



CHALIMBANA UNIVERSITY

Integrity, Service, Excellence

SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES

DEPARTMENT OF LITERATURE AND LANGUAGES

PRIMARY TEACHERS' DEGREE

LITERACY AND LANGUAGE EDUCATION

LLE 2100: LITERACY AND LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODS

MODULE

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INTRODUCTION

This Module is intended to assist you do your studies in the Bachelor of Education (Primary) degree programme of Chalimbana University (CHAU). The module is arranged in units which gives you an opportunity to discuss the topic at a time. In each unit, self-assessment tasks have been provided to assist you master the intended knowledge and you are expected to attempt all tasks in order to test your levels of understanding. However, you are not always required to submit the answers to the lecturers for marking as this is purely meant for training purposes.

The topics in this module introduce you to the meaning of Literacy and discuss the various concepts, theories, strategies and the fields associated with literacy. It also discusses the various perceptions of literacy and how it relates to other disciplines. The module is therefore divided into two parts (Part 1 & 2) and this is the first one. You have to read the whole module to complete the course. The course will run throughout the whole year.

Aim

The aim of this course is to make you appreciate the importance of literacy and equip you with the necessary skills, knowledge and attitudes on how to teach literacy and language.



Time frame

This module should be completed in approximately four months to allow you to read the second one before the end of the academic year.

Assessment

| Assessment | Comments | Percentage |
|------------------------|-----------|-------------|
| Assignment 1 | Written | 20% |
| Assignment 2 (seminar) | Team work | 10% |
| Test | | 20% |
| Final exam | | 50% |
| Total | | 100% |

Learning outcomes

By the end the course, you are expected to:

- define the concepts of literacy and language
- discuss changes in literacy and language teaching initiatives in Zambia
- discuss the current literacy and language policy in education
- demonstrate ability to teach literacy and language
- demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the 5 key competencies in teaching literacy

UNIT 1: INTRODUCTION TO LITERACY

1.0 Introduction

Literacy underpins a major part of the school curriculum and without it, certain subject areas are inaccessible. The importance of literacy in early childhood cannot be ignored because it is the foundation for learning and academic achievement later in someone's life. This unit is therefore important as it provides different definitions of literacy which prepares you to understand the concept of literacy from both a narrow and broader view and provides insights to what the definitions suggest and the interpretations that might emanate from them. The unit also discusses the various concepts, theories and the fields associated with literacy. It also discusses the various perceptions of literacy and how it relates to other disciplines.



Unit Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Define literacy from your own point of view and critique.
- explain the concept of literacy
- critique the different definitions of literacy bringing out their weaknesses and strengths.
- give an account of literacy and language initiatives in Zambia
- explain the six Models of literacy
- explain the Literacy Instruction Continuum

1.1 What is Literacy?

Literacy is the first step towards fulfillment of one's goals as it is literacy that allows one to reach his true potential. The beginnings of literacy lies in the everyday experiences of early childhood which seem to be crucial to literacy acquisition. Parents, siblings, peers, teachers and the environment play a crucial role to the child's literacy development.

Simple view of Literacy

“The quality or state of being literate; knowledge of letters; condition in respect to education. Especially the ability to read and write” (Oxford English Dictionary)

Why simple view?

The above definition of literacy is largely dependent on the relationship between the other two terms, ‘*education*’ and ‘*school*’ where, whoever does not go through school has no education and, therefore, has no literacy. Literacy is therefore most commonly understood as reading and writing which is not the case.

Definition 2:

“Literacy is the ability to read and write” The National Literacy Framework (2013:6)

This definition is very vague and misleading. One would ask, reading and writing what? Is it arrows for road signs? age or traffic control? Is it reading and writing pictorial images? Or is it reading and writing Chinese Characters such as 你叫什么名字? In this case, if someone is not able to read and write Chinese for example, does it mean they are illiterate?

Contrary to the two definitions above, one long serving Permanent Secretary (PS), Dr. Sichelwe Kasanda, MoE, Zambia, said:

...“A person who can read his or her environment but cannot read a word should not be deemed ignorant and illiterate. To me an illiterate person is he/she who, even with more than enough schooling cannot read his/her environment, identify the wealth it has and protect that wealth, multiply it and enhance his/her own quality of life.” Hence, real illiteracy is about failure or incompetence in reading the wealth of one’s environment.”

The two definitions therefore raise a lot of questions than answers. However, it is important to note that these definitions are very significant as they are introducing a discussion on a type of literacy called Conventional Literacy.

Although the two definitions are interesting and practical orientation to Conventional Literacy, they are not a true representation of the phenomenon. Literacy is a broad

discipline and it cannot be reduced to merely reading and writing or encoding and decoding of skills in a named language. If that is the case, where do you put for example computer literacy, Profession literacy, media literacy, legal literacy, family literacy and health literacy? We cannot use this definition to describe literacy in general. The definition is only correct for one type of literacy called Conventional Literacy. This evolving definition has in turn led to changes in approaches to literacy education. Below are some definitions with their definitions of literacy in a wider view.

Broader view of literacy

Definition 1:

....a person is functionally literate who can engage in all those activities in which literacy is required for effective functioning of his group and community and also for enabling him to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for his own and the community's development" (Wikan et al, 2007, p. 3).

This definition looked at literacy from the functional point of view. It suggests that when people are equipped with functional literacy skills, they are more likely to prosper in life and they are likely to send their children to school so that they can take active role in society.

To be literate means different things in different situations or social contexts. One can be literate in one context but not in the other. In academia, the definition of literacy has also evolved from an exclusive focus on reading and writing to encompass a more inclusive and expansive perspective. Some of that work has come from researchers involved in exploring literacy among diverse populations and across cultural/political/socioeconomic boundaries.

Definition 2: "literacy is the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning in enabling individuals to achieve their goals, to develop their knowledge and potential, and to participate fully in their community

and wider society", (The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization - UNESCO).

This definition seems to be abstract, tedious and intangible. It has just listed terms without explaining them in properly for people to understand. However, it is important to understand that although definitions of literacy have broadened over the years to include a wide range of skills, the basic skills of reading and writing remain at the core of any definition of literacy (Simwinga, 2009).

1.2 Importance of literacy

It is obvious that the importance of literacy in early childhood cannot be ignored because it is the foundation for learning and academic achievement later in someone's life. It is believed that learning to read in the early years of education provides a foundation for later literacy development and academic success.

We begin learning to read the first time we make sense of print, and we learn something about reading every time we read. Here, the argument is that specific early literacy skills such as oral language, phonemic awareness, print concepts, alphabetical knowledge and vocabulary develop early in children and can predict young students' later reading achievement.

It is believed that there is a high degree of continuity between the skills children enter school with and their later reading ability. There has also been general agreement among researchers that children's knowledge of letter names and sounds is the best predictor of their reading and spelling abilities in elementary school. Oral proficiency and literacy in the home language could be used to facilitate literacy development in English.

It is therefore important that you litter the classroom with enough reading and materials to benefit the children in class. In literate societies all children have a right to be literate, and in developed educational systems, the expectation is that by the end of primary schooling a child can read fluently with understanding, so that they can 'read to learn'.

1.3 Forms of literacy

As earlier alluded to, literacy is a complex word to define and there are different forms or types of literacies that you need to know. Below are some of the most common discussed types of literacies.

1.3.1 Conventional Literacy

This is a type of literacy that deals with reading and writing skills of letters in a particular language. It involves issues such as knowing the alphabet, phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics and pragmatics that govern the reading and writing skills in a conventional manner. McGee and Richgels (1996:30) described the use of conventional literacy in terms of the behaviour manifested by readers, "Conventional readers and writers read and write in ways that most people in our literate society recognize as 'really' reading and writing. For example, they use a variety of reading strategies, know hundreds of sight words, read texts written in a variety of structures, are aware of audience, monitor their own performances as writers and readers, and spell conventionally."

1.3.2 Initial Literacy

This is a critical foundation of conventional literacy as it has to do with knowing expected skills in a conventional manner. It is a type of literacy that looks at the time or stage an individual learns or is expected to learn the basics or the process of acquiring basic skills in a particular field such as reading and writing in a particular language. It is a critical foundation of conventional literacy as it has to do with knowing expected skills in a conventional manner.

1.3.3 Basic Literacy

Refers to a type of knowledge that is expected to be known by everyone in a particular field. In the world today, people expects everyone to know basics of conventional literacy that is to know how to read and write. For example, everyone is expected to know how to read and write as a basic literacy skill.

1.3.4 Functional Literacy

A type of literacy that deals with application of conventional form of literacy such as reading and writing well enough to understand signs, read newspaper headings, read labels on medicine bottles, make shopping lists, read Bible, write letters, fill in forms, apply for jobs, practice the language skills verbally & in written form, reading for pleasure and purposive writing. It prepares an individual to engage in all those activities available in his or her group and community and also for enabling him or her to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for his or her own and the community's development.

1.3.5 Survival Literacy

A type of functional literacy that involves teaching survival skills like income generating skills that empowers societies economically to be independent and self-sustaining. Applying other forms of literacy such as reading to survive.

1.3.6 Business Literacy

A type of literacy that looks at business oriented knowledge, skills and proficiency. Failure to sale products an individual has harvested, made or accumulated is an instance of business illiteracy. Business literacy refers to an individual's ability to possess business oriented skills by means of adapting to trade oriented environments in meeting the market standards.

1.3.7 Computer Literacy

A type of literacy that look at an individual's knowledge and ability to use computers and technology efficiently. It includes the comfort level someone has in using computer programs and other applications that are associated with computers. Recently, the concept include an individual's ability to play and manipulate computer components, software, designing computer programs and use computers in a variety of ways in meeting the age of technology efficiently.

1.3.8 Magical Literacy

A type of literacy that looks at magic, witchcraft, and an understanding of the operations of the dark forces, how they threaten people's lives, how they work, how to use and control them.

1.3.9 Family literacy

A type of literacy that looks at family related matters with regard to how to keep a wife, a husband, children and other relatives happily and morally right. It deals with knowledge on how to be in a family, relationships, and resolve family conflicts internally, keeping secrets under the roof and home economics.

1.3.10 Electoral Literacy

A type of literacy that looks at the knowledge, skills and abilities associated with electoral matters; election strategies, conducting free and fair elections, involving different stake holders in the elections and so on.

1.4 Aliteracy

Refers to a level of conventional literacy analysis that deals with literate individuals who are lazy to apply reading and writing skills regularly. In other ways, an alliterate person is he or she who knows how to read and write but cannot apply this skill to read a book, an article, a newspaper and other written materials. A practical example is seen when a person who knows how to read and write ask a marketer the price for tomatoes even when it is labelled. Another example is not reading the expiry dates when buying commodities.

1.5 Emergent Literacy (EL)

This is a very important type of literacy that describe how young children interact with books when reading and writing, even though they cannot read or write in the conventional sense. The term was first used in by a New Zealand researcher Marie Clay in 1966 (Clay, 1991). Today the term has expanded to go beyond children's interaction with books and, encompasses all literacy practices that are within the environment where the child is born and nurtured. EL therefore, refers to a period in a child's life between birth and when the child can read and write at a conventional level. The child is on the verge of acquiring

reading and writing knowledge. Reading and writing develop concurrently and interrelated in young children. Literacy develops from real life situations in which reading and writing are used to get things done. Function precedes form.

Activity

How is literacy interpreted by the society?
-How do you interpret literacy now?
-Mention other forms of literacy and interpret them according to your understanding

1.6. Emergent Literacy Behaviours

Emergent literacy behaviours are the literacy related behaviours that precede and develop into conventional literacy “. You may wonder why I have used the term ‘literacy related’. This is because it is not all behaviours that children exhibit are pre-cursors to conventional reading. For example, if the child gets a paper and starts chewing it, is that EL? I don’t think so. Note therefore that not all emergent behaviours promote literacy.

It should be noted that literacy behaviours exhibited by young children are very diverse, and it is extremely difficult to establish at what point pre-conventional literacy behaviours become conventional (particularly as children exhibit both at the same time).Furthermore, it is extremely difficult (perhaps impossible) to verify that certain behaviours predict others, since they are inextricably connected

1.6.1 Pretending to Read

Pretending to read is an example of emergent reading. Before children can read words, they are often able to recognize pictures and try to interpret the meaning.They do this mostly when their parents and older siblings are reading (imitating).Children who cannot read in the conventional way but are able to “read” pictures in the book demonstrate behaviours associated with the emergence of literacy



When children point to pictures in a book or on a computer screen and pretend to “read” the story; they are exhibiting literacy behaviours. Parents should therefore allow children to play with books as much as they can as long as they are not tearing them. Unfortunately, in some homes, the only children can see or touch a paper is when the father is smoking.

1.6.2 Pretending to Write

Scribbling and **pretend to write** are examples of emergent writing. Children's first exploration with writing can occur before the age of two. In this stage, random marks or “scribbles” often occur on a page or ground with drawings. Scribbling advances from drawing circles to producing “text” that young children identify verbally as writing. Just like drawing, this skill is important as it helps children to learn how to hold a pencil and to help them to see their thoughts in print form.



When pseudo-letters, then recognizable letters and words, emerge from scribbles in drawings it is ELB.

1.6.3 Pretending to Read the Environment

Pretending to read the environmental print is an example of emergent reading. Before children can read words, they are often able to recognize labels, signs, posters and other forms of environmental print. Take for example, a child who cannot read in the conventional way but is able to “recognize” writings on the pack of sugar also demonstrate behaviours associated with the emergence of literacy. However, we should be mindful on where the children are scribbling and provide the proper materials for them to use to write.



When very young, children recognize the road signs, billboards and food labels, these children demonstrate behaviours associated with the emergence of literacy.

