarily seen as constructions of particular social groups, rather than

attributed to individual cognition alone” (Mills, 2010: 247). The digital era and World Wide Web have not only caused hybrid forms of communication but have also opened the door to new levels of language and linguistic awareness. As such, literacy development and language awareness are vital in order to ensure that learners are able to navigate the digital age they live in. Although digital literacy will not be the focus of this study, it still has a profound effect on learners’ identities and therefore should be taken into account when discussing learners’ writing practices. Even though the target group of this study consists of Grade 3 learners who are perhaps not as fully digitally literate in terms of social networking as adolescent learners, it still has to be taken into account that they grow up with more digital media around them, and it will therefore influence their pre-literacy skills and later literacy development.

The realization of literacy and literacy skills as they are defined above, emerge well before learners are able to read or write, much like babies are able to understand utterances before they can speak themselves. These pre-literacy features give rise to the language awareness that learners need in the process of developing actual literacy skills.

3.7 LITERACY DEVELOPMENT

To understand the characteristics and components of any particular situation, one must trace its starting point. Understanding the current state of literacy in South Africa, and particularly that of the Foundation Phase, one must look at what came before. Pre-literacy studies are vital in understanding the fundamental building blocks of any reading and writing skills that learners have already acquired, or are lacking. In the next section a local pre-literacy study is discussed. It is vital for the teacher to know and understand the features of language awareness that are manifest even before formal schooling starts. That is why pre-literacy is as important as literacy itself.

3.7.1 Milestones in pre-literacy

A local study conducted by Annemarie Olivier aims to show how pre-literacy skills have a vital effect on future literacy development of Grade R and Grade 1 learners (Olivier, 2009: 62). Even though her work focuses on an age group younger than those of the current study namely the results obtained from her study may shed light on how learners approach the activity of writing a little book. Howard Allor and McCathren state that there are four areas in pre-literacy or emergent literacy: 1) “oral language (vocabulary and narrative development), 2) phonological awareness, 3) print awareness” (2003, 72), and 4) invented spelling and name writing (Olivier, 2009: 24). Shanahan refers to these as

“precursor skills” (2012: 1). Olivier describes several subtests that can be used to divide each of these areas more specifically. Phonological awareness pertains to the sounds in letters and rhyme recognition and production. Oral language refers to word definitions, receptive vocabulary and the telling of fictional narratives. She also included knowledge of the alphabet as a skill of young children who are able to recognise some letters and name them (2009: 24). Although testing of emerging literacy skills do not form part of this study, the divisions with which she worked are useful in determining what children actually learn during the preliterate stage.

In a study done by Ingrid Willenberg on the “characteristics of family literacy contexts” (2002:396) and how these relate to the emergent literacy skills of learners from a marginalized background in Cape Town, she used similar tests and categories. Her study used subtests from Tabors, Nicholson and Kurland (1995); they included Recognition of Environmental print, Letter Recognition, Sounds in Words, Rhyming words (this links up with Olivier’s subtests), Concepts about Print, Functional Awareness of Print and Story Retelling. The subtest on print support Howard Allor and McCathren’s category on Print awareness, and the subtest on retelling stories are similar to that of Olivier’s subtest on telling of fictional narratives in that it requires the oral skills of the learners.

Timothy Shanahan’s study on the sequence of acquisition in early literacy development lists a similar list: “ABC knowledge, Phonological awareness, Concepts about print, Rapid naming and Oral language” (2012:2). Similar to the study of Smith and Tager-Flusberg (1982) he also states that these skills “are clearly implicated in later literacy achievement” (2012: 1) and most probably also serves as a base from which metalinguistic awareness develops.

The one skill that is mentioned in all three studies and is the major precursor to any literacy development is that of oral language. Young children learn to speak long before they learn to read and write, thus oral language, and all the activities that it entails, is the basis on which reading and writing is built. Hancock and McDonald support this notion by stating that “oral language underpins all literacy learning” (2003: 2). It is only when a child has already learned how to speak and communicate through oral language that he has to apply that knowledge in the process of learning to read and write. This application process, or rather, the process of becoming aware of how to “translate” speaking into reading or writing is called phonological awareness. Thus, children become aware that the sounds of spoken language correspond with written symbols. Phonological awareness is based on the Alphabetic Principle. The Alphabetic Principle will be expanded upon in section 3.6.2. The process of becoming aware of written symbols leads to print awareness. Print

awareness is observed when a child starts to know the different forms and functions of print. Durkin suggest the following aspects of print awareness: Print awareness means that children first learn that print is the graphic version of speech. They also have to recognize that the empty spaces between words as indicative of the unperceivable boundaries in speech. Children also have to know that we read from left to right (Durkin, 1993).

Hiebert and Raphael (1998:5) summarise the stages of literacy as follows: first children learn the "...discrete skills of letter naming and facility in matching sounds and letters, [they then learn]...word recognition, and, once sufficient skills have accumulated [pre-literate knowledge] results in comprehension". By this stage learners should be ready to progress to Grade 3.

Olivier's work can be correlated with the work of Smith and Tager-Flusberg (1982) in that the latter tested whether learners in the pre-literacy phase (3-6) have some metalinguistic awareness. They worked with learners ages 3- and 4-years old. The aim of their study was to determine to what degree pre-schoolers have metalinguistic awareness before they enter the arena of formal education. According to studies researched by Smith and Tager-Flusberg "children do not begin to make metalinguistic judgments, especially about linguistic forms, until they reach 6-7 years old" (Smith & Tager-Flusberg, 1982: 450).

Their investigation found a high probability of interaction between linguistic processes and metalinguistic awareness. They tested the learners' ability to distinguish between speech sounds and nonsense sounds, words and nonsense words, their ability to find rhyming words for given prompts as well as several syntactic judgment tasks including morphemic endings, word order and also language tasks like vocabulary and sentence comprehension. They set high criteria for each task to ensure that the children are not just guessing an answer. The results were that 67% of the 3-year olds met the criteria on at least one of the six tasks and 100% of the 4-year olds did (Smith and Tager-Flusberg, 1982: 457).

This indicates that learners do have some metalinguistic awareness even before they go to school and more importantly that there is an interaction between linguistic skills, such as is described by Olivier (2009) and metalinguistic skills such as is described by Smith and Tager-Flusberg (1982). This has particular bearing on the study at hand because pre-literate metalinguistic awareness is grounded in the home language practices of the learner, and only later, with formal education does it branch out to incorporate awareness of more formal linguistic production and comprehension

skills. The question as to the correlation or relationship between home literacy practices and school literacy expectations arises, but that will be discussed in section 3.8.

The next section gives a more detailed description of what linguistic comprehension and production skills look like once learners enter the formal educational sphere and more specifically Grade 3 literacy.

3.7.2 Milestones in Grade 3 literacy

The stages of literacy development are a contested area. The identified stages tend to overlap in different sources. As a starting point I will refer to Flynn's (1997) work on developmental stages for acquisition of literacy skills. She gives a comprehensive chart of oral, reading, spelling and writing development. The purpose of these charts is to determine the specific area of struggle for learners with dyslexia and other literacy problems, but these charts may also be used to "identify missing experiences or skills and provide them for ... students who need early intervention or remediation" (Flynn, 1997: 1). The stages are as follows:

- **Preschool:** 2 years to Kindergarten (Grade R in the South African context)
- **Stage 1:** Kindergarten (Grade R) to Grade 1
- **Stage 2 (Fluency):** Grade 2- Grade 3
- **Stage 3 (Reading for Information):** Grade 3 to Grade 8
- **Stage 4 (Multiple Perspectives):** Grade 8 to Adult

Stages 1 to 3 are relevant for the Grade 3 learners who participated in this study. According to Flynn's work they should be able to have basic print awareness and consistently read and write from left to right and top to bottom by Stage One. For this stage they have basic sight words under control and also have expanding phonological awareness. In terms of spelling, they spell according to sound and do not take syntactic position and semantics into account. When writing narratives they tend to use first person "I" narration.

In Stage Two their reading fluency should be developing and they should be able to connect, visualise, question and infer more extensively when they read. During this stage they have a better understanding of the Alphabetical Principle for example that multiple letters can have the same

sound (see section 3.6.2). Their spelling should have a more consistent pattern by this stage, although they may still use punctuation inconsistently. During this stage narrative writing is basic and characterised by the use of “and” in joining sentences, but they are able to write in the third person as well as in first person.

During Stage 3 they read consistently for meaning and fluency and accuracy is well established. Spelling evolves from their own patterns into syntactic-semantic spelling in which case learners realise that spelling is determined by word meaning as well as word position. Their writing is progressively more differentiated and they use a variety of tenses, correct spelling and dialogue and paragraphing. They are also more able to consider audience and genre as well as voice. These features will be referred to again in Chapter 5 when they can be linked with the participants’ data.

3.7.3 Other studies done with Grade 3 learners

In an article by Klop and Tuomi it is suggested that there is a strong correlation between “early language impairment and academic failure” (2006: 59). In this study, it was investigated if learners who were previously diagnosed with language impairment were still struggling academically after three years of exposure to formal education. The results showed that this was indeed the case. They sought to highlight the difficulties experienced by learners who are mother-tongue learners of the LoLT but who come from disadvantaged backgrounds. These learners, according to Klop and Tuomi, lack the complex skills needed for academic success (2006: 59). This is one of very few longitudinal studies investigating how such learners, who are without the necessary emergent literacy skills, cope in the academic environment.

The study aimed to assess if any of the sample group of mother-tongue Afrikaans Grade 3’s still had receptive and expressive language disorders. They evaluated learners’ receptive vocabulary skills as well as their expressive language skills through narrative retell. They finally compared the learners’ current results with the results gained three years earlier and based on these comparisons they drew conclusions about their language skills and development.

Results showed that there was a drastic decline in receptive vocabulary scores after three years of schooling. The average language age found in the study was 3 years below the average chronological age of Grade 3 learners (Klop and Tuomi, 2006: 62).

Even though the current doctoral study does not focus on the academic achievements of learners per se, the study done by Klop and Tuomi gives an in-depth view of the problems that Grade 3 learners and teachers have to face in the formal educational setting.

The formal educational setting, however, does not rely only on receptive skills which were specifically tested in this dissertation. Learners undoubtedly need receptive skills to make sense of the information contained within the school system, but it has to translate into action for it to be a truly successful interaction of knowledge and skills. The Narrative Enrichment Programme focuses on the written form as production skill and will therefore be discussed in greater depth in the next section.

3.8 WRITTEN LITERACY

As was discussed in the section on pre-literacy skills, oral literacy is the basis for all other forms of literacy. Now we turn to written literacy and will begin by discussing the differences between the written form and the spoken form in more depth. Not only will the differences be discussed, but also the science behind writing, the notational system of writing, and the skills learners, and people in general, need to learn in order to become effective writers. Finally, we will discuss writing as a discourse, how the physical skill of writing translates into practice, and what learners need to know about genres and registers in order to use writing as an effective communicative tool.

3.8.1 The Written Form vs. Spoken Form

The differences between oral and written language (and this includes writing and reading) are numerous. To understand the written form, one first has to look at the differences between speech and writing.

Even on a biological level there are differences that have been established. Speech is controlled by two areas in the brain, namely Broca's area and Wernicke's area, but the brain has no specialised area designated for the control of writing and reading (Sousa, 2001: 87). This means that spoken language and written language are approached differently on a cognitive level and should therefore also be approached differently on an educational level. It should be mentioned that written language refers both to reading and writing. The former is the encoding and the latter the decoding of the written message.

There are several differences between speech and writing as skills. The most salient difference is that speech is naturally acquired. No person with normal cognitive ability has to be taught how to speak (Akmajian, Demers, Farmer & Harnish, 2001: 505). Writing and reading on the other hand has to be taught, and usually only at the age of six. Speech makes use of sounds (phonology) and writing makes use of graphemes and orthography. Despite the difference in mediums used for these communication methods, they are still mutually supportive. One cannot read and write without knowledge of speech. Spoken language thus serves as a basis on which written language is built.

The contexts in which speech and writing occur are different in that the first is much more unstable and changing than the latter. Writing is more stable because the writer has more time to think of what he wants to say and how he wants to say it. Spoken communication is much faster and intuitive.

The paralingual features of these communication systems also vary greatly. When people speak to each other they always have some or all of the following paralingual features to help them decode and encode messages: voice volume, tone of voice, facial expressions and mannerisms. Writers have to make use of punctuation marks and specific vocabulary to fulfil the role of these features, but if for some reason there is a miscommunication, unlike spoken contexts, writers and readers can neither correct themselves immediately nor ask for clarification.

Because the written form of language is much more stable than the spoken form it has become more subjected to the labels of 'standard' versus 'non-standard'. The written form taught in academic contexts is considered to be the standard form of that language. This view is supported by the grammar and writing that are taught in school. This is especially prevalent in academic contexts like schools and lecture halls. Learners are taught to write in the 'standard' variety while they still speak their own dialect during recess. Spoken language has thus become more and more separated from the written form. Nevertheless, with the advent of social media people write increasingly like they speak, especially on sites like Facebook, Twitter and in sms's, to the chagrin of many a language teacher.

Regardless of how learners choose to write and where they publish their writings, they still need certain skills in order to produce any written piece. This notational system is at the heart of the relationship between the spoken and written form for the notational system allows learners to translate their thoughts, which are essentially unspoken speech, into writing.

3.8.2 Writing as a notational system

According to Ravid and Tolchinsky (2002: 428) writing as a notational system refers to the “ordered set of graphic signs used for composing messages in the written modality”. These graphic signs are the actual written representations of the sounds found in spoken language and are called graphemes.

There are three basic components to all the words in a language: orthography (what they look like) phonology (what they sound like) and semantics (what they mean). Reading is the act of understanding a written representation of a spoken language. Therefore, it is important to make a few distinctions with regards to the difference between spoken language and written language.

In the first place, there is a difference between phonological and phonemic awareness. Phonological awareness, according to Sousa (2001) is the ability to break a verbal utterance down to its basic parts. A listener will be able to segment utterances into sentences, sentences into words, and words into phonemes. Phonemic awareness is the ability of a writer to link a letter (a symbol) with its corresponding sound. To do this successfully, the writers as well as readers need to understand the alphabetic principle.

The Alphabetic Principle is based on the understanding that spoken words can be represented in written form. Each word is made up of individual phonemes (sounds) represented by graphemes (letters) and these graphemes are combined according to language specific rules to correspond with the sounds of spoken language. These rules of grapheme combinations (spelling) are called orthography (Sousa, 2005).

There are five basic principles according to which phonemes can be combined (Paul, 2010). These principles are only the basis of orthography. Once learners know them they have to apply three basic skills in order to encode and decode written language (Paul, 2010). Table 3 (below) gives the principles and illustrates each with an example. The examples are from Afrikaans, but the translation of each word is given in brackets.

Table 3.3 Principles of Writing

Principles	Examples
Letters (graphemes) are pictures of sounds (phonemes)	Phonetic sounds of speech have corresponding alphabetic letters. Sounds can be represented by either a single letter or a combination of letters. See the principles below.
One phoneme may have various visual representations (graphemes/grapheme clusters)	The sound /f/ can be written as “v” or “f” V oordeur (front door), draf (jog) The /k/ sound can be written as “dj”, “tj” or “k” Hondj ie dog+diminutive), Katj ie (cat+diminutive), Koffie (coffee) The / əi / sound can be written as “y” or “ei” Twyf el (doubt), eier (egg)
One grapheme may have different phonemic representations.	The grapheme “e” can sound like: Skakelaar / ə / (light <u>switch</u>) Bedelaar /iə /, / ə / (begger) Lisensie / ε:/ (licence)
Some phonemes are made up of more than one grapheme.	S-kr- eeu , /i:u/ (Shout) K- oei , /ui:/ (cow) S- ee , /ie:/(sea) R-o-kk- ie /i/ (dress+diminutive)
Sometimes a grapheme has no corresponding phoneme.	P sigiater. (Psychiatrist) The /p/ is silent.

In order to use these principles there are three skills which a learner has to learn: blending, segmenting and sound manipulation (Paul, 2010). Blending is the ability to group together sounds in order for them to form a unit. Segmenting is the ability to separate sounds in words in the correct sequence. Sound manipulation is the ability to delete and add sounds in order to form new words. The process of combination and manipulation of language in the written form is more complex than the simple decoding of graphemes and decoding of words. In other words, when writing, a person has to combine these skills and principles with knowledge from the spoken system in order to

encode a message in the written form. The application of these skills refers to the learner being able to use writing as a discourse.

Lonigan and Whitehurst (1998) describe two processes namely Outside-In and Inside-out that encompass blending and segmenting as well as explain the interaction between the Autonomous Model and Ideological Model of Literacy. They describe literacy as being a constant interaction between the “inside-out” and “outside-in processes” (Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998: 4). The outside-in processes refer to the knowledge needed to make sense of the environment in which the literacy practice is taking place, the context, as described by the Ideological Model of literacy. The inside-out processes are those that are based on the knowledge of blending and segmenting, grammar and the alphabetical principle upon which the Autonomous model is based. The interaction of these processes and knowledge gives rise to knowledge about writing as a discourse which will be discussed in the next section.

3.8.3 Writing as a discourse

When skills of writing are mastered, writing can be used in creating a particular kind of discourse. If there is written discourse, the user, in this case the learner, able to use the notational system of writing in a practical way within various daily situations

The research of Hull and Birr Moje states that there are “a range of literacies across communities, societies, and institutions, including schooling” (2012: 1), each of which necessitates the application of different rules, especially writing. These differences of rules are what determine differences in register and genre. Learners have to be able to identify different genres i.e. newspapers, narratives, blogs etc. and also be able to write for these different genres, namely use different registers. At Grade 3-level these skills are only beginning to develop, but learners should at least start to investigate different genres of narratives at least. Before these ‘register’ and ‘genre’ are discussed more fully, it is necessary to take note that these skills have their origin in how successful learners can navigate the interaction between reading and writing.

3.8.3.1 Reading-writing connections in discourse

According to a study conducted by Parodi (2007) there has been very little research on the interrelatedness of reading and writing and the two processes have, for the most part, been treated as separate areas of research. Reading was seen as a receptive skill, while writing was a productive skill, so they were taught independently (Parodi, 2007: 227), but, reading and writing are two sides

of the same coin in that both processes have to do with written texts. From the one side learners have to comprehend what they read and from the other learners have to produce a text which is essentially informed, directly or indirectly by what they know. It is not a farfetched idea to assume that lagging in one will negatively affect the other. Parodi describes this link between reading and writing as “a constellation of interrelated processes that give us a substratum of common knowledge, without overloading the individual’s genitive system” (2007: 229). This idea of a common knowledge supports the Ideological Model, in which literacy is always socially situated. Thus one may assume that what learners read will also inform what they write.

Even though this study focuses on the relations between reading and writing, the idea of common knowledge or interrelatedness is useful in understanding the data that was garnered from the participants in the research schools. The Narrative Enrichment Programme was used as a window into the linguistic worlds of the writers, the learners. Learners had to use what they already know in order to write their stories and what they know comes from what they live. In this way the input they receive from reading, both at school and at home, would largely determine what they choose to write about. The mind is at once a sponge and a mirror. It is through reading, seeing and hearing primarily that learners “soak up” knowledge and it is through speaking and writing and movement such as dancing that they project what they know. With this in mind, it is one of the fundamental questions of this study to determine what exactly it is that learners have “soaked up” by giving them a way in which to project it, by way of the Narrative Enrichment Programme.

3.8.3.2 Written language awareness

In a study by Taylor, Blum and Logsdon (1986) it is stated that children are not blank slates when they start their formal schooling. When they enter the academic arena they already have an idea about print and other information-giving sources, even though not in a formalised manner. What they know they have learned from forming hypotheses (1986:133), but Taylor *et al.* states that the “[h]ypothesis formation...is influenced by the quality of the incidences upon which [one] can draw.” In other words, a mirror reflects what is put in front of it. Of course, the human mind is infinitely more complex and prone to assimilating knowledge into new structures, but this resourcefulness is only as good as the sources from which it draws. The quality of writing is very much dependent on the quality of literacy environments that have preceded it and continually feed it, but this also raises the question of what resources learners have to reflect and how the education system can “tilt” its academic mirrors in such a way as to optimally reflect that knowledge which the child already has.

Their study focused on examining how theoretical principles such as the one discussed above can be translated into practice in the classrooms. In this process they describe what is called the Language Experience Approach (LEA). This approach is based on the principles of unhampered discovery of language and language use. Children are helped to realise that thoughts can find form in print and this realisation is fuelled by the learners' individual interests and life events. The process of language experiences is unhampered in using "the child's own language" (Taylor Blum and Logsdon, 1986: 134). So, language is simultaneously a channel for expressing experiences as well as an experience in itself. For the narrative enrichment this idea was used in allowing the learners to write as they speak, with minimal correction of spelling and grammar. In truly experiencing the value of their own language and language practices, learners may have the proverbial light bulb moments that may illuminate further possibilities of language experience and growth.

The study describes four goals by which language experience and growth can be facilitated. Not all of these goals have direct bearing on the current study, but are nevertheless interesting to note. The goals aimed to improve learners understanding of the arbitrary nature of the English language (1986: 134) such as the alphabetic principle. Another goal was to help learners to realise that written words have function and power, that they can be used in various ways to express a myriad of ideas as well as serve as storehouses of information and knowledge. Lastly the LEA aimed to help learners to be more explicit in their writing, to understand that the audience for written texts are almost always absent, or removed from the writer.

Although the structure of the Narrative Enrichment Programme did not explicitly address the four goals set out by the LEA, it drew fundamental inspiration from the understanding that language has to be experienced and that learners' hypotheses about language are ultimately informed by the sources of knowledge around them. It was the aim of the Narrative Enrichment Programme to shed more light on exactly what it is that learners know. If the school system shows a bad reflection of learners' literacy abilities, as it currently does, it does not mean that they have no knowledge funds to reflect. So the Narrative Enrichment Programme aims to shed more light on what sources of knowledge the learners do have, what language awareness and metalinguistic knowledge they do possess.

3.8.3.3 Genres and Registers

In the 1912 novel *Daddy-Long-Legs* Jean Webster tells the story of a girl, Jerusha “Judy” Abbott, going to college. The novel is written in the form of letters that Judy addresses to her benefactor, a Mr. John Smith, whom she calls Daddy-Long-Legs due to seeing only his distorted shadow as he left the orphanage where she grew up. After learning how to divide a thesis into headings she decides to structure one of her letters to him in the same scientific form. This one novel is not only a novel, but also an example of letter writing and in this one instance an example of how people can use new knowledge to enrich prior knowledge such as the scientific method of writing a thesis. In this case new knowledge includes patterns of language, otherwise known as ‘genre’.

Duke and Purcell-Gates describe genre as the situational patterns “a text is used and patterns in the features of that text” (2003:31). These patterns make communicating easier because they lend order to situations that might otherwise be chaotic. Thus, it is essential that learners are exposed to as many different patterns as they possible can be exposed to, for just as is stated in the previous section learners form hypotheses about how language works through experience, and these experiences include the patterns of texts in writing. Together with genre one has to consider register. The two concepts can be likened to a lock and key, both are needed to unlock the door to efficient, clear communication whether in spoken or written form. Genre is the lock itself and register is the key. The key has to fit the lock for the door to open. In the same way learners need to know that different genres require different registers. A newspaper article cannot be written in the style of writing as an email to a friend.

Different genres and registers as are discussed in this section links with the idea of multimodality – making use of different modes. Literacy and multimodality is briefly discussed in the next section.

3.9 LITERACY AND MULTIMODALITY

Up until quite recently research dealt with ‘literacy’ in terms of theory, development and its written foundations, including genre and register. With improved technologies printed texts make much more use of visual images than before. This has given rise to consideration of “new literacy” where the integration of verbal and visual is a standard part of working with texts. It has also given rise to new fields of research, such as is articulated in Kress and Van Leeuwen’s seminal work, “Reading Images”. Kress and Van Leeuwen (1996) describe ‘multimodality’ as that feature of texts which carries the conventionalised meanings of images. Texts have an element of “visual grammar [which

is]... an inventory of the elements and rules underlying a culture-specific form of visual communication” (Kress and Van Leeuwen, 1996: 3). To take note of all aspects of the printed and written texts used and created in this study, the multimodality of the materials needs to be recognised. Also, as a bridge to discussing the little books and the sense learners made of the picture cards in literacy terms, it is important to look at the connection between literacy and multimodality.

The Narrative Enrichment Programme developed for use in this study is multimodal in nature as it incorporates a multitude of modes such as visual prompts and illustrations alongside verbal text in picture books, story cards and the little books themselves. The print-based nature of the little books specifically is multimodal in that learners have to read the written text as well as interpret the illustrations that go with it. In a sense the little books have two stories, one in writing and one in illustrations, that run parallel to each other and that have to form a cohesive unit in order to establish overall, unified meaning. The illustrations are there to support, illustrate and sometimes even elaborate the written text, in some cases providing a visual summary of the written story. For their own stories they then also had to tell the story not only in words, but also through drawings, more specifically creating pictures that accompanied the text that they had written.

Although attention went to the connections between verbal and visual features of the little books learners created, as well as to the verbal responses of learners to visual cues of the story cards, this study did not attend in any detail to the multimodal aspect of the data. The little books specifically have a rich collection of visual texts and visual elements of larger texts which certainly point to a field open for very interesting research. The set of data collected for this study has delivered enough material to warrant in-depth investigation of the illustrations in relation to the written text, but as the focus here was on learners’ current state of written and reading literacy a selection had to be made as to where attention could be directed. An analysis of the illustrations eventually, also due to time constraints, fell outside the scope of the study and for that reason only was not attended to.

3.10 “LITTLE BOOKS”: A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

3.10.1 The origins of “Little Books”

The “Kleine Bücher” project (Little Books project) on which this study is founded, began in 1994 in a primary school in the 15th Ortnergasse District of Vienna. Mr Christian Schreger began teaching the M2 (Multi-level) class¹⁹ at Ortnergasse in 1994 at which time 80% of the students were of non-German mother tongue families such as Pakistani Punjabi, Russian, Kurdish and Chinese. In an article explaining the programme he developed, Schreger states that “The complexity of [a] multi-stage class requires clear project framework that can be applied to different levels of learning” (Schreger, 2010: 1).

The educational project referred to here as “Little Books” was born from a dire situation in which learners with limited German competence were enrolled in a school with German as the LoLT. This was part of a larger set of classroom practices that attempted to engage children in German by using their mother-tongue as a resource. Schreger decided to use IT facilities to produce students’ writing in printed format; he created a booklet template of five text pages, five picture/photo pages and one cover page which could easily be used in desktop printing.

The learners were assisted in writing small narratives that would be produced in booklet form. They were given no restrictions as to the topics they chose and were encouraged to write in their mother-tongue if they so preferred. In fact, multilingual stories were encouraged. This approach is much like the Language Experience Approach as described by O’Toole and Mhuire (s.a) in which learners “discover that thought can be represented in print, to capitalise on the motivation and interest associated with actual events in the [learner’s] life, and to minimise decoding problems by using the [learner’s] experience.” The only difference is that Schreger does not write for the learners, but allows them to write for each other if need be. Learners work either alone or together to compile a little book and the teacher only gives advice at the end of the process, or when help is asked. He then produces the little book by using the computer, scanner and printer in class. Of each book three copies are made, one for the learner to take home, another one to go in the reading box and the other one to store in the class library. The class may then read each other’s stories as they

¹⁹ Schreger’s class consists of learners from different age groups.

please. A multitude of other projects stemmed from this one. As of 2013 the little books can be read and heard online²⁰.

In 2007 the Little Books project came to the attention of Lord Neil Kinnock, the Chairman of the British Council. Professor Brigitta Busch of the University of Vienna took an interest, and it is through her endeavour that the Little Books methodology spread to places such as Finland, Cape Town, Sweden and New Zealand. With the spread the Little Books also became the subject of many academic articles (Busch, 2010; Busch 2011; Pitkänen-Huhta and Pietikäinen, 2014) and theses (Pernes, 2013).

3. 10.2 The “Little Books” in research

3.10.2.1 Research in Austria

Busch took an interest in the “Little Books” project from a heteroglossic perspective. According to her schools often promote practices that are traditionally rooted in a “monolingual habitus” (Gogolin in Busch, 2011: 1) even though the speakers themselves have a complex language repertoire. In another article, she emphasises the importance of acknowledging these repertoires by stating “[t]he value ascribed to particular language practices cannot be understood in isolation from the people who employ them or the larger networks and social relationships in which they are engaged” (Busch, 2010: 284). In order to shed light on the mechanism of the “Little Books” project she uses Bakhtin’s notion of ‘dialogism’. Within the M2 classroom, there is a constant dialogue between the learners’ mother-tongue and their second language (German). The heteroglossic status of the learners is consciously taken as a resource on which to build pedagogic practices.

At the time of publishing the article (2010) the M2 classroom had been collaborating with Busch for two years. They follow the principles of Célestin Freinet as was discussed in section 2.6 that promote an inquiry-based method for children to learn. The learners learn through producing meaningful objects (books). In the process, they learn to inquire and cultivate a natural curiosity because their individual interests are cultivated as much as possible.

In the analysis of one story which had been written in the Ortnergasse School, entitled “The elephant and the mouse” Busch (2011) explores how the young author creates interplay between

²⁰ See (<http://ortnergasse.webonaut.com/m2/kb/index.html>).

the words of the story and the illustrations. The words are not captions of the pictures and the pictures are not merely illustrations of the text. The analysis of this interplay shows clearly the learners own feelings of displacement and isolation by drawing the elephant as lonely and out of place.

The teacher had to translate the Serbian story into German based on the learners own “accented” translation thereof. Thus, Busch describes the multi-layeredness of the story-building process. The learners were also free to employ other means of help during the authoring process for example from classmates, parents and dictionaries. Most important for the success of this process of writing she reports on the multidiscursivity (another term from Bakhtinian pedagogy) in which there are no constraints as far as topics and genres are concerned. Therefore, learners truly learn the value of their multilingualism. They do not see it as a barrier to learning, but rather as a resource.

Another study that has been done in the Austrian context is that of Stefan Pernes. His study focused on assessing how the Little Books as a multimodal tool affected “language learning and personal growth” (p. xlvii: 2013) of the author. He states the importance of building on existing skills in order to facilitate the writing process. Also the writing process suggests teamwork and multiliteracy aspects such as production and presentation. From a personal point of view, no topics were prohibited, thus learners could freely explore their third space – outside of school for inspiration. According to his study, learners developed a greater sense of agency through the writing process, which enabled them to confront the super-diverse setting of the classroom and community. He also found that the Little Books cannot be seen in isolation, that from an educational perspective it needs a framework based on sincere experimentation.

3.10.2.2 Research in Finland

Sari Pietikäinen and Anne Pitkänen-Hutha conducted a study in Finnish Sámiland. An article, which will be summarised in this section, was published in 2013: *Multimodal Literacy Practices in the Indigenous Sámi Classroom: Children Navigating in a Complex Multilingual Setting*. They set out four starting positions from which they approached and analysed their study.

In an attempt to revitalise the endangered Sámi languages children in a multilingual school in Finland were asked to write their own picture books. In the process Pietikäinen and Pitkänen-Hutha wanted to find out what linguistic resources these children had and how they employed such resources in the making of these picture books (2013: 231). First, they take a social view of literacy

practices. “Literacy practices include the construction of knowledge, values, attitudes, beliefs and feelings associated with using texts in particular times and spaces” (Pietikäinen & Pitkänen-Hutha, 2013: 232).

The second view is that the designing of a picture book is a *nexus* (see Glossary) for the participants’ literacy practices. “[I]t is in and through literacy practices [such as the making of picture books] that people create, maintain, contest and transform the practices prevalent in the community. They make use of, recycle, and appropriate the resources available in meaning making and, thereby, create a voice for themselves” (Pietikäinen & Pitkänen-Hutha, 2013: 232). The children have to use their existent knowledge of their community relationships, their historical positioning and any other personal experience with any literacy practice in order to make these picture books. The new picture books become a nexus from which new literacy practices are born from using old or existent knowledge.

In designing picture books with the necessary texts, children are engaged in multimodal literacy practices, the third starting point. “Creating a text is never just about writing words on paper. Instead, it is about creating culturally and historically bound meanings by using existing and emerging multimodal resources available to the designer of the text” (Pietikäinen & Pitkänen-Hutha, 2013: 230). Through the designing process they also create new resources and practices that strengthen the use of their mother-tongue Sámi variety. With this in mind, the researchers designed the book template on which the current study is based.

The two Sámi classes that were used in the study were two primary school multi-grade, multi-lingual classes, similar to the class in Austria. The children ranged from preschool to Grade 3 and they were all fluent in Finnish. However, only 70% of them took part in Sámi education, either by way of Sámi medium education or Sámi as a second language education (2013: 234). The languages spoken in this school was Northern Sámi, Inari Sámi, Skolt Sámi, Finnish, Swedish and English, but in the two research classes only Northern and Inari Sámi were spoken.

The article describes data from two activities. One is called “language biography” and the other is the little books that the learners made during class. The language biographies entail that children draw their linguistic repertoire by colouring in an outline of a person. The second set of data comes from the little books themselves. It was decided that learners will write and illustrate picture books and that a photo of the author will be included in the finished product. Hand-written efforts were

left intact, but a version correct in grammar and spelling was added afterwards (2013: 235). This is the template what was used for the current study in South Africa.

Each of the little books was distributed among the children, their families and community. Children were asked to use their own Sámi language (either Northern or Inari) when writing their stories. The story was then translated into the other Sámi language and also any other language of the learner's choice. The writing and translating was done mostly by the children and spanned over a period of three months.

Pietikäinen and Pitkänen-Hutha (2013) view the fourth starting point as the tension that arises from challenging the existing norms and practices and questioning which is dangerous and which is desirable. Although the South African context is not multilingual in the same way as the Finnish context, the learners in South Africa are faced subconsciously with the same questions in terms of the dialects they speak.

3.10.2.3 Little Books in Langa, South Africa

In February, 2011 the Little Books project was presented by Prof Brigitta Busch to the community of Langa, an informal settlement in the Cape Town area. Prior to the launch of the project the M2 class was shown a DVD of the learners and it was decided that 10 German little books will be translated into isiXhosa and English and reprinted.

In The Reading Club, as the South African Project was known, the children were presented with these reprinted and translated books. After reading all the books each child in the club presented his/her favourite book to the class. The project has unfortunately come to an end since its inception, but the cause and results for this are unclear.

3.11 CONCLUSION

One fact that must be constantly kept in mind is that language is primarily a tool for communication and almost superseding this fact is the fact that people do not want to communicate poorly. Whatever it is that a person wants to say, whether that person is J.K Rowling giving her commencement speech at the 2008 graduation ceremony of Harvard, or a moody teenager trying to state his rebellion against some form of authority, or just a toddler trying to indicate that she wants a glass of water, they all want to be understood clearly without misunderstanding.

Experience has shown that any child, teenager or adult can and will communicate effectively in any number of contexts. The aim of education is to equip people with the skills and knowledge to communicate effectively in circumstances where they have not formerly been, thus not only in their homes, but at school, with teachers as well as friends and also later in their professional lives. The clarity of communication is not always guaranteed, but that is never due to a lack of motivation by the speaker or the writer, but rather a confluence of many factors such as is described in this chapter.

In short, the theories of Freinet stipulate that learners have to be actively involved in what they learn and not just as observers but rather participants actively shaping their learning experience. This active involvement of the learners requires the teacher to be sensitive to the learners' needs and abilities and to help them reach the next level of understanding without missing a step or two along the way. This is the basis of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development. An educator, be it parent, teacher or fellow student, may help the child to stretch just a little beyond what he or she is used to, but not too far as to hurt themselves. This process of help and guidance requires constant dialogue, such as described in the work of Michael Bakhtin. For Bakhtin language is always a heteroglossic, social experience that requires authoritative discourse. Learners need to be aware of the multitude of different dialects, genres and registers that are required in any given situation. For that they need the help of authority figures who can scaffold their learning experiences in such a way as to still include them in the learning process.

Language awareness, composed of at least also linguistic literacy, sociopragmatic competence and metalinguistic awareness, enables the learner to think about language in an abstract way. Having such awareness allows one to use language more precisely and properly fit to purpose.

This purpose of use is closely connected to the idea of linguistic identity. As stated earlier, all communicators want to be understood clearly (see the Gricean principle that states the intention to understand and be understood), and according to Edwards (2009) it is identity that is the motivating force to communicate. It is the identity of our community that shapes our world view and gives us the preliminary tools for communication and it is our ever-changing and expanding identities as social beings that motivate us to communicate either for our own sakes, or for other peoples' sake. In whatever way identity is always part of communication.

The apparent mismatch between the language awareness developed in the home environment and the language awareness taught and learnt in the school environment is at the core of this study.

Every child learns a set of skills at home with which he is able to communicate in circumstances where s/he is perfectly familiar and integrated. However, as is evident from the ANAS and the SETs, not all children's pre-literacy exposure grants them access to other, less familiar social situations. The more variety of exposure to different literacies children have, the greater their chances at adapting and appropriately communicating in a variety of different situations where they need different genres and registers.

The next chapter will take a closer look at the methodology of the study. The research design, the participants and the data collection methods will be explained. Both components of the Narrative Enrichment Programme will also be discussed.

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This study proposed to introduce a Narrative Enrichment Programme in two rural primary schools among a number of learners who are speakers of a local, non-standard variety of Afrikaans and who otherwise have limited exposure to the perhaps more sophisticated Afrikaans and kinds of register that is (often unconsciously) used as the classroom norm. These learners similarly have limited exposure to the national lingua franca (English) that generally constitutes the key to social and occupational mobility.

The primary focus of the study was to establish, though not formally test, the level of literacy and language awareness amongst learners who typically show low literacy levels in the Annual National Assessment tests. Hiebert and Raphael (1998: 15) make the point that “low income cannot and should not be equated with low expectations or low levels of knowledge. There is hardly a home where literacy experiences do not occur”. It is in this regard that first the little books and later picture sequences were used with a view to illuminating some aspects of learners’ home literacy practices. The enrichment programme was offered to gain a better understanding of why, on average, these learners’ achievements of literacy and language awareness goals for their age and school level showed unsatisfactory outcomes. The development of literacy and of associated language awareness of Grade 3 learners at home and at school is in focus.

This chapter describes the methodological framework of the study, the participants and the larger contexts in which the schools are situated. It also gives an exposition of the data collection and data analysis procedures. At the end a section is dedicated to discussion of some of the salient limitations and problems that arose in the study during data collection and otherwise.

As a reminder, the main research question is repeated here as follows:

“How does the Narrative Enrichment Programme developed for this study shed light on learners’ awareness of language, their recognition and appreciation of prevailing varieties, registers and communicative practices of classrooms where their mother-tongue is the LoLT, and on their achievement of basic literacy goals?”

In order to answer the above-mentioned question sub-questions 1-5 were formulated as focal points for data collection and analysis. These questions are a more precise articulation of the broad set of questions given above in section 1.3.2:

1. What are the language repertoires²¹ of the communities to which participating teachers and learners belong?
2. What is the level of language awareness²² among participating teachers and learners?
3. What kind of literacy and literacy-related experiences are typical of the everyday life of the participating teachers and learners?
4. What level of reading and writing proficiency do learners show when writing their own narratives?
5. What level of reading and writing proficiency have the various participating groups achieved according to earlier ANA test results?

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research was designed around the above mentioned set of questions and with former projects where “little books” had been used with literacy development in mind. The idea was to design this study in a way that was likely to give insights that other forms of intervention were less likely to give. The regular literacy development programmes of the two schools selected to inform the project, were supplemented with a specially developed Narrative Enrichment Programme with the “little books” writing project and a set of related narrative exercises at its core. The programme was especially developed for the current study and does not exist as a formal programme used elsewhere or beyond the research period. The overarching goal was eventually to shed light on the level of learners’ language awareness and literacy skills. The programme was implemented during a two month action research period where four weeks were spent at each of the two schools. During that time the learners were exposed to stories not otherwise introduced at school, which the researcher read to them. After each reading session some informal questions were asked to informally assess whether any of the research objectives (as listed in section 1.3.2) has been met. It was a conscious decision not to test learners’ knowledge and listening skills on a formal level, in order to observe any spontaneous change in enthusiasm and motivation towards reading and listening without the interference and possible inhibiting effects of a test situation. Underlying the choice for this kind of intervention is a hypothesis that simply enjoying literacy activities is a means of stimulating an interest in the rewards of literacy. Finally, after their experiences of reception of

²¹ See ‘Repertoire’ in the Glossary,

²² See ‘Language Awareness’ in Glossary.

published stories, learners were asked to try their hand at production, thus to write their own stories. They were given *carte blanche* as to the topic of their stories. The necessary materials such as paper and drawing pencils were provided. Based on observance of their written stories, a follow-up was done in which some learners were asked to give oral renderings of stories represented in a set of pictures.