1.6.4. Songs and Games

The picture below illustrates games accompanied by a song sung with certain patterned claps which follow the lines in the song. This practice results in children developing strong oral literacy and numeracy skills. Games such as ‘I spy’, card games and the reciting of

rhymes provide opportunities to develop listening and speaking skills which in turn are key to the development of vocabulary, letter identification and knowledge, and phonological awareness.



Songs accompanying games are sign of phonemic awareness skills. As a teacher, you should develop the interest in singing so that you can be using songs to develop phonemic awareness in children.

1.6.5 Telling Stories

Telling stories starts as soon as young children begin to be able to communicate their thoughts and experiences in relationships with their significant loved ones. Folk stories and riddles expose children to a special form of language which is holistic, rich and complex. Stories broaden children’s conceptual listening and speaking skills as well as vocabulary to express themselves. Picture showing children participating in riddles and folk stories around a fire in the evening.



Picture showing children participating in riddles and folk stories around a fire in the evening.

1.6.6 Play

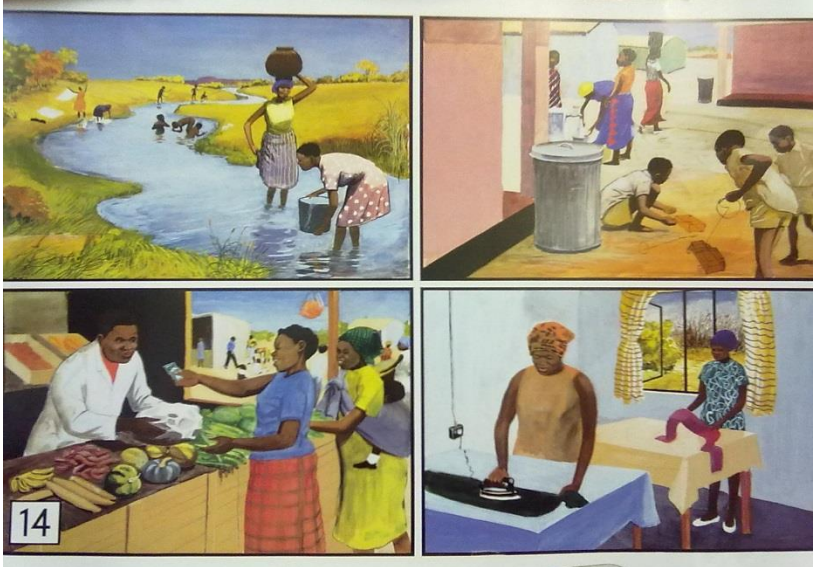
Play is a natural and very important part of a young child's world. The act of play is influential in learning language and communication skills. When children are engaged in play, they use language to interact with their peers; as they interact, they are using different tones and sounds to regulate their speech. By imitating actions they have witnessed others doing and also by interacting on what ingredients to use, children are also able to improve their communication skills. Using picture books, various writing media such as pencils, markers, crayons, and paints and brushes while playing, can also extend children's knowledge of the reading and writing process.



Children may pretend to be parents and try to prepare a cake for the family, A sign of ELB.

1.6.7 Picture Discussion

How children can use words to talk about what is happening in the picture can help them improve oral language skills. This activity also encourage children's creativity as they will be thinking about the words they will be using in their conversations hence, developing new vocabulary.



Activity

- Identify other literacy behaviours you observe in children from the time they are born up to the time they start school.
- Describe parents strategies that could be used to promote ELB in children
- How can you make sure that the ELB children come with from home are promoted in class?

1.7 Other Literacy Practices

1.7.1 Phoneme Recognition

- You can also use songs to teach the phonemes;
 - ‘a’ ashintililekukamuti, ‘e’ akonkomenefye, ‘i’ alinakasote, ‘o’ alinakafumo, ‘u’ alimukanda.
- The singing of ‘learning’ songs, such as alphabet songs, provides children with examples of rhyme, rhythm and repetition which may act as an effective memory aid.

1.7.2 Read aloud

- You can also Read Aloud to children on a regular basis. As a teacher you model reading and writing behaviours in the classroom by reading to the children and taking anecdotal notes, making lists, or writing children's names.
- Children need to experience the joy of being read to by an adult and also by other children. This interaction between the reader and the listener enhances children's interest in books and their ability to read.

1.7.3 Encourage Children to Read and Write to One Another

- Children may read books with or without print that are familiar to them.
- They may read their own drawings and writings and other materials that are of interest to them.
- Activities in which children have opportunities to write to one another include writing birthday cards and making "signs".
- The idea behind having children write to one another is that children see that they can use written language to make things happen.

1.7.4 Alliteration

- Alliteration occurs when a series of words in a row (or close to a row) have the same first consonant sound. For **example**;

‘**A big bully beats a baby boy**’. (English)

‘**Akakakopokapakakopakabiye**’ (Bemba)

- An important point to remember here is that alliteration does not depend on letters but on sounds. It is also important to note that these are not the only types of literacies. As a teacher, you need to do more research in order to be effective.

1.7.5 Rhyming songs

- A rhyme is a repetition of similar words occurring at the end of line in poems or songs. For example;

“Baabaa black sheep, have you any wool?”

“Yes sir, yes sir, three bags full!”

“One for the master, one for the dame,

“And one for the little boy who live down the lane!

- This activity proves to be a challenge in our Zambian languages, but you need to be creative.

1.7.6 Tongue twisters

“Haukabowanjamwanjanji aca mwanjaukanjanjanji?

Activity

Identify and explain different types of literacy you know?

Identify any Zambian language and give examples of alliteration

and rhyming activities you can use to promote literacy in children.

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UNIT 2: LITERACY AND OTHER FIELDS OF STUDY

2.0 Introduction

This unit aims at introducing students to the relationship between literacy and other fields of study. The unit is important as it links literacy to other disciplines.



2.1 Learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Explain how literacy is related to other fields of study

2.2 Literacy and other disciplines

Literacy as a field of study is not an independent discipline. It is linked to other fields of study such as language and numeracy. In this case, literacy scholars attempt to establish how the acquisition of conventional literacy of reading and writing is linked to other fields of study. It is also important to note that the way people use the term literacy in the world today creates an impression that literacy impinges on every discipline of study

2.2.1 Literacy vs Language

2.2.1.1 Language

Language is the gift of social interaction that allows human beings to interact and cooperate with each other. When we talk about knowing a particular language, we are mostly concerned about the spoken part of the language. For example: If you say you know Tonga, the general assumption is that you are able to speak and understand the language well. A child learns to speak words in a language only because he hears them from his parents, siblings and others in the family. By the time a child is old enough to go to a school, he is able to speak and communicate properly in his mother tongue. Language is therefore a tool for communication. However, as a tool for communication it can either delay or enhance development.

2.2.1.2 Literacy:

Literacy covers not just the spoken language but also the written language and the ability to comprehend it. If one knows a language and can fluently speak it, but cannot read and also cannot write it, he remains illiterate. It is therefore important for an individual to be literate (read and write) in today's world to be able to contribute in a positive manner to the society in which he is living. It is also important for children to develop early literacy skills as they are precursors to reading and writing. It is only after becoming literate that a child can hope to learn other subjects such as science and math and, be able to communicate in a recorded manner or through an electronic medium such as computer. Literacy is also a powerful tool available for organizing, extending, providing resources for, and transforming all our social endeavors. However, literacy can be a source of oppression that works against entire societies as well as against certain groups and individuals within given populations (Freire, 1970).

2.2.1.3 Literacy and language

The two concepts (Literacy and Language) are somewhat confusing for many because of their similarities. We are all aware that language skills are totally different from literacy skills and knowing these differences is important for all of us. The importance of language is allowing human beings to communicate with each other. However, knowing a language alone is not enough for a person to be literate though he is considered to be proficient in a language if he is literate. It is therefore important for an individual to be literate in today's world to be able to contribute in a positive manner to the society in which he is living.

Note: Literacy and language are similar in that they are both taught in schools at almost the same time. The same items are taught in both such as phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, morphology, syntax are taught in literacy and language.

2.2.1.4 Literacy and numeracy

Numeracy has to do with reasoning and applying simple arithmetical concepts (Brooks, 2010). A numerically literate person can manage and respond to the mathematical demands of life. Bullock (1994) noted that there seems to be a relationship between literate

and numeracy, which can be seen in young children. Depending on the level of literacy or numeracy at a young age, one can predict the growth of literacy and/ or numeracy skills in future development.

Activity

Explain the relationship between literacy and language

What other disciplines are closely related to literacy?

References

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UNIT 3: THEORIES OF LITERACY

3.0 Introduction

This unit begins with the description of theories of literacy. The unit is important as it helps you understand and appreciate various theories in literacy.



3.1 Learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define the a theory.
- explain the different theories studied in literacy
- apply literacy theories in different contexts

3.2 What is a theory?

In case you are wondering what a theory is, here is one of the definitions of a theory. A theory is an idealized representation of reality that help us explain some natural phenomena. In this case, literacy theories ideas or thought pattern about a particular literacy and how it should be perceived. Campbell & Zazkis (2002) contended that theories are like toothbrushes where everyone has their own and no one wants to use anyone else's theory.

The following theories or views or ideas are categorized as theories of literacy. You are expected to analyse and interpret these theories to understand them clearly.

Views or theories about literacy extracted from <http://www.public.asu.edu/~petergo/courses/eng556/556.html>

"Literacy does not require or inexorably lead to any particular development, but it is a powerful tool available for organizing, extending, providing resources for, and transforming all of our social endeavors."
--Charles Bazerman

"To be truly literate, a person must be conversant with a specific body of knowledge known to educated people, or, more precisely, the cultural knowledge of the dominant society."
--E.D. Hirsch Jr.



"It's not what's inside your head, it's what your head's inside of." --Patrick Hartwell

"Literacy (Formed as an antithesis to illiteracy). The quality or state of being literate; knowledge of letters; condition in respect to education. Esp. ability to read and write."
--Oxford English Dictionary

"Literacy is the skill, the process, the practice of 'reading' and being articulate about 'men and nations,' which is more than just simplistic, isolated decoding and encoding skills."
--Jacqueline Jones Royster

"Literacy is a system of oppression that works against entire societies as well as against certain groups within given populations and against individual people."
--Elspeth Stuckey

"More and more, we are divided into two nations: One that reads and one that can't, and, therefore, one that dreams and one that doesn't. Reading is the basics for all learning, and it must be the foundation for all other education reforms."--
George W. Bush

"There is no thing, literacy, only constellations of forms and degrees of literacy, shifting and turning as history rearranges the social formations in which they are embedded. Pieties of literacy with a capital L ought to be scrutinized: Which literacy? Whose literacy? Literacy for what? How?"
--Andrew Sledd

3.2.1 Theories of literacy development

Remember, the theories above are not the only theories of literacy. There are other theories or views on what literacy is or should be and all these depend on how individuals in

different field view the concept of literacy. For literacy development, there are a number of theories associated that are based on people's ideas about early literacy development and how children learn.

3.2.2 Piaget's theory of literacy development

This is one of the most famous theories used to explain children's overall cognitive development. It can be used by literacy educators to understand the learning stages through which students' progress as they mature and their relationship to literacy achievement. According to Brenda, et al (2013), Jean Piaget proposed four Stages of Cognitive Development as below:

3.2.2.1 Sensorimotor: Birth – 2 Years of Age

This is also called Sensory exploration of the world. At this stage, children do not have language skills and are dependent on their senses.

Activities for Literacy

- Board books with brightly coloured pictures
- Books with sound, things to touch, or smell



3.2.2.2 Preoperational: 2 Years of Age – 7 Years of Age

This stage is categorized with rapid language development. Children begin to categorize with words.

Activities for Literacy

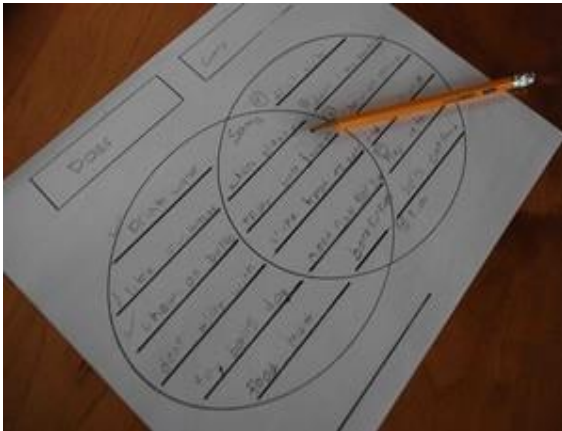
- Story book reading and discussing the story

3.2.2.3 Concrete Operational: 7 Years of Age – 11 Years of Age

In this stage of development, children use concrete objects to begin to think about abstract concepts.

Activities for Literacy

- Graphic Organizers { Venn Diagrams, Flow Maps }



3.2.2.4 Formal Operational: 11 Years of Age – Adult -

In this stage, children use language in an abstract way. Activities for Literacy include the use of metacognitive reading strategies helps students to “think about their thinking” before and after they read. Examples: Making Inferences and Summarizing information.

Activities for Literacy

- The use of metacognitive reading strategies helps students to “think about their thinking” before and after they read.



Examples: Making Inferences, Summarizing

When applying Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development, the following should be observed for literacy education:

- Reading instruction should not be implemented until students reached the age of 6 1/2 years of age
- Initial literacy activities that are given to children at home must be linked or related to the level of child's intellectual development.
- Reading abilities are linked to Maturation Theory which believe learning to read is viewed as a natural developmental occurrence.).

In addition, Amanda (2013) discussed the Ehri's four phases of learning to read called stage model of reading the Stage Models of Reading which explains literacy development and provides instructional guidance to promote early literacy growth. Four stages of word reading are discussed: Pre-alphabetic stage, partial alphabetic stage, full alphabetic stage and the consolidated stage (<https://prezi.com/a4yxj-rcptjs/theories-of-literacy-development/>).

3.2.3 Stage of Models of Reading

3.2.3.1 Pre – Alphabetic Stage {Logographic Stage}

This stage is associated with a number of feature which include the following: (a) Visual cues are primary method of word identification (b) One might memorize words by their shape or “look” (c) Use of environmental print and logos (d) Word Identification is not yet related to letter – sound knowledge. Class activities for Literacy in this stage include collecting samples of Environmental Print to display in the classroom.

3.2.3.2 Partial Alphabetic Stage

This stage according to Godwin et al (2013) uses “Phonetic Cue Reading” which further demand the use of some letter – sound cues. First letter of the word and then use just a letter or two as children develop.

3.2.3.3 Full Alphabetic Stage

In this stage, students rely more on letter – sound knowledge. Student tries to process all the letters in a word and a child may become tied to letter-by-letter reading which slows down the reading process. Class activities for Literacy here includes: Puzzles, Word Card Games, Magnetic Letters, Alphabet Books. Magazine Search, Letter Bingo and Word Sort: Beginning, Middle, and End Sounds

3.2.3.4 Consolidated Alphabetic Stage

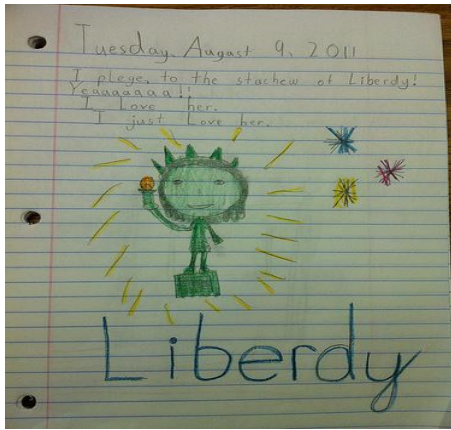
Here, there is automatic knowledge of sound – letter relationships. Students read letter patterns within words and they use word family knowledge to aid the reading process. Activities for Literacy include word Wheels, Word Family Sorts, Poetry, Flip Books (Amanda et al, 2013).

3.3 Maturation Theory

This theory impacted reading instruction until the mid-1950s. The maturation theory states that Children would be ready to read when they have developed certain prerequisite skills and there is little that teachers and parents can do to hurry the process of cognitive development. In other ways, the theory advocate for not teaching reading until children were mature enough for instruction. Scholars for this theory hypothesized that this could happen when children were at mental age of 6 1/2. But, the theory has since been proven incorrect and ineffectual. However, the idea of maturation still has impact on reading theory, but the idea of a specific age is no longer a part of reading instruction (Wymer et al, 2013).

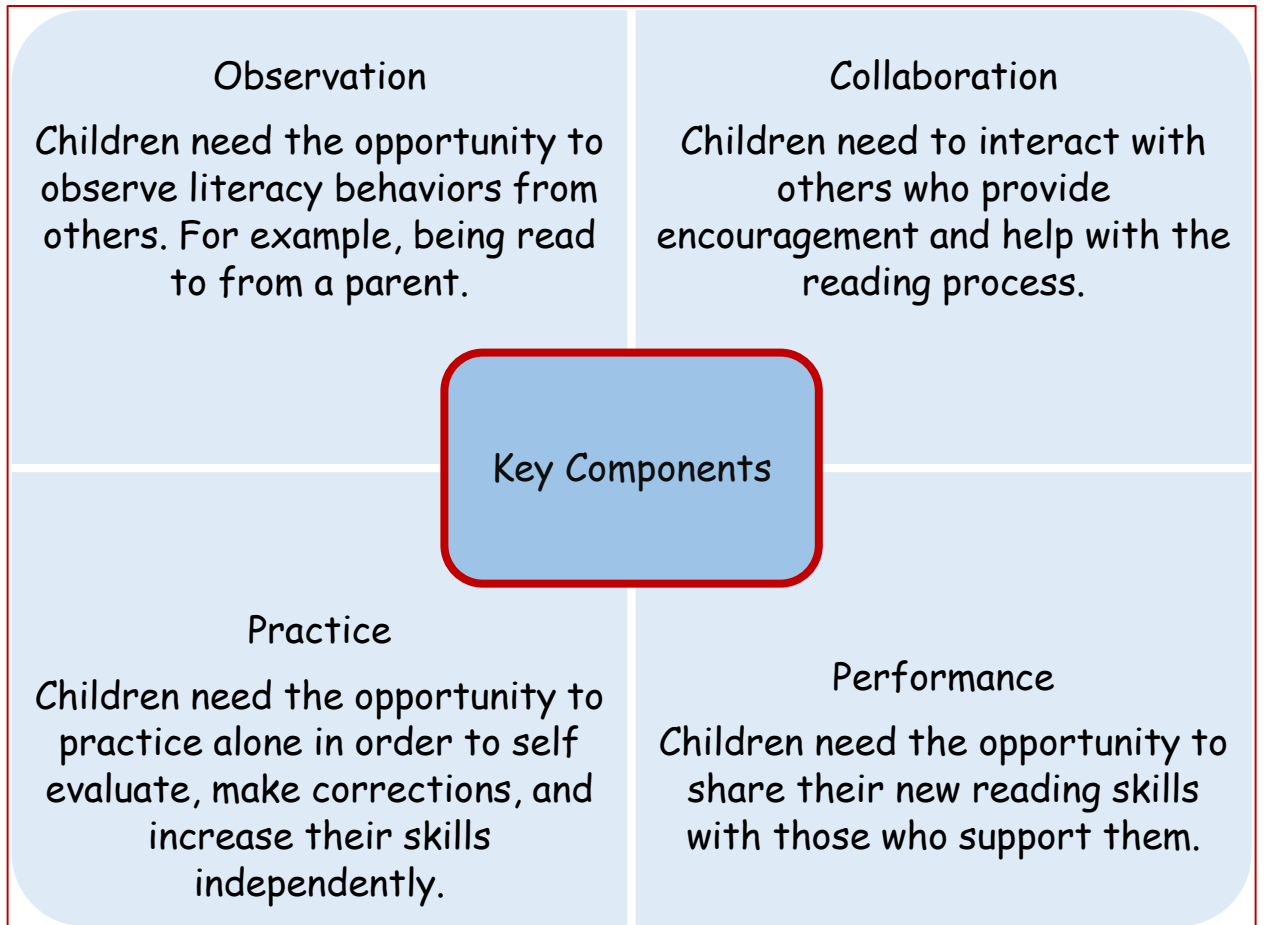
Activities for Literacy

- The text makes a slim connection to invented spelling, however, we have learned that invented spelling is rooted in other theories of development and learning.



3.4 Theory of Literacy Development

The theory was developed by Holdaway in 1979 and it states that learning to read was a natural development that is closely linked to a child's natural development of oral language skills. Holdaway's theory of literacy further contends that literacy development begins in children's homes and is based on meaningful learning experiences. As Amanda et al (2013) put it, there are four key components in this theory described below.



Source: Amanda, et al (2013)

Amanda et al (2013) further explained that the four key components are linked to the child's natural development occurrence which begins at home which leads to a gradual formation of literacy development practices. The classroom application or characteristics of natural literacy development include:

- Rich home literacy environment
- Parent – Child interactions of modeling literacy behaviors
- Rich literacy classroom environment by
 - Labeling key items around the room
 - Wide variety of high quality reading materials
 - Meaningful language experiences
 - Use of big books and shared reading

In addition, Holdaway et al (2013) highly recommends the use of big books and shared reading to foster natural literacy development. He believes big books can create the same positive feelings about story time that children have when they read at home. He believes that these natural storytelling times build student's oral language, print tracking, concept of letters, and words.

3.4.1 Emergent literacy theories

Emergent literacy skills are the basic building blocks for learning to read and write. The theory explains early literacy development and provides educators with instructional guidance to promote early literacy growth among their students. According to Godwin (2013), emergent literacy skills begin developing in early infancy and early childhood through participation with adults in meaningful activities involving talking and print. Marie Clay's studies on emergent literacy also indicated that children know a great deal about reading and writing before they come to school, and they are able to experiment with and apply their knowledge in various ways (Clay, 1975).

3.4.2 Everyday theories

These are ideas which individual people have about certain things in the society and how they impinge on people's lives. Everybody makes theories almost every day about certain practices, values and norm in the society. These theories are not known to many people and they are not conventional in nature as they may be known to one person only (Barton, 2007).

3.4.3 Professional Theories

These are conventionally recognized theories worldwide such as those discussed above. In other ways, examples of professional theories include Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development, Maturation Theory, Theory of Literacy Development, Stage Models of Reading, Emergent Literacy Theory, and Family Literacy Theory.

Activity

- Activity: Explain a theory according to your understanding?
- What are the different literacy theories that you know?
- Pick one theory and explain how well you can apply it in class?

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UNIT4: DOMAINS OF LITERACY

4.0 Introduction

This unit highlight literacy as a survival strategy. The unit touches on different wings of the society and how they survive and by what means in the society.



4.1 Unit Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- define survival literacy.
- explain how different groups of people in the society survive
- apply different survival strategies

4.2 What is survival or functional literacy

This is a form of literacy which focuses on teaching the people in need with survival strategies and skills to function in the society. For example, people who are functionally literate apply conventional form of literacy such as reading and writing well enough to understand signs, read newspaper headings, read labels on medicine bottles, make shopping lists, read Bible, write letters, fill in forms, apply for jobs, practice the language skills verbally & in written form, reading for pleasure and purposive writing. Gray (1956:21) stated that functional literacy is used for the training of adults to ‘meet independently the reading and writing demands placed on them’.

4.3 Survival strategies in the community

Survival literacy is twofold: the first relate to conventional literacy and the second relate to a body of knowledge. Survival literacy that relate to reading and writing demands application of reading skills. These skills are used in reading traffic signals, shopping lists, toilet signs, roadmaps, driver test manual and drug prescription. In this manner, knowing how to read and write fall under survival literacy as they use it on daily basis. On the other hand survival literacy as a body of knowledge relate to the strategies that people use to

survive in the society. There are a number of survival strategies applied by different groups of people in the society. For instance, most people in the rural parts of Zambia use the traditional method of surviving through farming on a small scale. Everything they do is linked to farming as a source of income.

4.3 Literacy and development

There is a close link between literacy and development. Literacy can enhance socio-economic development in a community. This is because it leads to rise of entrepreneurs and new enterprises which in turn provide employment and there will be huge demand for employment. When people are literacy there is change in work behavior thereby increasing productivity in the country. Gary and Murphy (2001) stated that by enhancing skills in individuals, one can earn more which brings economic prosperity at both Micro (individual) level and Macro level by rising in gross domestic product (GDP) making the workforce more efficient.

4.4 Literacy and society

Literacy impinges on everything we do in the society. Unfortunately, we do not realise that. Furthermore, Literacy is the foundation on which the solving of all social problems can be built. It is argued that the majority of homeless people are homeless due to lack of basic skills that could enhance their lives. Being literate means the ability and chance to improve one's self, which society needs to become more classless and improve the overall living standard of everyone? Literacy is the foundation the society as it is the pillar on which all initiatives in the society are found.

4.5 Application of literacy in society

Everything we do is literacy. Unfortunately, most of the people think that only those that have been to school are literate. They don't think of the people in villages who have not been to school but they are able to survive. For example, think of your grandmother in the village who is trying to cook nshima but has never been to school. She has to think of how much water and mealie meal to use so that the nshima can blend well. Not only have that,

walking on the streets demanded literacy because we need to read road signs. To find employment you need literacy for you to read advertisements and write an application. There so many things we can talk about but most importantly, we need to acknowledge that literacy is central to world around us.

Activity:

Explain how you can apply functional literacy in society

References

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UNIT 5: MODELS OF LITERACY

Introduction

This unit looks at six literacy instructional models how the literacy programmes have evolved in Zambia.

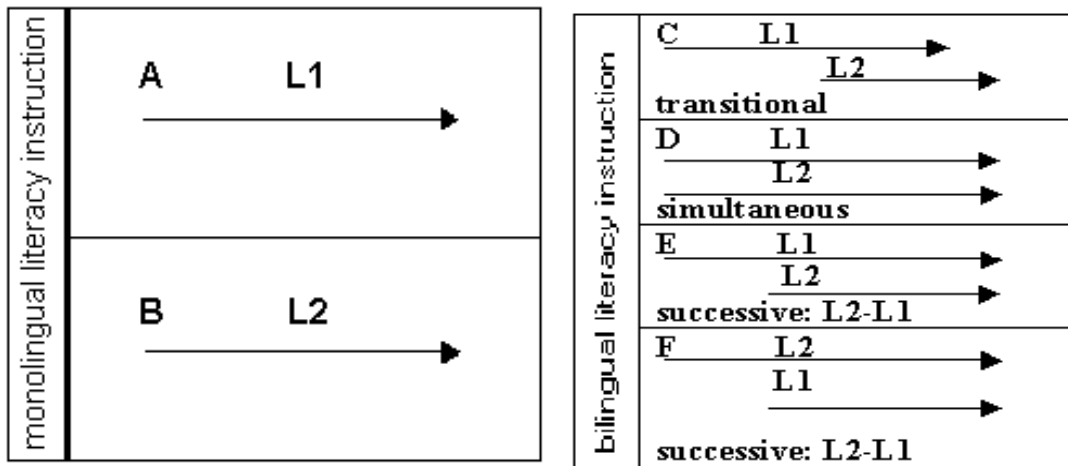


5.1 Unit Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the different instructional models of literacy.
- discuss the model Zambia is following
- discuss how the literacy programmes have evolved in Zambia

5.2 Six Models of Literacy (Banda, 2014)



5.2.1 MODEL A

- In model, A, the L1 is used exclusively as language of instruction and as target language, while there is no literacy instruction in the L2 language.