4.3 RESEARCH GROUP

The WCED website (<http://wcedemis.pgwc.gov.za/wced/findaschool.html>) was used as a searching tool to select schools to take part in this study. The intention was to do the writing project in a rural community with a largely Afrikaans monolingual profile. Initially several schools were contacted via email and telephone in order to gauge their willingness to allow the researcher to run the project in their Grade 3 classes. Finally two schools were chosen based on their correspondence in terms of demographic criteria and their willingness to be participants in the study. Letters of consent were sent to them and permission was obtained from the District office.²³ At the start of the research period the Grade 3 teachers at each school were given an official consent form to sign²⁴. Each of the learners also received a simplified consent form in which they agreed to their own participation²⁵. This was filled in during class time. Additionally, the learners were given permission forms to take home for their parents to sign agreement to their children's participation²⁶. Both of the participating schools were assured of anonymity in that their location and other identifying details would not be disclosed. This was particularly offered to accommodate possible sensitivity regarding some of the statistical data from the ANAs and Systemic Evaluation Test scores.

4.3.1 Schools

Two schools were relatively randomly selected from a number of candidates on the basis of 1) proximity to the university where the research is located, 2) the likelihood that the learners will have been exposed mostly to a spoken, non-standard variety of Afrikaans and minimally to English in their everyday life, 3) limited literacy and pre-literacy experiences of the learners in that they belong to relatively under-resourced communities, and 4) willingness of teachers and the school principal to participate in a longer term Narrative Enrichment Programme. The schools were chosen on the basis

²³ See examples of the consent forms in Addendum A

²⁴ See Addendum B

²⁵ See Addendum C

²⁶ See Addendum D

of their socio-economic status as well. The participating schools are both state-funded Afrikaans medium schools which ensure similarity of the curriculum followed in each.

Both these schools serve rural communities and are classified as quintile 1 schools. The quintile of each school signifies the poverty index of the surrounding community as has been explained in Chapter 2. Learners in these schools are exempt from paying school fees on the basis of the low average income of the parents. The chosen schools do not have the financial resources to obtain other than the most basic means of literacy enrichment. School A had two Grade 3 classrooms with 24 and 26 learners respectively. The teachers did not have assistants. School B had one Grade 3 classroom of 40 learners with one teacher and one teaching assistant.

4.3.2 Participating learners

The target group for this study were 90 Grade 3-learners ranging in age between 8 and 10-years old. The reason for choosing Grade 3 learners is two-fold: 1) they are at the end of the Foundation Phase and should thus already be familiar with the principles of reading and writing in their mother-tongue and 2) the national literacy benchmark tests, i.e. the ANA tests mentioned in section 1.1, are administered to all learners at Grade 3-level. The data available from earlier ANA tests is used to ascertain whether these learners are more or less on par with their peers across the region and according to nationally set benchmarks.

All participants are from predominantly Afrikaans-speaking 'coloured'²⁷ farm-labouring communities within the Western Cape, South Africa. As stated previously, participating schools were chosen on the basis of their relative isolation from spoken forms of what often are identified as 'standard' Afrikaans varieties, and more specifically the limited exposure these communities are likely to have had to English, or any other South African languages. Considering the multi-lingual composition of the South African society as well as the fact that English is the dominant language of the media, it is very unlikely that learners will have no exposure to English, therefore "limited exposure" refers to the learners being exposed to English largely through television programs and other external sources such as advertisements, logos and signs. Also, English is not used as a language of everyday communication in their community. The learners predominantly come from homes that are marked by economic hardship. Such home circumstances coincide with the schools able to supply only limited resources.

²⁷ See 'Coloured' in Glossary, for motivation and context of use of the term.

4.4 DATA COLLECTION

Data collection was done in the second and third terms (April to September of 2013). The second term was used to implement the Narrative Enrichment Programme in which “little books” were produced. During this time learners were exposed to and encouraged to enjoy listening to and reading stories, and then also to write their own stories. Apart from the little books themselves this data was supplemented by audio recordings, field notes, observations and a questionnaire. The third term was dedicated to doing additional language awareness activities with a smaller group of 31 learners across both schools, who were selected from the full set of 90 on the basis of their apparent difficulties with understanding and co-operating in the earlier introduced process of writing little books. Audio recordings were made for each of the learners’ sessions and field notes were made on specifically designed spreadsheets containing the lists of picture sets used for this activity. L2-Afrikaans learners were allowed to participate in all the activities, but their contributions were not taken into consideration during data analysis. These activities are described in section 4.4.2 below, as well as Chapter 5 and 6.

4.4.1 Background to the Method

This study developed an enrichment programme following work done in two other contexts where learners with comparable linguistic and literacy challenges are accommodated. Specifically, it was modelled on projects undertaken in two primary schools, one in inner-city Vienna and another in a rural Sami-speaking community in Finland (Pitkänen-Huhta and Pietikäinen, 2014). In these programmes learners who are L1 speakers of languages other than the dominant LoLT were introduced to 1) literacy exercises which included writing little books, as a means to also developing knowledge while still learning the LoLT as in the case of the Ortnergasse school in Vienna²⁸ (Pernes, 2013; Busch, 2011) and 2) a Narrative Enrichment Programme in which their L1s were used to cultivate awareness of their own and other languages as was done with Sami-speaking children in Finland (Pitkänen-Huhta & Pietikäinen, 2014; Pietikäinen & Pietkänen-Hutha. 2013). Learners, thus, were stimulated to become aware of the phenomenon of bilingualism and multilingualism as a valued resource rather than a handicap in learning (Busch, 2011).

²⁸ For more information on research done on the little books in Vienna see: http://ortnergasse.webonaut.com/m2/projekte/pdf/slon_en.pdf

The first project of this kind was designed and used by a teacher, Mr Christian Schreger in the Ortnergasse School, Vienna²⁹ and investigated by Prof Brigitta Busch. Mr Schreger, who was in charge of a class of learners from recently migrated families, introduced a narrative and creative writing project into his curriculum activities that entailed the learners' production of little books. These stories are grounded in the daily lives and defining experiences of learners. Learners are encouraged to produce, write and illustrate, a "little book" not only during the formal sessions, but whenever they have free activity time during the course of the school day. The teacher and other learners use desktop publishing in a classroom equipped with the necessary modern technology, to produce the books at low cost and virtually immediately.

Although the content of the book is entirely creative and dependent on what the learner wants to write about, the format of the book is fixed. The book has an A6 size, consisting of 8 to 12 pages and a cardboard cover on which the title of the book and the name of the author appear; the back cover has a photo of the author, publisher-details and even a copyright statement. The layout is that of a normal picture book in which pictures and text support each other to tell the story. This "Kleine Bücher" project in Austria is run in a multigrade class with learners with L1s of a wide range, such as Kurdish, Panjabi, Hindi, Turkish and even Afrikaans. As has been mentioned, they are mostly the children of recently arrived migrants³⁰ who cannot yet speak fluent German. These learners write stories in any language they choose to, often their mother-tongue; the stories are then translated into German with the help of teachers and other learners who either are themselves multilingual or can rely on dictionaries. Sometimes the stories may be translated into a third or fourth language as well, if the author so chooses. All versions then appear as part of the texts of the story.

The above project is used in a multilingual setting, but for the current research purposes it was used in a setting in which learners speak a non-standard variety of Afrikaans but are required to attain literacy skills in the standard form of Afrikaans³¹ used in schools. They were allowed (and even

²⁹ Information on the original class project and its variations can be seen here:
<http://ortnergasse.webonaut.com/m2/projekte/index.html>

³⁰ See 'Migrant' in Glossary for explanation of sensitivity related to the use of this term.

³¹ Teachers currently experience a dilemma with regards to the forms of Afrikaans registers that are acceptable in different contexts. Learners are allowed to write in their chosen regional dialects when answering non-language exam papers, without being penalised for using a regional dialect as register. However, when they write Language subject papers (Afrikaans, English etc.) the appropriate register becomes more important. When (for example) they write formal letters/e-mails as part of their network papers, they will be graded for using the 'standard' Afrikaans register. When writing comprehension tests, the register becomes less important. The dialects such as Cape Afrikaans and Orange River Afrikaans may not be marked

encouraged) to write in their own variety, and the stories were then provided with a second version, rewritten using standard writing conventions. This was done to assist with improving (e.g.) vocabulary and spelling without being so prescriptive that learners would become reluctant to do more writing. Learners had free reign concerning the content of their stories, for two reasons: first, the focus was on their interests and the events of their daily lives and activities:

[T]he genre computer game [is not] banned from school nor the violent content which is often linked to it. [Second], allowing such books in the collective classroom library means that questions children are preoccupied with can be discussed in the public space of the classroom instead of pushing them away into hiding corners. It also means that fears and desires can be expressed (Busch, 2011: 10).

4.4.2 Narrative Enrichment Programme

4.4.2.1 Little Books

As was stated in section 4.2, the Narrative Enrichment Programme supplemented the existing Department of Education literacy programme in schools as is dictated by the Department of Education.

During the second term the researcher spent four weeks at each school respectively, starting at School A. It was decided to spend only Monday through to Thursday at the school so that the two groups in School A would have equal time on activities related to the research project. Both schools followed a timetable that allocates the time between the two recesses of the day as the Home Language time. Before the first break Mathematics is taught and after the second break it is First Additional Language (English) and Life Skills. Therefore data for this research could only be generated between 10:30 and 12:30 each day.

Learners were exposed to several new stories during reading-time. After the first story was read to them they were asked to write their own. Because the study was not intended as a therapeutic study, but rather as a study that wished to highlight the developing skills of the learners, the researcher did not give learners a pre-test. It was deemed more important to introduce the program to the learners in an unthreatening class environment where more spontaneity was allowed than in other school exercises. Further the intervention was planned to minimally upset the schedule and rhythm of their normal school day.

down during examinations, provided that the meaning and intent of the speaker is still clear. It is thus imperative that learners are able to communicate and especially write in more than one register.

Over the course of the four weeks the researcher read four stories in School A³² and 6 stories in School B³³. Time available in School A had to be divided between two classes in School A, which explains why fewer stories could be read to these groups. Both class groups heard the same stories. In order to be sure that neither of the classes was disadvantaged by a change in the program because of unforeseen circumstances or new insights gained by the researcher, time was structured in such a way so that each group served as control group for the other. One story and task was done with Group 1 over two days and then repeated with Group 2 over the next two days of a given week. The next task was then first done with Group 2 and then repeated with Group 1, and so forth.

The process of producing a story with illustrations ready for printing took longer than the researcher had anticipated. It was important for learners not to be rushed to complete their work. Nevertheless, there was enough time for each learner to complete two little books³⁴. The first two weeks were spent reading stories and working on their first little book. Group 1 in School A only did the first little book. The first assignment that was given to them was to write a story about themselves. It was originally decided not to give themes for writing as part of the research was to test for creativity and language awareness. However, after explaining to the learners how the little books would be written and printed it was found that their experience of printed work and the processes of creative writing were limited to the extent that they appeared not to understand what was expected of them when asked to write their own stories. Perhaps more time was required to move from the experience of listening to stories to writing up their own small narratives, than there was available in a single term. It was thus decided to help them by making suggestions and giving them a familiar theme to work with. The single theme for the first book also served as a basis on which to assess the learners' writing abilities and language skills in a way that facilitated categorisation of learners according to demonstrated written literacy level.

As the kind of desktop publishing facilities mentioned in the Vienna context was not available, the production and publication of each set of little books these learners produced, took about two

³² List of stories read in School A: *Leeu en Muis (Lion and Mouse)*, *Gommedraaiboom (The Gommedraai Tree)*, *Die olifantneste (The elephant nests)*, *Die bome luister (The trees listen)* and stories brought from home. (Full reference in Bibliography)

³³ List of stories read in School B: *Leeu en Muis (Lion and Mouse)*, *Gommedraaiboom (The Gommedraai Tree)*, *Die bakker se kat (The baker's cat)*, *Die Musikante van Bremen (The Musicians of Bremen)*, *Daar is 'n Leeu in die tuin (There's a lion in the garden)*, *Stadmuis en Plaasmuis (City Mouse and Farm Mouse)*. (Full reference in Bibliography)

³⁴ As will be explained below in section 5.2), a small number of participating learners appeared to have learning difficulties of a kind that probably need special rehabilitative care. This was evident in their inability to participate meaningfully or show progress. Even though they were included in the activity, due to the special nature of their educational needs, their incomplete and/or incoherent work was not included in the analysis.

weeks. Thus they started on a second assignment, writing a next round of little books two weeks into the data collection period, after their first booklets had been published and returned to them. The second set of little books was returned to them after data collection had ended for the second term, just before the mid-semester holiday.

The booklets were made using Microsoft Office Publisher 2010. A template was created on which two A6 books could be assembled. The covers for each of the booklets were printed on 160g flexible cardboard and the inner pages were printed on 80g printing paper. The learners were given two pre-cut A6 pages on which to write and illustrate their stories. It amounted to 3 pages for writing and 3 pages for illustrations. See the Figure 4.1 below for an example from a page in one of the little books:



Figure 4.1 Little Book

Learners were not put under an obligation to write stories. During the action research period of the second term the researcher merely gave them the time during class which they could use to write what they liked. At the end of the month at each school, teachers were given the necessary papers and pencils so that learners who wanted to could continue writing stories during the third term. The researcher requested that the learners continue writing stories as a way of keeping up an activity which they had only just started out with. The purpose of this request was to see whether learners were motivated enough to use any extra time they had available to write stories. At the end of the second term only two learners from Group 2 in School A had written additional stories. These were processed and given back to learners when the researcher next visited the school.

The Narrative Enrichment Programme was not developed to have a day-to-day schedule, but was rather moulded according to each class's specific needs. Even though CAPS prescribes a certain number of hours per week for each of the Learning Areas, schools are free to fit them in however they think most appropriate. Because of prescribed assessment tasks that had to be done and the

teachers' own daily plan, the researcher had to be flexible about when and how much she would work with the learners. Some of the teachers were more willing to make adjustments than others.

4.4.2.2 Small group language exercises

After reviewing and categorising the booklets made in the second term, the researcher realised that there were three distinct problem areas in writing which needed more specific attention. Learners from both schools had difficulties with the following activities while writing the stories.

- * Picture sequencing
- * Matching pictures and sentences
- * Narrative timeline sequencing.

Although learners were free to write more little books during the third term, there was no specific class time allocated to this activity because other literacy development exercises had been devised for this time. Even so, the researcher wanted to check how much of the enthusiasm and motivation to write that may have developed during term 2 actually endured, and so reminded them that new stories would be treated in the same way, i.e. read with appreciation and put into print.

It was decided to select smaller groups from each school and do some activities with them that addressed these issues. Learners' little books produced in the second term, were categorised according to a Lickert scale, 5 being the highest and 1 being the lowest grading. The criteria for categorisation included features of the story book genre, thus attention went to whether the authors had given their books a title page and a suitable title, whether they wrote from left to right and whether their stories were told in a manner that made chronological progression clear, etc. These categories are discussed in more detail in Section 5.2.

The learners individually worked with the researcher on picture sequencing, matching sentences and pictures as well as narrative timeline activities. For the BME (Beginning, Middle and End) activity the whole class was involved again as the researcher read a new story to all the learners. A new story was chosen so that learners' could not depend on their prior knowledge of the story to complete the BME activity. After reading the story the selected smaller group that was involved in the two previous sequencing exercises was asked to draw one picture illustrating the beginning, middle and end of the story respectively.

The picture sets used for the Picture Sequencing (PS) and the Picture-Sentence Matching (PSM) activities in term three were largely obtained from a board game called “Next up”³⁵ developed by Smile Educational Toys, privately owned speech therapy material and also material from ongoing research on the REALt (Southwood and Van Dulm, 2012). The REALt, as developed by Southwood and Van Dulm (2012) aims to provide “evidence-based and linguistically, culturally and visually suitable language therapy material for use with child speakers of Afrikaans and English” (Nel, 2015: 79). Figures 4.2 to 4.4 show examples from each of these activities.

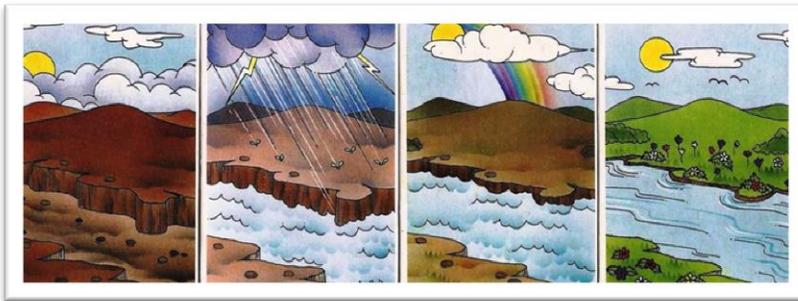


Figure 4.2 Picture sequencing

Figure 4.2 shows an example of a picture sequence used in the Picture Sequencing (PS activity) exercises of the third term. For this activity learners were given several sets of picture cards which they were asked to order in the sequence which meaningfully represented a narrative. The number of sequences that each learner was able to do in total depended on how long they took to do each one, thus they were not required to complete a full set of four or five or ten “story cards”. They sequenced and told as many picture sets as they could manage in the set time for the intervention. Although learners were not openly pressed for time, each one was roughly allocated 20-30 minutes to order as many sequences as possible. This time constraint was due to the fact that, as agreed, only the language period was made available for these activities.

Figure 4.2 depicts a set of four pictures which represent a rain cycle and its effects on the environment. It is displayed here in the expected chronological order, starting with a dry landscape, then showing how it begins to rain, after which as the sun comes out there is a rainbow, and finally the landscape is green again – as a result of the rain.

Learners were told that they were going to help the researcher to order some pictures. The degree of difficulty of the task associated with each picture set was rated according to the number of

³⁵ A new version of the game can be seen at this link:
http://www.toys4you.co.za/product.php?id_product=696

pictures in each set. Learners started with sets containing two pictures and were asked to say which one came first. Then they helped to order pictures set of 3 pictures and then moved to those containing four pictures. Finally, if time allowed, they were given sets with five pictures which they were required to order. The researcher used her discretion on when to move to the next level, based on how long the learners took with each set.

The researcher did random spot checks on learners' ability to explain why they chose a particular order when it differed from the order she had expected, especially when these sequences were within their field of experience. For example, Figure 4.2 above shows a rain cycle and living largely in farming communities, this picture set displays something that is within their field of knowledge and experience. In addition, some sequences depicting events likely to fall outside of the learners' experience, like sequences about rockets and skiing, were presented to them – thus giving them an opportunity to work more imaginatively than experientially.

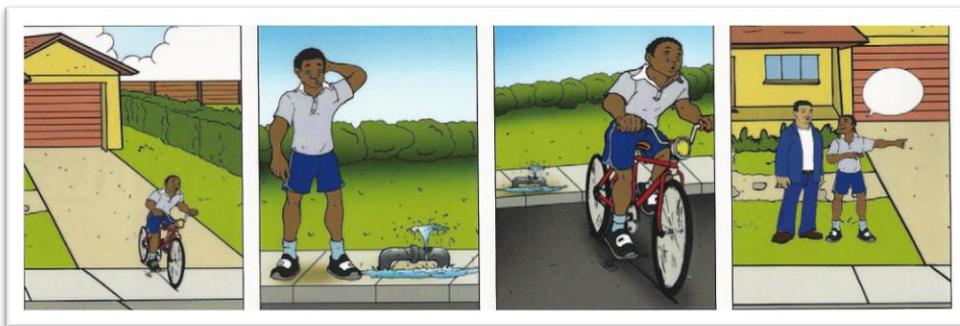


Figure 4.3 Matching pictures and sentences

John het besluit om met sy fiets te gaan ry. (John decided to go for a ride on his bicycle.)
Langs die pad sien hy 'n gebarste pyp. (On his way he saw a burst pipe.)
Hy het toe dadelik terug gery om iemand te vertel. (He immediately rode back to tell someone about it.)
Hy sien Meneer Martin in sy tuin en sê, "Kom gou, Oom. Daar het 'n pyp gebars."
(He sees Mister Martin in his garden and says, "Come quick, Sir. There is a burst pipe.")

Figure 4.3 depicts a picture set used in the Picture-Sentence Matching (PSM) activity. For this activity learners were given different sets of pictures and a set of sentences to match up with the corresponding picture. Again there were different levels of difficulty with sets ranging from 3 pictures to 5 pictures.

Some of the sets used in the PS activity were used again in this one with written sentences added. For these sets participants were asked only to match the sentences with the pictures, as those given in Table 4.1 to be matched with the picture set given in Figure 4.2.

Table 4.1: Sentences matching Figure 4.2

<p>1. Lank, lank gelede was dit baie droog. Long, long ago was it very dry. Long, long ago it was very dry.</p>
<p>2. Toe het dit begin reën. Then (+past participle) it began rain. Then it began to rain.</p>
<p>3. Na die storm het die reënboog uitgekom. After the storm (+past participle) the rainbow came out. After the storm the rainbow came out.</p>
<p>4. Toe het dit mooi groen geword. Then (+past participle) it beautifully green became. Then it became beautifully green.</p>

For new sets which they had not come across before, participants were asked to order the pictures and match the sentences. The picture sets that were reused were ones that learners had had most trouble with ordering during the PS activity. The rationale behind choosing those ones for the PSM activity was to see whether they would be able to match the sentences when they were given the most meaningful order of picture sequences. Having the learners order the new pictures sets before matching the sentences gave the researcher the opportunity to ask the learners to give their own version of events as well as to check whether they progressed in their ability to sequence. The sentences then either reinforced their version or guided them in understanding the sequence better. In cases where learners' versions of stories differed from what was expected, but turned out to be just as acceptable as that of the researcher's predetermined order, the sentences were treated as another version of the story, and not as "incorrect" and putting down the participants' version.



Figure 4.4 Narrative timeline activities

Figure 4.4 depicts one learner's product for the activity in which they had to draw one event from the beginning, middle and end of a new story. For this activity the researcher read a new story to the whole class: *'Maar hy't dan meer as ek!' (But he's got more than me!)* (Roehe, 2012). This story and activity is discussed in more depth in section 6.3.1. After the reading, the participating learners were asked to draw three pictures each, depicting an event from the beginning, middle and end of the story. This activity was not given to test their memory per se, but rather their ability to remember the sequence of events, and thus to show their understanding of the concepts of 'beginning', 'middle' and 'end'. Learners were asked to draw pictures, but they were allowed to write corresponding sentences if they chose to do so. In the above example shown in Figure 4.4 a learner has used a mixture of drawing and labelling events, with labels such as "Middel" (Middle) and "Einde" (End). The learner also described one of the events by adding a sentence.

In collecting the data the researcher made extensive use of field notes and audio recordings to record learners' participation and their attitudes towards the narrative programme. Learners' work was judged on an individual basis, in order to ascertain the individual level of awareness of each. This assessment was made in terms of participation, engaging in narrative practices, engaging in reading and writing activities, and showing language awareness in response to linguistic prompts related (e.g.) to use of synonyms, wordplay, phonological variety, and so on. The researcher attempted to map the different levels of awareness and other literacy practices that came to light through the narrative programme.

4.5 CHALLENGES ASSOCIATED WITH DATA COLLECTION

There were several unforeseen problems that arose during the period of data collection. They ranged from teacher attitudes to the time constraints of producing the little books.

The first difficulty was that of the principals' attitudes towards the envisaged voluntary nature of participation of learners. One of the principals addressed the learners, telling them that they had to participate and give the researcher their support. Because one of the aims of the study was to draw on the voluntary enthusiasm and motivation of the learners generated by their exposure to stories, such a remark, even if well-intended, may have influenced the learners so that some may have written the booklets because they felt they had to and not because they wanted to. The only way to put this right was for the researcher to stress again that the learners only needed to write their stories if they wanted to.

Another difficulty arose when learners had to take home information and consent forms to their parents. Quite a number of them handed in unsigned sheets and through talking with the teachers it was established that some of the parents and guardians can in fact not read or write sufficiently. This is a problem not only on a developmental level for the learners, but also on a practical level as the learners participating in the study were under-age and needed parental consent. In these cases consent was assumed and data collection continued, arguing that the activities had no risk involved for the participants.

The third difficulty I came across was only experienced in School A. Due to the school having two groups of Grade 3 learners, and the research time that had to be divided between them, it was found that there was a slight lack in enthusiasm from the teachers and also that the learners did not have enough time to get used to the researcher being there all the time. In some way this affected their enthusiasm for writing. In School B this was not the case as there was only one class with whom all the available time was spent. These learners could get used to the researcher and could also develop a clearer understanding of the programme. Each day they asked for a story to be read.

Another shortcoming to be addressed in possible future studies of a similar kind was the use of audio recordings only. Many of the learners ordered the pictures in silence, so that audio recording does not reflect the process of sequencing. Visual material obtained by video recording would have helped in the analysis of the PS and PSM activities.

The most salient difficulty in collecting and processing data for this study was the unforeseen amount of time it took to produce each participating learner's booklet at the end of term 2, the first part of the enrichment programme. At first the researcher had only MS-Word software in which to produce the booklets. Later, when MS Publisher was installed and the template created it went much faster. However, the researcher did not expect that producing up to 40 booklets at a time would take almost a week. Without state-of-the-art technology available in the class, and with relatively large numbers of learners, the tedious process alone will dissuade teachers from using this particular process and instrument in literacy development. Learners can be encouraged to write and illustrate small stories in a number of ways; publishing such stories however, is a different story. Without a suitable printing facility the booklets that learners make in class can be as useful as the printed copy of their works.

4.6 CONCLUSION

This project set out to give the researcher an indication of the school literacy skills and practices of learners who typically do not perform on par with peers in better resourced contexts and often do not meet the academic expectations of teachers or the set curriculum for their age group. The project that was offered as an addition to regular curricular activities aimed not only to collect data that would improve our insight into scholarly questions, but additionally wanted to stimulate new ways of seeing and "doing" literacy to the participating learners. Set activities were also directed at motivating learners to use the language that they possess in creative writing.

The learners tended to write like they speak, using many instances of dialectal forms and expressions while writing their stories. These instances of dialectal³⁶ use will be discussed in Chapters 5 and 6. These uses of dialect as well the thematic choices that the learners made are a few of the literacy practices that the study set out to disclose. Teachers and educational specialists know that there is a rift between what learners know and what they are supposed to know, by curriculum standards. This project aims to determine, even if only partially, what kinds of knowledge learners actually do have, focussing not primarily on what they have not yet achieved, but rather on what linguistic resources they do have and how these may be employed in developing the skills that the curriculum presents as desirable. In understanding more about the knowledge and competences that learners already have, we may eventually find ways of bridging the literacy chasm that,

³⁶ See 'Variety/Dialect' in Glossary

according to national tests such as ANA and Sitemic tests, administered by the WCED, is so evident in South African schools today.

As this project intends to encourage enjoyment of reading and writing, to raise awareness of language (standard, non-standard, dialectal as well as distinct varieties) and (in the much longer term beyond this study) to develop language for general learning purposes, it is important to discuss the content of learners' narratives, and at the same time to draw their attention to multiple varieties of Afrikaans. In the process their own variety should be validated as part of a linguistic identity of which they can be proud. Once these learners are aware of their mother-tongue and the diversity that goes with it, attention can be drawn not only to dialectal variety, variety in registers and different genres in these language forms, but also to other kinds of linguistic variety – thus raising awareness of other languages in their neighbourhood such as English and isiXhosa. The strengths of bilingualism and multilingualism can be demonstrated without threatening or replacing their mother-tongue. The programme developed for this study was not used as a tool for explicit improvement of either standard or non-standard language-use, but rather as a means to enrich learners' awareness of a wide repertoire with varieties that can be used communicatively in different contexts.

CHAPTER 5: Narrative Enrichment Programme Analysis of Little Books

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The following two chapters are dedicated to describing and analysing the data collected during the data collection period, between 8 April and 20 September 2013. This covered two school terms, the second term and the third term of the school year of 2013. During this time the researcher spent time in the various schools interacting with the learners in the selected groups, supervising classroom activities designed not as much to test, as to encourage the development of language awareness. During term two, a month was spent collecting data in the form of little books. Later, across a period of three weeks in term three, another set of exercises intended to stimulate and enrich learners in the development of educationally helpful language skills, was undertaken with smaller groups of the learners in each school. The data generated from the little books will be discussed in this chapter, while the data collected from the supplementary exercises will be discussed in Chapter 6.

This chapter gives a brief discussion of how the classroom activities were organised that culminated in the production of little books. Eventually a collection of 145 books was printed, of which 123 were included in this analysis. I shall explain how the selection of data from the larger sample was done for the purposes of this study. A brief overview will be given of the data, followed by a detailed analysis and discussion of data. The discussion is structured according to how the findings provide response to the research questions stipulated in Chapter 1. Each of the questions will be restated as the data is discussed.

After two start-up meetings with the teachers at the two schools, the following programme was agreed on: the researcher had 2 hours per day for 19 days in which new reading activities and then later the writing of the little books were to be introduced to the learners. Three of these 19 sessions were spent further enriching smaller groups of specifically chosen learners. Eventually, the assignment for the learners was to write their own stories on any topic of their choice. Their work was to be collected in order to produce little books which were intended to give them a sense of authorship and the value of their home language as a tool for communication and creative expression.

Finally at school A 68 books and at school B 77 books were produced. In order to systematically describe and analyse the achievements of the 8-10 year olds in their little books, the full set was coded and categorised. Also for purposes of anonymity, each little book was given a specific code and in the following analysis all references to any of the texts will be done by using that code. The coding then was done to reflect the School, A or B, and in the case of School A, followed by the number of the class, 1 or 2. Learners' work in the little books was graded (as described in sections 5.2 below); the grading was used in the code assigned to a particular book in that following the school and class number, is the grade assigned to the particular book and then the number of the book. Finally, to assist the researcher, the learner's initials are used as well. Thus in summary coding was done as follows: A1 (School A, class 1)-3 (category 3)-1 (Book 1) IB (initials of learner). To illustrate, a code such as [A1-3-1 ZN] would refer to the first book produced by learner ZN in class 1 at school A, and the work was graded as falling in category 3 (out of 5). As the study was done in an Afrikaans L1 community, all data is in Afrikaans. For presentation here, all quotes from learners' work will be translated into English, with the translation given first as a gloss, and then in grammatical English between brackets. As quotes are drawn directly from the corpus files, all the tags used in coding the corpus will be included, as in the following example:

1. Dan swem ek en my pa, en ma, en `<reg>` sustertjie `</reg>` [sisterkie], en my broer.
Then swim I and my dad, and mom, and sister (+diminutive), and my brother
(Then me and my dad and mom and little sister and brother swim) (A2-3-1 MM)

The data was transcribed by using the corpus software Wordsmiths 4, which allows for tagging that facilitates the eventual analysis. Below is a list of the tags that were used, each with their explanations:

- * **[text]** : The child's version of words, preceded by the version adjusted for standardisation of the data in text,
- * **<w> text </w>** : word inserted, usually a verb or preposition, for complete encoded meaning
- * **<e> text </e>** : redundant or repetitive use of words indicated
- * **<reg> text </reg>** : Regional expressions indicated
- * **{text}** : Phrases or words that are jumbled or misspelled, found to be unintelligible.

Because this is a study on the authentic language use and language awareness of Grade 3 learners, even after the gloss, the translations will be given as directly as possible so that particular linguistic eccentricities can be visible in both languages. As seen in (1) above the word “sustertjie” (little sister) was written in irregular orthography as “sisterkie” by the author; this is indicated in square brackets. This kind of interlanguage is typically used by early writers in their L1 and indicates emerging spelling skills. Educational philosophy here holds that overly correcting such inconsistencies inhibits creative writing thus teachers are advised in creative writing not to bother on this level with such prescriptive methods. For the sake of compiling the corpus words such as this one had to be given in their standardised form first, otherwise the Wordsmiths 4 would have counted every variant as a separate word. For clarity’s sake it has to be mentioned that the tags for examples of regional use as included in this example, are excluded from all examples except those in the section on regional use of language (5.6.3.2).

It should be stated that this is not a comparative study. The analysis was done and discussed in such a way as to give a global view of trends across both schools. It is not the intention of the researcher to contrast the two schools. There are nevertheless some instances of data that very clearly occurred in one school and not the other. In these cases specific mention of the school was made, but it should be understood that it was not done as a comparative judgement of the schools, but a necessity for the sake of clarity of data discussion.

5.2 DATA SELECTION: WHICH LITTLE BOOKS ARE INCLUDED IN THE STUDY

In all 90 learners participated in this study. In School A there were 50 learners divided into two classes of 26 and 24 respectively and in School B there were 40 learners in one class. In the course of data collection, most learners wrote two little books each. A total of 145 books were collected and of those 145 little books 123 little books were used for data analysis. Below is a table showing how many books were written within each school.

Table 5.1 Summary of little books per class

	Little Book 1	Little Book 2
School A: Grade 3A	26	None written
School A: Grade 3B	24	18 (written in pairs or individually) 1 learner did not write a little book
Total books collected : 68		
Total books used: 54		
School B	38	39
Total books collected: 77		
Total books used: 69		

No learner was excluded from participating in the study while the data collection was taking place, but on closer scrutiny of the work, it became clear that some products could not be used in the analysis. The first reason for such exclusion was that some learners were not L1 speakers of Afrikaans. There were 6 L1 speakers of isiXhosa and one L1 speaker of isiZulu who took part in the classwork as regular learners in the schools. As the study worked with L1-speakers of Afrikaans, these little books were excluded from data-analysis regardless of the proficiency of the non-Afrikaans learners. Two of the isiXhosa-learners' Afrikaans was actually very good considering that they only started learning Afrikaans when they first entered Grade 1.

The second reason for exclusion of a number of little books from analysis was that some work was so far below par for the grade that more learning difficulties than a language exercise can handle, were suspected. Such work in the little books was graded in the lowest category, so that the decision could be taken to remove the whole set of 1-graded books from the sample to be used in this study. In order to facilitate analysis, the researcher made use of a Lickert scale to categorise each of the little books. Each little book was awarded a value between 1 and 5, with 1 being the lowest and 5 being the highest. The little books were judged according to the following list of criteria:

- * The little book has a title page with a title and the author's name and an illustration.
- * The book is written from left to right, with alternate pages for text and matching illustration.
- * The story follows a simple chronology, or at least makes use of the most basic form of narrative sequencing.

- * Pictures match the text.
- * Written text is understandable even though spelling errors and grammatical errors may occur.

Although none of the activities explicitly focused on spelling and grammar and the consistently standard use thereof, it did play a role in the categorisation of each learner's little book because consistently standard spelling and use of grammar are listed as skills to be taught by the national curriculum (CAPS).

In total 9 learners' books were excluded on the basis that the work was not assessable in regular terms, and particularly did not fit the set of criteria given above.

5.3 OVERVIEW

As an entry point for in-depth data-analysis a corpus was compiled of the 123 remaining little books, using Wordsmith 4. The electronic corpus enabled the compilation of a glossary – a list of the complete vocabulary used by all the participants, as well as the range used by each participant in their little books. This corpus enabled the researcher to identify themes and other statistics, which will be discussed in the following sections.

5.3.1 Categorisation and thematic features

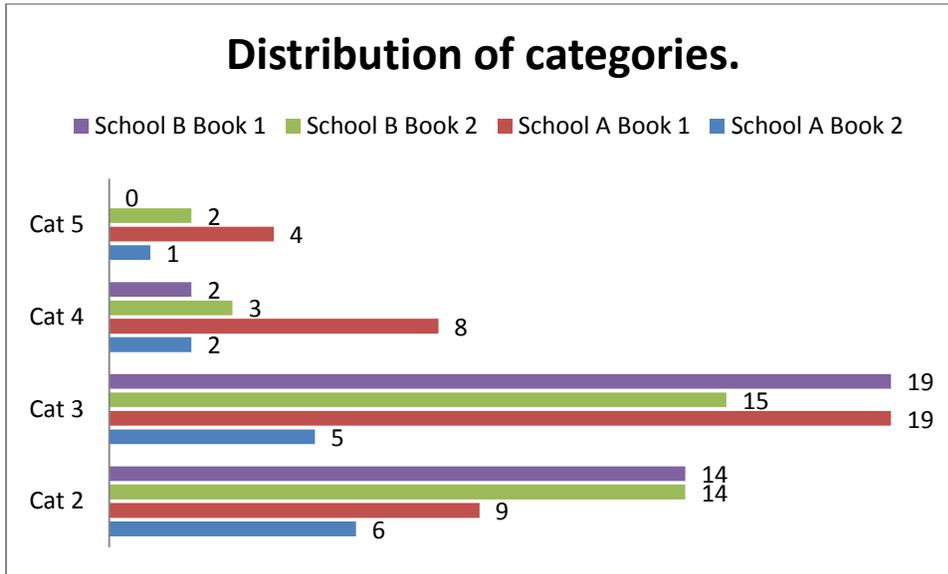
The data gained from the little books was categorised according to a Lickert scale using the above mentioned features (section 5.2). Because the two little books each had distinct themes, it was deemed appropriate to group these two sections together. As has been mentioned several times before, learners had the freedom to choose what they wrote about, but in order for them to overcome the hurdle of the first written little book exercise, some thematic suggestions were given. Also, due to the difference in response to each exercise, as will be discussed below, the second little book has different themes within each school.

5.3.1.1 Categorisation of data

Below are two tables summarising the information drawn from the corpus data. Table 5.2.1 gives a bar graph of the number of books per category for each of the little books written by each class. Table 5.2.2 shows the number of books produced by each school in percentages. The total numbers of little books per category is given next to each respective bar. Table 5.3.1 gives a more detailed

view of the data. The number of little books for each category is given next to the number of the category: For School A 40 little books were included from the first writing exercise and 14 from their second exercise. For School B 35 little books were used from their first writing exercise and 34 from their second exercise.

Table 5.2.1 Distribution of little book categories



For Book 1 School A produced 9 category 2 books, 19 category 3 books, 8 category 4 books and 4 category 5 books. School B produced 14 category 2 books, 19 category 3 books and 2 category 4 books. As can be seen in Table 5.2.1, school A produced significantly fewer books during their second written exercise than the first because only Class A2 chose to participate in the second writing activity. For Book 2, then, School A produced 6 category 2 books, 5 category 3 books, 2 category 4 books and 1 category 5 book. School B produced again 14 books for category 2, 15 books for category 3, 3 books for category 4 and 2 books for category 5. Due to the difference in numbers of participants in each school, the above numbers were converted to percentages by dividing the number of books per category by the total number of books produced for each exercise. See table 5.2.2 below.

From this table can be seen just how many of the total number of participants' books fell in each category. It is clear that the lower categories comprised most of the little books and that the categories 4 and 5 comprised significantly less. This trend is exactly the opposite of what was wished for and the 21.6% overall increase of the lowest category (2) is very worrying, as is the 22% decrease of little books in category 3. This is fortunately not as dismal an occurrence because there is a more

than 14% increase in categories 4 and 5 collectively. Thus they seem stable in the lower categories and show growth in the higher categories. The negative trend for School A may have been more positive had there been more books and had Class 1 also participated.

Table 5.2.2 Production of little Books in Percentages

Book 1	Category	School A	School B
	2	22.5	40
	3	47.5	54.3
	4	20	6
	5	10	0
Book 2	Category	School A	School B
	2	42.9	41.2
	3	35.7	44.1
	4	14.3	8.9
	5	7	5.9

Table 5.3.1 gives an overall summary of the word count for each category as well as the vocabulary size for each. Running tokens refer to the total number of words and numbers used in a text. The tokens for word list refer to the number of running tokens within a text after the parameters of the search was applied. The parameters of the search excluded all words between square brackets ([]) and triangular brackets (<>). For the purposes of accuracy all deviant forms of words were corrected with the deviant form indicated in square brackets. Otherwise the words “Satdag” (A2-2-1 ES) and “soterdag” (A2-2-1) would have been counted as two distinct words, when in fact they constitute different spellings of the same word; Saterdag (Saturday). Other tags, the list of which is given in section 5.1, were also excluded since they are not seen as words.