5.2.2 MODEL B

- In model B, the L2 language is the language of instruction and target language; from this model, literacy instruction in the L1 language is excluded.

5.2.3 MODEL C

- Model C starts with literacy in the minority language. At the same time or after a short period, literacy instruction in the majority language is given as well.

- In the course of the curriculum, L1 is interrupted. L1 instruction in this model is only used to reach an optimum literacy level in L2. For this reason, this model has been called *transitional*.

MODELS D, E and F

- Models D, E and F all aim at functional biliteracy. These models differ as regards order of instruction: model D has simultaneous L1 / L2 instruction, model E has the order first L1 then L2; model F has the reverse instruction order.
- If the educational objective is the achievement of L1 literacy, the language policy to be followed should be segregation in which case then the instructional model will be the first model, Model A.
- Instructional models B and C will be followed to achieve literacy in L2 and the language policy will be assimilation.
- The remaining models, D, E and F will follow the language policy of maintenance if the educational objectives are functional biliteracy.
- Relating to the current literacy programme in Zambia, the PLP, if we are to consider the use of MT by PLP as a tool to learn English better, then PLP falls under model C.
- Therefore, one would say that the country follows model C under Transitional programme.
- The role of MT also seems vital in models D, E and F, which aim at functional biliteracy.
- To conclude, Williams (1990) suggests that there is need to have three different instructional models for what he calls **pre-literate**, **literate** and **post-literate** students.
- In the three models he emphasises the use of MT not only as the language for initial literacy but also as the LOI to start with. That way he hopes pre-literate pupils will achieve MT literacy that will in turn be transferred to the achievement of second-language literacy.

- He further holds that with the continuation of MT as the language for literacy, even in a situation where L2 is the LOI, as pupils will be literate in it by then, the pupils will at the end of the day achieve L2 and L1 or MT proficiency.

NOTE: This leads to PLP Programme.

As a teacher, you should also understand the continuum of Literacy Instruction in order to execute lessons properly.

5.2.4 Continuum of Literacy Instruction

The continuum of literacy instruction has 3 stages that are linked to the continuum of literacy development (NAEYC and IRA; 1998).

- **Emergent Literacy (phase 1 and 2)** - here we have emergent readers who only need to have knowledge about print and sound.
- **Early Literacy (phase 3 and 4)**– children *Learn to Read* but they already have some knowledge of reading and writing. Learning to read is the process of acquiring the basic skills necessary for reading; that is, the ability to acquire meaning from print.
- **Conventional Literacy (phase 5)** - here we *Read to Learn* about something. E. G.,

We read to learn about the news, to learn about rules, and to learn about how to do things.

As children we learn to read, and as adults, we read to learn.

Below is a summary of a continuum literacy instruction table extracted from <http://www.google.co.zm/url>.

Continuum of Literacy Instruction



Activity

During your free time, discuss the six literacy MODEL of instruction and relate it to the Zambian current situation.

UNIT 6: EVOLUTION OF LITERACY PROGRAMMES IN ZAMBIA

6.0 Introduction

This unit looks at how the literacy programmes has evolved from the time Zambia got independence to date.



6.1 Unit Objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the history of literacy development in Zambia
- discuss how the literacy programmes have evolved

6.2 The Zambia Primary Course (ZPC)

During the 1960S there were two major forces shaping developments in education and curriculum in Zambia. In the first place, Zambia attained its independence from Great Britain on October 24, 1964. Second, there occurred the world-wide curriculum reform which originated in the United States of America and other developed nations. The attainment of independence in Zambia was followed by demands for changes in different institutions, including education.

The introduction of the Zambia Primary Course (ZPC) in the primary schools in 1967 partially met these demands for change in Zambia. The ZPC was an experimental curriculum based and was using the communicative approach. Pupils learnt mechanically through repetitive approaches and mnemonics; pupils were treated as not knowing anything and the teacher was depicted as knowing everything.

In 1993 a nationwide survey was conducted by the Psychological Service of the Ministry of Education in 1973 to determine the effectiveness of the ZPC with respect to the reading skills of the pupils. Grade 3 pupils were chosen as a sample of the primary school children. It was observed that the ZPC had its strengths and weaknesses which were taken into consideration.

6.3 The Zambia Basic Education Course (ZBEC)

1994-1999- Zambia Basic Education Course which trained teachers to teach all grades at Primary level came on board after the ZPC. This focused on audio lingual as a way of teaching English and it also used the situational approach which emphasised the participation of learners.

In ZBEC, students took 14 subjects which included Education, English, Silozi, Mathematics, Social Studies, Religious Education, Industrial Arts, Home Economics, Music, Art, Physical Education, Science and Political Education. ZBEC is a two year teacher training course organized to teach years one to nine, as year nine is considered to be a decent level of schooling for the majority of children. However, even this proved not to be effective as most children dropped out of school at the end of grade nine.

6.4 The Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC)

In 1999, the Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC) which aimed at alleviating teacher shortage in schools was introduced. The implementation of this programme followed three years of a pilot programme in three teacher – training colleges which began in 1997 under the Teacher Reform Programme (ZATERP). The success of this pilot programme led to the full implementation of the programme in all 10 Basic Education Teachers' colleges in the country. The main feature of this programme is the integration of subjects. Students no longer took segmented subjects like it was in ZPC and ZBEC.

Student Teachers were in the College for one year attending lectures and tutorial and then sent into school for one year to do their teaching practice. During school practice, students continued writing assignments and were periodically observed by their mentors and as well as tutors. The course had 6 Study Areas namely: Education Studies which had Philosophy of Education, Sociology of Education and Special Education; Literacy and Languages Education which combined English and Zambian Languages; Mathematics and Science Education which had Mathematics, Science and Agricultural Science. Mathematics has since been split from Science and the two are separate; Social, Spiritual and Moral Education which had Social Studies and Religious Education; Technology Studies which

had Home Economics and Industrial Arts and Expressive Arts which had Music, Art and Physical Education.

Below is the syllabus for the literacy and language education component of ZATEC programme (Miti and Monoka, 2006)

Language awareness

- The structure, the roles and functions of language
- Language acquisition and learning

Initial Literacy

- The nature of learning reading and writing
- The process involved in initial literacy

Listening

- Listening purposes and activities that enhance listening skills
- Causes of poor listening and appropriate remedial work

Speaking

- Fluency, appropriacy and self-expression in speaking
- The influence of gender and culture on speaking

Reading

- Methods of teaching reading adapted to different stages of reading and different reading purposes
- Identification of reading difficulties and design of remedial programmes

Writing

- Different kinds of writing-controlled, guided, free, creative, journal writing

- Writing exercises incorporating all language skills
- Purpose of writing and stages in a writing exercise

6.5 The Book Flood programme

The book flood programme was started to help improve literacy levels in the country. It just lasted for two to three years. Its primary role was to supply books to schools so that children can access them and read them. By so doing, children would eventually improve their literacy levels.

6.6 The Primary Reading Programme (PRP)

Was initially a seven- year Reading Programme by the Zambian Ministry of Education (MoE) was piloted in Kasama, Northern Province before taken to scale. It was an initiative supported by the British Department for International Development (DfID) to improve reading levels in Zambian primary schools. Located within the Teacher Education Programme (TED) under the umbrella of the Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Programme (BESSIP). The Primary Reading Programme (PRP) was officially launched in April 1999. Located within the Teacher Education Programme (TED). It was under the umbrella of the Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Programme (BESSIP). PRP had three prolonged approaches:

- **New Break Through to Literacy (NBTL)** - A Grade 1 Reading course in all the seven official Zambian languages
- **Step In To English (SITE)** - Transfer of newly established L1 literacy skills to English in Grade 2.
- **Read On Course** for teachers of Grades 3-7 - support the development of reading skills in the higher grades
- **Pathway 1 and 2** (for grade 1 and 2) running concurrently.

6.7 The Primary Literacy Programme (PLP)

The Primary Literacy Programme was launched in 2013 and it officially started running in schools by January 2014. One of the major adjustment to this programme is the introduction of local languages for use in primary schools from grades one to four as medium of instruction. English on the hand will only serve as medium of instruction from grade five but will be taught as a subject from grade one.

Activity:

Give an account of literacy development programmes in Zambia

Identify the main changes that have evolved so far

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UNIT 7: LITERACY POLICY IN ZAMBIA

Introduction

This unit discusses the literacy situation in Zambia and some interventions that have been put across.



7.1 Learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- explain the current literacy situation in Zambia
- discuss some measures put across as interventions to low literacy levels
- interpret the National Literacy Framework
- explain how the five key components are integrated in a literacy lesson

7.2 Current literacy policy in Zambia

According to the New Literacy Framework, the new language policy in Zambia is that the familiar local language is to be used as medium of instruction from pre-school to grade 4. English language will be introduced as a subject at Grade 2 but continues to be used as a language of instruction from Grade 5 to tertiary level (MESVTEE, 2013, p. 2). Familiar language is the means by which children are socialized into their families and communities; it is the medium that helps them to develop their earliest and most enduring relationships, their ideas about how the world works and their emerging sense of self and identity.

The New Literacy Framework aims at improving literacy levels through the teaching of initial literacy using the 7 regional local languages (Luvale, Lunda, Kaonde, Silozi, Tonga, Ibibemba and Nyanja) as official languages at regional level. It is believed that practicing reading in a familiar Zambian language is an incentive for learning to read in English.

This is probably because a better understanding of the relationship between spelling and phonology in the Zambian language as a result of learning in a familiar language facilitates learning to read in English”. The expectation is that instruction in the local language at the foundation stage will support learners as they progress toward English. This recognizes Zambia as a multi-lingual society, where the use of local languages and English co-exist as part of formal and informal communication.

7.3 Factors affecting the teaching of literacy

There are several factors that affect the teaching of literacy as below:

- Very few teachers who teach in primary schools are properly trained.
- Inadequacy of teaching and learning materials - the shortage of teaching and learning materials has been a major problem to many schools especially in rural areas
- Language barrier – knowing to speak a language does not automatically make someone qualify to teach in that language.
- High teacher-pupil ratio – a number of schools in Zambia especially in rural areas face over enrolment
- Negative attitude towards the use of local languages – some parents and teachers have the negative attitude towards teaching using a mother tongue simply because they think it has no use.

7.4 The National Literacy Framework (NLF)

This part of the unit aims at introducing you to the National Literacy Framework (NLF) that has been developed in Zambia for the first time in order to provide a strategy for literacy instruction.

7.4.1 Interpretation of the National Literacy Framework (NLF).

Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) is based on the National Literacy Framework (NLF). This National Literacy Framework is based on the principles that:

- Every learner has the right to a quality education
- All learners, with appropriate support, can be taught to read and write
- Reading is a foundation skill for all learning
- Learners have the right to learn to read in one of Zambia's seven local languages

The NLF sets out expectations to develop pre-reading and pre - writing skills. These skills include writing, handwriting and punctuation. Most importantly, the NLF focuses on preparing learners to read and NLF supports competences in the five key competencies:

- **Phonemic awareness** - The ability to “hear sounds” and manipulate them orally
- **Phonics** - The teaching of the relationships between letters and sounds.
- **Fluency** - Reading sentences with expressions, accuracy and speed.
- **Vocabulary** - The ability to understand the meaning of words and use them orally and in writing.
- **Comprehension** - The ability to understand the meaning of what is read or heard.

In addition, the NLF stresses emphasis on Pre-reading and pre-writing skills. These are skills that will help children learn to read. However, they do not only prepare children to read but also to write, listen and speak with fluency. It is also important to know that the proposed approach of teaching literacy following the National Literacy Framework effectively can lead to automatic word recognition and increasing effortless decoding of a word. Therefore, with repeated practice, learners will increase their retention of words and develop reading fluency which in turn, is a necessary step to reading with comprehension.

Activity

- identify and explain the five key components used in teaching literacy
- Discuss other factors that affect the teaching of literacy in primary schools

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UNIT 8: TEACHING READING

Introduction

My assumption is that you have acquired some grounding in literacy, morphology and syntax of English and Bantu languages from previous relevant units. It is this knowledge and also your competence in Literacy and language, English and Bantu languages that I expect you to draw upon in designing your lessons and activities for your pupils.



8.1 Unit objectives

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Describe the relationship between PRP and PLP
- explain the lesson procedure for teaching PLP
- demonstrate an understanding of skills of teaching literacy in Zambian language and English
- use the prescribed Methods and Approaches to teach English and Zambian Languages

8.2 What is Phonics?

Phonics is one of the best method used to teach learners learning to read in primary. It is the teaching of the relationships between letters and sounds. When learners know letters and their sounds, they can use the letter-sound relationships to decode (sound out) words. This relationship between letters and sounds is called ‘alphabetic principle.’ Therefore, learners who have broken through to literacy have discovered the alphabetic principle and can transfer this understanding to decoding words in any language which is written in the alphabetic system.

When we talk about phonics, we should think of ‘**synthetic phonics**’ and ‘**analytic phonics**’ methods

8.2.1 Synthetic Phonics vs Analytic Phonics

To understand the difference properly, you have to understand the methodology behind analytic phonics and synthetic phonics for reading.

Synthetic Phonics teaches children the sounds of the English language and then teaches them to develop the skills needed to decode and encode, read and write words. Synthetic

method involves the synthesising, or blending of phonemes (sounds) to make a word, enabling children to read; hence, there is no guessing.

This is a method of teaching reading and spelling through decoding and encoding with a systematic approach. It relies upon teaching the individual sounds of the 44 phonemes in the English language sequentially and the letters that correspond to them. Once learners know some sounds, they can use this knowledge to read words via decoding, or write words via encoding, as they can build up and break words down. Caroline (2016) stated that there is a great deal of evidence which suggests that Synthetic Phonics is the superior phonics approach and outperforms Analytical.

Analytical Phonics on the other hand referred to as the Whole Word approach, and children learn to recognise words by sight, in a method similar to rote learning. Children are taught to analyze letter-sound relationships and look to decode words based upon spelling and letter patterns and their sounds.

Traditionally, children were taught to read using ‘analytic phonics’. This method has children ‘analysing a word’, taking clues from recognition of the whole word, the initial sound and the context. The table below summarises the difference between analytic and synthetic phonics (Birch, 2002; Nuttall, 1996)

| | ANALYTIC PHONICS | SYNTHETIC PHONICS |
|--------------------------|---|---|
| Importance of each sound | Emphasis on initial sound, e.g, /s/ in ‘sun’. This rule works for short words but is problematic for longer words and encourages guessing as an initial reading strategy. | Each phoneme, in every position is important. We care about the ‘s’ as much as the ‘u’ and the ‘n’. |
| Position | Emphasis on initial sounds, onset, rhyme and word families | Emphasis on hearing and identifying the phonemes in <i>all</i> positions. |
| Speed | Slow. It can be as slow as 1 sound a week. This unnecessarily delays | Fast. 8 sounds over 2 weeks, getting children reading right away. |

reading progress.

| | | |
|---------------------------------|--|---|
| Spelling | Spelling is tackled separately. | Children are taught that the alphabetic code is reversible; if you can read a word you can spell it. |
| Role of guessing | Encourages guessing. The emphasis is on the initial sound, e.g. the 's' of sun. Works for short words that can be guessed but in longer words is much more difficult. | The English language is far more logical than people first believe. It doesn't need guessing for successful reading and spelling, it just needs systematic teaching. |
| Role of the alphabet | The alphabet is central to analytic phonics – concentrating on those 26 letters and their corresponding sounds. Think about these words: 'place', 'kiss' and 'sell'. All words have an /s/ phoneme but have different spellings. | The letter names are not taught initially. Children are learning 44 phonemes and how each can be represented. This enables children, when they come across: 'place', 'kiss' and 'sell', to understand that phonemes /s/ can have many spelling choices: 'ce', 'ss' and 's'. |
| Exception s to the rule | There are too many exceptions to the rules | There are minimal exceptions. Get Reading Right manages irregular, high frequency words in a child-friendly manner. |
| The pronunciation of the sounds | Sounds were often taught incorrectly, e.g. 's' was taught as the sound 'suh', not the correct pronunciation 'sssss'. Blending doesn't work as easily with incorrect pronunciation. | Synthetic Phonics places much emphasis on the teachers pronouncing the phonemes correctly. |

Conclusion

If you have been following the topic, you may agree with me that Synthetic Phonics should be the primary method of reading instruction for all learners, being supplemented by Analytical techniques when faced with non-decodable words.

8.2.2 Why teach phonics?

- Phonics instruction teaches children how the visual symbol system of their language represents the sounds of the words in their language.
- In order to teach children to read a particular language, we need to teach them correspondences between graphemes (letters) and phonemes (sounds).
- Children have to be helped to discover the alphabetic principle which is simply that each letter represents a sound in the language.
- In addition, they have to learn that just as in spoken language where sounds combine to form words, letters combine to form words.
- Once the letters are decoded into sounds, the sounds need to be blended, put together, to form words which can be recognised.
- Words that are recognised can be put together to access the meaning of what is being communicated.

8.2.3 Phonics and Zambian language

I believe you understand that Zambian languages are alphabetic languages and the mapping from letter to phoneme is 1:1. If you have been following my discussion, you will agree with me that because of 1:1 correspondences, teaching reading in Zambian languages can be achieved by a method called **synthetic phonics**. However, synthetic method is recommended not only for 1:1 correspondences, but also because the sound pattern is easy to segment. For example:

Zambian languages follow CVCV pattern (Consonant – Vowel – Consonant Vowel–) pattern as in the word ‘tata’ (father).

Because of the CVCV pattern, you will agree with me that it is better to consider teaching reading to children in a Zambian language before they are introduced to English. This is because children can sound out or decode many English words using their phonics skills from their Zambian language. For example, in Zambian language under PLP, the five vowels /a e i o u/ are introduced first before the consonants.

8.2.4 Procedure for teaching phonics in Zambian language

- Show the learners the picture in the learners book
- Ask them what they see in the picture
- What is the sound at the beginning of the word for the picture
- Say out the sound correctly e. g. /a/ as in ‘abaana’.
- Individual learners to say the sound /a/ orally without writing or reading
- Emphasise on the sound of the day as /a/.
- Write the letter [a] [A] on the board
- Point at the letter and sound it.
- Ask individual learners to read the sound /a/ while pointing at it
- Explain that the same sound can also be written as a long sound like /aa/.
- Show the learners how to write the letter in the air and on the ground
- Give handwriting exercise with the same sound

8.2.5 Phonics and English Language

English is more complicated. The sound patterns in these languages are also more complex and this makes it more complicated for learners to learn to read quickly. Below are some examples why English is complicated:

- English has many CVC, CVCC, as in words such as (cat, girl)
- In English, one letter can make more than one sound. For example;
 - the letter **A** makes different sounds in words such as (cat, make, car, talk, put, cup).
 - different letters can represent the same sound, e. g., (‘c’, and ‘k’ as in ‘kick’ and ‘cook.’

- sounds can be represented by a single letter or a combination of letters, e. g., ('a', 'ai', 'ay', 'th', 'ph', and others.

These inconsistencies can make reading more difficult. Therefore, it is better you teach the children first in a language with a transparent orthography so that they transfer phonics knowledge to the less transparent language later. This is what the Zambian government has adopted.

8.2.6 Teaching phonics in English language

Just like Zambian languages, when teaching phonics in English, always begin with the most common letter sounds first before teaching the less common ones. For example, in English, the five vowels /a e i o u/ represent about 12 vowel phonemes in the language; but there are many short words where the vowel sounds are similar to those in Zambian languages, e.g:

- /a/ in 'at', /i/ in 'in', /e/ in 'bed', /o/ in 'on', and /u/ in 'put
- Similarly, most English consonants can easily be introduced by using short words as examples below:
- **Stops:** /b/ as in 'bin', /p/ as in 'pot', /t/ as in 'top', or 'toilet', /d/ as in 'dog', /k/ as in 'kit', /g/ as in 'God'.
- **Fricatives:** /f/ as in 'fish', or 'fat', /v/ as in 'veranda', /s/ as in 'song', /ʃ/ as in 'shop' as in ' ', and /h/ as in 'hen'.
- **Nasals:** /m/ /n/ as in 'man', /ŋ/ as in 'no', /ŋ/ as in 'song'
- **Liquids:** /l/ as in 'leg' and /r/ as in 'rob'.

You are also aware that English is inconsistent. When the spellings in English are not consistent, we say these are 'irregular spellings.' Therefore, irregular spellings should be taught after the regular spellings. This is because double vowels in English do not always represent a long vowel in Zambian languages but instead represent a different vowel as in 'book.' /u/.

Letters that are not found in Zambian languages ('q' as in 'quiet', 'queen', 'quack') can be introduced by starting with a phonemic awareness activity. You should explain that this

sound is like /k/. Explain that ‘q’ may have been heard in words like ‘quick’ / kwik/ but sound like /k/

Other letters not found in all Zambian languages such as x, r, and z can also be introduced in a similar way as Zambian language.

Combinations of letters which represent individual phonemes such as ‘*th*’ called digraphs should also be introduced through simple words such as ‘the’ which learners should have learnt orally. Digraphs can come before trigraphs (where three letters represent only one phoneme) like ‘*tch*’ as in words like ‘catch’, ‘ugh’ as in ‘enough’ and so on.

Another area that requires attention is in English is the teaching of diphthongs. A diphthong is a combination of two vowel sounds said rapidly together as in boy/boi. In Zambian languages, when vowels follow each other in a word, they usually belong to different syllables as in iciBemba word aeba (a-e-ba) ‘he/she has told’, and are pronounced separately. You should explain that it is difficult to tell what some visual diphthongs in English represent, e. g ‘ou’ as in ‘proud’, ‘soul’, ‘young’ e.t.c.

Split diphthongs can also be taught as patterns, e.g in words like ‘take’ /teik/, ‘lake’ /leik/ and so on. We call them split diphthongs because the vowels which make up the diphthong are separated by a consonant as in ‘t-a-k-e’ but when pronouncing them they come together.

Conclusion

In general, the procedure for teaching phonics in English involve the teacher starting with a listening activity (phonemic awareness using a new letter sound of the day) and then teaching the letter name and shape. Make sure you begin with the most common sound for each letter first. Then when learners have some experience and success in reading phonetically spelled words, less common sounds of a letter can be introduced and taught explicitly in gradual fashion. It is also important to keep in mind that reading is ‘getting meaning from print’ Therefore, learners need to expect that words they are pronouncing make meaning.

8.2.7 Phonics Activities

8.2.7.1 Fish for letters

This is a game where learners ‘fish’ for letters. If they can say the name and sound of the letter, they can keep it. If they fail to say the letter and the sound, they throw it back.

8.2.7.2 Read the word

In this activity, learners have an opportunity to read words containing only consistent sounds in English by sounding out each letter before reading it. If the learner reads the word incorrectly, ask if anyone knows what the word means. Vvv If no one gives a definition, give a quick definition using a picture, gesture, synonym, or short description.

8.2.7.3 Read the word – Onset-Rhyme level

This activity helps learners to recognize particular word patterns such as rhymes, in words.

- You should tell the learners that many English words contain a group of letters that look and sound the same called rhymes, e. g. ‘ride’ and ‘wide’.
- The ending pattern is – ide, and the sound is /i/d/e/. When you blend them together they say /ide/.
- Ask learners to give you more words that rhyme.
- If they give a nonsense word acknowledge that the pattern is correct but it is not a real word in English.
- Make sure you write all words provided by the learners for revision.

8.2.8 Phonics for older learners

Literate adults use phonics for reading new words and longer words – usually applying their knowledge of our very complex alphabetic code automatically without even thinking about it. In other words, phonics for spelling and reading is the domain of adult literacy – and not just baby stuff. Older learners apply phonics skills when they are faced with

reading, spelling, writing or typing new, longer and more challenging words. This applies in all subjects being studied.

8.2.9 Phonics challenges for older learners

Teaching phonics to older English language learners (ELLs) poses the following challenges:

- Our curriculum demands that we teach phonics at primary level because students in intermediate grades and above are assumed to have already acquired the sound/symbol correspondence (alphabetic principle) necessary to read by the upper elementary grades.
- It is believed that students only need to learn to read once.
- Students with limited literacy skills in their native language may struggle to grasp the concept of phonetic relationships between sound and letters of a new language.
- Phonics instruction may also be tied to vocabulary words that are unfamiliar
- Finding age appropriate instruction materials and strategies may be a challenge. This is because some materials can be adapted for use by older students; most are unlikely to be engaging or appealing for middle and high school learners.
- Older learners may feel embarrassed at using "childish" materials, and they will quickly get bored by the drill and repetition that younger students have a need for.
- Older students want to engage in activities requiring the use of higher-order thinking skills, which early literacy materials don't usually offer.

However, despite these challenges, there are a number of strategies which can be effective for older learners as below:

- Provide struggling readers with plenty of opportunities to read text that makes sense to them. Avoid too difficult reading books because it makes it impossible for them to learn and to develop as readers.
- Students should spend most of their school reading time with texts that they *can* read and *want* to read. Providing books that match students' reading levels.

- Content-area teachers will find many readable, interesting trade books that include important content to match curriculum standards.
- Struggling readers and even those who have no difficulty reading need ongoing explanations and discussions about the process of reading and how to make sense of what they read.
- But rather than assign fill-in-the-blank exercises or test-like passages followed by comprehension questions, teachers should describe the mental activities involved in making sense of text and encourage students to share the specific processes that they use to build their personal understandings of what they read.
- Provide good instruction in reading comprehension. This does not happen in a short time, but requires an intensive reading program. Most important, it requires the expertise of the best reader in the classroom: the teacher as a role model.
- Some struggling readers need to think more about the structure of words.
- Therefore, an interactive and connected approach, such as word study, enables students to manipulate key words from their reading and begin extending generalizations to unfamiliar words, thereby strengthening not only reading skills but also writing and spelling skills.

Activity

- Suggest more phonics activities you can use to promote phonemic awareness skills in learners.
- Discuss the differences between synthetic and analytic phonics
- Explain the procedure for teaching phonics in both English and Zambian language.

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UNIT 9: VOCABULARY

Vocabulary is word knowledge; thus, understanding the meaning of words and how to use them, both orally and in reading and writing. There is empirical evidence that, for children and adults, much learning of new words occurs through exposure to written texts (story books) listening to others (oral language) NRP (2000) and Room to Read (2012).

9.0 Four types of vocabulary

- **Listening vocabulary** - consists of the words the learner can understand when they are spoken
- **Reading vocabulary** - consists of the words they can read
- **Speaking vocabulary** - consists of words they can use in their own speech.
- **Writing vocabulary** - consists of words they can use in expressing their own thoughts or information.

9.1 Active and passive vocabulary

The active vocabulary is that part of one's knowledge of words that one uses in speaking and writing comfortably. Learners can increase their active vocabularies through repeated exposure to the same words in what they read or listen to. This makes them more confident to attempt using the same words in their writing or speaking. Passive vocabulary on the other hand, consists of words which are known or partially known by a learner but which he/she might not be very comfortable to use productively in writing and speaking.

9.1.1 Why teach vocabulary

Vocabulary development is a critical foundation for all other learning, and it is important in developing oral language for becoming a fluent reader. Vocabulary development therefore is an essential component of reading comprehension skills. The larger the reader's vocabulary (either oral or print), the easier it is to make sense of the text. There is a very close relationship between comprehension and vocabulary knowledge as vocabulary instruction facilitates better reading comprehension.