Table 5.3.1 Statistics per theme

	SCHOOL A				SCHOOL B					
BOOK 1	2 (9)	3 (19)	4 (8)	5 (4)	Total (40)	2 (14)	3 (19)	4 (2)	5 (0)	Total (35)
Theme	Yourself and your family/ Any topic									
Overall word count	2128	7509	2502	1546	13685	5317	9118	703		15138
Running tokens	371	1342	476	305	2494	850	1555	142		2547
Tokens for	361	1307	460	295	2423	839	1537	140		2516

wordlist										
Types (distinct words)	104	284	134	106	628	236	288	67		591
Largest/smallest token count	71/14	115/29	105/25	104/31	0	134/18	126/40	101/39		0
Largest/smallest type count	32/14	53/17	51/14	48/19	0	67/12	57/17	48/28		0
BOOK 2	2 (6)	3 (5)	4 (2)	5 (1)	Total (14)	2 (14)	3 (15)	4 (3)	5 (2)	Total (34)
Theme	Stories from home/Any topic					Story about an animal/ Any topic				
Overall word count	1730	2230	722	897	5579	7093	8831	1575	1801	19300
Running tokens	289	383	117	135	924	1069	1387	257	355	3068
Tokens for wordlist	289	383	117	132	921	1056	1384	257	355	3052
Types (distinct words)	146	144	117	71	478	259	337	104	105	805
Largest/smallest token count	123/16	130/28	81/36	N/A		126/46	191/34	112/63	205/150	
Largest/smallest type count	82/12	82/16	42/21	N/A		69/19	75/17	48/30	73/48	

Most of the little books, both the first and the second, fall within the 3-rating. The criteria, according to which the little books were sorted into 5 categories, are stated in section 5.2 above. Being able to write small fictional or non-fictional stories of about eight to twelve sentences is one of the CAPS requirements addressed by this project (Department of Basic Education (b), 2011: 30). As has been stated previously, there is a great concern for the literacy abilities of these learners. The larger number of these learners performed within the middle to lower categories within this project. Even though the larger number of learners' books fall within the 3-category (58 book in total), the number of 1- and 2-ratings (43 books in total) is much too high in comparison to the 4- and 5-ratings (22 books in total). However, the large number of booklets that were sorted into the 3-category, brings to the foreground the question of expectation. These learners performed neither excellently nor very poorly. The question is thus: what do the curriculum planners expect of the learners and what do they expect of themselves in terms of literacy achievements?

The big difference in numbers for the second exercise as opposed to the first exercise can be explained by the fact that the only one class group in School A produced a second little book and they also chose to work in pairs, with one learner writing the story and the other illustrating the

little book. The learners in School B also had a choice between a solo second project and a collaborative one, but all the learners chose to write their own little books rather than working together. One particularly artistic learner did however illustrate one of his friends' little books.

5.3.1.2 Thematic features

The thematic differences between the schools came about as a result of the difference in response from the learners. The learner always had a choice in topic, but due to the novelty of the activity the first theme "Yourself and your family" was suggested in order for them to feel less daunted. Prior to writing the second book both schools were requested to ask their family members for stories that they could then recount to their fellow learners. Only the learners from School A really fully engaged and executed this activity as was originally planned by the researcher. The learners from School B did not bring stories from home, so they were read a new story called *Die Bakker se Kat (The Baker's cat)* (Aiken, 1983: 75). Afterwards it was suggested that they may write a story of their choice, or write a story about an animal.

The overall word score for each little book is given below the themes in Table 5.3.1. As is evident the word score for the second book of School A is significantly lower than those of the first and second books of the other groups, due to the fact that only 14 books were used for the analysis. It is interesting to note that the 40 first written exercises also produced significantly fewer words than the little books from School B, although School B produced 35 and 34 for each exercise.

The number of tokens per book was calculated as running tokens and tokens used for the wordlist. The running tokens refer to the total words and numbers used in the text. The tokens used for the wordlists refer to the words counted after exclusions were taken into account. For ease of counting it was decided to correct spelling errors so that each word spelled differently does not count as a new word. For example the word "juffrou" was written as "juffro", "Jiffrou" and "juffou" by various learners. In order to facilitate counting the correction was made as "juffrou" with the learner's particular spelling indicated in square brackets i.e. [juffro].

The distinct words were calculated by only counting each word once as it occurs in each batch of little books. A summary is given for the words per book per group in Table 5.3.2 below, which also gives the word score per book.

Table 5.3.2 Distinct word score per book

	School A		School B				
	Books	Distinct words	Books	Distinct words	Total books	Total words	Words/Book
Book 1	40	628	35	591	75	1219	16.25
Book 2	14	478	34	805	48	1283	26.25

The type or distinct word score per booklet is an indication of learners' vocabulary size per theme. These numbers are only a general indication since the size of the groups did not stay the same during the research period and because learners in School A chose to collaborate with each other on the second exercise. A number of 75 books across both schools were written for the first exercise and 48 books were written for the second. The books showed a distinct word score of 1219 and for the second exercise a score of 1283 words. This boils down to 16.25 words per book for the first exercise and 26.25 for the second. This means not only an increase of words in general, but it also shows that learners' vocabularies were larger when they wrote about the second themes: "stories from home" (School A) and "an animal" (School B) than what they used for the first, universal theme of "You and your family."

There is a difference of almost double in ratio between the smallest type vocabulary and the largest vocabulary for each category. There is an upward trend in the ratio. It is interesting to note that there is a significant increase in vocabulary from Book 1 to Book 2 but the smallest vocabularies increase with only a few words. This may be an indication the learners who show over all better achievement in literacy benefit more from this enrichment project than the weaker learners do. The weaker learners may need more support such as was given to a smaller group in Term 3, which will be discussed in Chapter 6.

These statistics are provided to show an overview of what the vocabulary of the two groups are like. The token vocabulary count (Table 5.3.1) shows how many words in total were used by the learners and the type vocabulary shows how many distinct words were used, the extent of learners' vocabulary.

5.4 CHOICE OF TOPICS

Choice of topic refers to the topics learners chose to write about within each theme. One of the main goals of the study was to clarify what it is that learners already know in terms of literacy. As is explained in Chapter 3, there is more often than not a disparity between the literacy practised at home and the literacy expectations at school. The narrative program, and writing little books especially, can be used as a magnifying glass to find out what learners know. Several “lenses” can be used in the course of this enquiry. Below follows an analysis and discussion of each of these lenses. 1) dependence on known stories such as fairy tales and prescribed school texts, 2) what learners choose to write within the parameters of the suggested topics, 3) which of the research outcomes showed up in their writing and 4) what unexpected discoveries were made.

5.4.1 Response to suggested topics

As has been stated already, learners were given free rein in the topics they chose, with guiding suggestions such as writing about themselves and their families (book 1) or an animal (book 2). For their second writing exercise both classes had been asked to bring stories from home to share with their classmates. These stories could be from books, oral stories from grandparents or any other form of narrative that they experienced at home. The learners in different classes all received the same basic instructions and were equally free to choose their topics, however, the way in which they responded to the suggestions and choices were different.

Both schools were given two opportunities to write little books, but these opportunities, just like the choice of topic, was voluntary. Class 1 from School A did not write a second little book. School B’s learners made use of both opportunities. For the second little book both sets of learners had the choice to write a story on their own or to write it in pairs. One wrote the text and the other drew the illustrations. School A’s learners wrote mostly in pairs, while all except two learners from School B wrote their own story. This explains the lower number of little books produced in School A Book 2.

The learners of School A (both classes) brought stories from home as they had been requested to do. Many of the little books have versions of these stories as their content. The learners from School B, however, did not do the same: they chose not to tell their stories in oral form to their classmates, but some of them did write fragments of stories as told by people from home. This prompted the researcher to read them a story that was intended to stimulate their enthusiasm and creativity. The book selected, was *Die Bakker se Kat (The Baker’s Cat)* (Aiken, 1983: 75). Learners in this group had

been asking for this story prior to the reading because the pictures of the giant cat intrigued them. They were very excited about the story to the extent that afterwards they wanted to hear it again. Two learners eventually chose this story as the subject of their little book.

Evaluating the appreciation learners have of narratives was one of the explicit objectives of this study. Although this is not a comparative study, it is interesting to note that the different groups emphasise different modes of narratives. Learners' appraisal of story-telling was manifested in several ways. School A learners on the one hand showed a mixed appreciation towards the act of writing stories. Class 1 participated in the oral part of the activity by telling the stories they brought from home, but when given the opportunity they did not write any second exercise. The learners from Class 2, on the other hand, told their stories as well as wrote them down. Learners from School B did not respond to the suggestion that they bring stories from home, but they showed great enthusiasm for stories being read to them, which they then used as inspiration for their second little book.

Another finding was that learners from School A, Class 2 chose to write a third little story. During the third term the researcher focused on small groups of learners and engaged them in specific tasks. No class time was spent on writing little books. Learners had to write little books in their own time if they wanted to. Fifty-eight little books were received, but only 22 of them met the criteria stipulated in section 5.2 above. The others were incomplete efforts of which 25 had an author's name on the cover and 11 had no author's name. Of the 22 complete exercises 18 were solo exercises and 4 were written in pairs. Three learners had multiple little books, either as sole author or as writer with an illustrator. Most interesting was that the previous work of the participating learners came from the full range of categories; 1 to 5, most of the previous exercises were classified as 2's and 3's, but some of their previous work was also classified as 1, 4 or 5. This may be due to the teacher's influence and not due to their own enthusiasm and appreciation, but they nevertheless engaged in more writing.

Learners' existing enthusiasm should be used as a doorway through which they can enter a greater variety of literacy practices. Vygotsky names it the proximal zone of development; giving learners work slightly above their capacity, work that they can master with the help of the teacher and their peers. The question that arises is what helps them take that step up from where they are to where they are going? In other words, what makes them follow their teachers, or fellow learners? The answer garnered from this particular study is their existing enthusiasm. Even though not all the

learners participated in the writing of the second little book some of them did write a third little book during the second phase of data collection while the researcher was working with smaller groups. As is clear from this study, there may be a delay between showing enthusiasm for one form of literacy (oral) and translating it into another (written). Using their enthusiasm and streamlining how to channel it may be suggested as a future research endeavour.

5.4.2 Degrees of dependence on existing stories

With regards to the choice between a novel story and a known story as shown in Table 5.4 illustrates how many learners chose to write about stories they already knew. Of the 123 little books used for this study 40 little books were written about previously known topics.

Table 5.4 Previously known topics of choice

		Die Baashond van Bloemstraat ³⁷	Die Bont broek ³⁸	Antjie en die Krimpvarkies ³⁹	Haas en Skilpad ⁴⁰	Leeu en Muis ⁴¹	Die Drie Varkies ⁴²	Die Drie Bere ⁴³	Skoonlief ⁴⁴
SCHOOL A	Book 1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0
	Book 2	4	1	0	0	0	0	1	0
SCHOOL B	Book 1	2	1	0	2	1	0	2	1
	Book 2	3	2	2	5	5	5	0	1

The first three titles in Table 5.4 are from books the learners had previously read in class, not as part of the Narrative Enrichment Programme. Each class is divided into groups and the group work consisted of reading Big Books as well as these three titles. Only one Big Book had been used as subject matter and that is one about spiders. Only one learner chose to write about this and therefore it was not included in the table. The fourth and fifth titles are those of stories they read in

³⁷ This title does not have an accurate translation in English

³⁸ The multi-coloured pants

³⁹ Antjie and the hedgehogs

⁴⁰ Hare and Tortoise

⁴¹ Lion and Mouse

⁴² The Three Little Pigs

⁴³ The Three Bears

⁴⁴ Beauty (and the Beast)

their language books, ones on which they had to do exercises. The last three titles are those of well-known fairy tales that they might have heard in class or at home.

The degree to which these learners used the original text in their little books varies from learner to learner. Ten learners committed plagiarism in that they rewrote the stories word for word from the original text. This only happened with the first three titles and *Leeu en Muis (Lion and Mouse)*. Ten learners rewrote the stories from memory. These stories contained phrases from the original texts but they were used within the learner's own retelling. There are nine learners who used two or more of these stories as subject matter for one single little book. These multiple stories within one story will henceforth be referred to as "omnibuses". Eight learners incorporated passages of these titles, especially the ones they read in class, into the little book about themselves and family. Three learners only referenced one of the titles as their favourite stories. One girl named *Skoonlief* in her first story and the other named *Die drie bere* as her favourite.

Two learners however incorporated some of the characters into their own original stories which not only show an appreciation for the written word, but also an internalisation of what they have read. In (2) below, one boy wrote a story about his dog Snip, a character from the *Baashond van Bloemstraat*. It is clear that he uses Snip as a character for his own story because of his choice of words.

2. Snip is my beste [besti] hond. Oral [Oorhal] waar ek gaan gaan hy ook saam [sam] met my. Ek en
Snip is my best dog Everywhere where I go go he also together with me. I and
 Snip [snip] speel op die nat gras. My hond Snip [snip] maak asof [as ov] hy die baas is.
Snip play on the wet grass. My dog Snip makes as if he the boss is.
(Snip is my best dog. Everywhere I go he goes with me too. Snip and I play on the wet grass. My
dog Snip acts as if he is the boss) (A2-3-1 DA).

He describes Snip to be his best dog and how Snip accompanies him everywhere he goes. They play on the wet grass. He then says that Snip pretends to be the boss. This sentence confirms that he used the original text and character as inspiration because in the original text Snip is the *Baashond* – literally translated as the *boss dog* – of his street.

A girl from School B told the story as in the original text, in (3), but she also expressed her own feelings towards the main character in the following way:

3. Ek hou baie van Snip. Ek wens ek het vir Snip opgepas [op gepas].

I like very much (preposition) Snip. I wish I (past part.)(preposition) Snip looked after.

(I like Snip very much. I wish I looked after Snip/that Snip was my dog) (B-3-2 MU)

She states that she likes Snip very much. She then expresses the wish that she could have looked after Snip, meaning she wished that Snip was her dog. As in (2), both learners show an affinity for Snip, and this affinity motivates them to write Snip into their stories.

Another girl from School B wrote a story and wrote about Skoonlief into her own world. The author wrote Skoonlief was a girl from her own world, as can be seen in (4).

4. Skoonlief is my beste [best] maat. Elke...middag lees ek my storieboek [storie boek].

Skoonlief is my best friend. Each afternoon read I my storybook.

Skoonlief het in 'n pragtige [pratige] kasteel gewoon. Daar...was maats by ...Skoonlief.

Skoonlief (past part) in a beautiful castle lived There were friends with Skoonlief.

Skoonlief is 8-jaar oud [8jaar oud]. Skoonlief woon in Eerstekraal 45 Skoonlief se straat se naam is

Skoonlief is 8-years old Skoonlief lives in Eerstekraal. Skoonlief 's street 's name is

Sonneblomstraat.46

Sonneblom street.

(Skoonlief is my best friend. Every afternoon I read my storybook. Skoonlief lived in a lovely castle. There were friends with Skoonlief. Skoonlief is 8 years old. Skoonlief lives in Eerstekraal. Skoonlief's road is called Sonneblomstreet. (B-2-2 JAM)

In this fragment she writes that Skoonlief is her best friend, that she reads her storybook every afternoon and that Skoonlief lives in a beautiful castle. Skoonlief is also 8 years old, just like the author, and she lives in the same village and street as the author. Apart from making a fairy tale character her friend, the extract also shows some of the discontinuity between what learners read and what they know. In (4) the author turns Skoonlief into an ordinary girl her age, her best friend, but she writes that Skoonlief lives in a beautiful castle. However, the narrative shows discontinuity in place because Skoonlief also lives in Eerstekraal, a village very far removed of any sort of castle. The sentence describing her living in a castle is merely a rewrite of the story as read in the books. The change of locations shows that the author is unable to relate to the original setting of a castle,

⁴⁵ Name changed for anonymity.

⁴⁶ Name changed for anonymity.

but rather turns Skoonlief into an ordinary girl living in an ordinary village, the world most familiar to the author.

These forty books give evidence as to how learners use what they know in the form of existing stories. They can be classified into 3 main categories of dependence on prior knowledge. One group of four learners were solely dependent on these books to write their own as they only copied snippets of the original text for their own story. They used only paragraphs from the original while other learners used passages from the texts interwoven with their own stories, as in (2). This is the second category and shows less dependence. These learners were confident enough to tell readers about themselves *as well as* use some passages from stories named in Table 5.4. Granted, these stories are less coherent than the ones consisting purely of previously read texts. As no topics were barred from this exercise, all exercises were accepted. The point of the program is to get learners to write something down, even if they choose to use an existing story. The last category shows how learners identify with one or more elements of a particular story, in this case *Die Baashond van Bloemstraat* and *Skoonlief*, in (3) and (4). These learners could use existing characters in their own story in an original way as well as express an emotional bond with them. This shows more internalisation of literature, which in future leads to better reading practices, if developed with care.

Learners who grow up with literacy inputs that differ from the formal school setting may show some resistance or hesitation towards writing. This was evident in the hesitation shown by all the learners for writing their first stories. The underlying hypothesis of the program is that the act of authoring inspires more authoring and as such the act of authoring could not be restricted in any way. Writing about anything had to be broken down into writing about something smaller, something known such as family and themselves. Once this topic was given, most learners came up to the mark. Those still hesitant to write an original story had the comfort of writing about their school stories. With this open approach to writing all the learners had the opportunity to write their own story it which may lead to more authoring in the future.

5.4.3 Reason for suggested topics

As is stated above the learners' limited experience due to little prior opportunities often becomes an obstacle to their creative processes, but it can be remedied by the act of writing itself. This obstacle to writing was evident in the way that learners were very hesitant or even unable to respond to the instruction to "Write about anything." "Anything" is a very daunting word for someone who might think that he or she has nothing significant to write about. In contrast, the suggestion to "Write about yourself and your family" is much less daunting because learners are provided with a topic, because all people like to be known in various degrees. Thus writing about oneself and one's family does not seem like such an insurmountable task as write about "anything".

Learner's hesitancy to write about anything was unexpected, the original plan being to give as little instruction as possible in order to assess their authentic understanding of writing and authoring. But, the necessity of the instruction is a point of assessment in itself and it turned out to lead to an advantage in disguise because it gave a more concrete basis from which to assess learners' current level of awareness of language and language uses. The topic of self and family did narrow the field slightly, but within that topic one can still look at what learners choose to reveal about themselves and their family. For the second topic of "Stories from Home" or "Anything" or "An Animal" or "Anything", learners' choices also reveal a lot about their living environment, which does not always come to the attention of the teacher. In the next section follows a discussion of the most salient sub-themes within these larger themes that learners chose to address in their little books illustrating how the content of their little books can mirror their lives.

5.5 SUB-THEMES

For both little book exercises several sub-themes were identified across both schools. These themes formed part mostly of the first little book in which learners had the option to write about themselves and their family, but since topics remained their own choice, some learners wrote stories containing these themes for their second exercise as well. For the second sub-theme learners could write about stories that they brought from home (school) or any story containing an animal (school 2) or any other preferred topic. The most prominent sub-themes were: were 1) Family bonds and likes and dislikes, 2) Personal history and appearance, 3) Life events and 4) Future plans. While producing and transcribing the little book texts some themes immediately became salient. Many of the sub-themes occurred with overlapping collocations, words such as "lief vir" (love) and "hou van"

(like). Thus certain words were used as links by which most of the sub-themes could be joined together.

5.5.1 Family, likes and dislikes

The word “lief” as in “ek is *lief* vir...” (I love...) occurs 20 times across schools and little books. The most prevalent occurrence is in Book 1 for both schools and is used in the context of family members. Next most prevalent is the sub-theme of sport. The girls love netball and the boys love mostly rugby and then cricket. Some learners also mentioned their teachers and the researcher. Learners in School B were more prone to use “lief” in describing their relationship with their friends rather than their families. School A used “lief” more to describe the relationship between them and their parents and siblings than their friends. A word cluster that is semantically related to “lief” is “hou van” as in “ek hou van” (I like...). There are 57 occurrences of the cluster “hou van” across both schools and both books. In contrast to “lief”, this phrase was predominantly used to describe general likes and hobbies. Below are some interesting examples of how learners use these terms. The most prominent like that was mentioned in School A was that of eating and food-related topics, such as cake and “kerriekos”, a local dish. Drawing was liked by many learners in School B rather than eating.

In the following example (5) from a first little book by a girl in School A, one can see the use of both “lief vir” (love) and “hou van” (like) in the context of family bonds.

5. Ek is **lief vir** my pa. Ek **hou van** my ma ook.
... (add verb) love for my dad. I... like (preposition) my mom also
(I love my father. I like my mother too.) (A1-3-1 MP)

The topic of sport was quite gender based and according to what is available at school. Thirteen boys across both schools said that they like rugby as opposed to only two boys (one from each school) who said they liked cricket. Eight girls from both schools like playing netball and one girl said she likes playing rugby.

The last salient theme included in this section is that of television entertainment. Two learners from School A named it as an activity that they like doing. One girl said her favourite “program” is SABC2 (a local television station) (A2-3-1 MS). Two learners from School B named it as an activity that they did on a daily basis. Most importantly were the two learners that devoted a whole or part of their

little book to their favourite television show: Ben 10 (a cartoon about a superhero) (B-2-2 JP, B-2-2 VH). They put immense effort into the illustrations of the story. They consisted of colourful traced images from the television show. The text was simple in that it followed the pattern of the previous little books by stating that they like Ben 10 and that they watch it every day and that they like the aliens.

5.5.2 Personal history and physical description

Interestingly only learners from School A chose to write about their dates of birth or when they have their birthdays. Fifteen learners said when they had their birthdays, either by day and month, or by day, month and year. A few of these learners had celebrated their birthdays during the data collection period, which may have been why they were motivated to mention it. Another eight learners said when they were born either by year or by day, month and year. One boy even specifically stated that he was born in “Woesterhospitaal” (Worcester-hospitaal) (Worcester hospital) (A1-4-1 FJ). One girl from School B chose to write about her birthday as a topic for the second little book.

Many learners chose to also describe their hair and eye colour and those of their siblings and other family members. Fifteen learners chose to mention their hair colour and 16 mentioned their eye colour. This theme of physical description was not repeated in any of the learners’ second exercises except for one girl from School B who wrote about Skoonlief and stated that her hair was long.

It is quite obvious that given the suggested topic of self and family physical descriptions of either or both will occur. What was interesting was that some learners chose to also say what colour their skins were. Two of the three examples of this were made with either explicit or implicit racial reference. This particular example of physical description will be discussed in section 5.5.5 because it has more to do with self-affirmation than just ordinary physical description.

5.5.3 Future plans

Another theme that is not as frequent as that of likes and dislikes, but just as important, is that of future plans. Only two learners out of the 90 learners who participated wrote about their dreams of the future. One girl from School B said she wanted to be a doctor and one boy from School A said that one day he wanted to be a rugby player. The other learners only described what they either did during a previous weekend or what they would be doing the next weekend, or after school.

Again this is a case of what learners deem important to mention about themselves, especially in the first book where family and self was the theme. Although describing the immediate is not restricting in and of itself, one may argue that if learners do not deem future plans important it may have a negative effect on their motivation for learning. One such an effect may be that they may not see the necessity for broadening their literacy skills. The relationship between motivation to broaden literacy skills and learners' future hopes may serve as material for future in-depth studies. It, however, falls outside the scopes of the current study.

5.5.4 Stories from home

The diverse response to the second writing opportunity bears direct evidence towards several research objectives as stipulated in section 1.3.2 in this document. In the first place it shows the different degrees of appreciation that learners have for the spoken word and how it can be transferred to the written medium. The class that responded the best to this suggested topic was School A, Class 2. They told the most stories from home, ranging from jokes to folk tales and fables. From the stories that were told, three learners wrote them down as narratives for their little book. School A, Class 1 also participated in this exercise by telling stories. One boy retold a story he had heard in Grade R. It was the story of the Troll and the three billy goats. Not only did he remember it, but he remembered it nearly verbatim. While he was "telling" the story it was like he was reciting it from a book.

Learners from School B were very reluctant to tell their stories in class. No one volunteered a story, so in order to provide a stimulus for further writing a class reading of *Die Bakker se Kat* was done. The suggested theme for this exercise was "animals". Eleven learners used the stories that they already did in class as discussed in section 5.4.2. Only four learners wrote their own original animal stories about a pet, a horse or a dog. One girl started writing a story her grandmother told her which was about her grandfather and a dolphin. This particular story however formed part of an omnibus of little stories that she wrote as her second exercise. This story was also incomplete. Eight learners chose other known stories as subject matter such as "The Seven little goats" about a wolf tricking seven little goats to open up their door and then eating them. This particular story is familiar to the researcher as a library book. Ten learners chose to write their own non-animal stories, ranging from their holiday, a wedding and a very gruesome story about a boy cutting up his grandmother.

While producing the little books only two snippets of stories from home were found. Both learners, a boy (B-2-2 CO) and a girl (B-2-2 CM) included their home stories in an omnibus, a collection of

other stories. In both cases the grandmothers were the storytellers. The boy's grandmother told him the story of her days on the farm where she grew up and the girl's grandmother told her the story of a dolphin and the girl's grandfather. Both stories were left unfinished in midsentence.

It was decided that the topic of "stories from home" will be briefly discussed in this section, but that more detailed examples will be given in the next section when the research objectives are addressed in more depth.

5.6 ANALYSIS IN TERMS OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following sections are devoted to analysing the data according to how it fits with the research objectives that were set at the beginning of the study. The sections to follow are: 1) Signs of appreciation, 2) Signs of awareness, 3) Regional language use 4) Effects of programme and 5) Unexpected findings. Each of these sections encompasses one or more of the research objectives as they were set out in Chapter 1. For ease of reference, the objectives are listed below.

1. Does use of the Narrative Enrichment Programme developed for this study show significant signs of the current state of learners' knowledge of their L1, achievement of expected literacy goals, language awareness, awareness of appropriate language forms (registers, genres) for different contexts of language use? What does the programme disclose regarding learners' appreciation of the value of their first language as a social and communicative instrument?
2. In the use of their first language (L1) as evidenced in the data from the Narrative Enrichment Programme, do learners show awareness of language variety/ register/ genre/ literacy? Alternatively, what kind of awareness regarding language variety/ register/ genre/ literacy do the learners' project?
3. Does the Narrative Enrichment Programme disclose significant information on learners' appreciation of spoken and written narratives as forms of art and expression? If so, how and in which form is such appreciation indicated? Is there evidence that the programme has improved/fostered such appreciation?
4. Can the use of a local variety of Afrikaans as it is evidenced in the data be characterised as diglossic? Alternately, is there a difference between the home language of the learners and

the language required in their schoolwork? Does the data give signs of school expectations regarding language use that is not a continuation of the home repertoires?

5. Are there indications in the data that learners appreciate the value of written narrative? What are the features of the written work learners produced that signal narrative proficiency of a more or less advanced level (also in relation to expectations for their age group)?
6. Are there any indications that learners' participation in activities that present language for enjoyment, such as language games and language for laughter (also as in reading stories and creative writing, i.e. activities included in the enrichment programme), had an effect on their engagement in reading and writing activities in school work?

As a start-off procedure, a tally was done to determine how many learners actually mentioned something about literacy and literacy related topics. The search words "lees" (read/reading), "skryf" (write/writing) "taal" (language), "Huistaal" (Home language) and "Engels" (English) and "Afrikaans" (Afrikaans) were most prominently visible while sorting it for analysis. Thus, they were used as general search words. The search word "taal" on its own did not have any hits for either school. For further analysis, the context in which these words were used was considered. Below is a table giving the findings from both schools. The context in which these words were used will be illuminated in the following subsections.

Table 5.5 Literacy activities according to search words

	Lees	Skryf	Huistaal	Engels	Afrikaans
School A	4	1	1	1	0
School B	8	6	0	1	1

Most of these terms were used in the first little book exercise in which learners had to describe themselves and their families. Twelve learners used the word "lees" in their little books, of which only 3 from School A used it in a context of appreciation (see below for more details). Six learners from School B used "skryf" in their stories. One girl from School A used "geskryf" in a statement that shows strong appreciation. It will be discussed below. No other learners from School A used any variant of "skryf". "Huistaal", "Engels" and "Afrikaans" were all used only once in either one or both of the schools' little books corpus texts.

5.6.1 Appreciation

The signs of appreciation can be divided into two main categories, that of appreciation for the written form and that of appreciation for the spoken form. The examples from Table 5.5 fall under the written category, while the second exercise of little books that were based on stories from home fall under the spoken category.

5.6.1.1 The Written Form

In Chapter 1 the following research objective relating to written appreciation is given: Are there indications in the data that learners appreciate the value of written narrative? What are the features of the written work learners produced that signal narrative proficiency of a more or less advanced level (also in relation to expectations for their age group) (section 1.3.2)? In this regard several search terms relating to the written form were used to gain insight into the learners' understanding and/or appreciation of the written form.

The search term "lees" (see Table 5.5) appeared in several little books. One instance appeared was in a story that was directly copied from a prescribed storybook. In most instances learners used "lees" in general statements like "Ek hou van lees" (I like reading). One learner from School B qualified his statement by saying that he likes reading very much (B-3-1 BN). Another learner, also from School B, titled his book "My storie se naam is ek hou van boeke lees" (My story's name is I like reading books.) (B-3-1 CO). The story itself does not contain anything about reading or writing, but rather subjects on rugby, what he likes to eat and so forth. The fact that the title has nothing to do with the content of the story shows his lack of understanding of cohesion and narrative structure. One reason for choosing such a title may be because of the fact that he was busy writing a book and felt it necessary to state that he also likes reading them.

Three learners name reading as an activity. One girl from School A names it as a class activity "In die klas dan lees ons die boekies [boekies]" (In class then we read books). In School B two learners name reading as an afternoon activity. The one girl says, "Elke middag lees ek my boek" (Every afternoon I read my book.) (B-2-1 AW). This book refers to Skoonlief, which she also says is her "best" book. Another girl from the same school also says that she reads Skoonlief every day: "Elke middag lees ek vir Skoonlief" (Every afternoon I read Skoonlief.) (B-2-2 JAM). The "vir" is a regional use and will be discussed in the section on regional use of language. These two examples were the

only ones that occurred in the second little book, while all other examples occurred in the first little book.

The use of “skryf” was more varied than the use of “lees”. Learners from School B almost always mentioned their appreciation for writing in conjunction with something else that they like, two examples of which are flowers and drawing. One girl also used the word “skryf” in the title of her book: “Die storie wat ek skryf” (The story that I write) (B-3-2 DdV). This girl too does not have a good understanding on how to formulate the title of a book. This particular story is quite a shock to the system after such a non-descriptive title: it is about a boy who cuts up his grandmother.

One learner writes, “Ek is baie lief vir die storie wat ek geskryf het” (I love the story that I have written very much.) (A2-3-1 CG) Just like the others she uses her statement as a title of her story, but unlike the others this statement serves more as an introduction to what follows. The story that follows is a textbook example of someone describing herself and her family as well as her school and activities she likes. In short she describes her world as she experiences it in and out of school. It is these ‘life experiences’ that gave unexpected insight into learners’ worlds that will be discussed in section 5.6.4.2. This girl also shows awareness of genre that will be given more prevalence in the next section.

The other search terms, “Huistaal”, “Engels” and “Afrikaans”, were used by only two learners. One girl used “English” to clarify her statement of liking reading on the grounds of different languages by saying “Ek hou ook daarvan om Engels [engels] te lees” (I also like to read English.) (A2-4-1 KS). Another girl stated that she was good at Home language, meaning Afrikaans. Another girl stated, in an effort of self-affirmation, that she can speak English and Afrikaans. Her statement is discussed in detail in the section on self-affirmation and racial awareness below.

5.6.1.2 The Spoken Form

Research objective 3 asks whether the Narrative Enrichment Programme discloses significant information on learners’ appreciation of spoken and written narratives as forms of art and expression and how this is expressed. This expression of appreciation for spoken narratives was most visible in the learners’ response when asked to bring stories from home. An introductory discussion to these stories was given in section 5.5.4 above.

As in other cases of dependence on previously encountered stories there are several levels of appreciation for the spoken form. The most basic form of appreciation is that of love of listening to

stories. One such an example is related to the old fable of *Die Musikante van Bremen* (The Musicians of Bremen) (Grimm, 1983: 126) and the learners' love of *Die Bakker se Kat* (Aiken, 1983: 75). The next level is sharing stories, as the learners did when they shared stories from home with each other. At this level learners do not necessarily write these stories down. At the next level of appreciation, learners write down their stories. It should be stated clearly that the act of writing down their oral stories in no way diminishes the value of the oral stories that were not written down, nor is it said that people cannot value oral stories unless they are written down. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this study, it is deemed at a higher level to be able to write down an oral story as a written story because it shows that the author has internalised the story in a deeper way. Also because Grade 3's are only at the beginning stages of writing down stories, the effort of writing takes more concentration than speaking and is thus at a higher level.

Children's reaction to the reading of the story of *Die Musikante van Bremen* offered quite an unexpected insight into their appreciation for the spoken word. The story is about four farm animals, a donkey, a cat, a cockerel and a dog, who are each about to be either slaughtered or given away because they are too old. They each decide to run away respectively to Bremen where they want to become musicians. They meet along the way and become unlikely friends. On the way to Bremen they find a house full of robbers. The animals decide to sing for them in return for something to eat, but the robbers think them to be the police and run away. The animals, in their innocence, think the robbers have left their home voluntarily so that they may have a place to sleep that night, an offer they take up all too gladly. That night, after a quarrel, the robbers return for the money they left in the house. The house is dark and the robbers cannot see the sleeping animals. The following passage is the one that evoked much joy from all learners, but one in particular.

Toe die dief in die huis kom, het hy een van die kerse probeer opsteek. Juis op daardie oomblik het die kat wakker geword. Sy oë het in die donker geblink. *Dis seker die kole wat so gloei*, het die dief gedink en 'n stuk hou na die kat uitgehou. "**Miaau!**" het die kat geskree en op die dief gespring, want hy het gedink die dief val hom aan. Die dief het hom dood geskrik en begin hardloop.

(When the thief entered the house he tried to light one of the candles. Just at that moment, the cat awoke. His eyes glowed in the dark. *It must be the embers glowing like that*, the thief thought and held a piece of wood to the cat. "**Miaaw!**" screamed the cat while jumping on the thief, he thought that the thief was attacking him. The thief was frightened to death and began running.) (Grim-broers, 1983: 129-130)

The two points of interest are bolded above. The moment the cat screamed was a climactic moment and the learners laughed exuberantly. This story, just like *Die Bakker se Kat* evoked special appreciation because it was about animals; something with which all the learners were familiar. It was only after the reading that the deeper appreciation for metaphor became apparent. One boy was giggling continuously even after having taken his seat at his desk and upon further investigation he repeated the second bolded phrase with glee. He was appreciating the image of the cat's eyes glowing like embers. This is an example of learners' ability to appreciate spoken form and metaphors even when they have never heard them before.

As was mentioned in section 5.5.4 there was one boy from School A, Class 1 who retold the story of the three billy goats and the troll. While telling the story the boy used the same monotonous intonation that is often used by young inexperienced readers when they read a story. The dialogue in the story was also as if read from a page. One could almost hear the punctuation marks while listening. When asked where he had learned that story he answered that he had learned it in Grade R, but according to his questionnaire this learner mentioned this story as one that he reads at home. He unfortunately did not write a second little story, so the value of using home literacy practices such as telling stories remained in the oral realm in this case. His retelling does however illustrate how school literacy events influenced home practices. He heard the story at school and it became a story that he regularly reads at home, as is evident from his questionnaire.

Another example of learners' appreciation for the spoken word relates to the story *Tinktinkie word Koning* (Tinktinkie becomes King) (A2-5-2 BLH). The boy heard the story from his father and he retold it with more spontaneity even though he also used the same kind of recital intonation. He then proceeded to produce a little book in which he rewrote the oral story. The written version was a slightly abbreviated version of its oral counterpart, but none of the coherence was lost.

In terms of relating this finding to the appropriate research objectives, this finding may be categorised as showing appreciation for spoken narratives as asked for in (4), but also makes objective 1 more nuanced relating to "significant signs of the current state of learners' knowledge of their L1 and achievement of expected literacy goals" as given in (1).

Not only does this example show how home practices can be used in school literacy activities, it also illuminates an important aspect of the relationship between appreciation for narratives and the ability (and preference) to relate them to others. This boy obviously had a deep enough impression of the story in order to retell it so faithfully. The goal of retelling the story, which he obviously knew

very well, may have been affected by shyness, thus the monotonous tone. This was sharply contrasted by the ease with which he recounted it in written form, indicating that there are also different levels of expressing knowledge of literacy goals, current states of knowledge and appreciation of narratives that should be taken into account within the classroom context.

Retelling stories from home is an important element in the narrative programme in that it tries to bridge the gap between home literacy environments and school literacy environments. This bridge is at its most basic level one between the predominantly oral world of young learners and the written world of school academics (reading and writing). At Grade 3 level learners' oral abilities are better developed than their written abilities, because they rely on oral communication long before they enter the formal education system. Therefore telling stories is much less daunting than having to write them. Retelling stories, especially from a familiar home environment, serves as an entry point to putting these same stories in writing and once learners write about what they have already spoken about, the gap between spoken stories and writing something novel is much narrower. Nicolini supports this by saying that "We are by nature storytellers; therefore, it only makes sense to allow students a chance to first do something at which they are already good" (1994: 58).

Both learners discussed in the above examples brought stories from home. Each of them illustrated one way in which this bridge can be built. One learner however did not use his story as material for a second exercise. He did not even write a second little book, but the other learner actually did use his story for writing his second little book. These learners are examples of the different paces at which individuals develop and how learners respond differently to any given task. If time allowed it, it would have been interesting to see if the first learner would have used one of his home stories as subject for a second exercise.

The little books in themselves are not only bridges between home and school but also windows onto the learners' current level of language awareness. The following section emphasises this aspect of the narrative programme.

5.6.2 Language Awareness

Language Awareness and how it is manifest in learners, lies at the core of this study. In section 1.3.2 the very first research objective formulated the intention to investigate any significant signs of language awareness which includes awareness of appropriate use of genre and register. Put more generally, the question is: what kinds of awareness regarding language variety/register/

genre/literacy do the learners' project? Because story-telling is such a specific and widely used genre, special attention was given to the signs of awareness for this particular genre. As to register and the awareness of different kinds of registers, this will be discussed in section 5.6.3 on the regional use of language.

Much can be said about the awareness of writing conventions such as spelling rules and will also be discussed in the current section. Learners show great awareness of rules, although they may not as yet have mastered how to apply them consistently.

5.6.2.1 Genre awareness

Awareness of genre was determined in this part of the study by looking at 1) how many times the learners mentioned any particular genre, 2) How many times they used features of any particular genre, and 3) How well they used the features of the story-book genre. In future research endeavours the current narrative programme could be expanded to include a variety of genres and activities built around them.

In the first instance, counting how many times learners mention different genres, very few learners wrote about the different genres to which they were exposed, either at home or at school. Only one girl mentioned the genres of news and reading the Bible. She said,

6. Ek vertel vir my juffrou in die oggend nuus In die oggend dan lees my juffrou vir ons Bybel [bybel]."

I tell to my teacher in the morning news...in the morning then read my teacher to us Bible.

(I tell my teacher some news every day. In the morning my teacher reads to us from the bible.) (A2-3-1

CG)

She names two different genres by name, news and religious scripture. Being able to name something shows a basic awareness of difference between things, thus this girl is aware of the difference between the genre of telling her teacher some news and the act of reading from the Bible. Reading from the Bible, however, can fall in the broader category of literature, or book reading. Two learners from School B (B-2-1 JDM; B-3-2 AW) state that they specifically read *Grootboeke* (Big books) every afternoon, a series of stories especially for foundation phase. This activity thus also extends their literacy practices from school to home.