When learners decode a word, they need to know what the word means in order to understand what they read. As teachers, you need to teach learners strategies for learning new vocabulary since it is not possible to teach them all words they need to know.

By strategies we mean how learners plan to approach and understand words they meet in a text they are reading. These strategies can also be taught in a reading comprehension lesson and other subjects.

Learners should therefore be actively engaged in instruction that includes learning words before reading, repetition and multiple exposures, learning in rich contexts.

However, it is important to understand that individual differences in word reading could affect the rate of vocabulary growth. For example, weak readers show larger effect in vocabulary growth than strong readers in early elementary grades.

1.3.4 What should be included in vocabulary instruction?

There are three important elements of effective vocabulary instruction (Stahl, 1985):

- Teach both the definition and the context of words. The definition of a word includes the dictionary definition, synonyms (similar words), antonyms (words with opposite meanings), prefixes (**re**-ject, **un**-happy), suffixes (love-**ly**, read-**able**), roots, etc. The context of a word is how it is used in a picture, in a sentence, talk, or in a demonstration.
- Engage learners in activities that involve them in thinking about words and making connections to other words.
- Provide lots of opportunities for learners to see and use the new words they are learning.

9.1.2 How do you teach vocabulary?

Effective practices for teaching vocabulary include both explicit (something highly interactive and does not provide specific guidance) and implicit (something quite specific) instruction as well as the use of multimedia methods (National Reading Panel, 2000).

9.1.3 Explicit instruction

- Pre-teach a small number of important words that learners will encounter when they read text.
- Write the words on the board or on a card
- Define them as much as possible in simple words they have learnt in English. When this fails, use a Zambian language.
- Use real objects, pictures, or gestures to promote understanding

9.1.4 Implicit instruction

- Learners can infer (or guess) the meaning of words they do not know from teacher read-aloud, word lists, or from their own wide range.

9.1.5 Multimedia methods

- Multimedia methods are methods other than reading in books. Learners can be taught to make concept maps, working word walls, and graphic representations of words to show their connections to other words they already know.

9.1.6 Vocabulary Activities

Activity 1: Introducing new words

In this activity, you will introduce new words using real objects, pictures, and gestures to learners before reading. You should also provide support and discuss new words with learners after reading

The procedure for introducing new words has four steps:

Before the lesson

- Pre-view the story to be read and make a list of no more than 5 words that will be important to understanding the text and that learners probably will not know.
- Write these on cards or on the chalkboard

- Write simple sentences with each new word on the chalkboard.

Before reading

- Introduce the key new words using real objects, pointing to things in the environment, pictures and gestures. Give a simple definition and examples.
- When it is necessary, use a Zambian language to explain what a word means
- Learners say the word several times in unison until it becomes automatic
- Ask individual learners to say the word
- Learners read the sentence containing the new word on the chalkboard
- Learners write the new word in their exercise books
- Repeat steps 2 -5 for each word

During reading

- Monitor learners as they read and provide support if learners have difficulties with the new words.
- Some learners might ask you to explain meanings of other words, encourage them to first make guesses about the meaning of the words from context. When they fail to do so, give them simple definitions of the words.

After reading

- Ask questions that engage learners in using the new vocabulary words in their answer.
- Ask learners about the meaning of the new words as they come up in the context of the discussion.
- Learners write their own sentences using the new words. If appropriate, they can also add a drawing.
- Learners in pairs explain the meaning of a given new word to each other.

Activity 2: My Personal vocabulary

- Learners create their own personal books for new words. This is a follow up activity to vocabulary activity 1, to reinforce new vocabulary.

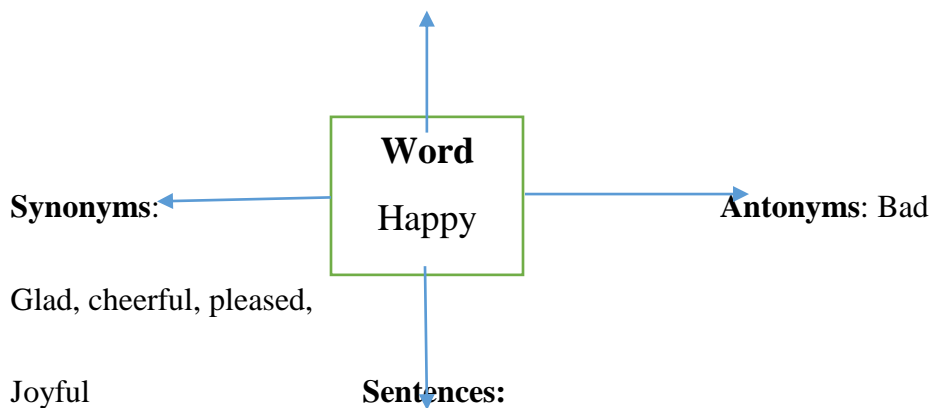
Procedure

- Write the new words and a simple definition on the chalkboard
- As new vocabulary words are introduced, have learners write the words, one word per page, in their vocabulary books
- Learners write the definition on the page for that word
- Learners share their books in pairs, read their definitions, and explain their drawings.
- Learners can also find the sentence with the new word in the story and copy it into their personal vocabulary books, or,
- If newspapers or magazines with pictures are available, they can cut pictures out and paste them on the page in their book.

Activity 3: Word map

In this activity, learners will do a ‘word study’ of a targeted vocabulary word:

Definition: Feeling good about something or someone.



(Banda was very happy to win a prize. The children are happy to see their mothers)

9.1.7 Teaching vocabulary to older learners

There is empirical evidence that, for older children and adults, much learning of new words occurs through exposure to written texts (story books and novels) (Cunningham, 2005). In other words, exposure to a lot of literature can provide key opportunities for advancement in vocabulary development because print material generally contains many more unfamiliar and low frequency words than does spoken language. Therefore, word learning through reading will affect vocabulary acquisition on both oral and written level depending on the level of the learners.

Another important point to note is that, exposure to novel words in text does not occur uniformly throughout reading development. For instance, prior to formal literacy instruction, children are clearly acquiring novel vocabulary through exposure to oral language. This happens when older children read to young ones.

During early reading development, children rarely confront words in print that are not already present in their vocabulary, so much of the lexical knowledge of words, especially phonological and semantic representations, will be derived from oral language experience. As children become more proficient readers and advance to more complex print material, they are more likely to confront words during reading that they have not been exposed to via listening. This transition likely occurs around the third or fourth grade for many students.

Note: You should remember that Literature is key in vocabulary acquisition for older learners

Activity

- Suggest other activities you can use to teach vocabulary
- Why is teaching of vocabulary important

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UNIT 10: WHAT IS FLUENCY?

Several researchers (Hudson et al, 2009) have define reading fluency as “the ability to read quickly and accurately, with appropriate and meaningful expression.”By expression we mean that a person reads like he/she would speak the same sentences naturally with correct intonation (raising and dropping the voice where necessary).

By now you should understand that **depending on their stress, English words can change their meaning and can be nouns or verbs** as in the word below:

‘**CON**tract + con**TRACT**’.

The first word is a noun and **has 1st syllable stress; CON**tract as in the **sentence** ‘They signed the contract for the purchase’.

The second word is a verb and is stressed on the 2nd syllable; conTRACT as in the sentence ‘When metal cools, it contracts’.

In fluency reading, there is also efficient and effective consideration of punctuation marks in reading of a text. Fluent readers are able to read orally with appropriate speed, accuracy, and proper expression. Fluent reading therefore means reading a text accurately and at a sufficient pace so that comprehension is not impeded.

It is the ability to read as well as to speak and to make sense of the text without having to stop and decode each word. According to Hudson et al and Ming and Dukes, fluency is made up of three elements: **speed, accurate** and **proper expression**.

This implies that non-fluent readers lack these three aspects of reading and therefore, they read slowly with many mistakes and they do not read with expression. Readers who struggle to read individual words lose the ‘train’ of the text and when they get to the end of the text, they cannot explain what the text is about.

This is because while reading, all their attention was concentrated on the sounding out letters and blending them (decoding), they had no time to think about the meaning of the words they are decoding. As a teacher, to help such learners, we need to provide lots of opportunities for learners to do repeated reading activities so that they can begin to automatically recognize words and word patterns. This is called ‘**automaticity.**’ Reading with automaticity therefore has to do with the rate at which one reads the text. When learners can read with automaticity, their reading rate (words per minute) and accuracy improve (Grabe, 1991; McLaughlin, 1987).

Beginning readers need to read in English between 40 – 60 words per minute to be able to understand what they are reading (Abadzi, 2006). Reading rates below this lead to poor comprehension. Fluent readers have read at an average rate of 250 words per minute. This means that an average page in a book or document would take you 1-2 minutes to read. Imagine if you could double your rate to 500 words per minute. You could zip through all of the content in half the time. You could then spend the rest of the time on other tasks, or take a few extra minutes to relax and de-stress.

However, teachers should accept the fact that the rate at which one reads the text depends upon the reader’s purpose and comprehension goal. The *less detail* you need to remember, the *faster* you should read. Conversely, the *more detail* you need to remember, the *slower* you should read.

10.1 Important oral reading fluency skills

There are two important oral reading fluency skills:

- Decoding skill and vocabulary knowledge

10.2 How do you teach oral reading fluency?

- Make learners read and reread the passage
- Provide feedback and support
- Encourage learners also provide feedback and support to their friends

- You should pre-teach the important and unfamiliar words in the text before the first reading
- You and some fluent readers should model fluent reading to the class
- Provide time for peer partners to practice reading fluently.
- For fluent reading activities, provide texts or passages that learners have read before and that are easy enough for them to read with only a few errors. This can be a book below their reading level
- You should therefore create a pool of suitable reading materials that learners can read with less difficult
- Make some translations of traditional folk tales, community stories such as myths, explanation of processes and activities that learners are familiar with.
- Before beginning partner reading activities, you and learners should agree on rules to follow:
 - Talk only with your partner
 - Talk only about the reading
 - Listen to their partner read
 - Give feedback in the helpful way

During partner reading activities, you should walk around the class, observing and listening to learners read.

10.3 Fluency activities

Activity 1: Letter sound correspondence Digraph and trygraph/diphthong (combination of two vowel sounds said rapidly together as in boy/boi) Dash (already taught)

- Put learners in small groups each lead by a fluent reader
- The group leader reads each digraph and diphthong aloud fluently as learners point to it in their exercise books
- Learner take time reading aloud to the group
- If the reader makes a mistake, a group leader calls a volunteer to help

- At the end, the leader counts the number of letters read correctly and writes the number on his/her page
- Make sure each learner has the chance to read to increase speed and accuracy

Activity 2: Rereading with a model reader (short passage)

- A model reader (teacher, teacher assistant, older student, volunteer or adult) reviews any words in the passage that may be unfamiliar to the reader
- The model reader reads the passage first
- The other learner reads the passage
- The other learner reads the passage again as quickly as accurately as he/she can without speed reading
- The model reader and the other learner ask each other questions about what they read or try to summarise what they read

Activity 3: Choral reading (teacher leads the learners in reading)

- Preview the passage to be read with a group of learners, and they make predictions about what the passage will be about
- Read the passage aloud
- You and learners read the passage together
- After reading as a class you may select the pairs to read the passage together to the class
- This can be a group activity with each group led by a fluent leader

Activity 4: Partner reading

- Provide a text for each learner
- Taking turns, learners alternate reading sentences and providing assistance to each other
- Learners continue to read until the entire text has been read
- Learners reread the text multiple times, focusing on speed and expression

- Learners read entire text to each other

Activity 5: Reader’s theatre (reread the script from a play, short story or poem)

- Introduce the activity and assign parts in preparing a performance
- Learners rehearse by reading and rereading their parts until they can read it at a good pace, accuracy and with expression
- Learners perform in front of real audience of another class, parents or community members by reading their parts fluently.

Teaching fluency at high school: Just like for vocabulary, literature is key in teaching fluency for order learners.

10.4 What is Comprehension?

Comprehension is about getting the meaning from the text. It is what most people consider ‘reading.’ This is because the main reason for reading is to understand what is read. Conley (1992, p. 55) defined comprehension as “the interaction of various kinds of prior knowledge with new textual information.

Donald and White (1993) added that text comprehension, and hence, literary text comprehension is best understood as an interactive process in which the reader deals with several sources of information simultaneously, both textual information and knowledge structures in memory.

In simple terms, the first step to reading comprehension is decoding. Beyond decoding, reading comprehension requires access to the meanings of words and higher level processes such as sentence integration, inferencing and comprehension monitoring (the reader’s ability to detect when comprehension of a passage has broken down); all of these skills need to be brought to bear to develop a mental representation of the text.

Comprehension is what separates simple decoding of text from actual reading. For reading comprehension, rather than passively reading a text, readers must analyze it, internalize it and make it their own.

The development of reading comprehension over the past decades can be traced by examining the interaction between three major factors; the **text**, the **reader** and the **context**. These three factors overlap. Therefore, the process of comprehension is both interactive and strategic. Proficient reading therefore is interactive, thus, **good readers** combine knowledge they already possess with information in **texts** and with features of the **context** in order to construct meaning.

10.4.1 Why teach comprehension?

- In the first place, you need to understand that teaching reading comprehension is teaching thinking skills.
- But often, teachers ask questions after assigning a reading text without providing demonstrations of comprehension strategies that learners need to answer the questions.
- We need to understand that each comprehension lesson must have teaching points that help learners to develop thinking skills.
- There are strategies learners can use before, during and after reading that can be taught
- We should also understand that teaching comprehension strategies requires explicit teaching (something highly interactive and does not provide specific guidance).
- This implies that you should carefully model the thinking process by saying aloud what you are actually thinking so that later, learners can imitate it. You then provide learners with many opportunities to practice under your guidance using the strategies in narrative and expository (informational) texts before they can be expected to use the strategies independently.

10.4.2 What are important comprehension skills?

Before reading:

- Set a purpose for reading e.g. is it finding specific information, getting the general meaning of a text, and reading for pleasure, etc.

- Make predictions about the content of the text based on the title, headings and illustrations in the text.
- Make inferences (interpretations) based on illustrations. Learners can make conclusions (guesses) about the appearance of, for example people in the pictures about their emotional states such as being ‘happy’, ‘sad’, etc. They can also comment on their status e.g. poor, rich, old, young etc.
- You can also teach other types of inferences such as helping them to understand pronoun reference e.g. in Peter kicked the John. He also insulted him. Who is the word ‘he’ in the second sentence talking about?
- You can also pre-teach some language structures that might be important in understanding the text.
- Link their previous learning and background experiences to what they are going to read. Ask questions about the topic of the text, e.g using the title and, or headings, or provide general information about the topic if learners are not familiar with it.
- Make predictions about what will happen, or what they will learn from the title and illustrations
- Ask themselves questions about the text in readiness for reading
- Pre-teach vocabulary items as is explained in the vocabulary activities.

During reading:

- Learners monitor their own understanding as they read through the text by asking themselves questions to clarify their understanding
- Confirm their understanding of the vocabulary that was pre-taught; and see if there are any changes in meaning according to context
- See if their predictions come true, and how they change
- Ask themselves questions, or think about your questions as they read
- Summarise information as they read in their exercise books e.g. in tables, drawings or writing notes

After reading:

- Think about what they have learnt
- Use a graphic organizer, also known as a knowledge map, concept map, story map (visual) to analyse a character or a topic. They could for example, draw a spider web showing how ideas in the text connected, draw a picture of a character using the description in the text, etc.
- Write questions they have about the text in their exercise books
- Make a story map to show the important elements of the story
- Answer their own or your questions posed before reading
- Discuss what they liked or did not like about the text
- Confirm their understanding of the teaching points by answering correctly questions based on them

10.4.3 How do you teach comprehension?

- Specific comprehension strategies should be taught to support learners during the *Before reading phase*, the *During phase*, and the *After reading phase*.
- Teachers should choose the strategies that are most appropriate for their learners age and abilities, but there should always be some structures in the reading process; we should not just assign learners to read without a purpose and a process.
- Reading comprehension is a thinking activity that requires the active involvement and mental engagement of learners. It takes more time and effort on the part of both teachers and learners.

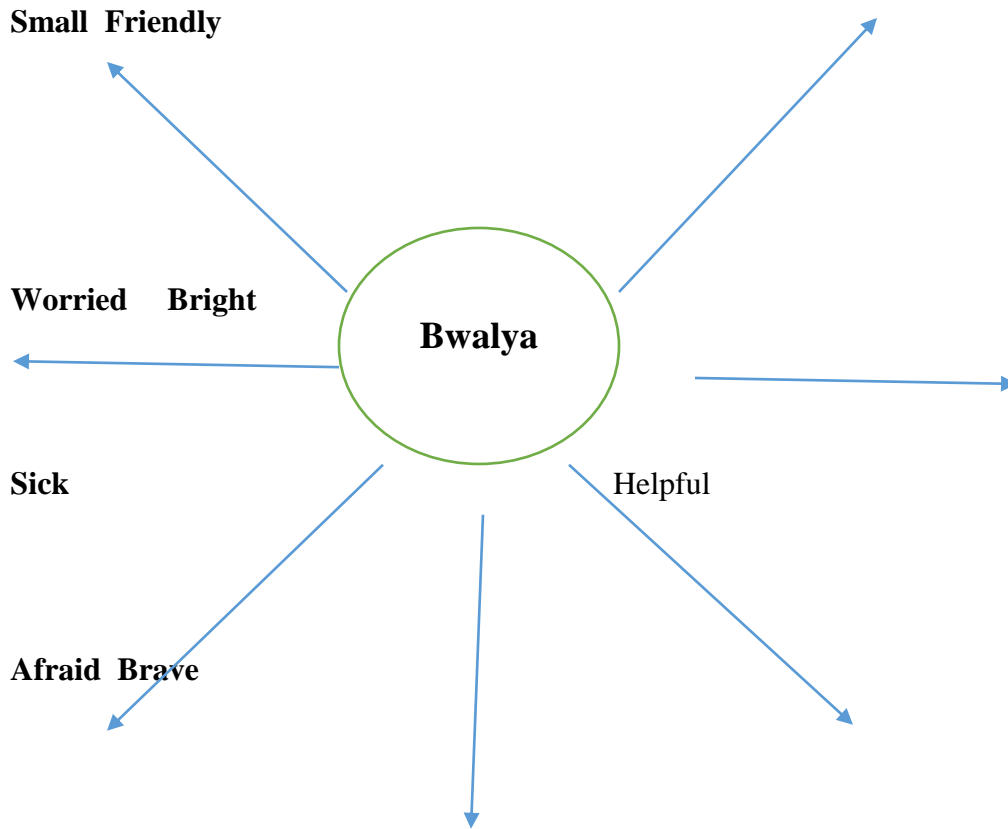
Below are some comprehension activities to use before, during and after reading:

Comprehension Activity 1: Making predictions (before and after reading)

In this activity, learners preview what they will read and make predictions about what will happen in the story

Comprehension Activity 2: Character description (after reading)

In this activity, learners use an organizer or visually record characteristics of a character in a story based on both their physical characteristics and actions.



Comprehension Activity 3: KWL (before and after reading)

KWL Stands for **Know**, **Would like to Know**, and **Learnt**. It is mainly used in reading expository texts where learners read to learn about a topic. It consists of three steps:

- teacher leads the class to list what learners think they already know about the topic, then,
- teacher leads the class to list what they want to know and, later
- the teacher records what learners say they have learnt.

Know

Want to know

Learnt

Activity:

- Describe the procedure for teaching comprehension
- Suggest some activities for teaching comprehension

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UNIT 11: TEACHING LITERACY USING PRP AND PLP

Introduction

In this unit, you will be required to pay particular attention to how PRP and PLP lessons are taught. Remember that you are required to incorporate the 5 key competencies in a lesson.



11.1 Learning outcomes

By the end of the unit, you will be required to:

- Demonstrate how to teach a PRP literacy lesson
- Demonstrate how to teach a PLP literacy lesson
- Distinguish between PRP and PLP considering the 5 key competencies.

11.2 The Primary Reading Programme (PRP)

The Primary Reading Programme has three components: NBTL, SITE and ROC.

11.2.1 The New Breakthrough to Literacy (NBTL)

This is a course that help children learn to read fluently and write easily as well as accurately in their local language. It uses the language experience approach. For example, it starts from what learners know to what they don't know by adding new information bit by bit to what is already known. It also includes other approaches such as the look and say, phonics and syllabic. The NBTL is divided into three stages as follows:

- Stage 1: Early and Late
- Stage 2: Early, middle and Late
- Stage 3: Learners Breakthrough to Literacy

11.2.2 Step Into English (SITE)

This is a course that was developed to help pupils to transfer their newly acquired initial reading skills from their MT to English reading and writing in Grade 2. This means that learners are introduced to reading and writing in English language in grade two.

11.2.3 The Read On Course (ROC)

This is the final component of PRP. However, it is not a course like the other two, NBTL and SITE. It is a single handbook, structured as a teacher support programme and it provides teachers with guidance and relevant teaching strategies to help their pupils to develop and consolidate the newly acquired skills. For Grades 3 to 4, an hour is allocated to literacy; in grades 5 to 7, a half hour is provided and during both of these periods, the intent is to develop literacy in two languages - Zambian languages and English.

Below is the summary for the primary reading programme (PRP) various courses for specific grade levels:

| SN | COURSE | TARGET GRADES |
|----|------------------------------------|----------------|
| 1 | New Breakthrough to Literacy | Grade 1 |
| 2 | Pathway to English | Grades 1 and 2 |
| 3 | The Step In English (SITE) | Grade 2 |
| 4 | Read On Course (ROC) | Grades 3 to 7 |
| 5 | Read On Express | Grades 1 to 7 |
| 6 | The Mathematics Rainbow Kit (MARK) | Grades 1 to 7 |

11.2.4 Why the switch from PRP to PLP

When PRP was introduced, it was hypothesized that literacy levels among school going children will improve. It was also hypothesized that pupils will be able to transfer the literacy skills learnt in the local familiar language in Grade1 (NBTL) into English in Grade

2 (SITE). However, this was not the case as the reading levels in both English and Zambian language in the did not reach the desirable level.

The reason that was attributed to low performance in reading was that learners in foundation grades (1 – 4) did not acquire the basic reading skill of the language they speak before they reach upper primary (5-7), hence, they needed to be taught the skill required to read a language. It was observed that results were not impressive because learners were taught in a method that did not adequately support learning of phonics which should be the basis of literacy instruction in transparent orthographies.

The PRP implemented from 1999 to 2013, used the Language Experience Approach (LEA) and the Whole Language Approach (WLA) which was not effective enough to allow learners to perform well in letter-sound knowledge and decode words and read. The LEA approach and WLA is a holistic approach that enables the teacher and the learners to discuss an experience, allow learners to express their own ideas, a teacher to model the sound of fluent expressive reading, and learners begin to recognise specific words from account and develop decoding skills. In the LEA learners do not breakdown sounds individually but take words at face value and associate them with prior knowledge (Tambulukani, 2011).

As a result of the above situation of low levels of reading in early grades, in 2013, the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE) with support from cooperating partners revised the Primary Reading Program (PRP) and replaced it with the Primary Literacy Program (PLP) phonics-based approach. This is because a curriculum rooted in a child's own language, culture and environment, with appropriate and locally developed reading and curriculum materials, is crucial for early learning success.

According to MESVTEE (2013), the process of learning to read is based on the principles of provision of phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension. Therefore, in terms of having an effective approach for teaching reading, the MESVTEE reviewed the Primary Reading Program (PRP) and realized the need to first have a National Literacy Framework. In March 2013, with support from USAID/Zambia

Read To Succeed project, MESVTEE developed a draft National Literacy Framework for grade 1 to 7 that establishes the roadmap for literacy teaching in primary schools.

11.2.5 The Primary Literacy Programme (PLP)

As earlier alluded to, in January 2014 Primary Literacy Program (PLP) that is based on five key competencies for learning to read (phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension) was implemented in primary schools to replace the Primary Reading Program.

According to the New Literacy Framework, the new language policy in Zambia is that the familiar local language is to be used as medium of instruction from pre-school to grade 4. English language will be introduced as a subject at Grade 2 but continues to be used as a language of instruction from Grade 5 to tertiary level. The seven regional language that are prescribed for teaching literacy are Tonga, Bemba, Lozi, Luvale, Lunda, Nyanja and Kaonde. Below is a summary of the 5 key areas necessary for teaching reading:

FIVE KEY COMPETENCIES

| SKILL | DESCRIPTIONS | |
|-----------------------------|---|-----------|
| Phonemic Awareness | Ability to hear sounds and manipulate them orally e. g put sounds together, break words apart into sounds, identifying rhyming words, identifying likeness and differences in spoken words e.g. P&P | Phonology |
| Phonics | Ability to put written letters and sounds together | Syntax |
| Oral Reading Fluency | Ability to read orally with accuracy, speed and expression | Phonology |
| Vocabulary | Ability and understand the meaning of words | Semantics |
| Comprehension | Ability to understand the meaning of what is read or heard | Semantics |

11.2.6 1PLP Literacy Instruction

The PLP has two course books; the teacher's guide and the learner's activity book. The teacher's guide contains all the lessons required to be taught from term 1 to term 3. The lessons in the teacher's guide correspond to the activities in the learner's book. It is also important to know that the lessons in the teacher's guide are written in all the seven prescribed regional languages. This makes it easy for you to teach in other languages. The sounds to be taught are also graded starting with the most frequently use to the least frequently used.

Lesson Procedure:

During the second week of Term 1, you will teach to identify the five vowel sounds: a, e, i, o, u. I have mentioned second week because the first week is used for teaching pre-reading and pre-writing activities. The use of the picture for each vowel sound would reinforce the teaching of sounds.

Teach one vowel sound per day as indicated in the weekly schedule. Teach one consonant at a time as per weekly schedule in conjunction with the vowels to form syllables. For the rest of the lesson procedure, follow what is in the teacher's guide.

In a PLP lesson, there is also what is known as the thematic approach. This simply means having one theme but taught differently. All the lessons have a bearing on the theme. It allows learning to be more natural and less fragmented. The thematic approach allows literacy to grow progressively with vocabulary linked and with spelling and sentences writing being frequently, yet smoothly, reinforced.

Note: The PLP programme is the current literacy programme running in all government schools. However, some schools are still using PRP approaches to supplement.

Activity

In your own time, try to develop a PLP lesson plan that will incorporate all the five key competencies.

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UNIT 12: THEORIES AND APPROACHES TO ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

Introduction

This unit discusses the theories and approaches to English language teaching in primary schools. You are expected to understand these theories as you will be expected to apply them in the teaching of English language.

Unit Learning outcomes:

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- Demonstrate understanding of the various methods to language teaching and learning
- Design lesson plans in which the various methods and theories of language learning may be applied.
- Apply the techniques according to the approaches and methods to English language teaching and learning

12.1 Historical Development of Theories and Approaches to English Language Teaching

Before we look at the methods and approaches in language teaching, it is important you understand the following concepts:

- **A theory** – in language teaching, a theory is an idea or thought or an assumption about how language is taught
- **An approach**- is much more general and has the implication that whatever method or techniques the teacher uses, he does not feel bound by these, but only by the theory in which he believes.
- **A method**- is a set of procedures or collection of techniques used in a systematic way which it is hoped will result in efficient learning. A method therefore, consists of a number of techniques.
- **A technique**- is a narrowest term, meaning one single procedure.