What shows a deeper level of awareness than just knowing the difference between genres is the ability to use some of the features of any particular genre. In the case of these learners they were

engaged in the act of writing stories and several of them used features distinctly part of the genre of fables and children's stories. In the course of producing the little books the use of "Een dag" (Once upon a time) and "Lank gelede" (Long ago or Once upon a time) occurred and these were thus used as key words for a broader search. The use of "Een dag" occurred 22 times across both schools. Most learners used "een dag" in the retelling of fairy tales such as *The Three Bears* or *The Three Little Pigs* while 6 learners used it in the structure of their first stories such as in (7) and (8):

7. Een dag het 'n seun tekkies [tekies] gesoek.
Once upon a time (past tense marker) a boy sneakers wanted
(Once upon a time a boy wanted sneakers) (B-2-1 JHB)
8. Een dag was daar Jan en Slimjan.
Once upon a time was there Jan and Slimjan (= Smart/Clever Jan)
(Once upon a time there were John and Smart-John) (A2-4-2 JJ).

The term "Lank gelede" (Long ago/Once upon a time) occurred only in School B, where four learners used it in their stories. Three of these learners used it in the retelling of one of the stories named in Table 5.4. One boy from School B used it in a slightly novel way in that he retold what his grandmother had told him in one of the very few examples of home stories brought to school. His grandmother was simultaneously narrator and character in the story. The use of "Lank, lank gelede" also shows that his grandmother herself uses genre specific terms.:

9. Lank, lank gelede toe ek soos jy was het ek saam met my ma en pa op 'n plaas gewoon.
Long, long ago when I like you was, (past tense marker) I together with my mom and dad on a farm stayed.
(Long, long ago when I was like you I lived with my mom and dad on a farm.) (B-2-2 CO)

Two singular uses of other fairy tale features are that of "die einde" (the end) and "fluit-fluit" (snip, snap, snout). The use of this phrase is indicative of how learners embrace the genre and have internalised it. One girl ended her first story with "Die einde van my storie" (The end of my story) (B-3-1 DD). One boy ended his story with an alternative "Fluit, fluit [Fluit fluit] my storie is uit!" (snip, snap, snout, the tale's told out) (A2-4-2 JJ).

The above examples show basic awareness of phrases that are common to fairy tales. It is interesting to note that School B, whose learners made most use of these phrases, also showed more dependence on fairy tales and known stories when they wrote their first booklets because most of them retold these stories and used the common phrases. There were also more learners in School B who used these phrases as part of their original stories. This supports the notion that one

group displayed more dependence on known structures and stories than others. As a suggestion, this occurrence can be used when instructing them on the art of writing, either as an assisting mechanism, or more emphasis can be placed on how to write stories without these phrases.

Two learners also showed awareness of the connection between verbal and visual elements of the text in that their pictures fitted particularly well with their written text. On the whole picture and sentence matching was not attended to, which indicated limited awareness of this convention of printed stories, as was looked for in research objectives 3 and 4. This sensitivity to visual images and the ways they are linked to the written word was one of the areas that I chose to address in the third term during the smaller group sessions. Due to the general trend, when such genre-appropriate visual awareness was evident, it stood out. Two learners from School A, in particular, showed such visual awareness. One boy wrote in his first little book that he had chickenpox in Grade one and that he had to stay out of school for a few days. The picture he drew showed exactly what he had looked like (A2-3-1 BLH). See Figure 5.1 below. A girl told of how she had hurt her foot on a rock (A1-3-1 LM). The sentence structure was a bit unclear, but the picture complemented it so well, that it made up for the verbal shortcoming. See Figure 5.2 below.



Figure 5.1 Chickenpox



Figure 5.2 Hurting foot

Both these learners show genre awareness by being able to match their pictures with their text, which is obviously the desired format of little books. Even in the case of the girl, when learners do not have the same level of written competence, their visual competence can be used to facilitate improvement in the written sector of text writing. This should be explored in future studies.

Apart from showing signs of awareness of standard literacy conventions, some learners also showed the opposite, namely explicit signs of lacking awareness. Three learners across both classes in School A wrote their little books from right to left instead of left to right (A1-2-1 LM, A2-2-2 LA, A2-2-2 EW).

The final products of these books were printed in the standard left to right order and returned to the learners in the regular format so that they could perhaps learn from their effort. The correct use of punctuation such as “capital letters, full stops, question marks, commas, exclamation marks and inverted commas” (Department of Basic Education (b), 2011: 106) is a skill that learners should be able to apply to their written work in Grade 3. This lack of awareness was evident in the absence of inverted commas as markers of dialogue in some of the little books. Two learners from School B wrote stories with extensive dialogue, but did not use any inverted commas to indicate those dialogues (B-5-2 HM, B-3-2 MP). Together with a lack of awareness, the absence of inverted commas in this case shows a gap between achievements expected of learners at this age and their actual performance.

5.6.2.2 Awareness of spelling and punctuation

During the course of writing and producing the little books, learners’ spelling mistakes were not pointed out to them for two reasons. One reason was that the programme intended to encourage the learners to trust their own ability to write without receiving instructions; a second was that being called out for mistakes was likely to have checked their enthusiasm or willingness to participate. “Learners that discover their own spelling develop into better spellers than those who do not discover it for themselves” (Department of Basic Education (b), 2011: 16). Spelling is a useful tool when trying to determine the phonological and phonemic awareness of the learners. According to Gentry (1982: 193) there are five stages of spelling namely, 1) precommunicative spelling, 2) semiphonetic spelling, 3) phonetic spelling, 4) transitional spelling, and 5) correct spelling. The precommunicative spelling refers to that stage in which learners scribble notes, but have no sense of letter-sound correspondence. The semiphonetic stage is categorised by writing that only partially represents the words they refer to. Often letters also make up abbreviations for full words like “R” for “are”. The phonetic stage is characterised by more precise mapping of syllables. Although unconventional, “the choices are systematic and perceptually correct...” (Gentry, 1982: 195) By allowing learners to spell intuitively, the researcher could recognise three degrees of spelling awareness for each participant. These degrees refer to 1) words learners could spell, 2) words they could almost spell, and 3) words they could not spell at all (according to conventional spelling rules). This correlates with Gentry’s transitional stage in that it is characterised by learners 1) using a systematic, although unconventional spelling pattern e.g. using all the correct letters, but in the wrong order, or using one vowel instead of two according to the phonology of the word, 2) spelling

patterns resembling more those of the conventional orthography than the phonology of the spoken counterpart, and 3) using alternate spellings for the same sound.

The suitable or unsuitable use of punctuation is also included in this section. Inverted commas were discussed in the section above on genre awareness rather than here, because this is such an integral part of written stories.

Learners showed awareness of spelling and phonemes in the way that they changed their words while writing their stories. One learner changed “vriendlike” to “vriendelike” (friendly) (A2-5-1 LA). His original choice is much closer to the spoken counterpart, but the fact that he changed it to the conventional spelling is evidence of the transitional spelling phase. The learner corrected the word not on the basis of phonology, but on the basis of morphology and its visual appearance. Another learner from the same class changed “gegean” to “gegaan” (went) (A2-5-2 BLH). A boy from School B changed “heis” to “huis” (house/home) (B-3-2 JW). A girl from School B also changed her use of the letters “n” and “m” in several different instances. She changed “manma” to “mamma” (mommy) and “maam” to “naam” (name). In both cases she just went over the letters with her pencil and did not use an eraser. Her incorrect use was inconsistent because other instances of “naam” or “mamma” were written correctly. This may be a lack of phonemic awareness, but also just a transitional phase towards standardised use of orthography. Where she had made a distinct choice between “n” and “m” one learner in her class could not choose between the use of the letter “b” and “d” and used both. He wrote “verby” (past as in to walk past someone) by leaving the loops of the b and d on both sides of the vertical line of the b like this: db .

An unexpected occurrence was the use of “g” instead of “r” by several learners. This “g” represents the guttural sound pronounced [x]. The word “varkie” (little pig) became “vagkie” (B-2-2 CLJ) and the words “kar” (car) and “broer” (brother) became “kag” and “broeg” respectively (A1-3-1 RR). Many members of both communities speak with a burr. Thus these learners show a high level of awareness of the relation between sounds and how they are represented in writing.

The learners also had very intuitive ways of spelling other words like “tinktinkie” (popular local name for *cisticola*) that was spelled as “tingtingkjie” (A2-5-2 BLH). This learner used nearly every possible letter combination for the sounds [ŋ] as in “king” and [k] as in “king”. In Afrikaans the [ŋ] sound followed by a [k] sound is written as “nk” and not as “ngk”. Some diminutive forms require a “jie” and a “tjie”; “jie” if it is preceded by a “d” or “t” and “tjie” if it is preceded by a vowel. In both cases it sounds like “kie”. “Tinktinkie” is however not the diminutive of “tinktink” and has only one

form which simply looks like a diminutive. Thus the learner used his knowledge of diminutive endings and the rule that governs the “nk” and “ng” sounds and combined them as best he could resulting in what is probably the most striking example of the opaqueness of Afrikaans spelling. Another learner wrote the word “aliens” as “eileens” (B-2-2 VH) and one of his fellow learners spelled “shopping” as “soppieng” (B-2-2 TJ).

Misspelled words are a good indication of what learners are aware of. These three examples show how learners use their awareness of Afrikaans sounds and spelling rules to make sense of English orthography. For example, Afrikaans does not contain a “sh” sound, so the learner used “s” instead as can be seen in the above example (B-2-2-TJ).

Another unexpected occurrence was found the way in which learners wrote about their teachers. Learners from School B wrote about their teacher with the regular form of address, calling her Juffrou Roos.⁴⁷ The learners from School A, Class 2, on the other hand, used a peculiar form by writing their teachers’ initials and surname as a unit, such as Mnr M. Green⁴⁸ and Juffrou P. Periwinkle⁴⁹. Four of the seven learners who wrote about their teacher referred to her as Mrs P. Periwinkle, using her initial and not her full first name (A2-4-1 JA, A2-3-1 CG, A2-3-1 MS and A2-3-1 AL). Two learners referred to her in the conventional way as Mrs Periwinkle (A2-5-1 LA and A2-4-1 EO), while one girl who titled her story “*Oor [oor] myself [my self] en my juffrou*” (About myself and my teacher), always referred to her only as “my juffrou” (my teacher), never once using her name (A2-3-1 RM). One boy from School A, Class 1 wrote in the same way about his rugby coach, calling him Mr M. Green rather than the more conventional Mr Green (A1-5-1 AS). Only one learner from Class A wrote about their teacher at all and she only did so by saying what her teacher’s surname was (A1-3-1 MP). This way of writing the initial together with the surname may be indicative of a particular way in which these learners have been taught, or it may be that they see teachers’ names written in this format elsewhere, again indicating that they have a stronger visual awareness of what language looks like than of the conventionalised and taught rules of writing.

5.6.3 Regional use of language

The fourth research objective of this study was to investigate whether the learners’ language use could be identified as diglossic in nature. According to Crystal (1987: 43) diglossia refers to two

⁴⁷ Name changed for anonymity

⁴⁸ Name changed for anonymity

⁴⁹ Name changed for anonymity

distinct dialects of the same language being used in one particular community for distinct social purposes. The data collected from the little books showed two distinct examples of regional use of language. These were evident in some elements of the vocabulary and in the use of clearly regional expressions, which can also be called non-mainstream use of language.

One can argue that vocabulary choices are intrinsically part of the regional expression that learners use, and should not be discussed separately. However, in the present case, vocabulary choice refers to individual learners choosing a particular word to refer to something for which there is another more regularly used word available. What makes this different from a pure regional expression is the fact that both words are available in mainstream dialects, but that one is just used more frequently than the other. Regional expressions are words and larger phrases which follow syntactic rules that differ from mainstream expressions used in the same situations. This distinction will be made clear in the two sections below.

5.6.3.1 Vocabulary

Three interesting vocabulary items and their uses will be discussed in this section. This illustrates how learners integrate local linguistic features into their communicative patterns, regardless of whether such features are commonly found in other varieties or in genres typical of contexts unfamiliar to the learners.

The first illustrative lexical item is “vlinder” (butterfly) which has a synonym, namely “skoenlapper”. Learners did not consistently show awareness of the interchangeability of these synonyms; in fact, it seemed that they treated the English equivalent as such a synonym – in some cases as if unaware that “butterfly” is not an Afrikaans word. One girl, from School B, used this word consistently.⁵⁰ The girl writes:

10. Die meisie [Meisie] het 'n vlinder gesien [gesie-n].
The girl (past participle) a butterfly saw
(The girl saw a butterfly) (B-3-1 DdV)

This learner’s choice of “vlinder” is not an isolated occurrence. There are two other learners who made the same lexical choice during the small group exercises that were done in the third term. These will be discussed in Chapter 6.

⁵⁰ Another example of the use of “vlinder” will be discussed in section 6.2.6.

The next word that is used more frequently and with more specificity than in mainstream Afrikaans is the diminutive form “sustertjie” (little sister) in circumstances which generally require the unmarked form. Four learners in total, from both schools, used this diminutive form to denote sibling hierarchy. In all four cases “sustertjie” refers to a young sister. This might seem obvious, but typically “suster” (sister) is used to refer to a female sibling. The word “sussie” (sister +diminutive) is more commonly used than “sustertjie”. To clarify age differences, adjectives like “klein” (small) or “jonger” (younger) are used. The next example clarifies this hierarchy with the use of “baba” (baby):

11. Ek het 'n groot suster [sister] haar naam is Katie⁵¹ Ek het 'n baba [babba] <reg>
I (past participle) a big sister her name is Katie. I have a baby
 sustertjie [sistertjie] </reg>.
sister (+diminutive).
(I have a big sister her name is Katie. I have a baby sister.) (B-3-1 CLJ)

In (11) the learner used both the word “sustertjie” as well as clarifying adjectives. She has an older sister as well as a baby sister. The three following examples of “sustertjie” show that the learners do not necessarily use age related adjectives to denote the difference, since that the word “sustertjie” has a strong enough connotation on its own:

12. My sustertjie [sustejie] loop <reg> cresh </reg> [kres].
My sister (+diminutive) walks (lit.) cresh
(My little sister goes to creche (or play school)) (A1-3-1 JLD)
13. My sustertjie se naam <w> is </w> Cathy⁵².
My sister (+diminutive) 's name is Cathy
(My little sister's name is Cathy) (A1-3-1 MP)

14. Dan swem ek en my pa, en ma, en <reg> sustertjie </reg> [sisterkie], en my broer.
Then swim I/me and my dad, and mom, and sister (+diminutive), and my brother.
(Then me and my dad and mom and little sister and brother swim) (A2-3-1 MM)

In (12) it is clear from both the use of “sustertjie” and the mention of going to a creche, that she is younger. In (13) and (14) they also use “sustertjie”, but do not state whether she is younger. In

⁵¹ Name changed for anonymity

⁵² Name changed for anonymity

these cases one has to assume that they have younger sisters, or that they use “sustertjie” like a term of endearment as “sussie” is used in main stream Afrikaans.

The synonym for “sustertjie” that is more often used in main stream Afrikaans is “sussie” (little sister, or almost like “sis” in some varieties of English). The word “sussie” is also used by three learners, (A1-2-1 BK and A1-3-1 MP, B-4-1 MP). One girl used it in its plural form “sussies” to say that she has two sisters and the other used “sustertjie” was used in (11) to (14) to denote a younger sister.

A girl from the same school wrote a story about her family in which she, like most others, mentioned her extended family as well. In this regard she described her uncle as follows:

15. Hy is 'n lieflike [lieflukke] oom.
He is a lovely uncle.
(He is a lovely uncle) (B-3-1 DD)

“Lieflike” is a very emotive descriptive word. Having such a word at her disposal and being able to use it appropriately is, in my judgement, indicative of a well-developed linguistic awareness.

The examples above show how some words can have slightly different connotations in different communities, as in the case of “vlinder” and “sustertjie”. They may also reflect learners’ exposure to particular language forms at home and show how they can be clues to different levels of development and language awareness.

5.6.3.2 Regional expressions

The little books gave considerable insight into the regional language awareness of these learners. This is the one area of language awareness and literacy practices that is not fully utilised in the formal educational sector. Learners have their home varieties, as is clear from the way in which they write their little books, and they have their expected school varieties.

Four examples of regional expressions found in the little books have been illustratively chosen according to how often they occurred in both schools. Some of the examples were found in a single learner’s book only, but were nevertheless included on grounds of prior knowledge of regional use of these phrases.

a) “Resies vat” (Taking a race)

The first one is the phrase “resies vat” (to “take” a race). This phrase was only used in the context of two animals having a race. This was to be seen in the story of *Haas en Skilpad* (Hare and Tortoise). This use of phrase occurred six times across schools. The first example is about the eagle and the cisticola taking a race in order to determine who becomes king of the birds:

16. <reg> Vat dan ’n resies [reusie] </reg> sê [se] Volstruis [volstys].

Take then a race says Ostrich

(Take a race then, says Ostrich.) (A2-5-2 BLH).

Seven learners from School B wrote about the race between the tortoise and the hare, of which five learners used this particular phrase. No learners in School A wrote about this particular story, thus explaining the lack of occurrence of the phrase. One example from the corpus is:

17. Die skilpad het <w> gesê </w> ek kan <reg> ’n resies met jou vat </reg>.

The tortoise (past participle) said I can a race with you take.

(The tortoise said I can take a race with you.) (B-3-2 NZ)

Only one learner who wrote on the tortoise and the hare used the mainstream expression of “resies hardloop” (to run a race).

18. Een dag het Haas [haas] <reg> met Skilpad [skilpad] resies gehardloop </reg>.

One day (past participle) Hare with Tortoise race ran.

(One day Hare ran a race with Tortoise) (B-2-1 MW)

One learner who also wrote on the tortoise and the hare did not use the phrase at all, but rather the phrase “aangekom” (to come along) as can be seen in (19).

19. Die skilpad het stadig [staadg] <reg> aangekom [aan gekom] </reg>.

The tortoise (past participle) slowly along came.

(The tortoise came along slowly.) (B-3-2 BN)

The learner who used the phrase in example (17) also used this phrase of “aangekom” as follows: “Skilpad het stadig <reg> **aangekom** [aan gekom] </reg>” (Tortoise came along slowly) (B-3-2 NZ), showing that this expression is also accepted within their community.

One learner used the standard phrase of “running a race” in reference to himself and what he likes:

20. Ek [ek] hou van resies [ressies] hardloop. [,] <w> by </w> die skool.

I like (preposition) race run at the school.

(I like to run races at school.) (B-3-1 CO)

These examples clearly show that to “take” a race in the context of a competition is an established phrase within this community. Mainstream Afrikaans does not make such a distinction between races ran for competition and races ran as hobbies. Only one learner used the mainstream version of the expression as can be seen in (20). Even with just one out of six learners using the mainstream expression shows that both phrases do exist within the community, but that one is clearly preferred above the other.

b) “Hom pa/ hom broer” (Him father/ him brother)

The next regional feature that occurred several times is the use of the incorrect form of the pronoun in possessive phrases, specifically “hom+noun” (him+noun) (e.g. “hom pa” (him father)) instead of the correct “sy+noun” (his+noun) (e.g. “sy pa” (his father)). This phrase only occurred amongst the learners from School B. However, it is not certain that this phrase would not occur in the other school given the appropriate context because School A learners only talked about their own fathers and not someone else’s father, in which case the third person possessive pronoun was not needed. Three learners from School B used “hom” in examples (21), (22) and (23) below:

21. ...my pa [Pa] se ouers se naam is Carien⁵³ en <reg> **hom** </reg> **pa** se naam* is Chris.⁵⁴
 ...my dad 's parents ' names are Carien and him dad 's name is Chris.
 (...my father's parents' name is Carien and him father's name is Chris.) (B-3-1 AT)

This learner is able to use the appropriate possessive pronoun “sy” (his) in her other book when she talks about a wolf’s paw. She writes “sy poot” (his paw) (B-5-2 AT). In (21) she uses the first person adjectival form “my” (my) appropriately when she talks about her mother and her grandparents.

22. En toe gewys vir <reg> **hom** </reg> **pa** sy skoene is gebreek.
 And then showed to him dad his shoes is broken
 (And then showed him father that his shoes are broken (B-2-1 JHB))

In the source text of (22) the learner uses the appropriate phrase “sy pa” in a sentence initial position: “Sy pa het gesê {ouky} ek sal dit koop” (His father said, okay, I will buy it.) (B-2-1 JHB). In (22), however, he uses “hom pa”. The difference may be because of the position of the phrase within the sentence and the surrounding phrases; for instance, there is another “sy” phrase very close to the “hom pa”. (see the underlined section in (22)) whereas in the abovementioned other

⁵³ Name changed for anonymity

⁵⁴ Name changed for anonymity

sentence, “sy pa” is in sentence-initial position. The two variants of the same form may be used in order to avoid confusing.

23. En die ander varkie het na <reg> hom </reg> broer toe gehardloop
[gehardloop].

And the other pig (+diminutive) (past participle) to him brother ran

(And the other piglet ran to him brother.) (B-3-2 NZ)

This learner is able to use the first person possessive adjectival pronoun of “my” conventionally as in, “Die een varkie het gesê ek gaan **my** huis van strooi bou” (The one little pig said I am going to build **my** house of straw.”). In her other little book she writes about her dog’s name and uses the conventional form as in, “Sy naam is Roxy” (His name is Roxy) (B-3-1 NZ).

It is clear that these learners are aware enough of their language use in order to use the conventional form of the two, that being “sy” vs. “hom”. This indicates that the phrase may indeed be a regional expression only used in certain contexts such as in the above-mentioned phrases.

c) “Is” instead of “As”

In the examples in (24) and (25) the learners used “is” (is) instead of the correct “as” (when), probably due to the fact that the two Afrikaans words are pronounced almost identically.

Two learners, one from each school, used “is” [is] instead of “as” [if/when/as]:

24. <reg> **Is**⁵⁵ </reg> dit winter is eet ons sop. <reg> **Is** </reg> dit somer is trek ek my romp aan.

Is (lit.) it winter is eat we soup. Is it summer is put I my skirt on.

(When it is winter we eat soup. When it is summer I put my skirt on.) (A1-4-1 LM)

25. En [en] dan <reg> **is** </reg> ons by die huis aan kom het my ma <reg> vir my [vermg] </reg>

And then is we at the home arrive (past participle) my mom for me

geslaan.

spanked

(And then, when we get home my mother spanked me.) (B-3-1 JW)

The “Is” (Is) should be “As” (if) or “Wanneer” (When) “As” is a more colloquial expression and “Wanneer” is more within formal convention. The learners’ choice of “is” instead of “as” may be because of the way “as” is pronounced in everyday conversation. They then write their stories

⁵⁵ Literal meaning. The student clearly meant to use “As” (When)

according to what the words sound like and not according to orthographic spelling, much like the way in which they spelled English words (see section 5.6.2.2).

d) Single occurrences

The next few examples occurred only once each in the corpus. They are nevertheless included because they are examples of how the two communities use certain expressions and this can be said with a great deal of certainty due to the researcher's own knowledge of the two communities' language use.

The word "tietie" is used to refer to one's aunt. The mainstream word is "tannie". Only one girl, of the many who wrote about their aunts used the word in the following sentence:

26. Ek het 2 broers en 1 <reg> **tietie** </reg>.
I have 2 brothers and 1 aunt
(I have 2 brothers and one aunt (B-3-1 EW))

The next word is "gevaarlik" (dangerous) and it is often used to describe something as being very high quality or "cool". The word is often used when someone wants to emphasise the high quality of the thing that they are talking or, in this case, writing about.

27. Die seun het vir <reg> **hom** </reg> pa gesê ek soek <reg> **gevaarlike** [gevaaglike] </reg> tekkies
 [tekkies]
The boy (past participle) to him dad said I want "dangerous" sneakers
(The boy told his father, I want cool sneakers.) (B-2-1 JHB)

The next occurrence is the use of "is" (is) as a verb instead of "wees" (be). In the present case the learner is expressing his goal to one day be a rugby player:

28. Ek sal een dag [een dag] 'n rugbyspeler [rugby speeler] <reg> **is** </reg>
I will one day a rugby player is
(I will is a rugby player one day) (A2-3-1 WE).

In Afrikaans the sentence would be written as: "Ek sal een dag 'n rugbyspeler wees" (I will be a rugby player one day). This particular phrase is very common in spoken Afrikaans and occurs in the wider coloured community of Afrikaans speakers, not just this particular one.

Only one girl from School B used a sentence in which she had the choice to use "wees" or "is" and she chose "wees": Ons is bly om in Graad 3 [graad 3] te **wees** (We are glad to be in Grade 3.) (B-3-2 JG) The sentence could also have been, according to the spoken convention: "Ons is bly om in Graad

3 [graad 3] te is.” Like the examples in (16) to (20) on “taking” a race vs. running a race, (27) and this example show that both phrases are in use within this community. The use of “is” is, nevertheless, very prevalent.

Preferences for expressions and lexical items such as the ones discussed in this section on regional use of language clearly have an effect on the linguistic choices that learners make when they write and they should be handled with care: In the course of teaching the learners how and when to use the standard phrase care should be taken not to devalue the forms that they already know. Formal schooling systems are quick to follow a subtractive approach to languages and language varieties in which they try to replace a learner’s spoken variety with another one, instead of trying to expand a child’s variety by adding to their existing repertoire.

5.6.3.3 Borrowings from English

In the texts produced by the learners there were interesting instances of lexical borrowing. Words of English origin occurred in the narratives learners gave in their little books, as well as in the sequencing activities discussed in Chapter 6. Besides the use of “butterfly” as a synonym and interchangeable term for “skoenlapper” and “vlinder” (see analysis in section 6.2.6, Small story 26) quite a few other such instances were evident in the data. Some examples of such borrowings from the little books are:

- * “soppieng” (shopping) instead of the standard Afrikaans “inkopies doen” (B-2-2 TJ)
- * “eileens” (aliens) instead of the standard Afrikaans “ruimtesens” (B-2-2 VH)
- * “reslieng” (wrestling) instead of the standard Afrikaans “stoei” (B-3-1, BN B-2-1 VH)

What makes these borrowings particularly interesting is the fact that these learners have such limited exposure to English in their everyday lives, that one can only assume they learnt these forms as part of the regular dialect they have acquired as L1. There were no overt indications among the learners of awareness that such vocabulary items are borrowed words; their limited confidence and proficiency in L2 English supports the suggestion that such borrowings are acquired from community language use and cannot be taken as typical code-switching in a language contact situation.

5.6.4 Unexpected findings

As has already been established, the main objective of this study was to determine the extent of learners’ language awareness and the kind of appreciation they have developed for their mother

tongue. The objectives set up certain criteria of what to look for in the collected data. The current section, however, deals with the unexpected findings, those that cannot be delineated in terms of the research objectives, but are nonetheless valuable in terms of what they teach us about the participants, or language users. These findings then do not have a direct relationship with language awareness, but they do relate to the learner and thus also the way in which the learner uses language. These findings relate specifically to self-affirmation and racial awareness and effects of life experiences.

5.6.4.1 Self-affirmation and racial awareness

Noteworthy was the sense of self-affirmation and racial awareness that came from the little books. Some learners explicitly, without conceit, stated that they liked themselves. This occurred in three of the little books. There were different degrees of self-affirmation to be found across both schools. One boy from School B said “Ek het my lief” (I love me) (B-2-1 JHB) while a girl from School B used the same sentence construction by saying “Ek hou van my” (I like me) (B-3-1 AA). Two girls from School A said more emphatically “Ek hou baie van myself” (I like myself very much) (A2-4-1-KS) and “Ek is lief vir myself [my self]” (I love myself) (A2-3-1 JM). The use of “my” instead of “myself” may indicate that the reciprocal form (“myself”) is either not yet mastered or this is a feature of the regional variety.

On a linguistic level these examples show how learners have different levels of realisation when it comes to reflexive pronouns like “myself”, but also a social need to claim some self-worth. The boy from School B’s story is very incoherent with many repetitive statements. He also uses a lot more regional expressions than the girl described in the previous paragraph. His statement “Ek het my lief” is surrounded by statements of independence, how he looks after himself and does everything for himself. Growing up in a socio-economically challenged community such as his makes these statements important. Underlying these statements may be a life of hardship and one in which a child spends his time surviving the odds. He may not have time or drive for literacy practices other than the ones that promote his survival. Especially because he is a struggling writer, teachers need to be aware of his circumstances, so that they may try to use other enriching literacy practices as either alleviation of social circumstances, or incentive for him to better them.

The first girl from School A (A2-4-1 KS) starts her story by saying that she is unique and directly following that statement is the one mentioned above, that she likes herself very much. She names

her hair colour as blond. This is significant because she is of mixed racial background, although she never says so explicitly. She thus uses her little book as a tool for self-affirmation.

Three other girls mention more explicitly that they have brown skins. Two girls mention it as a matter of fact, in the same way that they, and many other learners, mention the colour of their hair or the colour of their eyes. One girl's statement is indicative of a world view, or perception that she assimilated from her community. She says:

29. ...ek is 'n bruin [bryn] mens maar ek praat Afrikaans [afriekaans] en Engels [engels]

...I am a brown person but I speak Afrikaans and English

(I am a brown person, but I speak Afrikaans and English.) (B-3-1 HM)

The sentence starts with where she goes to school and then follows with the statement that she is a brown (coloured) person, *but* that she speaks Afrikaans and English. Typically, by age eight children already know the distinction between “but” and “and”, thus her use of “but” is probably deliberate. This indicates that she believes there is a connection between race and the ability to speak both languages, a connection that she breaks. Her motivation to affirm this ability may point to an underlying belief that “brown” people are not able to speak both languages. If this is true, if she is an example of a larger group that has the same belief, it begs the question of how many other such beliefs they hold? More importantly, within the context and goal of this study, one may ask how such beliefs influence her and others' approach to literacy, specifically literacy in the context of formal education.

Cairney (2002: 159) states that literacy is “a set of social practices situated in sociocultural context defined by members of a group through their actions with, through and about language.” These actions or literacy practices, known and yet to be learned, are all subjected to the existing social order in which the users find themselves. We can only understand literacy and its practices “...when we also study the people who use it” (Cairney, 2002: 159).

As literacy is as much a “social practice as a psychological phenomenon” (Cairney, 2002: 159), the way in which these young authors chose to affirm their identity or self-love is a vital indicator of where they situate themselves as people and this in turn will have an effect on their overall language awareness as well as their approach to literacy practices. In order to broaden their range of literacy use, one has to be aware of what they *need* so that one may adapt a literacy program for them accordingly.

5.6.4.2 Effect of life experiences

As this study operates from the viewpoint that literacy, language and literature are socially situated, it is necessary to look at how society is reflected in literacy, language and literature. These learners, as any others, grow up with a certain set of social rules and expectations. Their society largely determines their life experiences and these in turn affect learners' language awareness, thus it is vital to pay close attention to signs of the effects of life experiences. In this regard there are three broad categories: 1) the type of stories learners choose to tell, 2) what details they mention and thus deem as important, and 3) the effect of their life experiences on their interpretation of things they see around them.

a) Effect on choice of stories

It was clear from the second exercise, in which learners could bring stories from home, that learners have a different set of home stories than other learners may have. These are stories like *Domjan en Slimjan* (Dumb John and Smart John) (A2-2-2 LA) and *Tinktinkie word Koning* (Tinktinkie becomes King) A2-5-2 BLH) or *Leeu en Slang* (Lion and Snake) (B-2-2-2 FT and B-2-2-2 BT). One girl wrote a particularly gruesome story about a young boy, who is asked by his mother to go and buy meat. He keeps the money, and instead chops off some of his grand-mother's limbs as the story progresses. Apparently his mother doesn't notice and the boy just refuses to eat. In the end the grand-mother haunts the boy by saying that she "has him now" (B-3-2 DvD).

These different types of stories carry with them different levels of general social acceptability. The fables are generally more acceptable because fables form a part of a wide range of communities. The stereotyping stories are also acceptable depending on the level of humour that they involve. However, the researcher's delicate sensibilities put aside, the last story is quite a shock to the system and brings to light the question of what kind of material to which this learner is exposed to? As the learners were explicitly told there are no restrictions as to what kind of stories they can write, the researcher had to allow this story as well, although she did not want to. But this is a valuable lesson on how teachers should guard against their own prejudices when working with learners. In any endeavour of learning and enrichment it is crucial to remember to engage with the learners on *their* level. This may not always be logistically possible for every single exercise, due to lack of resources and over-crowded classrooms, but in writing the little books, learners had to feel that what they have to say was of value.

The degree to which people in general, and learners in specific, feel that who they are and what they know are of value, is the degree to which they are willing to learn what another person has to teach them. In this particular regard it was important to value each story for what it was, the best effort that that learner could give at that time and in future, by valuing what they have to say, one may broaden the choices they have, not only for stories, but for life in general.

b) Effect on choice of details

Although the suggested topics were exactly that, suggested, most learners, especially for the first exercise chose to follow the suggestion. Writing about themselves was just easier than writing about anything they could think of. “Anything” presented them with too many options. It is the data from the first exercise in which learners had to write about themselves and their families that brought to light several interesting details of the learners’ understanding of the world. Differing from their racial awareness that became apparent, this section highlights the details about their personal lives that learners choose to reveal. From this a broader understanding of how they understand the world can be gained. Two of the most unique details were that of the explicitly stated or implied marital status of their parents and that of personal hygiene.

Two girls from both School A and School B revealed details about their parents’ marital status in the following ways.

30. My suster is 15-jaar oud. Haar naam is Catelyn⁵⁶. Haar van is Peters.

My sister is 15 years old. Her name is Catelyn. Her surname is Peters.

(My sister is 15 years old. Her name is Catelyn. Her surname is Peters.) (A1-3-1 MP)

The author introduces herself in the same way, stating her name and surname (which is the same as her sister’s). It may seem an obvious fact, but it implies that she and her sister share the same parents, a fact that cannot be taken for granted in many communities. This implicit statement may be more clearly understood when taking into account the next one:

31. My van is Uthersen⁵⁷. Ek het my ma se {waard} my pa en ma is nog nie getroud nie.

My surname is Uthersen. I have my mom’s {waard} my dad and mom are yet not married

(My surname is Uthersen. I have my mother’s {waard} my father and mother are not married yet.) (B-3-1 MU)

⁵⁶ Name changed for anonymity

⁵⁷ Name changed for anonymity

The word between curly brackets was unintelligible in the original text, but deducing from the context of the word, she could mean that she has her mother's surname. Unlike the girl in (30) she explicitly states that her parents are not married yet and therefore she has her mother's surname, presumably.

Personal hygiene was mentioned in various contexts by five learners across both schools as is seen from the examples below:

32. Elke dag was ek my en sorg dat ek altyd netjies is. Ek hou my kamer netjies.
Every day wash I me and make sure that I always neat is. I keep my room neat.
(I wash myself every day and always make sure that look neat. I keep my room tidy.) (B-4-1 BT)

The title of this story was *I look after myself*. And the above quote was the bulk of the story with a few other personal details. It is clear from his text as well as the accompanying picture (see figure 5.3 below) that cleanliness is quite important to this learner. Another boy (B-2-2 FT) plagiarised from both the above author's works, so his mention of personal hygiene was not counted.



Figure 5.3 Looking after myself

33. Toe was ek my. Toe gaan slaap ek. Saterdagoggend toe was ek my.
Then wash I me. Then go sleep I. Saturday morning then wash I me.
(Then I washed myself. Then I went to sleep. Saturday morning I washed myself.) (B-3-2 AvR)

In (33) the learner mentions washing herself a total of three times in this one little book, thus emphasising strongly how much a part of her daily routine this practice is.

34. Ek was my broer [broeg].
I wash my brother
(I wash my brother) (A1-3-1 RR)

Not only do learners look after themselves, but also their family members as is clear from (34). Not only does this example show personal hygiene, but also that learners have to take responsibility and help raise their brothers and sisters from a young age. Again this is no direct evidence of language awareness, but rather a detail that may influence their literacy practices and therefore have a significant effect on their language awareness as a whole.

35. Toe staan ons op toe gaan <reg> was ons vir ons </reg>
Then get us up then go wash us for us
(Then we got up and then we went and washed ourselves.) (A2-3-2 MSBM)

Again, washing is prominently mentioned in a collaborative effort of two girls from School A. As only one girl was the author, only she should be credited for thinking this an important detail, nevertheless washing is firmly established as an important activity for them every day.

36. As [as] ek klaar [klaa] netbal gespeel het was ek my klere uit.
When I finished netball played (past participle) wash I my clothes out.
(After I finished playing netball I wash out my clothes.) (B-3-1 EW)

This girl gives more evidence that learners have to take care of themselves. What other mothers do for their children she does herself and it is this self-reliance that shows how important cleanliness is to these learners.

Anyone may argue that personal hygiene is not specific only to this particular community, and they would be correct. Bathing and washing forms an essential part of most people's lives, but the fact to remember is that not every person would write about it so directly. The details learners choose to write about show what they consider to be everyday occurrences. It also shows their ability to objectify themselves as characters in their own stories. Further study is necessary into the details children choose to reveal about themselves.

These details may not show any discernible language awareness, but they do give detail about the author, and therefore detail about what kind of stories may appeal to learners. Once again it is a matter of meeting the learners at their level, be it linguistic or emotional. Meeting them at their level gives teachers a greater chance of facilitating their growth and progress to higher levels of understanding. Upward mobility can only be truly successful if a person's whole psychophysical nature is taken into account.

c) Effect on interpretation

A particularly poignant and humorous discovery was the extent to which learners use their existing knowledge of the world to make sense of things they have not come across before. There were two examples of such creativity, one from the little books and one from the picture exercises done with the smaller group of learners. The latter will be discussed in the next chapter.

Two learners from School A collaborated on a story called *The Cheese man*. It goes as follows:

37. Die Kaasman [Die kaas man]. Een dag was daar 'n kaasman [kaas man]. Hy het
The Cheese man. One day was there a cheese man. He (past participle)
 nie 'n meisie gehad [gehat] nie. Daar was 'n kaasman [kaas man]. Hy het in 'n
not a girlfriend had not. There was a cheese man. He (past participle) in a
 pynappel [pynapel] gewoon. Hy het by 'n hotel gewerk. Toe het hy vir
pineapple lived. He (past participle) at a hotel worked. Then (past participle) he for
 Patrick [Petrick] <reg> geontmoet </reg>.
Patrick metted
(The Cheese man. One day there was a cheese man. He did not have girlfriend. He lived in a pineapple. He worked in a hotel. Then he met Patrick.) (A2-4-2 MMJR)

The picture of the main character – the cheese man – is seen in Figure 5.4.

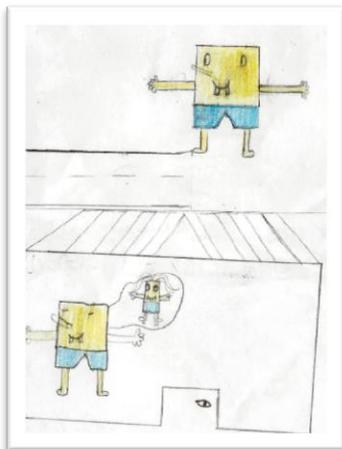


Figure 5.4 Cheese man

The learners were referring to a widely known TV program for children, namely *SpongeBob Squarepants*. Their representation here indicates that they did not know that *SpongeBob* is supposed to be a personification of a sea sponge. On reflection, *SpongeBob* does look quite like a

giant cheddar cheese, which explains why these learners retold the story in Afrikaans, making SpongeBob a cheese character, thus constructing him as something familiar. In this way learners use what they know in creative ways to fill gaps in knowledge. A sensitive teacher will find a way of showing the similarity between images of sponges and the stereotyped image of a block of cheese, and opening discussion on creatures such as sponges found in parts of the ocean these learners would not have come across in their regular daily life.

The above sections deal with the areas around language awareness, the areas from which language awareness is born. What they experience every day is what is going to manifest in their writing. What becomes clear from these examples is that it is not only the linguistic bridges between home and school that need to be built and reinforced, but also the understanding, the cultural knowledge that both spheres require. Understanding where these learners come from gives teachers the tools to adapt curriculum material that may accelerate the learning process and give learners additional knowledge that allows them to function optimally in both a home environment and an academic school environment, and thus later, the political and economic environments after school.

5.6.5 Signs of effect of program

Nineteen contact sessions can only reveal the tip of the iceberg in a study of children's narrative capacity. Even so, signs of some effect of the program, however small, give hope that with further and more systematic intervention more might be achieved. Three such signs of progress were found in the course of analysing the data for this study. The first sign was evident in the third set of books done by School A, Class 2. The second sign was evident in the willingness of one learner with particular difficulties in literacy development, to participate in the second exercise round of writing after not having participated in the first. The third sign was evident in that a few learners chose as writing material for their second books, a story which the researcher had read to them.

a) Third exercise set of books

The research project envisaged the writing and printing of only two sets of little books. What happened after the conclusion of the planned Narrative Enrichment Programme was that learners from School A Class 2 wrote a third set of little books with the help and motivation of their teacher. These little books, although a very encouraging development, were excluded from the study for various reasons, some of which will be discussed below.

A total of 58 efforts were obtained from the learners. The word “efforts” is deliberately used, because not all of them were completed. Of these 58 little books only 22 were deemed properly complete efforts that meet the criteria named in section 5.2. Of those 22 contributions, 17 were solo efforts and 4 were collaborations between a pair of learners. Three learners wrote multiple stories or parts of stories, between two and three little books each, either as a solo author or in a team effort. The remaining number of books was all incomplete, 25 of them with at least a title and author’s name on the front page and the beginnings of a story or pictures. Eleven little books that were handed to the researcher as the class’s own post-formal program contributions, neither had titles nor author’s names and thus could not be associated with a particular learner.

Despite the different stages of completeness and, in many cases, lack of genre specific elements, the fact that an effort was made was deemed a sign of effect of the program. Granted, the teacher was the main motivator of this effort, but even so, motivated teachers have an effect on their learners and can inspire them to deeper understanding of different literacy practices in time.

b) Willingness of formerly reluctant participant

One little boy, whose first little book was excluded from the list to be analysed due to it being virtually unanalysable, later showed marked improvement in his willingness to participate. He did not participate in the first little books exercise which was acceptable because no learner was obliged to take part and to write a story if they chose not to. During the second exercise this learner voluntarily participated by writing a story. The story however was largely unintelligible. Phrases and words could be discerned as Afrikaans, and the whole of the effort had no coherence and conformed to no grammatical or syntactic rules. The title of the story was, however, unintelligible as *Oor die perd* (About the horse.) (B-1-2 CM). The text itself did not contain a picture of a horse so the researcher asked the learner to tell her the story according to the picture. He was very shy and spoke virtually inaudibly, which necessitated the use of prompting questions from the researcher. The researcher specifically asked about the title and it came to light that he actually does have a horse; or rather, his father has a horse which he uses for riding and ploughing. The learner was never requested to draw a horse, but later during the period he asked for extra paper on which he then drew a horse (see figure 5.5 below). This effort was greatly praised and was included in this final little book. Even later he brought another picture, a traced picture of a worm (see figure 5.6 below). The story of the worm got lost due to the rambunctious background noise during the recording. Both pictures were included in the final effort.



Figure 5.5 Horse

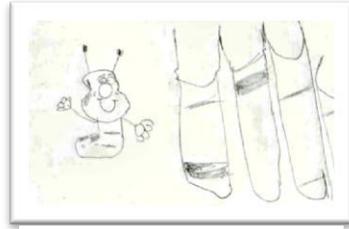


Figure 5.6 Worm

This learner appears very definitely to have some form of language impairment⁵⁸ that most probably needs specialised care. He is one of several such learners who, in the given context, are unlikely to be helped in a mainstream school. The teachers are most likely aware of such children not progressing according to expected norms, but are not equipped to provide dedicated assessment and support. In such circumstances, this boy's willingness to make an effort thus is all the more appreciated and praiseworthy. A picture from which his narrative can emerge may just be the start to improvement and the key to unlocking his literacy skills.

c) An inspired choice

It was mentioned that learners in School B did not tell stories from home to each other. As a result the researcher told them a story called *Die Bakker se Kat* (The Baker's cat) (Aiken, 1983: 75-82). Learners then were encouraged to write about an animal, or if such freedom would make it easier, about any other topic they wanted to. Two learners were so inspired by the story that they chose to retell the very same story, or include it in their own stories. Another learner made a reference to Gemmer (the baker's cat) by comparing him to his own dog. See the examples cited below in excerpts (38), (39), (40).

⁵⁸ About 3 million in South Africa are affected by Fetal Alcohol Syndrome and about 6 million are affected by Fetal Alcohol Spectrum Disorder. (FARR, 2015). The Western Cape has the highest occurrence of FAS and between one and two-thirds of all children with special educational needs were affected by their mothers' alcohol intake during pregnancy. (SANCA, 2015) The effect of FAS on literacy development is however beyond the scope of this dissertation.

38. Mevrou Bakkenbrou [Bakkerbrou]. Een dag het Mevrou Bakkenbrou brood en
Missus Bakkenbrou. One day (past participle) Missus Bakkenbrou bread and
 beskuit gebak. Dit het gereën. Mevrou Bakkenbrou [Bekkenbrou] het
rusks baked. It (past participle) rained. Missus Bakkenbrou (past participle)
 Gemmer uitgesit [uit gesit]. Gemmer het siek geword. Mevrou Bakkenbrou het
Ginger put out. Ginger (past participle) sick got. Missus Bakkenbrou (past participle)
 Gemmer geroep.
Gemmer called.
(One day Missus Bakkenbrou baked bread and rusks. It was raining. Missus Bakkenbrou chased Gemmer out. Gemmer became ill. Missus Bakkenbrou called Gemmer.) (B-2-2 MW)

This learner chose to rewrite the story, although he clearly did not remember all the details. The storyline is slightly incoherent and misses a few key details as to why she chased Gemmer out, but the main chronology is there. His story also included illustrations that matched the text, even if they were out of sync with the text. See Figure 5.7 below:



Figure 5.7 Mrs Bakkenbrou

39. Mevrou Bakkenbrou [Bakken Brou] Een dag was daar 'n vrou. Sy het
Missus Bakkenbrou Once upon a time was there a woman. She (past part.)
 elke dag brode gebak. Die brode het baie lekker gesmaak. Mevrou Bakkenbrou [Bakken Brou]
every day bread baked. The bread (past part.) very nice tasted. Missus Bakkenbrou
 se brode was baie lekker
's breads were very nice)
(Missus Bakkenbrou. One day there was a woman. Every day she baked bread. The bread
tasted very nice. Missus Bakkenbrou's bread was very nice) (B-2-2 BT)

This learner chose to incorporate only a little piece of the story within a larger omnibus. He did not give as many details about the chronology of the story, but focused more on the taste of the bread. Interestingly enough, knowing the story, his illustration (see Figure 5.8) is more accurate than that of the learner in (38). In the illustration below it looks as if Gemmer is in the oven, but he is in actual fact in front of the oven where he kept warm due to the rainy weather. It was also where Mrs Bakkenbrou put her bread to rise. Consequently she chased Gemmer out because he was sleeping on top of the bread.



Figure 5.8 Gemmer in front of the oven

40. My hond se naam is Snippie [Snipie] Hy [hy] hou van bene [beene] en kos Hy [hy] is ook soos
My dog 's name is Snippie He likes bones and food Hy is also like
 Gemmer
Ginger
(My dog's name is Snippie He likes bones and food He is also like Gemmer.) (B-2-2 FT)

The last learner (40) only mentioned Gemmer, but in comparison to his own pet. In a way this shows more initiative than the previous two examples. The accompanying picture also shows a melange of different sources. It resembles that of his friend's one pictured in Figure 5.3. He also labels all the furniture in the room, but he incorporates it with scenes from a bakery and Gemmer the cat can be seen as the tiny stick figure in front of the oven. See Figure 5.9 below.



Figure 5.9 Another Gemmer

5.7 CONCLUSION

This chapter has highlighted and given a description and interpretation of the most salient items in the little books data that illustrate 'language awareness' of the participating learners. From the above examples the following can be deduced. First, learners do bring home literacy practices to school as can be seen from the stories they brought to tell the class. Their levels of mother-tongue awareness in comparison to that of English L2-awareness was not clear and can be investigated at another time. Areas of limited awareness and development were identified in terms of the genres that they are exposed to, or choose to write about. Also their lack of confidence in writing their own stories shows a lack of development and exposure to such practices and should thus be developed in the future.

Learners' appreciation of spoken narrative forms was much higher than that of the written form, as was apparent from the way they shied away from writing at first, but loved listening to the stories read by the researcher. This is an important clue as to what kind of activities should serve as bridges between home and school literacy practices.

What appears to be of great value in this study is the richness of information about regional uses of language gained from the data. Language is the primary tool with which people engage with the world. Having a more nuanced understanding of rural, low SES learners' home language, the registers and genres with which they are familiar, may enable teachers and researchers to create literacy programs that are more suited to a particular community. Another insightful discovery was that of the underlying racial awareness learners have as well as their unspoken sensitivity to societal norms and divisions, as can be seen in the way they describe their skin colour and the marital status of their parents. As was mentioned, this does not necessarily show language awareness per se, but

reveals how language shapes and enables identity. Understanding where these learners come from socially and linguistically, and how they understand the world, may enable teachers to not only identify problem areas, but also how to connect as yet unconnected pieces of knowledge for their learners, so that they may progress not only as social beings at home, but also learners at school and later adults at work.

The next chapter will focus on the data gained from the sequencing exercises that were done with a selected group of learners as a follow-up to the “Little Books” enrichment programme. These exercises were not part of the original research plan, but the first set of little books showed that some learners had difficulties with certain features specific to the story genre such as sequencing and picture-sentence matching. A second set of little books produced without special educational attention to such features, would simply have produced a repetition of the particular features where some correctional intervention would be required. These exercises eventually shed more light on learners’ language and textual awareness in a way that another set of little books would not have done. The data derived from these exercises supplemented the little books data, showing up features and patterns already indicated in this chapter. The added contribution of the picture sequencing data to our insight into learners’ language awareness and knowledge of narrative structure will be discussed in Chapter 6 below.

CHAPTER 6: Analysis of Data from Small Groups

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The second set of data for this study that was collected in the third term of the school year was based on supplementary exercises collected among smaller groups of learners than in the first set – as was explained in Chapter 4 (section 4.4.2.2). These exercises were introduced as part of the research plan, after specific literacy-related difficulties were identified in the work learners did towards producing little books. Thus, in response to initial findings of the little books exercises, it was decided to spend time with work that would give better insight into these problem areas, rather than simply repeating the little book exercise. The following areas of concern were identified:

- * Picture sequencing: the way in which text and illustrative pictures were sequenced indicated limited awareness of chronology of events and/or causality relations between one story element and a next one;
- * Picture-sentence matching: learners' illustration of their stories often did not match the narrative text, which raised concern as to their grasp of the connection between verbal and visual elements of multimodal texts;
- * Narrative sequencing: the ordering of various components of the narratives in many cases indicated a need to reflect on more and less meaningful ways of sequencing the various elements (as e.g. identified in Labov and Waletzky, 1997 and De Fina and Georgakopoulou, 2006) of the different kinds of narrative learners chose to present in their little books.

The groups selected for participation in these exercises were composed of learners who had not performed well in the researcher's rating of their first attempts at writing and illustrating their own stories (See section 4.4). A smaller group of 31 learners of the total of 90 learners were chosen to participate in these exercises, namely the learners who had been placed in the categories scored as 1 and 2 on the Lickert scale used in assessing the little books produced in the first data set. According to the particular rating system (discussed in section 5.2) used in the first part of the study, more learners fell in categories 1 and 2 than ones who fell in categories 4 and 5. Most learners fell in the middle category, i.e. in category 3, which indicated the achievement of a reasonable number of expected literacy related skills, but incomplete mastery of all the skills one would have liked to find

at this level of schooling. The ideal in any school (based on the ANA used in all South African schools, and systemic tests used only in the Western Cape) would be that the larger cohort of learners in grade three would have developed literacy skills that would place them in categories 3 to 5 and not in categories 1 to 3. Considering that the majority of participants in the study were placed in category 3, one could assume that more than half of them had – in written narrative and illustration skills – not yet achieved a level of competence that can generally be expected from for learners of their age. On these grounds the above-mentioned set of areas were identified as ones that needed special attention 1) in determining more specifically what kinds of difficulties presented and in which way they could be recognised, and 2) in finding ways of not only diagnosing developmental lag, but also stimulating such age- and level-appropriate development.

Three activities were devised (see section 4.4.2.2) in order to address these three issues, namely exercises which made use of already existing materials⁵⁹ that assisted in better recognising and understanding the kinds of skills learners already had as well as the kinds of difficulties they appeared still to have. These activities/exercises were also helpful in considering possible ways of stimulating development of the particular skills where more or less “developmental lag” had been identified. The three activities will be referred to as 1) Picture sequencing (PS), 2) Picture-sentence matching (PSM), and 3) chronological organisation which required recognition of Beginning, Middle and End (BME). Each activity was done only once at each school, and once for every class in School A, and were used diagnostically, i.e. to determine in a more detailed way than the little books could, the kinds of literacy and emergent-literacy⁶⁰ skills that learners had already developed as well as those skills that would eventually need more. Each of these three activities and the subsequent findings are discussed in this chapter.

There were nine different patterns that emerged from the exercises, which are listed as follows.

- * Sequences in which learners told stories about each individual picture, unrelated to the others.
- * Sequences told in reversed order.

⁵⁹ See Section 4.4.2.2 for more information on the materials used for these exercises.

⁶⁰ Olivier (2009) and Willenberg (2002) both describe the telling of fictional narratives (Olivier) and the retelling of stories (Willenberg) as emergent literacy skills, specifically needed in the writing of little books. Refer to section 3.8.2 for further emergent literacy skills.

- * Sequences that show learners' lack of certain aspects of language awareness (the difficulty identified by the necessity of 'other-repair'⁶¹ (Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks, 1977) by the researcher.
- * Sequences that show learners' awareness of language due to their 'self-repair'⁶² strategies.
- * Sequences in which learners give extra information that falls outside of the pictures in the sequence.
- * Sequences that did not agree with the apparently intended narrative, but still made sense.
- * Sequences that illustrate informative vocabulary choices.
- * Sequences that link with themes that were introduced during the little book exercise, as discussed in Chapter 5.

For easy reference, learners will be identified by way of a similar code as the one used in Chapter 5. The letter A1/A2 or B denotes the School and Class number, the abbreviations of the activity will follow as PS (Picture Sequencing), PSM (Picture-Sentence Matching) and BME (Beginning, Middle and End). This will be followed by the learners' initials. Thus a reference would look like this, for example: A1-PSM-LC.

6.2 PICTURE SEQUENCING AND PICTURE-SENTENCE MATCHING

The patterns that emerged in the analysis of the learner responses to these exercises have been grouped into two broad categories, namely those that deal with the standard interpretation of sequences and those that deal with learners' novel interpretations of sequences.

A total of 39 picture sets were selected and made available to the learners to practise particular isolated narrative skills regarded as important in academic literacy development. Of these picture card sets 32 were ones developed with a view to checking for picture sequencing and 7 for picture-sentence matching (See Addenda F and G). The BSM activities were not based on these picture cards, but rather a new story, which will be discussed in section 6.3. The researcher introduced the

⁶¹ 'Other-repair' is a term used in the field of Conversation Analysis and is discussed in more depth in section 6.2.3.

⁶² 'Self-repair' as opposed to 'other-repair' is discussed in more detail in section 6.2.4

activities by indicating that she would like the learners' help in sorting some pictures. The number of sets each learner could do in the given time was not prescribed. Each learner could select which s/he would like to do and could do the activity at their own pace. How many cards each learner could complete, was highly individual according to ability and the speed at which they sorted the pictures sets. The time limit was set in accordance with the Language timeslot on the regular school timetable, i.e. between first and second break. Audio recordings were made of these activities. Each of the sequences had a basic correct order, represented in the field notes by a numerical sequence of 1234. The learners' answers were noted then in relation to this assumed order i.e. 1324 or 1243 etc. As will be discussed in section 6.2.6, some of the learners' interpretations resulted in new possibilities of how sequences could be ordered.

Some of the patterns that were identified from the PS and PSM activities involved the same set of picture cards; the reason for this was explained in section 4.4.2.2. Some sets within the same activity, either PS or PSM, showed different patterns and are thus discussed in different sections below. As will become clear from further reading, the sequences discussed below show clear repetition, across schools as well as patterns.

The first four responses identified in the list are those that tell the researcher more about the level of skills for standard interpretation. The next set of responses refers to extra information, the stories between the stories, which serve as a bridge between a standard way of interpretation and a novel way of interpretation. The last three kinds of sequences/responses refer to innovative responses learners came up with.

Each section is dedicated to one of the patterns mentioned in section 6.1. As will become clear from the following discussion, the patterns were identified across two of the activities namely the Picture Sequencing activity and the Picture-Sentence Matching activity. In order to avoid repetition, the sections were ordered according to the patterns that were identified and not according to each of the respective activities. So, in some of the sections data from both the PS and PMS activities will be discussed simultaneously.

Also, in the discussion reference will be made to the numerical order (123, 1234 or 12345) in which the learners placed the cards in the sequence, as explained in the second paragraph of this section. The accompanying figures are all displayed in the correct order, thus 1234, so, the learners' order will be discussed in reference to this order.

6.2.1 Limited recognition of connections

The instruction to learners was to look at a set of pictures and then to tell a story that would show their understanding of the coherent whole represented in the series of three, four or five images. Thus, for example, Fig. 6.1 was intended to elicit a narrative that would show recognition of a “story” in which drought stricken land is showered with rain followed by the promise of the rainbow after a storm and the eventual growth into green countryside. This would show the reader’s recognition not only of chronology, but also of causality. What happened in a number of cases (of which five will be presented here) was that the learner would tell a story with reference to each picture without referring to the connections between the set, or showing limited recognition of fairly straightforward details that link the set of images on one card.

The pattern for attaching separate stories to each picture, which shows a form of literal interpretation without explicating connectedness of the images, was observed in School A. Five learners from Class 2 gave literal interpretations for five different sets of picture sequences, both from the PS and PSM activities.

SMALL STORY 1

One learner gave this pattern for two sets of sequences, one from each of the PS and PSM activities (A2-PS-CVR & A2-PSM-CVR). Thus looking at the two different sequences she appeared not to recognise continuity in the images and gave a series of descriptive sentences without explicit connections. The sequences where she did this have been identified as the “Rain story” (Figure 6.1) and the “Drawing on the wall” (Figure 6.2). In the first sequence she gives a very short narrative in which she describes what is happening weatherwise, but for picture 3 she simply mentions the appearance of a rainbow without bringing it in relation with the rest of the story. She tells the story in a sequence of 1243.

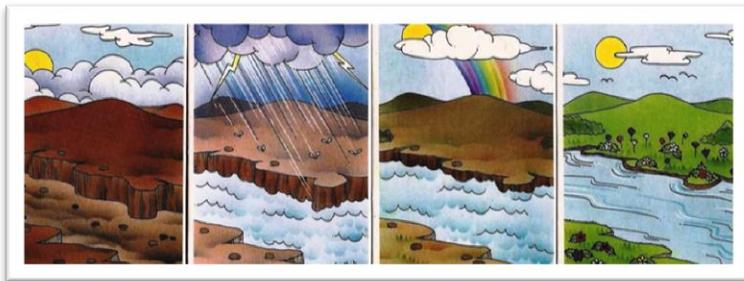


Figure 6.1 Rain Story

Her spoken narrative went as follows: The moon appeared from behind the clouds (1). Then it began to rain (2). Then the sun shone (4). The rainbow stands behind the clouds (3).

The picture of the rainbow that is out of sequence (according to the sequence showed in Figure 6.1) could be the cause of the inverted sequence. She was unable to connect the rainbow with the sunshine. In another similar sequence of a rain cycle, her story also jumped from rainy weather to sunny weather to rainy weather again. In that sequence the rainbow was also out of order. When asked by the researcher what the rainbow was, she correctly identified it as such, but when asked when we see a rainbow she answered “When it rains.” meaning not after the rain, but during the rain. It is not clear from her answer whether she understand that a rainbow generally comes *after* a rainstorm. This learner either did not understand her assignment here, or she was unable to recognise the coherence (connectedness) that exists between the pictures in the set.

The current sequence is presented in a way that represents a rain storm as a series of distinct events. These learners, who grow up in an area with high rainfall, would know that these phenomena are not always distinctly ordered and that sometimes you can have rain, sun and a rainbow all at once. Perhaps it is this knowledge of undefined boundaries between events that led to her placing her reference to the rainbow last and describing it on its own.

SMALL STORY 2

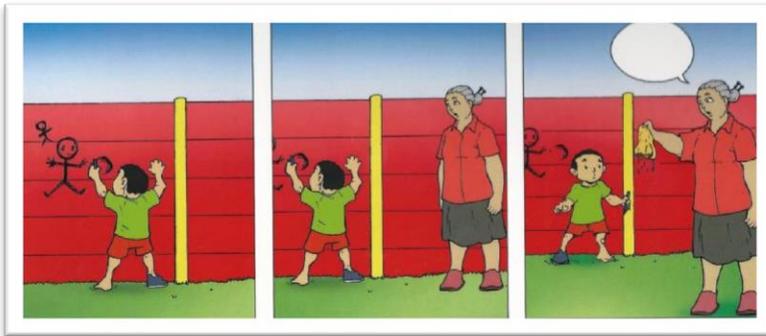


Figure 6.2 Drawing on the wall

The same learner’s explanation for “Drawing on the wall” (FIG. 6.2) (Southwood and Van Dulm, 2012) went as follows:

The boy writes on the wall (1). His mother is also there (2). Then he stood with the pencil in his hand (3). Then his mother showed him a cloth (3). Then he drew a man and a small child and another man (1).

Here she appears to be giving a summary of what she sees in each picture. It sounds like a story, but she does not link the events depicted in each frame to each other. There is limited detail and no evidence that she recognises the significance of the cloth, nor of the speech bubble. For example, she appears not to recognise that the woman showing the boy a cloth means that she wants him to clean the wall on which he has scribbled. She does however interpret the relation between the boy and the woman as one of son to mother. Thus some relational connections are made, but an interpretation of the kind of interaction between the two is uncertain, undefined and incomplete.

SMALL STORY 3

The next two sequences show images of a little girl (Figure 6.3) and little boy (Figure 6.4) growing up, respectively. Two learners (A2-PS-HT & A2-PS-LC) described what they saw as separate images without recognising that the three images in one sequence represented the same people at different stages in their life.



Figure 6.3 Girl to Woman

The learner (A2-PS-HT) described the girl in these pictures in inverted sequence of 321 as standing with a bag (3), standing with a cat (2) and standing with a little duck. She does not recognise the images as depicting the same girl at different stages; as if these were photos taken at successive, different ages of one person and that what she has in her hand also represents each phase of her life.

SMALL STORY 4**Figure 6.4 Boy to Man**

The description of the “Boy to Man” sequence by another learner (A2-PS-LC) follows the same numerical sequence of 321 and the same kind of description as the previous learner did with fig. 6.3, referring to what each figure has in his hands. Rather than recognising the image as one of the same boy growing up, the learner explains that the man has a bunch of flowers in his hands, the boy has a cone in his hands and the other boy also has a cone in his hands. The boy uses “cone” which is a colloquial way of referring to ice cream or in Afrikaans “draairoomys”. It is clear from the use of the word “other” (Afrikaans: “ander”) that the boy sees the characters as different individuals and not as the same little boy growing up.

SMALL STORY 5

The last learner to be cited here (A2-PSM-JA) not only gives a picture by picture interpretation of the sequence (Figure 6.5) (Southwood and Van Dulm, 2012), but also introduces it with a novel interpretation. She orders the set of the boy messing with a tube of toothpaste in a sequence different to the one in which it is given, namely 42153. Then she refers first to the fourth frame saying that the little boy is brushing his hair (4). Then she goes to his holding the tube of toothpaste (2) and follows with how he smears the toothpaste on the mirror (1). Finally she mentions that his mother has the toothpaste (5) and then that he is standing outside with the toothpaste (3). This learner is either unable to recognise the given sequence of events as a meaningful continuum that has a humorous ending, or she interpreted her task as one that allows her creative freedom to impose her own interpretation on a randomly organised set of frames.



Figure 6.5 Stevie and the toothpaste

These above five illustrations show how some of the learners interpreted picture sequences shown to them on A4-sized cards individually i.e. frame by frame and with minimal evidence of an attempt to find an intended meaning, or causal and chronological coherence⁶³ in the given set. The first learner cited in this section (A2-CVR) did in fact approach all the cards she chose to work with in such an individual fashion. The difficulty these learners had in interpreting a range of pictures as a coherent story, shows limited awareness of central narrative structural components of orient, complication, evaluation and resolution as is described by Labov and Waletzky (1997) and De Fina and Georgakopoulou (2008). Learners showed a lag of skill in that they were not able to order the sequences in a beginning, middle and end⁶⁴ fashion. It is because this kind of lag in interpretive skill and non-cohesive story-telling (Blum-Kulka, 1986) was noted during the production of some of the little books, that it was decided to introduce these exercises. Learners who, in composing their own little books, would collect various stories without evidence of internal ordering, compiling something more like an omnibus of one-pagers rather than a single coherent story with a storyline that worked cohesively. As is discussed in section 3.3.4 the presence of coherence and cohesion was considered most important in the learners' spoken and written stories and the lack of skills in applying these concepts could undercut the development of skills in the more formal features of narrative telling and writing as was described by Labov and Waletzky (1997).

Of course the learners' unexpected and unconventional versions also form stories, and were for that reason never treated as "incorrect", but – in literacy preparedness terms – as far as the recognition of cohesive elements that contribute to a coherent story is concerned, they did not measure up to what would be expected at this level of schooling. This was taken as evidence that narrative aspects of the particular learners' linguistic awareness were not sufficiently developed for their age group.

⁶³ Refer to section 3.3.4 and Glossary for terms.

⁶⁴ The BME activity discussed in section 6.3 addresses this issue more directly.

In more specific terms, these learners showed a lag in the development of their ability to link pictures, multimodal elements of texts, by “reading between the pictures”, so to speak.

In terms of the research objectives, the lag in development of multimodal text sequencing as an aspect of literacy can be articulated as a lag in genre awareness (RO 2)⁶⁵. The ability to understand as well as to construct a short, coherent narrative is identified as an important skill in the academic development of young school going learners. A number of genres that are used in spoken and written academic literacy depend on these kinds of narrative skills. This study gave central attention to the literary genre of picture book stories which requires that learners are able to “read” what happens in and between pictures. They have to be able to link pictures and form one coherent sequence of events. In general, the researcher’s impression in considering how picture sequences were interpreted, was that the learners who were categorised as groups 1 and 2 were less able to interpret printed picture sequences, but as able as those in groups 3 to 5 to appreciate and enjoy spoken narratives (RO3). It is well established that hearing/listening to spoken stories or to those read to them entails a set of skills that develops before learners’ ability to construct and tell their own stories. The findings on picture sequencing as described in the five cases discussed above, bears this out.

6.2.2 Telling stories following pictures from right to left

Another notable and unusual pattern that emerged among certain learners doing these activities was one of reversed unpacking of the individual frames of a single story, but conventional order of telling. This entailed that certain learners looked at a set of pictures that they were asked to sequence to represent in a linear fashion, a chronological series of events; they would, in linear form, put the frames in reversed order (thus the last frame first), but would finally compose the story sensibly. This kind of reversal occurred only in the PS activities. A total of four learners (A2-PS-HM, A2-PS-LC, B-PS-CM, B-PS-RW) out of 31 selected learners, two from each school, ordered several sequences as 4321 or 321, but in telling the story they represent, ordered them 1234 and 123. Three of these learners gave such reversed sequencing with more than one set of pictures (A2-PS-HM, B-PS-CM and B-PS-RW), which illustrates that their way of ordering was not purely accidental. Two learners gave 3 sequences each in reverse and the other gave a total of eight sets packed in reverse order (B-PS-CM). This boy’s work is discussed in Section 5.6.5 in Chapter 5, which again points to the motivation for introducing a new set of activities in the second part of the data-

⁶⁵ See section 1.3.2 for more information on the ROs that are mentioned in this section.

collection. The narrative and illustrations of his first little book was excluded from the first data analysis because it was regarded as highly uninterpretable. Nevertheless, he was a keen participant whose later contributions showed marked improvement, so that he could not be discarded off-hand as a special-needs learner and thus completely outside the scope of this study. His written work was not legible in either Afrikaans or English. He presents an interesting case for further study because, as these sequencing exercises show, although his written literacy skills were (on as much as the researcher could go by) hardly at grade one level, but in the interpreting of pictures and telling of a coherent story, he performed similarly to much more able writers. Although he ordered the pictures in reverse, he told the story reading from right to left – thus getting the chronology and causal relations multimodally depicted, right.

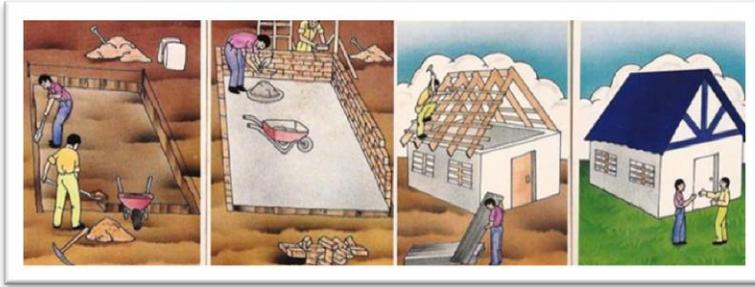
Two examples, one from each school, are shown below. The first is that of “Writing Letters” (Figure 6.6) and the second is “Building a House” (Figure 6.7)

SMALL STORY 6



Figure 6.6 Writing letters

One girl (A2-PS-HT) who was given the above sequence of four pictures and asked first to pack them out as a story, and then tell the story, unpacked the above sequence as 3142. Even though it is “incorrect” in that on its own such ordering does not show insight into a meaningful sequence of events that would make up a story, she recounted a story that did make sense. Her narrative, however, followed the sequence of 2413. She explained that the girl had written and mailed her grandmother a letter (2 and 4) and then he (the postman) had written to her (the girl) (3 and 1). It is clear that, even if less predictable, this sequence can actually make sense; even so, what is interesting for this study in terms of matching visual ordering of multimodal elements to the narrative is the fact that she packed her set of pictures from right to left, but told it from left to right.

SMALL STORY 7**Figure 6.7 Building a house**

The next illustration of inverted ordering of pictures is from a learner (B-PS-CM) who did not provide a story for the sequence given in Figure 6.7, but when asked which picture illustrates which (of the 4 representations) happened first (i.e. before any of the others), which second, third and fourth he pointed to the correct order. Despite his recognition of the most sensible ordering of actions/states of the building, he kept to his packing order of 4321 (i.e. right to left). This illustrates an interesting disjunction between abstract visualisation and recounting a narrative of building a house (which he could do), and visually putting a linear order to the set that represents customary reading patterns (which he could only do in inverted order).

One possible explanation for the reverse packing of cards could be that the researcher sat on the right side of the learners, which meant that the first picture was packed closest to the researcher – but on the right-hand side in terms of reading order. From the learners' perspective then they packed it for the convenience of the researcher. This makes sense if one considers that they still told the story in the most sensible order. This could show that they can manipulate perspective, and took the social etiquette of accommodating the researcher as an important way of showing her that they could manage genre specific rules that require left-to-right ordering. This explanation could not be confirmed – but certainly does show how oral narrative order and multimodal textual order require two different kinds of skills.

6.2.3 Correct with other-repair

Unlike the section on reversed sequences, this section focuses on those sequences which learners corrected with the help of prompts from the researcher. The prompts are also described as 'other-repair strategies' (Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks, 1977: 363). In this case the researcher is the one

that by prompting initiates the repair⁶⁶. Since these exercises were devised specifically for extra help, prompts were given where necessary. This pattern of repairing with prompting spans over both the PS and PSM activities.

A total of 13 learners across both schools and activities corrected a total of 9 sequences for both the PS and PSM activities with the help of prompts. Table 6.1 below shows how the pattern of prompts was distributed across the activities and schools. It has to be kept in mind that many of these sequences overlap and was therefore only counted once.

Table 6.1 Distribution of Other-repaired sequences

	Number of learners	Number of sequences corrected
School A: Picture Sequencing	1	1
School A: Picture-Sentence Matching	7	11
School B: Picture Sequencing	1	2
School B: Picture-Sentence Matching	4	6

More learners needed more help with the PSM activity than the PS activity. This increase can be accounted for by the increase in complexity of the activity. For the picture sequencing, they only needed to place the set of pictures in order, but for the matching activity they had to match the sentences with pictures; thus they had to rely on their reading skills as well as their ability to match the written words with visual cues from the pictures. It requires a higher level of problem-solving than just sequencing pictures in order to form a coherent story.

There is significant overlap between the individual learners from both schools in regards to which sequences needed prompting. For the PS activity learners corrected only two sequences after prompting. The one was a three piece set depicting the lifespan of a flower (see figure 6.8) and the other one was a three piece set depicting a young boy growing up (see figure 6.4).

SMALL STORY 8

One learner (A2-PS-HT) wanted to pack the flower sequence in reverse as 321, but after a prompt from the researcher she packed it correctly as 123. A boy (B-PS-KS) repaired both sequences only

⁶⁶ As is discussed in Section 3.3.6 the study chooses to use 'repair' rather than 'correct' because the study set out to determine learners' broader understanding, rather than correcting errors.

after the researcher asked him to point out which ones come first, second and third. This boy's first little book was not included in the study due to the fact that it fell within the lowest category. He needs help that goes well beyond the scope of this study, but his participation in the small group activities show how these learners become dependent on verbal cues rather than written ones.



Figure 6.8. Blooming flower

In total there were six sequences that learners repaired after prompting. Three of these sequences overlapped across schools. Interestingly, some of these sequences showed everyday events like “Going to School” (Figure 6.9), “Crossing the Street” (Figure 6.10) and the cycle of rain in “Rain Story” (Figure 6.12). The other sequences were of events that do not take place every day, but should still have been recognisable to the learners. One such sequence depicts a boy drawing on a wall and getting caught by his grandmother (Figure 6.11). The other sequences are that of a boy riding his bicycle and seeing a broken pipe next to the road (Figure 6.13). The last three picture sequences were taken from an existing study testing the cultural appropriateness of language testing material (Southwood and Van Dulm, 2012). Figure 6.13 will be discussed in section 6.2.8

SMALL STORY 9



Figure 6.9 Going to School

<p>1. Die seuntjie staan elke oggend op vir skool. The boy (+diminutive)stands/gets every morning up for school. The boy gets up for school every morning.</p>
<p>2. Hy borsels sy hare en tande. He brushes his hair and teeth. He brushes his hair and teeth.</p>
<p>3. Hy trek sy skoolklere aan. He puts his school clothes on. He puts on his school clothes.</p>
<p>4. Dan stap hy bus toe. Then walks he bus to. Then he walks to the bus.</p>

Two learners, one from each school (A2-PSM-MW & B-PSM-KS), corrected this sequence after being prompted. Both learners had trouble reading the sentences when asked to do so. The girl showed some difficulty with first person pronouns. In her response she constituted the “Hy” in sentence 2 first with “Ek” (I) and “Sy” (She). She also read “stap” (walk) in sentence 4 as “stop” (stop).

The boy (B-PSM-KS) who also had trouble with the above picture sequencing activities (B-PS-KS) could not read the sentences at all, but he could tell where they fitted after the researcher read them out to him.

This provides further evidence of how dependent weak readers are on verbal cues. It also shows that there is little wrong with their ability to understand visual sequences, but that they are handicapped by the written word.

SMALL STORY 10

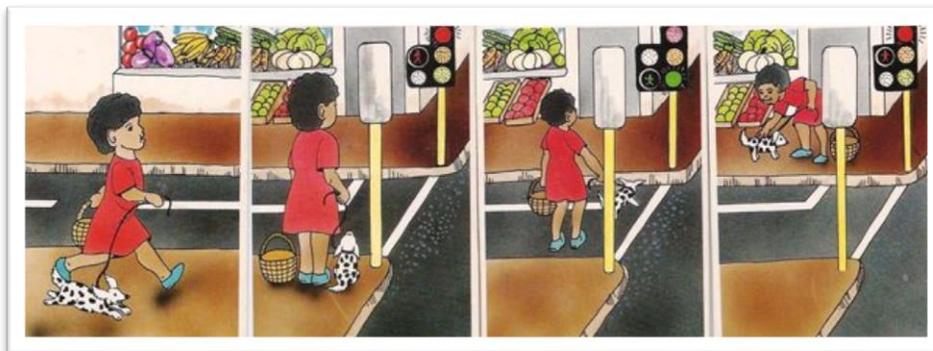


Figure 6.10 Crossing the Street

<p>1. Die dogtertjie loop met haar hondjie in die straat. The girl (+diminutive) walks with her dog (+diminutive) in the street. The girl walks with her dog down the street.</p>
<p>2. Sy stop by die robot omdat dit rooi is. She stops at the robot because it red is. She stops at the robot because it is red.</p>
<p>3. Toe die lig groen word stap sy oor die pad. When the light green goes walks she over/crosses the rode. When the light goes green she crosses the rode.</p>
<p>4. Aan die anderkant sê sy vir haar hondjie, "Mooi so, Snippie." On the other side says she to her dog (+diminutive), "Good boy, Snippie." On the other side she says to her dog, "Good boy, Snippie."</p>

Again one learner from each school had difficulty with this sequence (A1-PSM-BK & B-PSM-RW). Both of them had extreme difficulty reading the sentences. The girl responded well to the researcher reading the sentences for her, much like the boy from School B did for the sequence in Figure 6.9. With regards to this sequence, the boy did his own reading, but showed great difficulty reading even the most common sight words. There were pauses of between 2 and 5 seconds as he read sentence 2. The same two learners had the same problems for the sequence below, depicted in Figure 6.11(Southwood and Van Dulm, 2012).



Figure 6.11 Drawing on the wall (with text)

<p>1. Stevie het 'n mannetjie op die muur geteken. Stevie (+past part) a man (+diminutive) / stick figure on the wall drew Stevie drew a stick figure on the wall</p>
<p>2. Toe het sy ouma daar aangekom. Then (+past participle) his grandmother there showed up. Then his grandmother showed up.</p>

3. Sy het met hom geraas en gesê hy moet die mannetjie afwas.
 She (+past participle) with him chastised and said he should the man (+diminutive) / stick figure wash off.
 She chastised him and said he should wash off the stick figure.

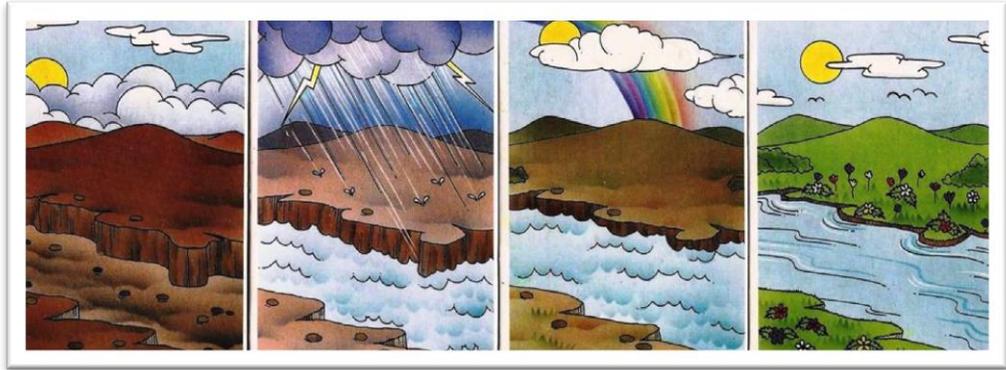


Figure 6.12 Rain story (with text)

<p>1. Lank, lank gelede was dit baie droog. Long, long ago was it very dry. Long, long ago it was very dry.</p>
<p>2. Toe het dit begin reën. Then (+past participle) it began rain. Then it began to rain.</p>
<p>3. Na die storm het die reënboog uitgekom. After the storm (+past participle) the rainbow came out. After the storm the rainbow came out.</p>
<p>4. Toe het dit mooi groen geword. Then (+past participle) it beautifully green became. Then it became beautifully green.</p>

SMALL STORY 11

The sequence above in Figure 6.12 gave interesting data in that it was also used in the PS activities. The reason for including it in the PSM activity again was because of the surprisingly high number of learners that had the sequence wrong as a simple picture sequencing exercise. Of the 9 learners that worked with this sequence during the PS activity only 3 learners had it correct, one of whom self-repaired his sequence.

This is surprising because learners should now about rainfall and weather from an early age, especially if they live in a farming community where the people are dependent on the weather for good crops. The geographic region of the schools is also one that receives a number of rainstorms every year, which would follow the sequence as can be seen above. Given these two circumstantial factors, one would assume that learners would be able to sequence these pictures in the correct order.

Due to the fact that many of them had it wrong in the previous activity it was included, with sentences, in this activity, in order to build on their understanding of weather patterns. Five learners across both schools did the weather sequence both as a Picture Sequencing exercise and as a Picture-Sentence Matching exercise. They had it wrong as a picture sequence, but of these five learners only one had it wrong as a picture-sentence matching exercise. Two of these learners needed help with this sequence, but they corrected it with prompting. One learner (A2-PSM-ES) had this sequence incorrect, but his version of the story still made sense. There are other examples of such cases too and these will be discussed in detail in section 6.2.6.

The next sequence in Figure 6.13 (Southwood & Van Dulm, 2012) will be discussed in more detail in section 6.2.8 on examples that link up with themes from Chapter 5. What was interesting about this sequence was that one boy (A1-PSM-MA) struggled to understand the story with the pictures. The researcher had to take away the pictures and first work with the learner to order the sentences. Only after that could the pictures be added. This shows, contrary to the other examples, that some learners are more inclined towards written words than visuals.

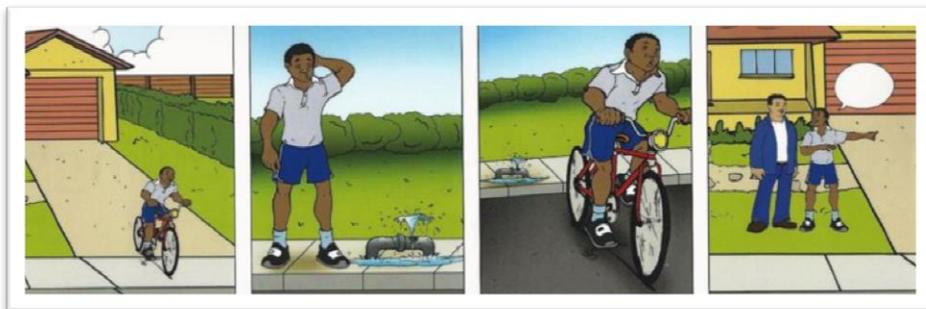


Figure 6.13 Broken pipe

<p>1. John het besluit om met sy fiets te gaan ry. John (+past participle) decided to with his bicycle to go ride. John decided to go ride on his bicycle.</p>
<p>2. Langs die pad sien hy 'n gebarste pyp. Next the rode see he a burst pipe. Next to the rode he sees a burst pipe.</p>
<p>3. Hy het toe dadelik terug gery om iemand te vertel. He (+past participle) then immediately back rode to someone to tell. He immediately rode back to tell someone</p>
<p>4. Hy sien Meneer Martin in sy tuin en sê, "Kom gou, Oom. Daar het 'n pyp gebars." He sees Mister Martin in his garden and says, "Come quick, Uncle/Sir. There (+past participle) a pipe burst. He sees Mister Martin in his garden and says, "Come quick, Sir. There is a burst pipe.</p>

SMALL STORY 12

The next sequence required some more thought as it is not an everyday occurrence. In the sequences (see Figure 6.9) Stevie, as he is named in the REALt, (Southwood & Van Dulm, 2012) draws pictures on the bathroom mirror with toothpaste. When the toothpaste is all used and he realises that he will get caught out, he fills it with sand. Afterwards he places the toothpaste on the basin again and washes off the smileys. That night his sister expects to find toothpaste, but instead finds sand.



Figure 6.14 Stevie and the toothpaste (with text)

<p>1. Stevie teken met tandepasta op die spieël. Stevie draws with toothpaste on the mirror.</p>
<p>2. Hy teken gesiggies tot die tandepasta op is. He draws faces(+diminutive) until the toothpaste finished is He draws faces until the toothpaste is finished</p>

3. Hy maak toe die botteltjie vol met sand. He makes then the tube (+diminutive) full with sand. He then fills the tube with sand.
4. Daarna gaan was hy al die gesiggies af. Afterwards goes to wash he all the faces (+diminutive) off. Afterwards he goes to wash off all the faces.
5. Die aand wou Debbie haar tande borsel... That evening wanted Debbie her teeth brush... That evening Debbie wanted to brush her teeth...

Three learners from both schools (A2-PSM-MW, A2-PSM-AL & B-PSM-FT) struggled first to place the pictures in order for the above sequence. This was the most difficult sequence in the set and as such learners were asked to not only place the sentences, but to also order the pictures in order to first get an intuitive idea of what happens. In both cases the researcher had to order the pictures for them and then give them the sentences to place by the correct pictures. This situation shows that if a situation is foreign to a learner, visual clues are of very little help.

The data for this particular section gives evidence of different barriers, either because of reading difficulties, or lack in knowledge, and how learners depend on other senses to fill in the gaps. When learners have difficulty reading, they are much more dependent on visual and verbal cues, like the learners who could only match the sentences when they were read out loud by the researcher. On the other hand, it also shows some evidence that learners fare much better when the sequence is given to them in the right order, thus eliminating their lack of knowledge. Thus they could only place the sentences when the pictures had already been ordered for them. One can argue that these learners could have remembered the sequence from the previous activity, but since there was a week between the two activities, the likelihood of this is slim.

6.2.4 Awareness through self-repair

This is the last section dealing with how learners manage ways of standard interpretation. Of all the sections, Self-repairing most directly shows learners' level of language awareness. Self-repairing is an indicator of learners' access to prior knowledge funds that help them decipher events in a coherent, logical way. However, during the course of data collection it was found that learners not only positively self-repaired their sequences, but also negatively self-repaired. Positive self-repair means that learners, without any prompting, corrected the particular sequence that they were working on at the time. The term negative self-repair means that learners had a particular sequence

right according to the pre-set interpretation, but that they, without prompting, changed it to an incorrect order.

The breakdown of learners per school and number of cases are given in Table 6.2.

Table 6.2 Instances of Positive and Negative self-repair

	Positive Self-repair		Negative Self-repair	
	Number of learners	Number of sequences corrected	Number of learners	Number of sequences corrected
School A: Picture Sequencing	1	1	3	5
School A: Picture-Sentence Matching	6	7	1	1
School B: Picture Sequencing	3	3	3	3
School B: Picture-Sentence Matching	1	1	1	1

Overall 4 learners positively corrected their sequences during the PS activities (B-PS- CB, B-PS-CM, B-PS-HJ, B-PS-DF) and 7 learners corrected their sequences for the PSM activities (A1-PSM-MA, A1-PSM-CJ, A1-PSM-BK, A2-PSM-JA, A2-PSM-AL, A2-PSM-MW, A2-PSM-ES). Five learners negatively self-repaired their sequences for the PS activities (A2-PS-LC, A2-PS-HT, A2-PS-CVR B-PS-CM, B-PS-DF) and 2 learners negatively self-repaired their PSM sequences (A2-PSM-ES, B-PSM-CM).

The sequences involved in this pattern are the following:

- * Sand castle (PS)
- * Another Rain day (PS)
- * Painting (PS)
- * Crossing the street (PS and PSM)
- * Rain story (PSM)
- * Skiing and snow (PSM)
- * Thandi and the flowers (PSM)
- * Stevie and the toothpaste (PSM)

- * John and the broken water pipe (PSM)

SMALL STORY 13

The “Another Rainy day” sequence, part of the PS activities, is similar to that of Figure 6.1. A learner from School A (A2-PS-LC) had the sequence correct as 1234, but changed it to 1243. See Figure 6.15 below. His explanation for the sequence was that the sun came out (1), went away (2), that it rained, that the rainbow came out (4), that it rained again and then some more (3). This shows that he does not know that a rainbow is the sign of a disappearing storm. It could however be an effect of living in a winter rain district, where during a rain storm there would often be a rainbow and some rain simultaneously.

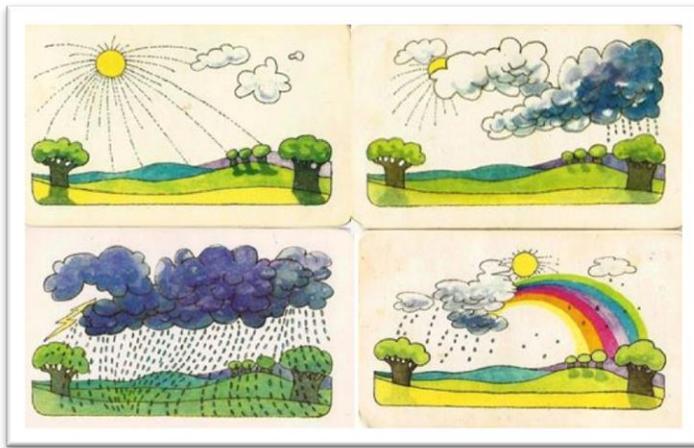


Figure 6.15 Another rainy day

SMALL STORY 14

Another sequence that he also changed was that of “Painting” (see Figure 6.16). He had it correct as 123, but changed it to 132. His explanation was as follows: “The paint cans stand there (1), There is the painted picture (3) and there he paints further, or continues painting (2).” So he did not understand that the second picture shows the painter in action and that number 3 is a picture of the completed painting.



Figure 6.16 Painting

SMALL STORY 15

One sequence that indicated a wide range of differing levels of awareness is that of “Thandi and the flowers” as is shown in Figure 6.17 (Southwood and Van Dulm, 2012). Three learners (A1-PSM-BK, A2-PSM-MW & A2-PSM-ES) showed patterns of interpretation that testify to sensitive narrative awareness.



Figure 6.17 Thandi and the flowers

1. Thandi sit en speel met haar poppe in die tuin. Thandi sits and plays with her dolls in the garden. Thandi sits and plays with her dolls in the garden.
2. Skielik kom Stevie ook tuin toe en begin die blomme uit te trek. Suddenly comes Stevie too garden to the and begins the flowers out to pull. Suddenly Stevie comes to the garden to and begins to pull out the flowers.
3. Thandi hardloop vinnig om Stevie se ma te gaan roep. Thandi runs quickly to Stevie’s mother to go call. Thandi quickly runs to go call Stevie’s mother.
4. In die kombuis verduidelik Thandi, “Kom gou, Tannie. Stevie trek die blomme uit.” In the kitchen explains Thandi, “Come quick, Aunty. Stevie pulls the flowers out.” In the kitchen Thandi explains, “Come quick, Ma’am. Stevie is pulling out the flowers.”

The first learner (A1-PSM-BK) had half the sequence correct in that she put pictures 1 and 2 in the correct order. She wanted to switch 3 and 4, but corrected this of her own accord. However, she could not match the sentences to the pictures. Her first try was 2413 and the second was 1243.

The second learner (A2-PSM-MW) also had the picture sequence correct, but wanted to match the number 3 sentence with the number 2 picture. When she had to match the number 3 sentence she realised her mistake and corrected the order.

The third learner (A2-PSM-ES) deviates from the pattern in that he did not self-repair his sequence, positively or negatively; the researcher had to prompt him by reading the sentences. His response showed such a lack of awareness and comprehension that it warranted inclusion in this section. For his first try he had the pictures in the order of 4123 and the sentences in the order of 1243. After reading the sentences to him he changed the sentence sequence to 3142. The researcher prompted him by asking him what the very last thing is that happened. He said that she ran when in fact the last thing that happened was that she told Stevie's mother. He said that she ran to call Stevie so that they could play in the garden, which shows that he did not understand the fact that Stevie was pulling out the flowers and that Thandi went to call his mother.

SMALL STORY 16

Another sequence that proved informative in both schools was that of "Crossing the street" (see Figure 6.9). Two learners (A2-PSM-AL & B-PS-CM) showed signs of positive self-repair and negative self-repair, respectively. The first learner (A2-PSM-AL), during the PSM activities, had the picture sequence correct, but at first placed sentence 1 by picture 2. She later corrected herself in the process of placing the others. The second learner (B-PS-CM), during the PS activities, had the picture sequence correct, but then reorganised it to 1432.

These sequences show two major internal processes of comprehension and awareness. The first is the dependence on prior knowledge in order to make sense of novel sequences and images. Learners had to tap into their knowledge of crossing the street, the rain cycles and their sense of right and wrong in order to make sense of these particular sequences. The second is the fact that novel sequences are solved by process of elimination. Learners need tools to facilitate the process of elimination. The learners who had sentences to match with pictures could more easily spot their mistakes than the ones who had only the pictures to depend on.

This gives some of insight into possible methods of scaffolding, as described by Vygotsky. By providing learners with learning experiences from which they can triangulate and match different pieces of knowledge, like sentences and pictures, one helps them to gain knowledge, or rather link different areas of knowledge that were previously not linked before.

6.2.5 Stories between the stories – extra info

The ability to talk about events that are not given in the images, and thus happen outside the frames depicted in the story, indicates not only a level of rhetorical and logical thinking, but also the potential of creative expansion. This creative expansion will be discussed in the next three sections, but for this section the focus will be on how the ability to give extra information can serve as a bridge between standard and novel interpretations. Extra information was only volunteered by one learner (A1-PS-LM) and only for the PS activities. However, she gave extra information on three different sequences, namely “Baking a cake” (Figure 6.18) and “Getting dressed” (Figure 6.9 – see section 6.2.3) and to some extent, “Playing soccer” (Figure 6.19).

SMALL STORY 17

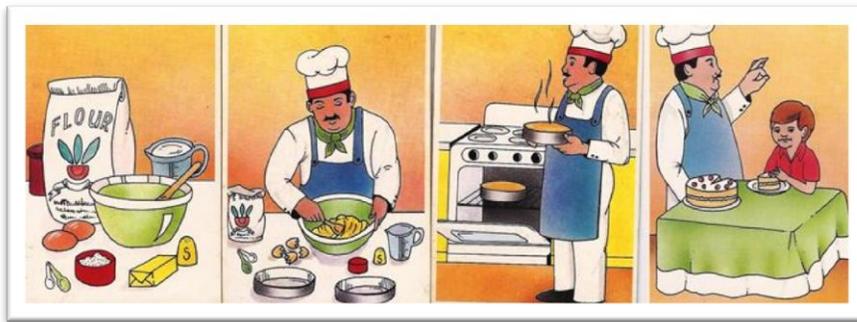


Figure 6.18 Baking a cake

For the “Baking a Cake” sequence, the learner explained that the man was baking a cake and taking it out of the oven; then he made “ice cream”, then he put the “ice cream” on the cake, following which he put it on a plate. She used the word “ice cream” (the English word) instead of “icing” (in Afrikaans “versiersuiker”). The activity of making icing and icing the cake takes place between pictures 3 and 4, but it is a logical progression since the cake in picture 4 already has icing on it. However, despite it being a logical add-on to the story, she is the only one to have mentioned it explicitly.

SMALL STORY 18

In the next sequence “Getting dressed” (see Figure 6.9– section 6.2.3) she adds that the little boy had “brekfis” (breakfast) that he took his satchel and went to the bus. “Brekfis” is an Afrikaans way of pronouncing the English word breakfast. It is a dialectal form commonly used in certain Afrikaans communities. She actually had the sequence wrong, saying that he first got dressed and then brushed his hair and teeth, but the main focus of this story is the extra information about breakfast.

SMALL STORY 19

In the last sequence (Figure 6.19) she shows a particular eye for detail. The sequence tells the story of two children playing soccer and then buying themselves iced lollipops from the vendor. The learner particularly mentions the fact that the girl in the picture said that she only wanted one.



Figure 6.19 Playing soccer

The pictures are very small and it would have been sufficient had she said they bought iced lollipops. However, seeing that she so easily gave extra information it is not too surprising that she notices little details such as the girl wanting only one lolly.

The ability to make the connections between any particular picture cards in a sequence may be taken for granted as an ability possessed by all learners. On the one hand, anyone working with picture sequencing does take this for granted; otherwise no one would be able to tell stories. It is of particular interest that this learner actually mentions these in-between stories. It is also important to take note of the details that learners mention while telling stories, because these may represent culturally specific information that may help educators customise the learning experience within class. Although no culturally specific knowledge came to light in these sequences, the mention of in-between stories brings to the fore the question about how learners link certain events. It is not to be assumed that all learners have the same prior knowledge through which they make sense of stories

and it is exactly this kind of prior knowledge that needs to be tapped into in order to truly understand where learners are at in regards to their literacy practices and understanding.

6.2.6 Novel interpretations

As was made clear in the previous two sections, prior knowledge is necessary for interpreting the sequence of events, not only from pictures, but also in real life. It is from this real life knowledge that learners have the ability to add extra information as was shown in section 6.2.5. One of the primary goals of this study is to find out, to some extent at least, how deep and wide learners' funds of knowledge actually reach. The next few sections aim to elucidate the ways in which learners interpreted pictures that may, at first sight, seem "incorrect", i.e. as if they had missed critical information. However, on closer reflection it was clear that learners' version was not incorrect, but rather an alternative.

In section 6.2.3 it was mentioned that one learner had the rain sequence (Figure 6.12) incorrect according to standard expectations, but that his version still made sense. This novel interpretation was a frequent occurrence across schools. Table 6.3 below shows the distribution of this particular pattern across the two groups.

Table 6.3 Summary of Novel Interpretations

	Number of learners	Number of cases
School A: Picture Sequencing	2	4
School A: Picture-Sentence Matching	9	10
School B: Picture Sequencing	0	0
School B: Picture-Sentence Matching	2	3

There were 9 sequences from both PS and PSM activities for which learners had novel interpretations. Five of those also featured in the two previous sections on reversals and prompting. They were Figures 6.1, 6.2, 6.8, 6.12 and 6.17. Another two sequences will be discussed in detail in section 6.2.8 on sequences that further link with themes and research objectives mentioned in Chapter 5.

SMALL STORY 20

The first sequence to be discussed is one for which a learner had an alternative sequence to that of the researcher. In Figure 6.20 we see the life cycle of a butterfly. The researcher had a sequence starting with the caterpillar spinning himself into a cocoon and then turning into a butterfly. The learner however started with the butterfly (3) and ended with the cocoon (2).

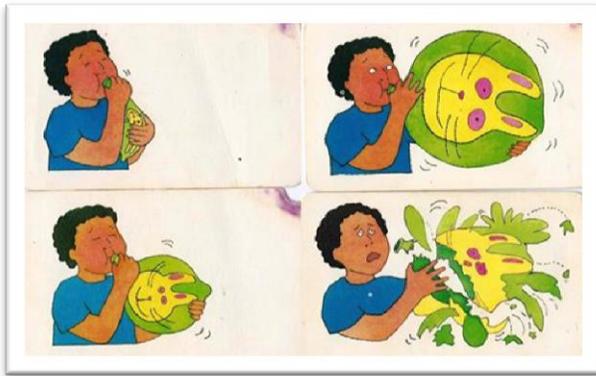


Figure 6.20 Butterfly

The learner (A2-PS-LC) started his explanation by incorrectly saying that the butterfly lays a cocoon, but almost immediately corrected himself by saying that the butterfly lays a caterpillar which then becomes a cocoon. Of course the butterfly does not lay a caterpillar, but rather an egg from which a caterpillar hatches, and also he did not state that the butterfly emerges again from the cocoon. Nevertheless, this sequence illustrates that sometimes sequences can be started somewhere in the middle of the story and ended before the real end, and still make sense.

SMALL STORY 21

One sequence for which the learner also had the sequence “wrong” was “Playing Soccer” (see Figure 6.19). This sequence shows how two children are playing soccer when an ice cream vendor comes to sell them iced lollipops. They buy one each and then eat it. Afterwards they pick up the wrappers from the ground. In this sequence the learner (A2-PS-LC) has a sequence of 1243. He explains that they first pick up the wrappers and then they eat their ice cream. Even though this is not exactly depicted by the pictures, the story still makes sense and because there are no wrappers lying on the ground in picture 3, it is safe to assume that they may have disposed of it before eating their ice creams. Thus, the story makes sense.

SMALL STORY 22**Figure 6.21 Balloon**

Another sequence is that of “Balloon” (Figure 6.21). One learner (A2-PS-JA) described the balloon as a ball rather than balloon. She did however have the sequence correct by saying that the little boy had a ball which he blew bigger and bigger until it burst. She used the English word “ball” instead of the Afrikaans word “bal”. This is an example of how some English words are the preferred lexical choice. It is included in this section rather than the next one, because it brings to mind an important question. Should she be judged for having the action right, or knowing and seeing that it is in fact a balloon and not a ball?

SMALL STORY 23

One sequence in particular was interesting. The sequence shows a little girl who is getting ready for bed (see Figure 6.22). One boy (A2-PS-LC) packed the sequence from 4 to 1 and proceeded to tell a story that completely fitted in with his sequence. In the first picture the girl is taking out her sleeping bag, in the next she rolls it out, in the third she turns over the cover and in the fourth she and her teddy bear are sleeping. He not only packed in in reverse, but also told it in reverse. He started by saying that she was sleeping (4), then she got up (3), picked up the sleeping bag (2) and put it away in the cupboard (1). The second picture shows how she is flattening her sleeping bag, but regardless of this detail, his story makes perfect sense. He did not know the word for sleeping bag and used “spons” (sponge) instead. The next section deals with more such vocabulary choices.



Figure 6.22 Going to Sleep

This pattern and the accompanying examples show the importance of allowing for alternative interpretations and not just the pre-set standard interpretation. Further sections expand upon this idea.

Novel interpretations such as these can be brought into clearer focus with the help of Relevance theory (Sperber and Wilson, 2002). Sperber and Wilson's relevance theory takes a closer look at the maxim of relevance which forms part of the Gricean principle⁶⁷. Sperber and Wilson (2002) postulate that readers and listeners follow the "path of least effort" when interpreting what they read or hear. They satisfy "their expectation of relevance" based on their interpretation of the speaker's intended meaning.

Thus, when a hearer following the path of least effort arrives at an interpretation that satisfies his expectations of relevance, in the absence of contrary evidence, this is the most plausible hypothesis about the speaker's meaning. Since comprehension is a non-demonstrative inference process, this hypothesis may well be false; but it is the best a rational hearer can do (Sperber and Wilson, 2002: 260).

It is thus understood that hearers, or in this case readers, base their interpretations on what seems most relevant (and salient) to *them*. This immediately raises the question of what that relevance and interpretation is based on. A listener and reader have to use their own stores of knowledge to interpret the intention of the speaker. Prior knowledge is therefore vital in the process of interpretation.

It is clear from the data above, however, that several learners had non-standard interpretations for more than one sequence. There is a mismatch between the intended interpretation of the picture sequence and the sequence that seemed most relevant to the reader. In a prescriptive environment this would be cause for concern, but for the current study these "incorrect" sequences give new perspectives on ways of understanding. They shed light on the way in which these learners see the world. This links with section 5.6.4.2 on the effect of life experiences. A learner's perspective should

⁶⁷ See section 3.3.4.

serve as a spring board from which to get him from his current understanding to the understandings that are necessary for various situations. For now, we shall look at the following examples for their contribution to our understanding of the learners' perspectives.

This interpretation does not stop at differences in sequences – readers also fill in gaps of knowledge with the best alternative to their knowledge. Then next two sections look at how learners use this principle of relevance and least effort to interpret unfamiliar vocabulary (section 6.2.7) and unfamiliar objects and situations (6.2.8).

6.2.7 Vocabulary

Similar to that of the little books, these activities gave examples of everyday language use as well as how people substituted unknown words with words that they know. Together with section 6.2.4 on self-repairing, this this section serves to illuminate more aspects of learners' language awareness. This section shows three aspects of awareness. In the first place it shows their level of linguistic awareness in the choice of words they use, in the second it shows which words they do not know, and in the third, and most importantly, it shows how they find ways around their lack of vocabulary.

SMALL STORY 20

The first picture sequence “Building a Snowman” gives evidence of how learners find semantically related words as substitutes for words they are not familiar with as well as the words they choose due to the community in which they live. Two learners told the story of building the snowman as shown in Figure 6.23 below.

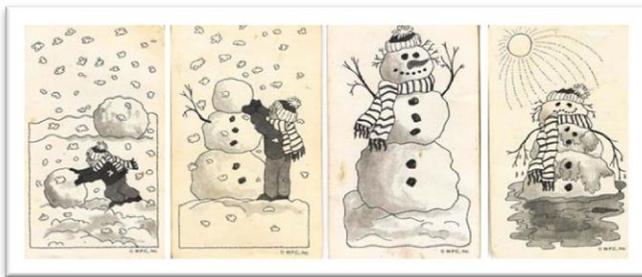


Figure 6.23 Building a Snowman

These learners (A2-PS-LC & A2-PS-ES) used the same descriptors in describing what the snowman is wearing. Both of them used the word “scarf” instead of the Afrikaans equivalent “serp”. McCormick, in her study of District Six Afrikaans (2002), refers to this relatively common practice in some

varieties, to use loaned forms, thus the English equivalent of a word in everyday conversation. One learner (A2-PS-LC) also said that the boy put a “kep” on the snowman, meaning “cap”. “Kep” is commonly used to refer to headwear and it was formed by giving the English word “cap” an Afrikaans pronunciation.

SMALL STORY 25

Another interesting vocabulary choice made by one of the boys (A2-PS-ES) was the word “ys ball” (ice ball). He used this in saying that the boy rolled an ice ball to make the snowman on which he then put the scarf. The correct word to use here would be “sneeubal” (snowball), but since building snowmen is not a common activity in the learner’s community the word snowball is not his first choice. Winter does however become quite icy in this region and thus the boy used a very appropriate substitute for the word snow, namely ice.

Another example showing how learners substitute unknown words with known ones are seen in the sequence of “Another rainy day” (see Figure 6.15). The girl (A1-PS-CB) described the rainbow as stars. When asked afterwards to name the item, she could not. The researcher gave her the correct word. Again, it can be seen that she used a known word “stars” for one she did not know, (or could not remember) “rainbow”. Both of these appear in the sky, and may be associated as belonging to the same semantic field of celestial elements.

One boy (B-PS-KS) used an uncommon way of counting in two sequences, that of “Girl to Woman” (see Figure 6.3) and “Painting” (see Figure 6.16). For both of these sequences he verbally affirmed the sequence by referring to the pictures in the order in which he had placed them, “Eerste, tweede, driede” (First, second, third.” “Driede” cannot be translated into English. The root word is “drie” (three) and if you use the ranking noun form it should be “derde”. Usually numbers only get the suffix –de (much like the suffix –th used for English countables) except for exceptions such as “derde”. Thus, the learner used the general rule in a situation where he should have used the exception. There were no other learners who used this form, so it cannot be considered a dialectal expression.

SMALL STORY 26

A beautiful example of a community-specific choice of vocabulary became apparent from the “Butterfly” sequence (see Figure 6.20). As was stated previously (see section 6.2.6), learners had to recognise and describe images depicting the life cycle of a butterfly. Many of them did not know what a cocoon was – or did not have the word as part of their active vocabulary. Only one learner (A2-PS-LC) used the word in his story. This same learner also knew the word “ruspe” (caterpillar) while many others used the word “wurm” (worm). When referring to the butterfly, learners used one of three lexical items. They all knew the English word “butterfly” which some of them also used – much in the same way they used “scarf” and “kep” when referring to the snowman’s clothing in Figure 6.19. In Afrikaans there are two possible synonyms for “butterfly”, namely “skoenlapper” and “vlinder”. Two learners (A1-PS-LM & A2-PS-LC) used the word “vlinder” which – to the researcher – came across as a rather archaic form, but on enquiry from the WAT (Personal communication, 14 July 2015) appeared rather to be the more commonly used choice of the local community. When prompted, they did know “skoenlapper” (at least as passive vocabulary), which means that the use of “vlinder” was deliberate. It brings to mind the question of how many other alternative forms learners know that could, with the right kind of sensitising, become part of an expanded and active lexicon available to them in their home and school activities.

Many more examples can be given of vocabulary choices that learners made, but these few show three distinct patterns. The first is just the normal everyday use of words like “kep” and “scarf”, which are words in themselves, but are not considered correct in their usage from an academic perspective, yet, from an everyday storytelling perspective, they work perfectly. The second is the use of words that share a semantic connection such as “ice ball” and “snowball” and “sterre” (sterre) and “reënboog” (rainbow). Third it showed the process of learning general rules such as adding “de” to numbers in order to use them for ranking items and learning exceptions to such rules as illustrated by the use of “driede” instead of its correct irregular form “derde” in Small story 25.

These examples show how the speaker/writer may intend one meaning, but that the listener/reader, in this case the learners, may interpret another meaning based on different sets of knowledge. These examples, nevertheless, show a degree of language awareness vital for bridging the gap between home literacy practices and school literacy expectations. It shows learners can be resourceful when they do not know words and or are unfamiliar with the situation and it also helps

to determine the level of development and awareness of learners. In the case of these examples, learners show ingenuity and creativity.

6.2.8 Links with life experiences (Chapter 5)

The last section links up with patterns of vocabulary choices discussed in the previous section. In the previous section it was said that learners, when faced with an unfamiliar word, would use one that is in some way connected to the one they do not know and that fits into the story that they need to make sense of. This last section describes what happens when learners are faced with a completely foreign situation. It also looks at how one set of pictures can be interpreted quite differently because of cultural knowledge. It links up with the effect of life experiences that were discussed in section 5.6.4.2 of Chapter 5.

Prior knowledge and the influence of community have a great effect on interpretation, as can be seen from the story of the “Cheese man” (see Chapter 5, section 5.6.4.2 c). The learner telling this story had no knowledge of sea sponges, so he substituted the concept for something more familiar, that which is most relevant and applicable according to his knowledge, a block of cheese. The same pattern could be discerned from both the PS and PSM activities.

SMALL STORY 27

The effect of life experiences became very clear in the interpretation of the next two sequences. In the first sequence “Broken pipe” (see Figure 6.1.3) three learners (A1-PSM-CJ, A2-PSM-WE, B-PSM-JG) interpreted the events in such a way that the boy had broken the pipe or tap by riding over it with his bicycle. Although not explicitly stated all three stories contained some degree of guilt on the boy’s part. One girl (A1-PSM-CJ) said that he rode over the pipe and then stood there rubbing his head, implying that he either felt that he was in trouble or that he was at a loss for what to do. The boy (A2-PSM-WE) said more explicitly that John (REALT, 2012) drove over the pipe and stood there not knowing what to do. The last girl (B-PSM-JG) also said that he rode over the pipe, but in her version he just carried on (as if it was not his fault) and then went to his father and said “Look there!” The picture layout does make it seem as if the boy rode over the pipe, but in the source text (REALT, 2012) John rode his bike, saw the broken pipe and went back to fetch someone to help. In the learners’ version he was the one who broke the pipe and their stories reflect the various degrees of guilt, or rather the implicit knowledge that he is in trouble.

SMALL STORY 28

The next sequence is “Rocket to the Moon” (Figure 2.24).



Figure 6.24 Rocket to the Moon.

This sequence is about a rocket flying to the moon. To many reading this dissertation the clarity of the story might be taken for granted, but for learners from their respective communities rockets are not only quite removed from their everyday lives; conventionalised ways of representing rockets are not part of their literacy experience. Two learners (A2-PS-JA & B-PS-CM) responded to the rocket sequence with stories that interpreted the image of the moon surface as either shells (A2-PSM-JA) or sand (B-PSM-CM). This again is an example of how learners draw on known concepts in describing events or objects that they have not come across before.

In the sequence where the moon was described as shells, the rocket was in fact described as a castle. The girl recounted what she could recognise in each picture separately for each item in the sequence, starting off by stating; “There is the castle (1), there is the castle again (2), there the castle is alone (3) and here is the earth planet (3) and there is the castle on the shells (4). She took about 4 seconds to complete her sentence with shells, clearly showing how she had to reflect first, and then access her prior knowledge and apply it to the current context.

SMALL STORY 29

Another example of a completely new interpretation can be found from the sequence “Stevie and the toothpaste” (Figure 6.5). One boy (B-PSM-FT) had an interesting way of interpreting the toothpaste. The situation depicted in the sequence was quite foreign to him, possibly because it is not common practice in his context for people to squeeze toothpaste onto mirrors and then fill up the tube with sand. Consequently, making an innovative association, his explanation was that the

tube was filled with butter. He explained that the boy stood there with the butter (3), smelled the butter (2), squeezed it out on the window (1), then he wiped of the scratch (on the window) (4) and then Mommy comes and Mommy cleans up (5). A possible explanation of why he chose to refer to the substance as “butter” is because the sand looks yellow. When we read the sentences, and after some prompting from the researcher, he realised that there was sand in the tube.

Hearing such interpretations, especially the castle and shells, was quite surprising and illuminating. It brought home the fact of the vast capacity for human creativity where prior knowledge does not fit what is given or expected in the classroom. In all these cases described in this chapter and the previous one, the examples show that people are always trying to make sense of their surroundings and if they do not have the necessary vocabulary to do so, they fashion it from what they have already.

There is a clear pattern of similarity regarding the sequences learners had trouble understanding as well as some lexical choices they made. What became most apparent from these exercises is that there are different degrees of understanding as was discussed under section 6.2.6 on novel interpretations and section 6.2.8 on links with life experiences. Most fascinating was how learners made vocabulary choices based on their prior knowledge and home language repertoires. In the next section, these shades of understanding gain a few hues as the discussion focuses on chronology and further understanding of picture-sentence matching.

6.3 BEGINNING, MIDDLE AND END

This activity was introduced by a new story which was read to the whole class. The story is summarised below. Due to lack of space, some pictures are not given within the text, but only as an addendum (See Addendum H).

6.3.1 A New Story

This activity was begun by reading the whole class a new story. The story was entitled “*Maar hy’t dan meer as ek!*” (*But he’s got more than me!*) (Roehe, 2012). It is the story of two little foxes, Fia and Fabie Fox, who constantly quarrel with each other. The beginning of the story finds them quarrelling about who has the bigger cookie. Their mother intervenes and says that if they do not stop, she will eat both cookies. Fia kicks her brother on the leg, which pushes their mother to execute her threat and chastise them for always fighting about food. They counter by saying that all

children fight, and they will prove it. Mommy Fox promises them that if they are correct she will give them two new cookies.



Figure 6.25 But he's got more than me!⁶⁸

They set off on their journey visiting a variety of their forest friends. First they encounter the two squirrels, Ollie Squirrel and his sister Ellie. They accidentally drop their acorns on Mommy Fox's head because their mother was scolding them. The two little foxes pipe up and say, "See, EVERYONE, fights about food." Their mother counters by saying, "ONE, isn't EVERYONE." This is the theme sentence through the whole book.

They continue their journey, meeting the Bear family where they see Bonnie and Bennie Bear fighting over an ice cream and Mister Dear, whose two children fight over two loaves of bread. This prompts Fia to say that she would never fight if she had so much. Mommy Fox invites Mister Dear for a cup of tea to calm his nerves. Then Fia convinces their mother of their victory by saying that all good things happen in three, so she should bake them new cookies. She concedes and they go home where everyone helps to bake cookies, even baby Florina.



Figure 6.26 All good things happen in threes!⁶⁹

⁶⁸ <http://bit.ly/1D2IRWk> (Accessed 15 April 2015)

After they get their cookies, Fia and Fabie go out into the garden to celebrate, but they only start to quarrel again, this time because Fabie believes Fia to have the bigger cookie. His sister gets angry at him for quarrelling again and starts chasing him around the garden. Fabie trips and falls, and the cookie flies through the air and disappear over the hedge.

On the ground they see two tiny little mice, Lennie and Lina, sitting on a rock. Between them they are sharing an even tinier corn pip. Completely baffled Fia asks them why they are not fighting over the piece of corn, her reason being that it is already so small. Lina answers saying that they are not fighting because this one little pip is all they have. Her brother adds that if one of them gets it all the other one will starve. And then they will not have someone to play with. Fia agrees by saying that it is no fun playing alone. She then breaks her cookie into four equal pieces and they all sit snugly together and nibble their cookies. And they all agree that is the best cookie they have ever eaten.



Figure 6.27 It's not nice playing alone⁷⁰

The story ends to say that they did not find Fabie's cookie, but that none of them cared because they were enjoying playing together so much. None of them were even thinking of the cookie. The story ends humorously with the picture of Mister Dear walking through the front gate to come and have that cup of tea that Mommy Fox promised him. The cookie is stuck on one of his antlers, neatly impaled. A little bird is watching him with interest from a tree.

The inside back cover shows the little bird flying away with the cookie, with one round hole.

⁶⁹ <http://bit.ly/1H8rpWr> (Accessed 15 April 2015)

⁷⁰ <http://bit.ly/1ILm7IG> (Accessed 15 April 2015)



Figure 6.28 The missing cookie

6.3.2 The Activity

The story was read to the whole class, much in the same style as the stories were read to them in the first term of data collection. The researcher made sure that they could see the pictures as well to ensure that they had some visual cues by which to remember the story.

A smaller group of learners from each school was then assembled and taken out of class to complete the last activity. They were asked to now draw three pictures from the story that they had just heard; one from the beginning of the story, one from the middle and one from the end. This was to encourage learners to first *think* about what they had heard and then remember a picture for each of these sections of the story. It thus tested auditive as well as visual memory. Although they were asked only to draw pictures, many of the participants followed the “recipe” of the little books, drawing a picture and then writing a corresponding sentence. Fourteen learners from School A took part in this activity. The work of two of them was excluded from this analysis on account of them being L2 speakers of Afrikaans. In total 20 learners took part in this activity. The learners of School A were subdivided into three smaller groups as to not take too many of them out of class simultaneously.

This activity was analysed by determining whether:

- * learners had their chronology correct.
- * the sentences, if there, match the pictures, and
- * the pictures and sentences were intelligible.

6.3.2.1 Degrees of Chronology

It became clear that any improvement, or decline for that matter, cannot be judged just by the notions of right and wrong. Therefore, the term 'degree' is used to indicate the different levels at which learners are in terms of ordering events in the correct manner.

The different degrees were as follows: 1) Fully correct chronology, 2) Somewhat correct chronology and 3) Incorrect chronology.

Table 6.4 Degrees of chronology

	School A	School B
Correct	2	1
Somewhat correct (1/3 to 2/3 correct)	3	4
Incorrect	5	3

There were 20 learners who participated in this activity. Twelve learners were from School A and eight were from School B. Of the 20 learners who participated in this activity, only 8 learners had their chronology completely wrong. If one looks at the extreme ends of the spectrum, those completely wrong, and those completely right, the findings show that learners still have a long way to go in terms of understanding chronology – 3 learners had their sequence of pictures correct versus the 8 that had it wrong. However, the larger cohort of learners fell within the area of almost correct chronology. These seven learners' sequencing of events ranged from one third to two thirds correct.

a) Sound recognition of chronology

Due to the fact that they were asked only to draw and not draw and write, the researcher had to use a small degree of discretion when judging the pictures. One girl (A1-BME-BK) did particularly well in this activity. She was one of the few learners that did not employ any writing (no writing was necessary). She did however draw all three pictures on one page, but they were in perfect order. Her pictures show her understanding of the story, because they are not copies from the book, but rather her own retelling of events. See Figure 6.29.



Figure 6.29 Correct sequence of pictures

Her first picture is of Mr Dear and Mommy Fox. This refers to the event where they meet next to the road and she invites him to tea. The second picture shows Fabie and Fia and the two little mice, Lina and Lennie, who is sitting on a rock. The last picture shows all four of them playing together. Granted, the first picture is somewhat in the middle of the story and the two last pictures are the very last to events that are described in the story. Despite this, the aim of the activity was to test whether they could correctly order their sequence of events which she did.

b) Partial recognition of chronology

As is clear from the table above, the larger cohort of learners fall in this category (8 incorrect and 7 partially correct). This section can be seen as the “in transit” section, consisting of those learners who are on their way to gain a full grasp of the concept of chronology. One boy, in particular is worth taking note of. His little book was discussed in Section 5.6.5 b (Chapter 5) under the heading of “Willing participant”. His little book was not included for broader analysis due to the unintelligibility of his writing. For the second book he willingly participated and handed in a story of pictures.

For this activity he was asked to only draw pictures, and it was heartening to see that they were in fact relevant to the story, which was not the case from his other work. Only one picture was out of place. His first picture was of an angry Mommy Fox eating her children’s cookies. The second picture was of Fabie falling over the rock and losing his cookie. This event was one of the very last in the story. His last picture was that of Mr Dear and his children. Mr Dear, just as in the book, is carrying a stack of hay, and his children are fighting over bread. The sequence can be seen in Figure 6.30.

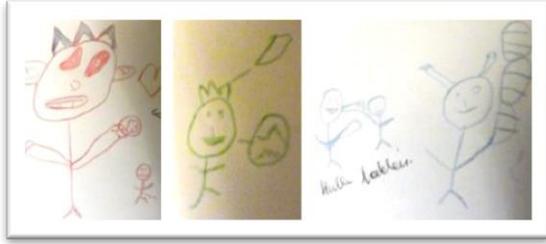


Figure 6.30 Somewhat correct

c) Misunderstanding of given chronology

One learner (A2-BME-DA) had his book backwards and his headings were also jumbled. They read from right to left: Tweede (Second), Eerste (First), Derde (Third). The pictures and sentences themselves nevertheless show a high degree of matching (See Addendum H). His chronology left much to wish for as he started his story by saying that Mommy saw how naughty the other children were. The accompanying picture shows the two squirrels dropping their nuts on Mommy Fox's head. His next picture shows the two children in the kitchen as they were fighting. His sentence refers to Mommy scolding the children by saying that they should stop making noise or else she will eat the cookies. In this case the picture and sentence do not match up perfectly, but the picture leads up to the event hinted at in the text. His third picture again shows the four children, Lennie, Lina, Fia and Fabie playing at rope skipping. The sentence and picture match up perfectly. He uses a community specific expression "skiptou". This is an amalgamation of two words "skip" (the Afrikaans is "spring") and tou (rope). See Figure 6.31 below.



Figure 6.31 Skipping rope

The sentence reads as follows:

Derde (opskrif)
 Third (heading)
 Daar na (Daarna) speel die kinders skiptou (springtou)
 After that play the children skipping rope.
 After that the children play skipping rope.

An interesting question arises when one looks at the degree to which the learners' pictures and sentences match up. On the one hand, the sentences and pictures match up, on the other, they may not be in sequence, as is the case for some of the learners discussed in section 6.3.2.2

6.3.2.2 Picture-Sentence Matching

Picture-sentence matching was a significant problem area in the little books. Therefore, it was decided that the pictures and sentences would be looked at in isolation. Table 6.5 shows the distribution of positive matching versus negative matching.

Table 6.5 Picture Sentence Matching

	Positive	Negative
School A	7	4
School B	4	1

I use the terms 'positive' and 'negative' because no learner had all their matching incorrect. Rather, 11 learners matched all their pictures and sentences, but 5 of them only matched some. This is a notable improvement from the little books, as there were little books that had no correlation between pictures and sentences whatsoever.

One endearing example of picture-sentence matching came from one girl in School B (B-BME-TJ). Her last picture shows Mr Dear with the cookie stuck to his antler. This particular event seemed to have caught the attention of many other learners. Her sentence, although, containing a number of spelling errors, is still intelligible. See Figure 6.32 below.



Figure 6.32 Mr Dear and the cookie

The sentence reads as follows:

Die koekie het in die takke pok (takbok) se horin (horing) geval.

The cookie (+past participle) in the stag 's antler fell.

The cookie fell in the stag's antler.

Another girl (B-BME-CM) had pictures as well as sentences. She focused on small moments within the big events that took place, rather than the big events themselves. She introduced the story by saying that their mother baked cookies and that they quarrelled over the cookies. Her second moment was that the two little mice sat on the rock (see Figure 6.33). The last moment was that of the little bird flying away with the cookie.



Figure 6.33 Lennie and Lina on a rock

The sentence reads as follows:

Die twee muise het op 'n klip gesit

The two mice (+past participle) on a rock sat

The two mice sat on a rock.

One girl (A1-BME-CJ) had one picture that, like that of learner (A2-BME-DA) in the previous section did not completely illustrate what was written below. She drew a picture of Mr Dear with the cookie in his antler, but she wrote of the children who played nicely. Of course these events are very closely related, and in the original story the picture contains the children as well as Mr Dear with the cookie in his antler. See Figure 6.34.



Figure 6.34 Missing children

The sentence reads as follows:

Die kinders het lekker gespeel.

The children (+past participle) nicely/ played

The children enjoyed playing.

6.3.2.3 Intelligibility of pictures and sentences.

All learners' work was judged for the clarity of their pictures, since this was the main aim of the activity. Any sentences that were added were judged for intelligibility as well. It should be made clear that learners were not corrected for spelling and grammar while writing. They retained freedom on that front, just like when they wrote their little books in the previous term.

There were only two learners whose work was decidedly unclear (A2-BME-AL). One girl had pictures that did not represent any part of the story, except one of Mommy Fox being hit by acorns. The rest of the pictures were very abstract and unrecognisable as to what part of the story they recounted. One picture even looked like Spongebob Squarepants. See Figure 6.35. She had no sentences to lend support to her pictures.

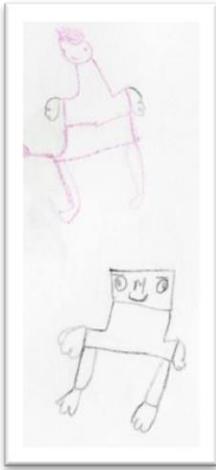


Figure 6.35 Spongebob

One girl (A2-BME-CVR) showed an extreme lack of knowledge in grammar in her writing, almost like those learners whose work was excluded from the data discussed in the previous chapter. Nevertheless, due to the fact that both the researcher and the learners had the target story fresh in memory, her sentence was more intelligible. See Figures 6.36 and 6.37



Figure 6.36 More cookies

In order to explain this sentence an Afrikaans translation will also be given. This refers to the fight that Fabie and Fia have at the beginning of the story, although they fight about size and not quantity.

Her sentence reads as follows:

Verbatim: Begin (heading repeated) jy	het mer	kookis.
Afrikaans: Begin	jy	het meer koekies.
English: Beginning	you	have more cookies.

Figure 6.37 refers to the same event. The sentence is much more ungrammatical than the one describing Figure 6.36, but due to the accompanying picture the learner's intended meaning is clear (see text below Figure 6.37). It is a very good example of how pictures can enhance the meaning of sentences. This idea will be expanded in the conclusion of this chapter.



Figure 6.37 More than me

Her sentence reads as follows:

Verbatim: Middel het mieg	kamy.
Afrikaans: Middel het meer dan my (as ek)	
English: Middle	have more than me.

It is very clear, from a researcher's point of view that the pictures and sentences support each other more definitely in terms of the message that they try to convey. This may again be ascribed to the fact that learners had the story fresh in their memories.

The most salient finding from this activity is that learners have a greater awareness of genre than was evident from their little books. They have the ability to sequence events when they relate it to

the terms 'beginning', 'middle' and 'end'. When they have the supportive prior memory of a story to which to apply these terms they show higher capability to sequence events than appeared to be the case regarding the little books exercises.

6.4 MAIN FINDINGS AND CONCLUSION

The outcomes for the activities described in this particular chapter differ somewhat from that of those of the research discussed in Chapter 5. Chapter 5 looked at where learners are in terms of their language awareness, their appreciation for spoken and written narratives and their understanding of different varieties of Afrikaans. It was in the course of collecting data for these purposes that various degrees of language awareness became apparent, in some cases illustrating the concerns about slow emergence of literacy and even pre-literacy skills.

This Chapter then dealt with these missing links. The focus of the additional exercises discussed in this chapter is specifically on learners' ability to sequence pictures, match pictures and sentences and write a chronologically sound narrative.

In the course of analysing these activities it was found that learners are possessed of a keen sense of linguistic creativity that sprouts from their inherent sense to search for meaning. The way in which the girl transformed a rocket and moon into a castle and shells, or the boy converted sand into butter are just two of the many examples given above.

The activities discussed in section 6.3 further underline the notion that 'understanding' and 'awareness' are best achieved by way of triangulation. Learners grow up in an environment flooded with sensory stimulation, whether mainstream or non-mainstream, so the methods of making sense are manifold and intertwined. Pictures and sentences and the correct descriptors as 'beginning', 'middle' and 'end' help them to understand the chronology of events. Many of the learners who participated did not meet the basic literacy expectations of their age group; nevertheless, in comparison to the data of Chapter 5, the second set of exercises showed results that suggest better underlying potential than is evidenced in standard classroom activities.

This study was not intended to be a remedial intervention, so the more positive outcomes of the second set of exercises cannot be interpreted as measured improvement. Even so, due to the supportive role these exercises took on, improvement, or rather, comparison with possible positive results has to be kept in mind.

With that in mind, the last chapter will be devoted to further delineating the main findings. Added to this will be a final few conclusive thoughts on the study. Most importantly, recommendations for future research will be also given.

Chapter 7: Final Conclusion and Recommendations

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The study on which this dissertation reports, forms part of a body of research that is driven by concerns regarding low literacy levels in South African schools. This study has proposed that one reason for the recorded low literacy levels could be found in the discontinuity between learners' home literacy practices and school literacy expectations. As a means to address such a concern as well as to gain a deeper understanding of this discontinuity, the study introduced a Narrative Enrichment Programme by which learners were tasked first to write stories and then also, in a smaller group, to do a series of picture sequencing and pictures-sentence-matching exercises. A final conclusion and reflection on the analyses given in chapters five and six will be given here by means of summarising the following topics:

- * A brief chapter summary and most salient findings
- * Contribution of the study within the South African context
- * Limitations of the study
- * Teaching suggestions
- * Future recommendations

7.2 SUMMARY OF THE REPORTED RESEARCH

The main purpose, as stated in Chapter 1, of this study was to investigate the ways in which a Narrative Enrichment Programme can give insight into

Afrikaans L1 learner's awareness of language,

their knowledge and use of language varieties, communicative practices and registers as they are suited to different social situations, and

their appreciation of linguistic structure and the varieties they may come across.

The data refers to a context where the learners' LoLT and their home language variety are not the same. These learners are in an educational environment where Grade 3s typically perform below par in the standardised literacy tests set in all schools of the larger region. The main objective of this study was to use the Narrative Enrichment Programme to gain knowledge regarding salient aspects of their home literacy practices and to consider how these practices may differ from school literacy

expectations. The study aimed to investigate in broad terms the level of language awareness that these learners have of their own and others' linguistic varieties; also of how different modes, genres and registers respond to different conventions. Learners' appreciation of the spoken and written form as means of communication and creative expression was central to the kinds of exercises they were given to complete.

Chapter 2 provided an in-depth profile of the participant group (the learners), their community and their schools. Both home and school literacy practices were discussed. National literacy expectations were discussed by looking at standardised curriculum directives and regional assessment opportunities as they are given in CAPS, the ANA and SET.

Chapter 3 discussed the theoretical foundations in which the study is grounded. As a broad theoretical framework the works of Freinet (1930s, 1979), Vygotsky (1920s-1930s, 1976), Bakhtin (1930s-1940s, 1975) and Labov and Waletzky (1967) were discussed. The assumptions, principles and hypotheses established in these theories have been encapsulated in many studies, including studies on the ways in which primary schools manage the linguistic diversity of their learners, also minority language groups. This dissertation relates specifically to work in which "little books" were produced by learners in different national and educational settings. An historical background of the origin and execution of various little book projects was also given. Mainly, this study takes an approach in which 'literacy' is taken as a primarily socially constructed phenomenon where there is constant dialogue between the different types of literacy that learners practice.

Chapter 4 gave an exposition of the methodology of the study as it evolved from the original little books projects that were discussed in Chapter 3. Particularly the Narrative Enrichment Programme and how it was administered, is explained in detail. Within this chapter more information is also given as to the supplementary sequencing exercises that were given to a selected smaller group of learners following the little books project with which the Enrichment Programme started.

Chapters 5 and 6 discussed the two parts of the Narrative Enrichment Programme. Data gained from the little books was discussed in Chapter 5 and data gained from the sequencing exercises was discussed in Chapter 6. The findings from these chapters will be summarised in the next section.

7.3 MAIN FINDINGS

The main findings of the study can be categorised according to the broader themes of "Awareness", "Appreciation", "Home varieties" and "Relevance". These themes were addressed and also emerged

prominently from the analyses given in both Chapters 5 and 6 and were therefore deemed most important.

7.3.1 Appreciation

Both groups of participants, i.e. the learners in both schools where the study was done, showed great appreciation for telling and listening to stories. As oral communication is the first form of communication they learn, learners showed greater ease and comfort in the oral medium than in the written form. However, after they had written and illustrated their own work and received their first little books in publication form, their enthusiasm for writing increased markedly. Most learners were enthralled by the biographical aspect of their names and pictures on the back page of the little book.

Although the learners showed greater appreciation for spoken narratives, it nevertheless is an area that could be developed. The fact that only one school's learners brought stories from home and the other school did not supports this statement. Story telling is a central form of social expression which needs to be encouraged and developed.

Participants showed a particular appreciation for the fairy tale genre in that many of the little books as discussed in Chapter 5 (Section 5.4 and specifically 5.4.2) were retellings and adaptations of existing fairy tales such as *The Three little pigs*, *Beauty and the Beast* and *The tortoise and the Hare*, to name but a few. Their appreciation for this genre can also be interpreted as a choice of familiarity – they retold stories that had already been introduced to them, either at school or at home. In this case their appreciation may be little more than a choice of convenience in that they are not confident in working completely creatively, in designing new stories or giving their own life experiences a narrative frame; it is likely that many do not feel comfortable with and do not know other genres on which they can base their stories.

Many of the learners, also discussed in section 5.4.2, simply rewrote parts of the stories that they read (or that had been read to them) in class as part of the curriculum. Rewriting stories rather than writing your own not only shows limited knowledge of the written genre, but also a level of under-appreciating what the learner him-/herself has to offer as a creative author writing a story. Despite the fact that some learners showed little confidence in writing in their own words, or about their own stories, most of them show a keen artistic appreciation for the illustrations that accompany

their written texts. Also, simply rewriting already familiar stories can be a good entry point into developing confidence to venture into new and novel forms of narrative.

The most salient finding in this category then was the high level of appreciation that learners showed for the spoken form of narrative. Their love of the oral tradition may serve as a definite entry point when motivating learners to write. The occurrence and use of regional expressions as is discussed in section 5.6.3 may be used to further foster their love and appreciation for their regional variety and in this way convince them that knowledge and skills they already have are not only suitable, but in fact unique as instruments in creative writing. Appreciation of the regional variety, also by the educators and language skill testers, could motivate them to expand their linguistic repertoire to incorporate other registers, rather than to have them think they should replace their variety for a more mainstream variety.

7.3.2 Awareness

Linked to the theme of appreciation is that of awareness. Learners' great appreciation for the fairy tale and storybook genre led to an awareness of certain punctuation marks, such as inverted commas, dialogues and certain key phrases like "Een dag" (Long ago) and "fluit-fluit my storie is uit" (Snip, snap, snout the tale's told out) that are used to begin and end these kinds of stories. Nevertheless, Grade 3 learners should, according to CAPS (Department of Basic Education, 2011), already know how to use inverted commas with greater ease than they did.

A more general awareness of spelling can be seen in the way in which they corrected their texts. The level of inconsistent spelling links with the transitional phase of spelling that Gentry (1982) describes (see section 5.6.2.2). Some learners also had innovative ways of spelling words based on how they perceive the spoken counterpart of that word. An example of this is the word "kar" (car) being written as "kag" (car) (Section 5.6.2.2), where the "g" represents the way in which an "r" is pronounced by many speakers in this community (namely with a burr). This is an example of phonological awareness. In and of itself this phase is a normal part of literacy development, but it remains to be seen whether the Narrative Enrichment Programme can serve as a method by which learners can improve spelling.

From the data in Chapter 6, levels of awareness were seen in the way that learners repaired their picture sequences either by themselves or with the help of the researcher. Seeing that these

sequencing exercises were developed for helping learners who had difficulty with sequencing, instances of self-repair was welcomed.

The levels of awareness, just like the levels of appreciation, were different from learner to learner. The general finding is that learners do have knowledge of different genres and genre specific features; they do have knowledge of spelling. The presence of both awareness and appreciation to a degree answer the questions that were set as research objectives, but, it needs to be expanded. The dependence of learners on one particular genre and the inconsistent use of its features show that they need to be exposed to a wider variety of genres such as newspapers, diaries, information sheets etc. and particularly receive more pointed guidance and opportunity to practise writing for these genres.

7.3.3 Finding Relevance

Finding relevance refers to the motivation behind certain choices that learners made with regards to story topics, sequencing interpretations and vocabulary. Sperber and Wilson's Theory of Relevance (2002) is of particular importance in understanding the motivation behind certain choices that learners make. Sperber and Wilson find that Grice's Maxim of Relevance is the most important of the maxims identified because it underlies all the others, but what they add is that readers and listeners interpret meanings on the grounds of more and less relevance based on what *they* know and not necessarily what the speaker or writer intended as relevant. Thus, and this can be seen in one of the findings of this study, with different things manifest to different speakers, some degree of discontinuity can occur in communication. In the school context this needs to be considered, as what is salient and also manifest for learners in their home environment, may be less so in the school context – and vice versa.

One of the most telling examples from Chapter 5 of how learners apply the relevance principle, is in the story of *Die Kaasman* (The Cheeseman) discussed in section 5.6.4.2 c. The learner interpreted a character meant to represent a sea sponge as a cheese because he did not know the world of sea creatures and how sponges form part of that realm.

In section 6.2.8 of Chapter 6 a similar example is given where a learner interpreted a rocket supposedly landed on the moon as a castle built on a bed of shells. In section 6.2.6 novel interpretations of picture sequences show how learners may interpret events differently than what the researcher expected. One such example would be small story 27. The learner interpreted the

sequence “Going to Sleep” (Figure 6.22) not as the girl getting ready to go to bed, but rather as the girl getting up.

A similar occurrence is to be found in the case of vocabulary choices. For some of the picture sequences, learners were faced with unfamiliar actions, figures and events, and then showed great ingenuity in the way that they made interpretations based on what was manifest to them, i.e. what they found to be most relevant. Examples of these can be found in sections 5.6.3.1 and 6.2.7.

These examples of finding relevance give an understanding of choices that researchers and educators could find odd; they show how easily discontinuity in communication can occur between people – also in an educational environment. In order to appreciate the choices learners make as well as to develop their ability to make as many possible relevant interpretations in as many situations as possible, they need a broader exposure to literature and other reading material. Narratives appear to be a powerful instrument in broadening the life experience of learners whose socio-economic position limits the kinds of exposure they will otherwise receive.

7.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The main limitation of the study was a logistical one related to the limited time in which the data was collected as well as the labour intensive method of producing the little books by printing and binding them. Nineteen contact sessions of approximately 2 hours each can only deliver a limited window into the existing literacy practices of learners. The study should be expanded in order to be able to allow broader generalisations of learners home literacy practices.

The unforeseen labour intensiveness of producing the little books after each activity also to a large degree inhibits the production of more little books and possibly more data for each of the research objectives. However, if the time factor is taken out of account and learners may produce little books during the span of a year, like those of Christian Schreger, it would be manageable to produce little books as learners choose to write them, rather than mass-producing 40 little books at once.

The small participant group gives only a limited view into learners’ literacy practices, but it nevertheless gives invaluable guidance into what fields should be investigated if a broader study is launched in the future.

If given more time, the Narrative Enrichment Programme may be used as a tool for remediation as well and not just a tool for investigation as was done in the current study. If the researcher had

another term to collect data, the effect of the sequencing exercises could have been measured by having learners write another little book.

7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE STUDY

I will briefly discuss possible future endeavours and expansions for the study at hand:

- * Learners showed great appreciation for oral stories. Using their enthusiasm, a future endeavour may be to use these appreciations as an entry point for teaching them how to transform oral stories into written stories.
- * In future research the current narrative programme could be expanded over a longer period, to include a variety of genres and activities built around them. In doing so special attention should go to the multimodality of these different genres and activities and to ways of meaningfully integrating verbal and visual components of written texts.
- * In producing their little books learners were particularly eager to do the illustrations. Even learners who found writing difficult showed greater confidence in drawing and illustrating. In such cases where learners do not have the level of written competence expected for their age, their competence in giving visual representations can be used to facilitate improvement in the written sector of text production. This should be explored in future studies.

7.6 TEACHING SUGGESTIONS

In spite of the relatively small group of participants the study has given us information that may prove to be helpful to teachers in their teaching practices. These suggestions have bearing not only on the teachers of the participating schools, but rather all teachers working in similar communities where learners have the same kinds of challenges in literacy development and the learning that should be bolstered by their literacy skills.

The current research has brought to light learners' love of orality: they were captivated by stories that were read or just told to them, and many quite animatedly told their own stories. Learner's knowledge of spoken language and love of oral stories should be used more explicitly in teaching them writing skills. Much of the research has shown that spoken stories can be translated into written ones. My suggestion would be that teachers should use learners' existing enthusiasm to this

end – to have them tell stories and then write them. Affectively, learners may find writing exercises less daunting if they have already told the story verbally.

Learners' love of art based activities also has great potential for building bridges between their existing skills and those that teachers wish to foster. Art lends itself to descriptive language which may be developed into narratives. As with the picture sequencing activities, art and drawings may also be used to strengthen spoken story-telling.

7.7 FINAL THOUGHTS

Despite the fact that this study was conducted using a limited number of learners, working in only two schools within a much bigger region, and hardly representative of the country as a whole, I am convinced that the Narrative Enrichment Programme could be used more widely and with greater success if more time were allowed, more facilities were available to teachers, and the teacher-student ratio were to be a bit more favourable.

The data that has been collected during both phases of the study show that learners have more linguistic resources at their disposal than what is commonly believed. Resources of regional language, appreciation and life experiences should be investigated in more depth in order to incorporate them with more success in the formal educational environment. Most important is the fact that learners have to gain a sense of respect and purpose in using their own varieties before and while teachers teach them the standard varieties. If the appreciation for their L1 and the sense of usefulness thereof is strongly developed, learners have a much firmer base on which to build any future literacy endeavours.

Bibliography

- Akmajian, A., Demers, R. A., Farmer, A. K. & Harnish, R. M. 2001. *Linguistics: An Introduction to Language and Communication* (5th edition). Massachusetts: The MIT Press.
- Alexander, N. & Busch, B (Eds.). 2007. *Literacy and linguistic diversity in a global perspective: An intercultural exchange with African countries*. Available at: http://www.cis.or.at/spracherleben/download/busch07_LDL_E.pdf [Accessed 11 March 2012]
- Attride-Stirling, J. 2001. Thematic networks: an analytical tool for qualitative research. *Qualitative Research*, 1(3): 385-405
- Bakhtin, M. M. 1981 *The dialogic imagination. Four essays*. Holquist, M (ed.). Translated by Emerson, Caryl and Michael Holquist. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Ball, A & Warshauer Freedman, S. 2004. *Bakhtinian Perspectives on Language, Literacy, and Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Blake, R & Cutler, C. 2003. AAE and Variation in Teachers' Attitudes: A Question of School Philosophy? *Linguistics and Education* 14(2): 163–194.
- Blakemore, D. 1992. *Understanding Utterances: An Introduction to Pragmatics*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Blattner, G. & Fiori, M. 2011. Virtual Social Network Communities: An Investigation of Language Learners' Development of Sociopragmatic Awareness and Multiliteracy Skills. *CALICO Journal*, 29(1): 24-43.
- Blum-Kulka, S. 1986. Shifts of cohesion and coherence in translation. In House, J and Blum-Kulka, S (eds.) *Interlingual and intercultural communication: Discourse and cognition in translation and second language acquisition studies*, 17-35. Gunter Narr Verlag Tübingen: Tübingen
- Bolitho, R., Carter, R., Hughes, R., Ivanič, R., Masuhara, H., & Tomlinson, B. 2003. Ten questions about language awareness. *ELT journal*, 57(3): 251-259.
- Brandt, R. 1992. On Outcome-based Education: A Conversation with Bill Spady. *Educational Leadership*, 50(4): 66-70.

- Busch, B. 2010. School language profiles: Valorising linguistic resources in heteroglossic situations in South Africa. *Language and Education*, 24(4): 283-294.
- Busch, B. 2011. Building on heteroglossia and heterogeneity: the experience of a multilingual classroom. *Presentation at 3rd International Conference on Language, Education and Diversity (22-25 November)*. New Zealand: Auckland.
- Busch, Brigitta (in preparation) The classroom as a heterotopia: respecting translocal repertoires. In Blackledge, A & Creese, A (eds.) *Heteroglossia as a practice and pedagogy*. Cambridge University Press. Available at:
http://ortnergasse.webonaut.com/m2/projekte/pdf/slon_en.pdf [Accessed 9 April 2012]
- Cairney, T. H. 2002. Bridging Home and School Literacy: In Search of Transformative Approaches to Curriculum. *Early Child Development and Care*, 172(2): 153-172.
- Carter, J. & Garrett, P. 1991. The scope of Language Awareness. In Carter, J & Garrett. P *Language Awareness in the Classroom*. p. 3-23. Longman Inc.: New York.
- Carter, R. 2003. Key concepts in ELT: Language awareness. *ELT Journal*. 57(1): 64-65. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cazden, C; Cope, B; Fairclough, N; Gee, J; *et al.* 1996. A Pedagogy of Multiliteracies: Designing Social Futures. *Harvard Educational Review*, 60(1): 60-92.
- Clots-Figueras, I., & Masella, P. (2013). Education, language and identity. *The Economic Journal*, 123(570): F332-F357.
- Cortazzi, Martin. 2014. *Narrative analysis. Vol. 12*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Crystal, D. 1987. *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of Language*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Crystal, D. 1991. *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Daniels, H. 2005. *An Introduction to Vygotsky. Second Edition*. Hove: Routledge.
- De Fina, A & Georgakopoulou, A. 2008. Analysing narratives as practices. *Qualitative Research*, 8(3): 379-387.
- De Fina, A. 2006. Group identity, narrative and self-representation. In De Fina, A; Schiffrin, D & Bamberg, M. (eds.) *Discourse and Identity*: 351-375.

- Department of Basic Education (a). 2011. *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement Foundation Phase Grades R-3*. Available at:
<http://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=qARJRpYgmRI%3d&tabid=671&mid=1213> [Accessed 5 March 2012]
- Department of Basic Education (b). 2011. *Kurrikulum- en assesseringsbeleidsverklaring Grondslagfase Grade R-3*. Available at:
<http://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=%2bc5SWoRnRMI%3d&tabid=671&mid=1213> [Accessed 5 March 2012]
- Department of Basic Education (c). 2011. *Report on the Annual National Assessments of 2011*. Available at:
<http://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=1U5igeVjiqg%3D&tabid=358&mid=1325> [Accessed 5 March 2012]
- Department of Basic Education (d). 2012. *Report on the Annual National Assessments of 2012 Grades 1 to 6 & 9*. Available at:
<http://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=YyzLTOK5IYU%3D&tabid=298> [Accessed 20 June 2013]
- Department of Basic Education (e). 2013. *Report on the Annual National Assessments of 2013 Grades 1 to 6 & 9*. Available at:
<http://www.education.gov.za/LinkClick.aspx?fileticket=Aiw7HW8ccic%3D&tabid=36> [Accessed 20 February 2014]
- Department of Basic Education. 2010. *Guidelines for Full-service/Inclusive Schools*. Available at:
https://www.google.co.za/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=1&cad=rja&uact=8&sqi=2&ved=0CCEQFjAA&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.thutong.doe.gov.za%2FResourceDownload.aspx%3Fid%3D44323&ei=zeiOU_KgNe6HyQOy5YDgCQ&usg=AFQjCNF-2HY-zOZ3oyTBrLcQKC6t2CSeMA&sig2=t6ZSraSMwUbzqbUtAtBBRw&bvm=bv.68235269,d.ZWU [Accessed 4 June 2014]
- Department of Education. 2006. National Norms and Standards for School Funding in *Government Gazette Republic of South Africa – Staatskoerant Republiek van Suid-Afrika*. Available at: <http://www.pmg.org.za/files/gazettes/060831educ-schoolfund.pdf> [Accessed 7 May 2014]

- Duke, N.K. & Percell-Gates, V. 2003. Genres at home and at school: Bridging the known to the new. *The Reading Teacher*, 57(1): 30-37
- Durkin, D. 1993. *Teaching them to read*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Edwards, E. 2009. *Language and Identity*. Cambridge University Press: New York.
- Foundation for Alcohol Related Research (FARR). 2015. *Social Awareness*. Available at:<http://www.farrsa.org.za/what-we-do/#tab-id-1>. [Accessed 16 November 2015].
- Flynn, J. M. 1997. *Developmental Stages for Acquisition of Literacy Skills*. La Cross Area Dyslexia Research Institute, Inc. Available at:
<<http://www.google.co.za/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=3&cad=rja&ved=0CDYQFjAC&url=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.myteacherpages.com%2Fwebpages%2FDSchumaker%2Ffiles%2Fdevelopmental%2520stages%2520for%2520acquisition%2520of%2520literacy%2520skills1.doc&ei=H93CUf-6N6SU7Qbmv4CYBA&usg=AFQjCNE-04o8SWR0dGjotpkvw2SvXkqZ2g&bvm=bv.48175248,d.ZGU>> [Accessed 3 July 2013]
- Freedman, S. W. & Ball, A. 2004. Ideological Becoming: Bakhtinian Concepts to Guide the Study of Language. *Literacy, and Learning*, 3-33. United States of America: Cambridge University Press
- Freire, P. 1968. *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. New York: Seabury Press.
- Fromkin, V; Rodman, R & Hyams, N. 2011. *An Introduction to Language (9th edition)*. Boston: Wadsworth
- Garrett, P., & James, C. 2000. Language awareness. In Byram, M. (ed.), *Routledge encyclopedia of language teaching and learning*, 330–332. London: Routledge.
- Gee, J.P. 2008. *Situated Language and Learning: A critique of traditional schooling*. New York: Routledge.
- Gentry, R. J. 1982. An Analysis of Developmental Spelling in “GNYS AT WRK”. *The Reading Teacher*, 36(2): 192-200.
- Georgakopoulou, A. 2006. Thinking Big with Small Stories in Narrative and Identity Analysis. *Narrative Inquiry*, 16: 129-137

- Gonglewski, M., & DuBravac, S. 2006. Multiliteracy: Second language literacy in the multimedia environment. In Ducate, L. & Arnold, N (Eds.), *Calling on Call: From theory and research to new directions in foreign language teaching*, 5: 43-68
- Goodwin, C. & Heritage, J. 1990. Conversation Analysis. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 19:283-307
- Grant, D. 2013. Media Release Minister of Education Donald Grant. *Western Cape Government Education*. Available at: http://wced.pgwc.gov.za/comms/press/2013/74_14oct.html [Accessed 7 May 2014]
- Hancock, Kay & McDonald, Sandra. 2003. *Sound Sense: Phonics and Phonological Awareness*. New Zealand, Wellington: Learning Media Limited.
- Harden, R. M., Crosby, J. R. & Davis, M. H. 1999. Amee Guide No. 14: Outcome-based Education: Part 1 An Introduction to Outcome-based Education. *Medical Teacher*, 21(1): 7-14.
- Hendricks, F. 2012. Die potensiele nut van 'n gelykevlak-perspektief op die variëteit van Afrikaans, in Kwasi Kwaa Prah (red.) *Veelkantiger Afrikaans: Streeksvariëteite in die Standaardvorming*. Cape Town: Centre for Advanced Studies of African Society. 44-61
- Hiebert, Elfrieda H. & Raphael, Taffy E. 1998. *Early Literacy Instruction*. Orlando: Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Howard Allor, J & McCathren, R. B. 2003. Developing Emergent Literacy skills Through Storybook Reading. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 39(2): 72 – 79
- Hull, G. & Birr Moje, E. 2012, January. What is the development of literacy the development of? Paper presented at the Understanding Language Conference, Stanford, CA.
- Ioannidou, E. 2009. Using the 'improper' language in the classroom: the conflict between language use and legitimate varieties in education. Evidence from a Greek Cypriot classroom. *Language and Education*, 23(3): 263-278.
- Ivanov, V. 2000. Heteroglossia. *Journal of Linguistic Anthropology*, 9(1-2): 100-102.
- James, C. & Garrett, P. 1992. *Language awareness in the classroom*. London: Longman.
- Janks, H. 2003. Critical Language Awareness. In Anaam, C. & Orlando, A (eds.). *Adult Education for Social Justice: News, Issues and Ideas*, March, Issue 16. Available at:

- <http://changeagent.nelrc.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/CA16.pdf> [Accessed 14 October 2015]
- Jewitt, C. 2005. Multimodality, “reading”, and “writing” for the 21st century. *Discourse: studies in the cultural politics of education*, 26(3): 315-331.
- Kallenbach, S. 2003. By Whose Standards Do We Spea? In Anaam, C. & Orlando, A (eds.). *Adult Education for Social Justice: News, Issues and Ideas*, March, Issue 16. Available at: <http://changeagent.nelrc.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/02/CA16.pdf> [Accessed 14 October 2015]
- Kim, J. 2003. Challenges to NLS Response to What’s ‘new’ in New Literacy Studies? Critical approaches to literacy in theory and practice. *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, 5(2): 118-121.
- Klop, D., & Tuomi, S. K. 2006. The persistence of language disorders in a group of disadvantaged grade 3 learners. The South African journal of communication disorders. *Die Suid-Afrikaanse tydskrif vir Kommunikasieafwykings*, 54: 59-66.
- Klop, D., Visser, M., Booysen, L., Fourie, Y., Smit, D., & Van der Merwe, H. 2015. The effect of a shared visual context during the presentation of elicitation stimuli on the narratives of young children with and without language impairment. *Stellenbosch Papers in Linguistics*, 42: 1-14.
- Kress, G., Hodge, R., Fowler, R., Hodge, B., & Trew, T. 1982. *Language as ideology*. London: Routledge and Kegan Paul.
- Kress, G. R., & Van Leeuwen, T. 1996. *Reading images: The grammar of visual design*. London: Routledge
- Labov, W. & Waletzky, J. 1997. Narrative Analysis: Oral versions of Personal Experience. *Journal of Narrative and Life History*, 7(1-4): 3-38.
- Lahire, B. 1995. *Tableaux de familles*. Paris: Gallimard Le Seuil.
- Landay, E. 1994. Performance as the Foundation for a Secondary School Literacy Program: A Bakhtinian Perspective, in Morris, P. (ed.) *The Bakhtin Reader: Selected Writings of Bakhtin, Medvedev, Voloshinov*. London: Edward Arnold.

- Le Cordeur, M. 2010. The Struggling Reader: Identifying and addressing reading problems successfully at an early stage. *Per Linguam*, 26(2): 77-89.
- Lee, C.D. 1994. Double Voiced Discourse African American Vernacular English as Resource in Cultural Modelling Classrooms, in Morris, P. (ed.) *The Bakhtin Reader: Selected Writings of Bakhtin, Medvedev, Voloshinov*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Levinson, S.C. 1989. 3.1 Grice's theory of implicature. *Pragmatics*: 100-118. Cambridge University Press: New York.
- Levinson, S.C. 2000. 1.1 Grice's Program. *Presumptive Meanings: The Theory of Generalized Conversational Implicature*: 12-21. Massachusetts Institute of Technology: Massachusetts
- Lombard, K. & Grosser, M. 2008. *Critical Thinking: Are the Ideals of OBE Failing Us or are We Failing the Ideals of OBE?* 28(4). Available: http://www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?pid=S0256-01002008000400007&script=sci_arttext [18 April, 2011]
- Lonigan, C. J., & Whitehurst, G. J. 1998. *Getting Ready To Read: Emergent Literacy and Family Literacy*.
- McCormick, K. 2002. Language in Cape Town's district six. Oxford University Press.
- McCutcheon, G & Jung, B. 1990. Alternative Perspectives on Action Research. *Theory into Practice*. 29(3):144-151.
- McKeough, A., Phillips, L.M., Timmons, V., Lupart, J.L. 2006. *Understanding Literacy development: A Global View*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Publishers: Mahwah, New Jersey.
- Meyer, L & Offen, H. 1983. *Vertel my 'n dierestorie*. J.P. van der Walt: Pretoria.
- "migrant". *Miriam-Webster.com*. 2015. Available at: <http://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/migrant>. [Accessed, 17 November 2015]
- Miller, R. 2011. *Vygotsky in Perspective*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Mills, K. A. 2010. A Review of the "Digital Turn" in the New Literacy Studies. *Review of Educational Research*, 80(2): 246-271.

- Moll, L. C., Amanti, C., Neff, D. & Gonzalez, N. 1992. Funds of Knowledge for Teaching: Using a Qualitative Approach to Connect Homes and Classrooms. *Theory into Practice*, 31(2): 132-141.
- Morris, P. 1994. *The Bakhtin Reader: Selected Writings of Bakhtin, Medvedev, Voloshinov*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Nel, JH. 2015. *The comprehension and production of later developing language constructions by Afrikaans-, English- and isiXhosa-speaking Grade 1 learners*. PhD Thesis. University of Stellenbosch
- Nicolini, M. B. 1994. Stories can save us: A defence of narrative writing. *English Journal*, 83(2): 56-61.
- O' Toole, B & Mhuire, C. s.a. *What is the Language Experience Approach*. Available at: <http://www.mie.ie/getdoc/30d67e17-30a7-4a1e-9c27-6cdb2b6d8c35/LanguageExperience.aspx> [Accessed, 13 August 2014]
- Ogbu, J. U. 1982. Cultural Discontinuities and Schooling. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 13(4): 290-307.
- Olivier, J. M. 2009. 'Investigating literacy development among learners with a second language as medium of education – The effects of an emergent literacy stimulation program in Grade R', D Phil-thesis, Stellenbosch University, Stellenbosch
- Parodi, G. 2007. Reading-writing connections: Discourse-orientated research. *Reading and writing*, 20:225-250.
- Patton Terry, N. 2006. Relations between variety variation, grammar, and early spelling skills. *Reading and Writing*, 19(9): 907-931.
- Patton Terry, N., McDonald Connor, C., Thomas-Tate, S & Love, M. 2010. Examining Relationships Among Dialect Variation, Literacy Skills and School Context in First Grade. *Journal of Speech, Language and Hearing Research*, 53: 126-145, February, 2010.
- Paul, M. 2010. Foundation Phase. *Learning to Read R-Gr 9*. SAOU Symposium on Barriers to Learning: Cape Town [2010, 31 October]

- Pavlenko, A. 2008. Narrative analysis in the study of bi- and multilingualism. In Moyer, M. and Wei, L. (eds): *The Blackwell Guide to Research Methods in Bilingualism*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Pernes, S. 2013. *Die große Freiheit kleiner Bücher* (Doctoral dissertation, uni-wien).
- Pietikäinen, S & Pietikäinen-Hutha, A. 2013. Multimodal Literacy Practices in the Indigenous Sámi Classroom: Children navigating in a Complex Multilingual Setting. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, 12(4): 230-247.
- Pitkänen-Huhta, A., & Pietikäinen, S. 2014. From a school task to community effort: children as authors of multilingual picture books in an endangered language context. In Helot, C, Sneddon, R, & Daly, N. (eds.), *Children's Literature in Multilingual Classrooms*, 138-153. Trentham Books.
- Pullen, P. C & Justice, Laura M. 2003. Enhancing Phonological Awareness, Print Awareness, and Oral Language Skills in Preschool Children. *Intervention in School and Clinic*, 39(2): 87-98.
- Ravid, D & Tolchinsky, L. 2002. Developing linguistic literacy: a comprehensive model. *Journal of Child Language*, 29(2002): 417-447. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Riessman, C. K. 2004. Narrative Analysis. In Lewis-Beck, M.S, Bryman, A and Futing Liao, T (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Social Science Research Methods*: 705–9. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- SANCA Western Cape (South African National Council on Alcoholism and Drug Dependence). 2015. *Foetal Alcohol Syndrome*. Available at:<http://www.sancawc.co.za/master/article.php?id=14>. [Accessed 16 November 2015].
- Schegloff, E. A.; Jefferson, G & Sacks, H. 1977. The preference for Self-correction in the organization of repair in conversation. *Language*, 53(2): 361-382.
- Schilling-Estes, N. 2006. Dialect Variation. In Fasold, R. W. & Connor-Linton, J. *An Introduction to Language and Linguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. 311-341.
- Schreger, C. 2010. *PROJEKT: Kleine Bücher*. Available at: <http://ortnergasse.webonaut.com/m2/projekte/pdf/kb.pdf> [Accessed 18 November 2013]

- Shanahan, T. 2012. Early literacy development: Sequence of Acquisition (Rev. ed). Available at http://www.researchgate.net/publication/242590927_Early_Literacy_Development_Sequence_of_Acquisition [Accessed 21 October 2014]
- Shiro, M. 2003. Genre and Evaluation in Narrative Development. *Journal of Child Language*, 30(1): 165-195.
- Siegel, J. 2006. Language ideologies and the education of speakers of marginalized language varieties: Adopting a critical awareness approach. *Linguistics and Education*, 17: 157-174
- Siegel, J. 2007. Creoles and Minority Varieties in Education: An Update. *Language and Education*, 21(1): 66-86. Routledge.
- Smith, C.L. & Tager-Flusberg, H. 1982. Metalinguistic Awareness and Language Development. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 34: 449-468.
- Snell, J. 2013. Dialect, interaction and class positioning at school: from deficit to difference to repertoire. *Language and Education*, 27(2): 110-128.
- Sousa, D. 2001. *How The Special Brain Learns to Read*. California: Conwin Inc.
- Southwood, F., & Van Dulm, O. 2012. Receptive and expressive activities in language therapy. Johannesburg: JvR Psychometrics.
- Sperber, D., & Sperber, D. 1996. *Explaining culture*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Sperber, D & Wilson, D. 2002. Relevance theory. in Ward, G. and Horn, L. (eds.) *Handbook of Pragmatics*. Oxford: Blackwell.: 250-290. Available at: <http://people.bu.edu/bfraser/Relevance%20Theory%20Oriented/Sperber%20&%20Wilson%20-%20RT%20Revisited.pdf> [Accessed 1 July 2015]
- Sperber, D & Wilson, D. 1981. Pragmatics. *Cognition*, 10: 281-286.
- Stein, P. 2000. Rethinking Resources in the ESL Classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 34(2): 333-336
- Street, B. 2003. What's 'new' in New Literacy Studies? Critical approaches to literacy in theory and practice. *Current Issues in Comparative Education*, 5(2): 77-90.
- Svalberg, A. M-L. 2007. Language awareness and language learning. *Language Teaching*, 40(4): 287-308.

- Taylor, N. E.; Blum, I.H & Logsdon, D. M. 1986. The Development of Written Language Awareness: Environmental Aspects and Program Characteristics. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21(2): 132-149.
- Temple, C., & Rodero, M. L. 1995. Active Learning in a Democratic Classroom: The " Pedagogical Invariants" of Célestin Freinet (Reading around the World). *Reading Teacher*, 49(2): 164-67.
- Terre Blanche, M & Durrheim, K. 1999. Interpretive methods. In Terre Blanche, M & Durrheim, K (eds). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press.
- Terre Blanche, M, Durrheim, K & Durrheim, K. 2006. Why qualitative research? In Terre Blanche, M & Durrheim, K (eds). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the Social Sciences*. Cape Town: University of Cape Town Press: 271-284.
- Truter, E. 2014 (ELSEN circuit co-ordinator of West Coast district). *Navrae oor vereistes vir ELSEN hulp by skole*. E-mail communication, 2-3 June 2014.
- UNESCO. 2006. *Education for All Global Monitoring Report: Understandings of Literacy*. Available at: http://www.unesco.org/education/GMR2006/full/chapt6_eng.pdf [Accessed 15 February 2012]
- Webster, J. 1912. *Daddy-Long-Legs*. Grosset and Dunlap Publishers: New York.
- Wenger, E. 1998. Communities of practice: Learning as a social system. *Systems Thinker*, 9(5): 1-16
- Western Cape Education Department (a). *Find-a-School*. Available at <http://wcedemis.pgwc.gov.za/wced/findaschool.html> [Accessed 11 Junie 2012]
- Western Cape Education Department (b). 2012. *Glossary of acronyms*. Available at <http://wced.pgwc.gov.za/labour/training/terms.html> [Accessed 29 May 2014]
- Western Cape Education Department(c). 2012. *WCED Education Districts in brief*. Available at <http://wced.pgwc.gov.za/branchIDC/Districts/briefly.html> [Accessed 4 June 2014]
- Western Cape Education Department(c). 2014. Media Release Minister of Education Donald Grand Western Cape. Available at: http://wced.pgwc.gov.za/comms/press/2014/14_18feb.html [Accessed on 6 June 2014]

Western Cape Education Department (d). *Western Cape Education Department School Curriculum Grades R to 12*. Available at <http://wced.school.za/documents/CAPS/index.html> [Accessed 29 May 2014]

Willenberg, I. A. 2002. Emergent literacy skills and family literacy environments of kindergarteners in South Africa. *Yearbook-National Reading Conference*, 51:396-406.

Woolard, K. A. 1992. Language ideology: Issues and approaches. *Pragmatics*, 2(3): 235-249.

Bibliography of Data collection stories

Aiken, Joan, 1983, Die bakker se kat. In Meyer, L & Offen, H. 1983. *Vertel my 'n dierestorie*. J.P. van der Walt: Pretoria.

Corrin, Stephen, 1983, Die gommedraai-boom. In Meyer, L & Offen, H. 1983. *Vertel my 'n dierestorie*. J.P. van der Walt: Pretoria.

De Villiers, Leon & Bornoff, Emily. 2010. Die bome luister. In *Maroelaboomstories*. LAPA Uitgewer (Edms.) Bpk.: Pretoria

De Villiers, Leon & Bornoff, Emily. 2010. Die olifantneste. In *Maroelaboomstories*. LAPA Uitgewer (Edms.) Bpk.: Pretoria

Esopus, 1983, Die leeu en die muis. In Meyer, L & Offen, H. 1983. *Vertel my 'n dierestorie*. J.P. van der Walt: Pretoria.

Esopus, 1983, Plaasmuis en Stadmuis. In Meyer, L & Offen, H. 1983. *Vertel my 'n dierestorie*. J.P. van der Walt: Pretoria.

Grimm-broers, 1983, Die musikante van Bremen. In Meyer, L & Offen, H. 1983. *Vertel my 'n dierestorie*. J.P. van der Walt: Pretoria.

Mahy, Margaret, 1983, Die leeu in die tuin. In Meyer, L & Offen, H. 1983. *Vertel my 'n dierestorie*. J.P. van der Walt: Pretoria.

Roehe, S. 2012. *Maar hy't dan meer as ek*. Fantasi Boeke (Edms.) Beperk: Pretoria



ADDENDUM A: WCED APPROVAL

Audrey.wyngaard2@pgwc.gov.za

tel: +27 021 467 9272

Fax: 0865902282

Private Bag x9114, Cape Town, 8000

wced.wcape.gov.za

REFERENCE: 20120925-0053

ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Ms Irene Brand
Department Literacy Development
Stellenbosch University

Dear Ms Irene Brand

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: A NARRATIVE ENRICHMENT PROGRAMME IN LITERACY DEVELOPMENT OF YOUNG AFRIKAANS LI LEARNERS IN MONOLINGUAL RURAL SCHOOLS

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Approval for projects should be conveyed to the District Director of the schools where the project will be conducted.
5. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
6. The Study is to be conducted from **01 April 2013 till 20 September 2013**
7. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
8. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
9. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
10. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
11. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
12. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

**The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000**

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.

Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard

for: **HEAD: EDUCATION**

DATE: 25 September 2012

ADDENDUM B: TEACHER CONSENT FORM



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

A narrative enrichment programme in literacy development of young Afrikaans L1 learners in monolingual rural schools

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Irene Brand (MPhil) from the Department of General Linguistics at Stellenbosch University. The results of this study will contribute to a Ph.D thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study due to the fact that your school provides education to Gr. 3 learners, who are the main target group of this study. Also, Bissetsdrift has been chosen due to its location in a rural area of the Western Cape and as such may not have access to all the resources of school located in a city area, and as such may not be able to develop learners literacy to the fullest extent.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study intends to investigate the effects of a narrative intervention programme among primary school learners. The programme is aimed at improving their language awareness and selected aspects of language use in the classroom environment, with a view eventually to enhancing literacy levels. It specifically aims to establish whether increased attention to spoken and written narrative, as is done in a specifically designed narrative development programme, contribute to the improvement of language awareness and of measureable literacy skills among largely monolingual, dialect-speaking learners between the ages 8 and 12 years.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

Reading activities

You will be asked to engage the learners in your class in the reading of stories from various genres. They must be encouraged to retell some of these stories orally or by rewriting them. These activities serve as a preparation for the writing of their own narratives.

Writing

You will be asked to engage the learners in the writing of their stories. The process is as follows:

- Learners write and illustrate their stories.
- The teacher scans it into the computer and prints it in the format which is to be provided.
- If the printing facilities are not adequate, the teacher will scan learners' work and keep it for collection when the researcher visits.

The research period will commence on 8 April 2013 and conclude on 20 September 2013. These dates correspond with the second and third school terms as specified by the WCED. For the first

term of research, the researcher will be present to guide the teacher in the process of the project. Later the teacher will continue with activities, saving copies of learners' work for the researcher. The researcher will visit the school every two weeks to collect the data and discuss the progress of the project.

The stories must be scanned into a computer, edited in a program like Microsoft Publisher and printed in the format that is to be provided.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

There are no foreseeable physical or psychological risks involved for you or other participants of this study.

Ideally the data-collection will be done as part of the daily routine of the learners. This may bring about some inconvenience as to the allocation of time and regular curriculum management. The researcher will take this into account in introducing the intervention, and work in close collaboration with the teacher. If necessary, the research may be moved to after school, in which case learners' activities will be organised by the researcher herself.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

The main benefit, should this study be successful, is the improved literacy rate of learners at your school. The study is designed in such a way that teachers would be able to continue with the narrative program even after research has been completed. This study may also benefit learners at other schools, to which it can be presented after the research has been completed.

The study will benefit research on literacy development as to date very little attention has been given to such development among speakers of non-standard dialects of the language of learning.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Participants will not receive payment for their involvement in the study.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of referring to schools as School A and B. Classes taking part in the study will only be referred to by their codes given by the school, such as Gr. 3A, B or C etc. If the researcher refers to a specific student, it will be by a code devised by the researcher and her supervisor. All data obtained from schools will be kept on a private computer to which only the researcher will have access. Backups will be made and kept on a flash disk/hard drive belonging to the researcher.

All results of the study will be disclosed to the schools who participated in the study. A general overview will be given to each school, but only the schools' own results will be disclosed in full to each of them. If the WCED requests a report of the results, the researcher will oblige.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind to you personally. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact:

Ms. Irene Brand (principal researcher): (office) 021 808 2513
(mobile) 082 725 0482

Prof. C. Anthonissen (supervisor): (office) 021 808 9392/2006

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to me by Irene Brand in Afrikaans and I am in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent that the subjects may participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Subject/Participant

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative

Date

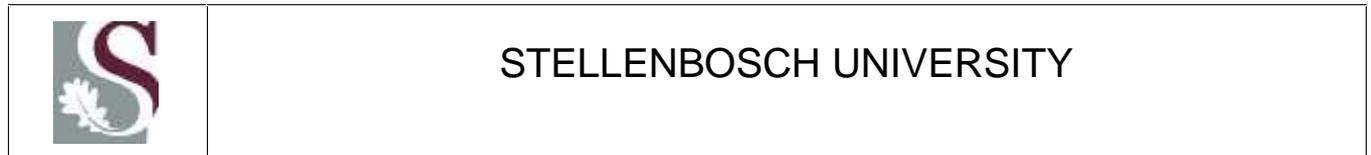
SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____ [principal]. and/or [his/her] representative _____ [name of the representative]. [He/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in Afrikaans and no translator was used since Afrikaans is his mother tongue. [no translator was used/this conversation was translated into _____ by _____].

Signature of Investigator

Date

ADDENDUM C: CHILD CONSENT FORM



DEELNEMER TOESTEMMINGSVORM EN INLIGTINGSBILJET



TITEL VAN NAVORSINGSPROJEK: 'n Geletterdheidsontwikkelingsprogram vir jong leerders wat sprekers is van Afrikaans

NAVORSERS SE NAAM: Irene Brand

ADRES: Huis De Villiers, Neethlingstraat, Stellenbosch

KONTAKNOMMER: (021) 808 2513

What is NAVORSING?

Navorsing is iets wat ons doen om nuwe kennis te kry oor hoe dinge en mense werk. Navorsing kan ons byvoorbeeld help om kennis te kry oor hoe mense lees en skryf. Sulke nuwe kennis kan ons help om kinders beter te leer lees en skryf.

Waaroor gaan hierdie navorsing?

Vir hierdie navorsing gaan ons, ek, jy, jou klasmaats en jou juffrou almal stories lees en vertel. Dan gaan jy ook jou eie stories leer skryf. Jy kan skryf net waarom jy wil: oor watter storie jou gunsteling is of 'n nuwe storie wat jy self uitgedink het. Jy gaan dit skryf en jy gaan ook prentjies vir jou storie teken. As jy hulp hiermee nodig het, mag jy vir jou maatjies of vir jou juffrou of vir my vra om te help.

Hoekom is ek gekies vir hierdie projek?

Jy is gekies om deel te neem aan hierdie projek omdat ek wil uitvind of Graad 3s soos jy en jou klasmaats daarvan hou om stories te skryf. Ek wil ook weet of dit julle kan help om beter te doen op skool. Graad 3-kindere kan al self lees en skryf, en ek het sulke kindere nodig om navorsing te doen oor hoe hulle dit nog beter kan regkry.

Wie doen die navorsing?

Ek is 'n student die Universiteit van Stellenbosch. Ek is ook 'n opgeleide onderwyseres en ek gaan saam met jou onderwyseres hierdie navorsing doen.

Wat gaan met my gebeur in die projek?

Jy gaan soos gewoonlik skool toe kom en aan die gewone skoolprogram deelneem, maar partykeer gaan ons ekstra stories vertel of voorlees, en later ook vir julle vra om stories te skryf. So, wanneer jy dink aan iets wat jy wil vertel, gaan jy 'n storie daarvoor skryf en dan maak ons 'n boekie daarvan met jou eie woorde en jou eie prentjies wat jy kan huis toe neem.

Kan iets goeds gebeur as ek deelneem?

'n Goeie ding wat kan gebeur, is dat jy dalk agterkom jy geniet skryf so baie dat jy sommer aanhou stories skryf na die projek verby is. Mense wat goed kan skryf, vorder gewoonlik beter in al hulle skoolwerk. En as jy deelneem, sal my help om nuwe kennis in te samel oor hoe kinders stories lees en skryf en oorvertel.

Niks wat jy in hierdie program doen, sal in jou gewone skoolwerk teen jou tel nie.

Wat gebeur met die werk wat ek in die projek doen?

Die stories wat jy skryf, sal in 'n klein boekie gedruk word en jy kry dan een om te hou. Ek gebruik ook die werk om my navorsing te doen.



Mag ek met iemand praat oor wat ons doen?

Ja, jy mag met enigiemand praat oor wat ons doen.

As jy of jou ouers enige vrae het, kan julle my bel by: (021) 808 2513

Wat as ek nie wil deelneem nie?

Gewone skoolwerk moet soos altyd gedoen word, maar as jy nie die ekstra lees- en skryfwerk wil doen nie, kan jy net sit en luister. As jy 'n storie skryf wat jy vir jouself wil hou en nie vir my wil gee nie, is dit goed so.

Verstaan jy hierdie studie en sal jy deelneem?

JA

NEE

Het die navorser (ek) al jou vrae geantwoord?

JA

NEE

Verstaan jy dat jy enige tyd mag sê jy wil nie die ekstra lees- en skryfwerk doen nie?

JA

NEE

Handtekening van Kind

Datum

ADDENDUM D: PARENT CONSENT FORM

INLIGTINGS- EN INGELIGTE TOESTEMMINGS-DOKUMENT

TITEL VAN DIE NAVORSINGS-PROJEK: A narrative enrichment programme in literacy development of young Afrikaans L1 learners in monolingual rural schools

HOOFNAVORSER: Irene Brand

Adres: Kamer 519, Lettere en Wysbegeerte gebou, h/v Merrimanlaan en Van Ryneveldstraat, Stellenbosch OF Departement Algemene Taalwetenskap, Universiteit Stellenbosch, Privaatsak X1, Matieland, 7602

VERKLARING NAMENS DEELNEMER:

EK, DIE ONDERGETEKENDE, (u naam en van) in my hoedanigheid as moeder / vader / voog / van die deelnemer (die kind se naam en van) van (adres).

A. BEVESTIG HIERMEE DIE VOLGENDE:

1. Die deelnemer is uitgenooi om deel te neem aan bogenoemde navorsingsprojek wat deur die Departement Algemene Taalwetenskap, Fakulteit Lettere en Wysbegeerte, Universiteit Stellenbosch, onderneem word.
2. Die volgende aspekte is aan my verduidelik:
 - 2.1 **Doel:** Die doel van hierdie projek is om die geletterdheid van my kind te verryk deur middel van die narratiewe verykingsprogram. Dit behels die lees en vertel van stories en ook dat my kind sy eie stories gaan skryf en illustreer.
 - 2.2 **Prosedures:** Die navorser, in samewerking met die onderwyser, sal die kinders d.m.v die lees en vertel van stories motiveer en lei om hulle eie stories te skryf. Die kinders sal boekies produseer met hul eie stories en illustrasies in. Daar sal 'n kopie gemaak word vir die klasbiblioteek en een gemaak word wat huis toe gaan. Die material nodig vir so projek sal nie uit die as ouer/voog, se sak kom nie.
 - 2.3 **Risiko's:** Deelname aan hierdie studie hou geen buitengewone risiko's vir u of die kind in nie. Die aktiwiteite sluit nie fisiese aktiwiteite wat met 'n hoë risiko vir die opdoen van beserings vereenselwig word in nie.
 - 2.4 **Moontlike voordele:** Die kinders sal moontlik meer gemotiveerd wees om te lees en te skryf. Dit kan moontlik hul skoolwerk positief beïnvloed.

- 2.5 **Vertroulikheid:** Enige inligting wat oor die kind verkry word, sal streng vertroulik hanteer word. Die resultate van die studie gaan in die vorm van tesis opgeskryf word en voorgelê word aan die navorser se studieleier en eksaminatore. Soos die gebruik in navorsing is, sal alle resultate só aangebied word dat die kind geensins herkenbaar kan wees nie.
- 2.6 **Toegang tot bevindinge.** Indien u dit verlang, sal u kopie van u kind se aangetekende response ontvang. Vra asseblief vir die navorser hieroor.
- 2.7 **Vrywillige deelname/weiering/staking:** Die kind is onder geen verpligting om aan hierdie studie deel te neem nie. Deelname is vrywillig. Weiering om deel te neem sal op geen wyse u of die kind se huidige of toekomstige behandeling by die skool benadeel nie. Indien u toestemming tot deelname verleen, mag u en/of die kind steeds ter enige tyd aandui dat deelname gestaak word (redes vir die besluit hoef nie verstrekkend te word nie); die versoek sal gerespekteer word, en alle aktiwiteite sal dan wel onmiddellik gestaak word.
3. Die inligting hierbo is deur Irene Brand aan my in Afrikaans/Engels verduidelik en ek is die taal goed magtig. Ek is geleentheid gebied om vrae te vra en al die vrae is bevredigend beantwoord.
4. Daar is geen dwang op my of die kind geplaas om toe te stem tot deelname nie en ek en die kind verstaan dat ek en/of die kind deelname ter enige tyd mag staak sonder enige penalisasie.
5. Deelname aan die projek hou geen koste vir my in nie.

B STEM HIERMEE VRYWILLIG IN DAT DIE POTENSIËLE DEELNEMER AAN DIE BOGEMELDE PROJEK MAG DEELNEEM.

Geteken/bevestig te (plek) op2012 (datum)

.....

Handtekening van toestemmingverlener

BELANGRIKE BOODSKAP AAN VERTEENWOORDIGER VAN DEELNEMER:

Baie dankie vir u en die deelnemer se betrokkenheid by hierdie studie. Indien u ter enige tyd tydens die duur van die projek enige verdere inligting aangaande die projek verlang, moet u asseblief vir Irene Brand by telefoonnommer 0827250482 of eposadres ireneb@sun.ac.za kontak.

VERKLARING DEUR NAVORSER:

Ek, Irene Brand, verklaar dat

- ek die inligting in hierdie dokument ook per brief aan
..... (naam van die verteenwoordiger van die deelnemer)
verduidelik het;
- sy/hy die geleentheid en genoeg tyd gegun is om enige vrae aan my te stel;
- hierdie inligting in Afrikaans gegee is en geen tolk gebruik is nie.

Geteken te op 2012.
(plek) (datum)

.....
Handtekening van navorsers

ADDENDUM E: QUESTIONNAIRE ON HOME-BASED LITERACY PRACTICES

1. Hou jy van lees? / *Do you like reading?*

2. Hoekom? / *Why?*

3. Hou jy van skryf? / *Do you like writing?*

4. Hoekom? / *Why?*

5. Lees julle stories by die huis? / *Do you read stories at home?*

6. Noem vir my watter stories julle by die huis lees. / *Name the stories you read at home.*

7. Lees julle koerante en/of tydskrifte by die huis? / *Do you read newspapers and/or magazines at home?*

8. Noem vir my watter koerante en tydskrifte julle by die huis lees? / *Name which magazines and newspapers you read.*

9. Vertel jou familie vir mekaar en vir jou stories? / *Do your family members tell each other, and you, stories?*

10. Is daar 'n biblioteek naby jou huis of op die plaas waar jy bly? / *Is there a library near your house or on the farm where you live?*

11. Is jy 'n lid van die biblioteek? / *Are you a member of the library?*

12. Watter tipe boekies het hulle daar? / *What kinds of books do they have at the library?*

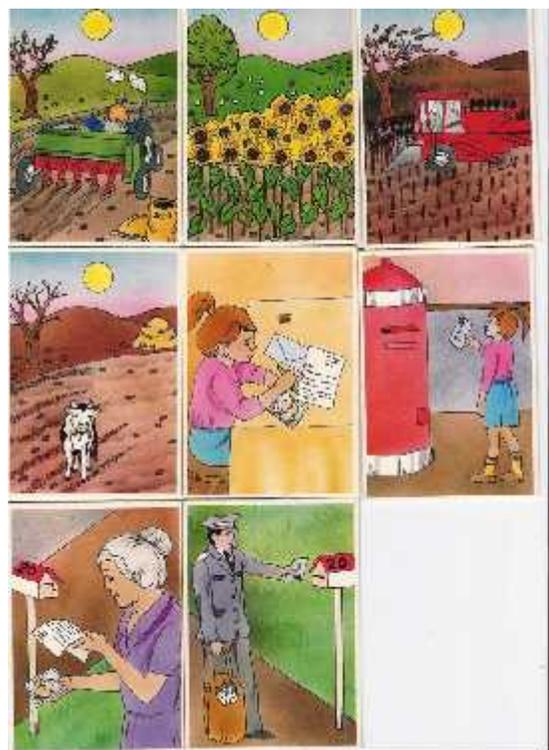
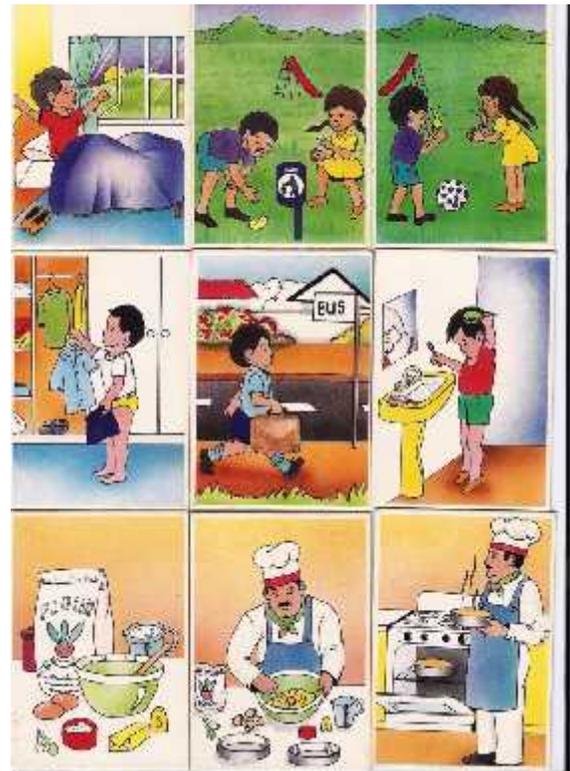
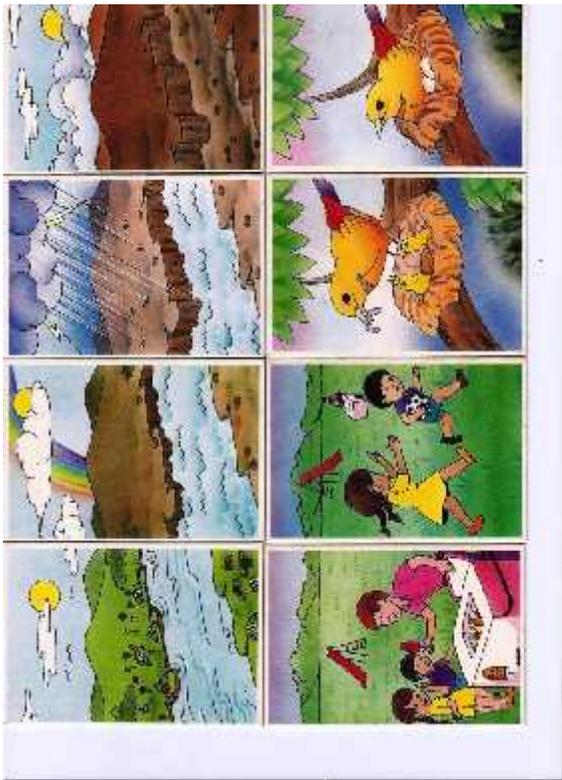
13. Is daar baie Afrikaanse boekies in die biblioteek? / *Are there lots of Afrikaans books in the library?*

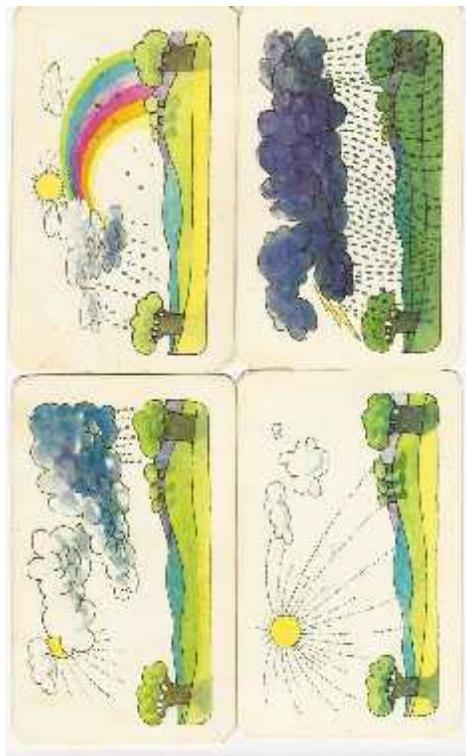
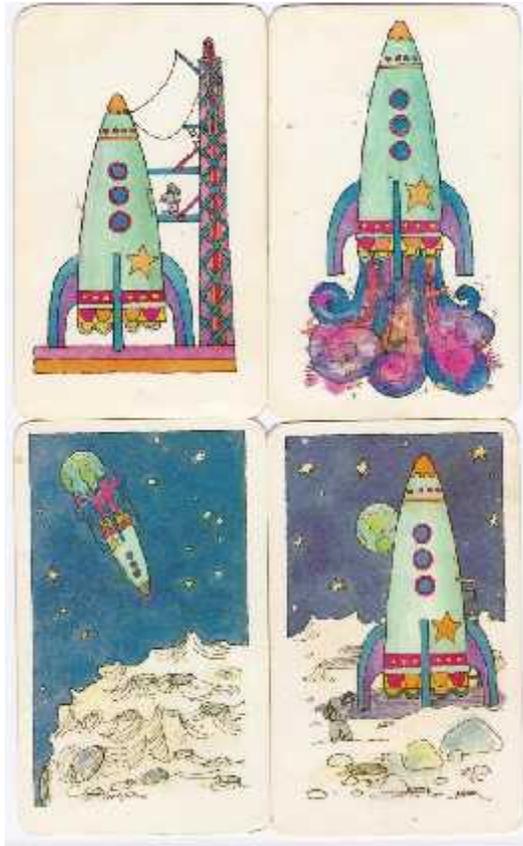
14. Het jy gehou daarvan om jou boekie te skryf? / *Did you like writing your little book?*

15. Sal jy dit weer wil doen? / *Would you like to do it again?*

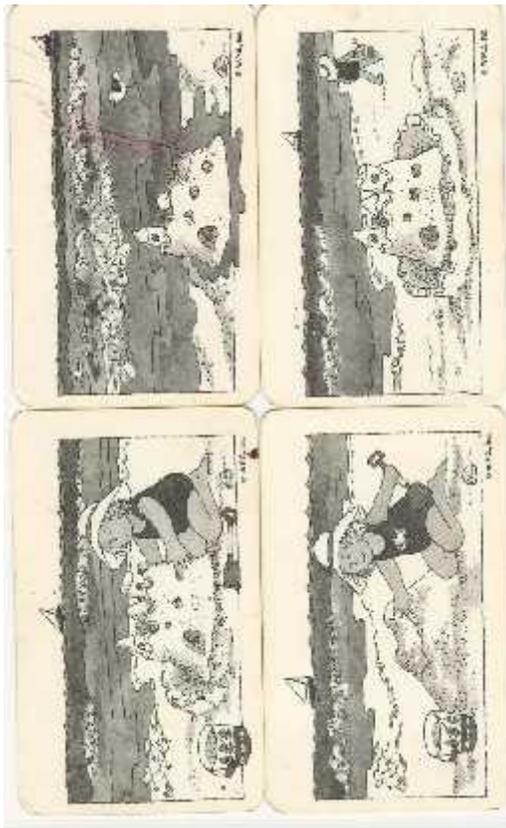
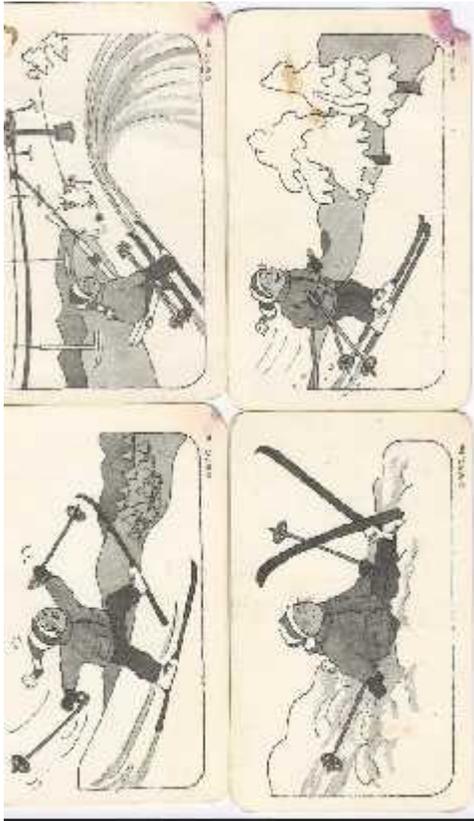
16. Waaroor sal jy nog wil stories skryf? / *What will you write about next?*

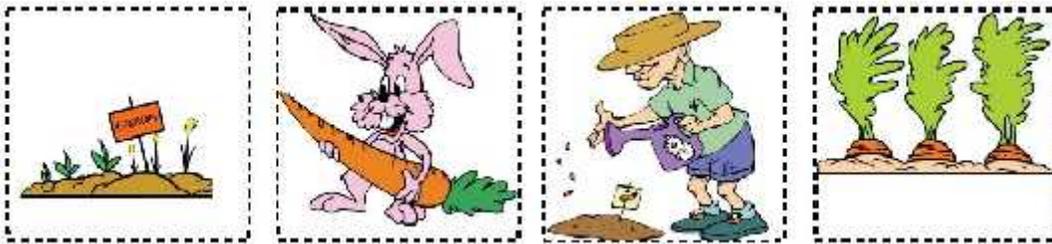
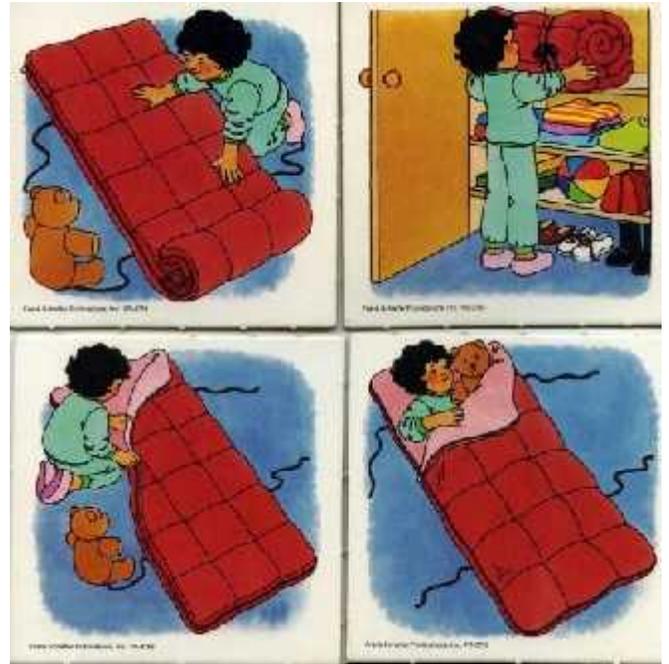
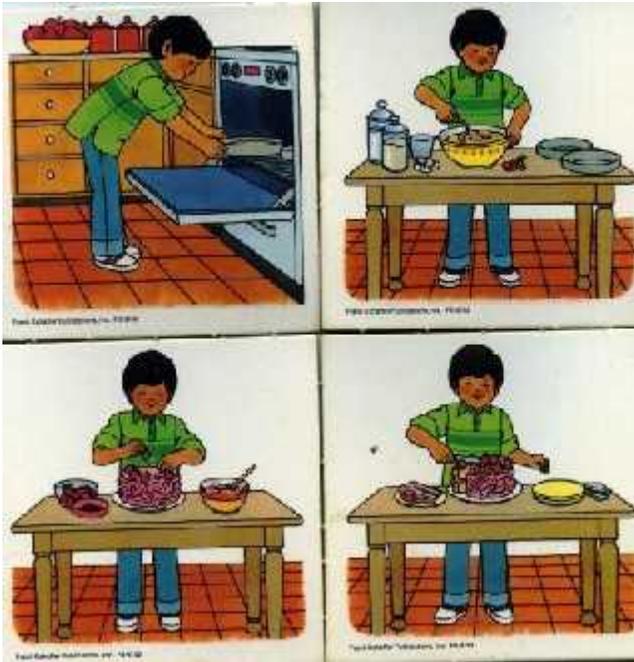
ADDENDUM F: PICTURE SEQUENCING PICTURE CARDS













ADDENDUM G: PICTURES-SENTENCE MATCHING CARDS



<p>1. Stevie het 'n mannetjie op die muur geteken. Stevie (+past part) a man (+diminutive) / stick figure on the wall drew Stevie drew a stick figure on the wall</p>
<p>2. Toe het sy ouma daar aangekom. Then (+past participle) his grandmother there showed up. Then his grandmother showed up.</p>
<p>3. Sy het met hom geraas en gesê hy moet die mannetjie afwas. She (+past participle) with him chastised and said he should the man (+diminutive) / stick figure wash off. She chastised him and said he should wash of the stick figure.</p>



<p>1. Thandi sit en speel met haar poppe in die tuin. Thandi sits and plays with her dolls in the garden. Thandi sits and plays with her dolls in the garden.</p>
<p>2. Skielik kom Stevie ook tuin toe en begin die blomme uit te trek. Suddenly comes Stevie too garden to the and begins the flowers out to pull. Suddenly Stevie comes to the garden to and begins to pull out the flowers.</p>
<p>3. Thandi hardloop vinnig om Stevie se ma te gaan roep. Thandi runs quickly to Stevie 's mother to go call. Thandi quickly runs to go call Stevie's mother.</p>

4. In die kombuis verduidelik Thandi, “Kom gou, Tannie. Stevie trek die blomme uit.”
 In the kitchen explains Thandi, “Come quick, Aunt/Ma’am. Stevie pulls the flowers out.”
 In the kitchen Thandi explains, “Come quick, Ma’am. Stevie is pulling out the flowers.”



1. John het besluit om met sy fiets te gaan ry.
 John (+past participle) decided to with his bicycle to go ride.
 John decided to go ride on his bicycle.

2. Langs die pad sien hy’n gebarste pyp.
 Next the rode see he a burst pipe.
 Next to the rode he sees a burst pipe.

3. Hy het toe dadelik terug gery om iemand te vertel.
 He (+past participle) then immediately back rode to someone to tell.
 He immediately rode back to tell someone

4. Hy sien Meneer Martin in sy tuin en sê, “Kom gou, Oom. Daar het ’n pyp gebars.”
 He sees Mister Martin in his garden and says, “Come quick, Uncle/Sir. There (+past participle) a pipe burst.
 He sees Mister Martin in his garden and says, “Come quick, Sir. There is a burst pipe.



1. Stevie teken met tandepasta op die spieël.
 Stevie draws with toothpaste on the mirror.

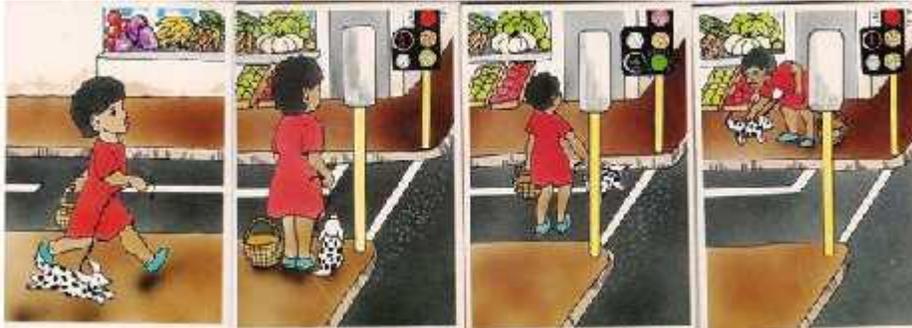
2. Hy teken gesiggies tot die tandepasta op is.
 He draws faces(+diminutive) until the toothpaste finished is
 He draws faces until the toothpaste is finished

3. Hy maak toe die botteltjie vol met sand.
 He makes then the tube (+diminutive) full with sand.
 He then fills the tube with sand.

4. Daarna gaan was hy al die gesiggies af.
Afterwards goes to wash he all the faces (+diminutive) off.
Afterwards he goes to wash off all the faces.

5. Die aand wou Debbie haar tande borsel...
That evening wanted Debbie her teeth brush...
That evening Debbie wanted to brush her teeth...

Wat dink jy gaan sy in die tandepastabuisie kry?
What think you going she in the toothpaste tube find?
What do you think she is going to find in the tube of toothpaste?



1. Die dogtertjie loop met haar hondjie in die straat.
The girl (+diminutive) walks with her dog (+diminutive) in the street.
The girl walks with her dog down the street.

2. Sy stop by die robot omdat dit rooi is.
She stops at the robot because it red is.
She stops at the robot because it is red.

3. Toe die lig groen word stap sy oor die pad.
When the light green goes walks she over/crosses the rode.
When the light goes green she crosses the rode.

4. Aan die anderkant sê sy vir haar hondjie, "Mooi so, Snippie."
On the other side says she to her dog (+diminutive), "Good boy, Snippie."
On the other side she says to her dog, "Good boy, Snippie."



1. Lank, lank gelede was dit baie droog.

Long, long ago was it very dry.

Long, long ago it was very dry.

2. Toe het dit begin reën.

Then (+past participle) it began rain.

Then it began to rain.

3. Na die storm het die reënboog uitgekom.

After the storm (+past participle) the rainbow came out.

After the storm the rainbow came out.

4. Toe het dit mooi groen geword.

Then (+past participle) it beautifully green became.

Then it became beautifully green.



1. Die seuntjie staan elke oggend op vir skool.

The boy (+diminutive)stands/gets every morning up for school.

The boy gets up for school every morning.

2. Hy borsels sy hare en tande.

He brushes his hair and teeth.

He brushes his hair and teeth.

3. Hy trek sy skoolklere aan.

He puts his school clothes on.

He puts on his school clothes.

4. Dan stap hy bus toe.

Then walks he bus to.

Then he walks to the bus.

ADDENDUM H: BEGINNING, MIDDLE AND END