12.2 GRAMMER-TRANSLATION METHOD (GT)

GT was first known in United States as a method of teaching the elements of Latin before nineteenth century. It dominated European and foreign language teaching from 1840s to

1940s. The method was initially designed for foreign language instruction and are taught in the students' first language.

NOTE: There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts it to issues of linguistics, psychology, or educational theory. Hence, no theory.

12.2.1 Characteristics of Grammar –Translation Method

- G-T is taught deductively- that is by presentation and study of grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercises. (General-specific, top-down).
- The student's native language is the medium of instruction.
- Reading and writing are the major factors. Little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking and listening.
- Vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and the selections provided are nearly always too difficult.
- Words are taught through bilingual word list and students are forced to read word by word.
- Students were made to put their knowledge to use by translating sentences or texts from mother tongue (L1) to foreign language (L2) or vice-versa.
- The focus is entirely on form, and not meaning
- G-T is, of course, grammatically sequenced, the majority of texts attempting to proceed from easy rules to complex rules. Each lesson introduces rules, and these rules dominate the lesson.
- Accuracy is emphasized, and students are expected to attain high standards in translation
- G-T makes no attempt, explicitly or implicitly, to help students manage conversations with native speakers.

Techniques: Presentation by examples and grammatical explanation, repetition plus drilling. E.g. rules about the use of some/any, 1st and 2nd person singular.

12.2.2 Advantages of G-T

- Much of work is devoted to translation, and students are expected to produce good translation piece of work.
- Encouraged the teaching of native languages.
- Reading and writing skills are emphasized.

12.2.3 Disadvantages of G-T

- The Grammatical analysis often made facts about the language very confusing to students, but very neat and satisfactory for the grammarian who had devised it.
- There is too much memorization; hence the method put a very tremendous strain on student's memories.
- Word- to-word translations were often unsatisfactory.
- Students had to learn a lot of grammatical terms (nouns, verbs, pronouns, etc.). In fact, they had to learn a new language for talking about language.
- Placed much emphasis on form and not the meaning.

12.2.4 Teacher's Roles in G-T

- Makes few demands on the teachers;
- The teacher only presents and explains the target structure, the grammar rules and translation exercises.
- The teacher controls the direction and pace of learning

12.2.5 Learner's Roles

- To produce accurate and high standards of translation texts.
- Translating sentences into and out of the target language.
- Forced to read word by word, and consequently rarely focused on the message.
- Study of grammar rules, which are then practiced through translation exercise.
- Have little control over the content, pace, or style of learning.
- Never encouraged to initiate interaction as little or no attention was paid to speaking and listening skills.
- Accurate listeners to the teacher's explanation of grammar rule

12.2.6 Causes of Decline of G-T Method

- Towards the mid-nineteenth century, there were increased opportunities for communication among Europeans and that created a demand for oral proficiency in foreign languages.
- Conversation and phrase books intended for private schools were on demand, which increasingly saw the public schools to be failing in its responsibilities.
- Individual language specialists also turned their attention to the way modern languages were taught in schools, and eventually new approaches to language teaching were developed, each with a specific method.
- There was increased emphasis on the importance of meaning in learning, and that reading be taught before other skills, and try to locate language teaching within a broader educational framework.
- There was an observation that children were using contextual and situational cues to interpreted utterances, and that they use memorized phrases and routines in speaking.
- The first structure syllabus was proposed that learners be taught the most basic structural patterns occurring in the language, the Englishman (Prendergast 1806-1886).
- The Frenchman Gouin (1831-1896) developed a method which used situations and themes as ways of organizing and presenting oral language.
- Linguists too become interested in the controversies that emerged about the best way to teach foreign language, and ideas were discussed and defended in books, articles, and pamphlets.
- These and many more ideas led to what has been termed natural methods and ultimately led to the development of what came to be known as the DIRECT METHOD.

Activity

Are the techniques for grammar translation good for teaching L1?

12.3 THE DIRECT METHOD (DM)

The direct method (sometimes called the natural method) developed as a reaction to grammar translation method. The idea behind the DM was to learn languages by hearing them spoken and engaging in conversation: reading and writing can develop later. Believers in this method argued that a foreign language could be taught without translation or the use of learner's native language if meaning was conveyed directly through demonstration and action.

Believers in this method also opposed the focus on explanation of grammar rules; instead teachers must encourage direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language in the classroom.

12.3.1 Principles of D-M

- Classroom instruction was conducted exclusively in the second language.
- Practitioners of this method immersed their students in the flow of examples of the spoken language, while actively demonstrating the meaning of what they were saying.
- Both speech and listening skills were emphasized.
- Grammar is taught inductively (specific-general, bottom-up).

12.3.2 Techniques: Presentation of new vocabulary through mime, demonstration and pictures.

Note: Although the direct method enjoyed popularity in Europe, not everyone embraced it enthusiastically. This led to the development of audio-lingualism and other methods in the United States.

Activity:

Are the techniques for grammar translation good for teaching L1?

12.3.3 THE AUDIO LINGUAL METHOD

AUDIO = SOUND

LINGUAL= MOUTH/SPEECH (LISTENING AND SPEAKING METHOD)

12.3.4 Historical Development of Audio-Lingualism

- Evolved in America in mid1940's and 1950's`An urgent need for rapid learning of a foreign language arose during World war II
- Developed from the Army Specialist Training Programme (ASTP)
- Initially developed to train American soldiers to learn foreign languages. (Lado, Fries, Bloomfield (All these are all in the library.)

12.3.5 Linguistic Theory Behind AL

- The child learns language by first LISTENING and then IMITATING to SPEAK. (Listening, speaking, reading, writing).
- Teach FORM and not MEANING of language
- Language is a system of relationships arranged in some hierarchical order e.g. PHONEMES, MORPHEMES, WORDS, SENTENCES.
- Language learning is like learning a skill e.g. riding a bicycle
- Language learning is mechanical habit formation (behaviourism).
- The primary medium of language is oral: The emphasis must be on speaking.
- Language materials should be graded Selected, and sequenced to encourage easy learning
- Materials must be presented by a native speaker
- There must be hours of drilling each day
- Teach the language and not about language

12.3.6 Psychological Theory of AL

Behavioural Psychology taught that:

- All learning behaviour has to have STIMULUS to which the learner RESPONDS.
- Response is REINFORCED to form habit
- No reinforcement means negative reinforcement = no behaviour formed
- Correct response must be REWARDED and reinforced by another stimulus

- A wrong response must have no reward as it is BAD HABIT FORMATION.

12.3.7 Characteristics of AL.

The AL method is characterized by:-

- Presentation of language (vocabulary and language) in spoken form (listening before producing);
- Mechanical drills eliciting rapid, repetitive, choral responses with teacher-reinforcement;
- Memorizing dialogues and performing pattern drills.
- Inductive and not deductive learning
- Synthetic and not analytic learning
- Aims at providing learners with useful building blocks of language from which they could generalize.
- A.L does not permit error and considers them as bad habit formation
- Grammatical patterns in the dialogue are selected and become the focus of various kinds of drills and patterns
- Use of drills and pattern practice is distinctive (Repetition, ripple, substitutions.

12.3.8 Technique: Presentation of an oral model, mechanical drilling, repetitive, dialogue, choral responses with teacher-reinforcement, and miming.

12.3.8.1 Teacher's Role

- Controls the direction and pace of learning
- Monitors and corrects the learner's performance
- Vary drills to keep pupils' interest
- Provide a model
- Vary tasks and choose relevant situations and grammatical patterns to practice structures.
- Maintainer of verbal interaction between teacher and the learners
- One to reward trials by the pupils to reinforce learning

12.3.8.1 Learner's Role

- To be directed by skilled training techniques and produce correct responses.
- Have little control over the content, pace, or style of learning.
- Treated as mere organisms that must play a reactive role by responding to stimuli
- Never encouraged to initiate interaction lest they make mistakes
- Accurate listeners, imitators and performers of controlled tasks in order that they produce new form or verbal behaviour.

12.3.8.2 Role of Instructional Materials

Textbooks – come later than the listening, repeating, and responding phase as earlier than this would be distracting attention from the aural output.

- Later come to provide texts of dialogues and cues needed for drills and exercises.
- Tape records and audio-visual equipment = act as models for dialogue and drills.
- Language laboratory = provides opportunity for further drill work and to receive controlled error free practice of basis structures-adds variety.

12.3.8.3 Causes of Decline of AL

- Students fail to transfer, skills acquired through A. L to real communication outside the classroom.
- Studying through audio-lingual procedures (Mechanical and choral drills were boring).
- Language is not a habit structure but involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules (Chomsky).
- Failure to see that the brain has innate capacity to learn language and use it. Sentences are generated from the learners' underlying competence.
- The argument was that audio-lingualism did not result in competence.
- A.L. ignored the role of a brain mental process in learning and only defined learning in terms of habit formation.
- Practice was not accompanied by meaningful learning and language use
- A.L failed to allow learners to use their innate and creative abilities.

12.3.8.4 AL Influence on the Syllabus Design

- Starting point should be phonology, morphology, and syntax of the language arranged according to their order of presentation.
- Selecting, grading and sequencing learning materials to encourage easy learning.
- Skills are taught in listening, speaking, reading and writing order.

12.3.8.5 Pattern imitation exercise

The teacher says a sentence aloud or writes it on the BB then asks the pupils to repeat the sentence making only those changes indicated by the teacher:

Teacher: Mulenga went to the shops yesterday

Teacher: Tomorrow?

Pupil: Mulenga will go to the shops tomorrow

Teacher: Now?

Pupil: Mulenga is going to the shops now

Blank filling exercise

There are three different types:

- Complete the following sentences by filling in the blanks with the correct form of the verb in brackets:
 - (a). I..... this town since 2006 (Stay)
 - (b). Mary..... the room (just leave)
- Complete the following sentences by choosing one of the words from the given in brackets
 - (a). I have lived in this town.... five years (since, for,
- Complete the following sentences by finding a suitable word
 - (a). I have not seen my brother.... I was five

Reminders to you

- The teacher should always try to select exercises which are appropriate to the structure he/she is using and must recognise the method from which such an exercise is taken from.
- Exercises from the Audio-Lingual method are teacher- centred and therefore controlled in nature.
- Many lessons are ruined because of teachers' failure to think carefully enough about the choice of the exercise to give. The level of the class and ability of learners to do the various tasks must be taken into account.

12.4 COGNITIVE-CODE APPROACH

12.4.1 Cognitive Code Approach (1960s) was:

- Essentially a collection of arguments by teachers of language and other educationists on the demerits of the audio-lingual method
- Language is knowledge with parts and rules – that learners need to master and explain.
- Influenced by transformational/generative grammar (Also known as Grammatical Explanation Approach: Chomsky)

12.4.2 Theory of Learning

Chomsky does not disagree that:

- Language is a skilful behaviour and that constant practice results into perfection.
- Language is a social event, which is learnt through social interaction

BUT:

- He only emphasizes that language is knowledge with parts and rules – that learners need to master and explain.
- Learners must use rules so as to think, analyse, and synthesize the language itself.
- Deductive learning (Rule explanation)
- Language is not just exposure to the environment, but a matter of putting to use the Language Acquisition Device. (LAD) which everyone is born with

- Environment facilitates LAD.
- Wrong environment will make children learn wrong language.

12.4.3 Psychological Theory

Cognitive psychologists hold that:

- Language is inborn – experience develops it
- Only human species learns language.
- Man makes new utterances/sentences that never before made.
- Brain must work – mentalist theory; why makes new utterances – makes sense from observable situations.
- Infinite number of sentences can be made from limited elements.
- Language is creative, it expands – rules can create new sentences. (This knowledge is linguistic rules – grammatical rules.)

12.4.4 Deep and Surface Structures of Language

Surface Structure:

- The obvious denotative meaning of a word, expression, sentences or passage e.g. ‘red’ is colour; ‘sleep with’ means one is accompanied in bed.

Deep Structure:

- This is extra information, interpreted, or connotative meaning: e.g. ‘red’ is danger, ‘sleep with’ means copulate.

Performance Vs. Competence

Surface Structure Is Performance

Deep Structure Is Competence

N/B: One needs competence in order to perform – which is practical

- Hence language is rule governed behaviour – poor rules means bad performance.
- John Swales (1985), ‘Garbage in, garbage out’ concept.

The cognitive Code approach is therefore mentalistic (Chomsky).

12.4.5 Behavioral Psychology Vs Cognitive (Mental) Psychology

12.4.5.1 Behaviour Psych.

- Language learning is a form of behaviour e.g. drilling, cycling.
- Learner passively waits from teacher to learn
- Child's mind is therefore a tabular Rasa (blank slate)
- Mechanical non-thinking drills (pattern practice).
- Language learning is habit formation
- Behaviour is by environmental conditioning (stimuli) and response to it.

12.4.5.2 Cognitive (Mental) Psych.

- Language learning is part of mental processes and is innate in all human beings
- Learner actively generates language using given rules
- Child's mind is therefore not a tabular Rasa (blank slate)
- own mechanical procedures (exercises).
- Language learning is rule governed.
- The child will use rules to apply to: language use, relevance, acceptability, suitability, appropriate and correctness

12.4.6 Classroom Application of The Approach

Use of:

- Grammatical rules first before practice (cue)
- Problem-solving exercises rather than choral responses (drills)
- Away from class, home exercises
- Meaningful exercise – including situation, contextual ones but emphasizing use of the mind (no repetition, memorization, initiation)
- Children are not empty vessels; know something.
- Give rules when teaching; explain them.
- Do more transformations in language.
- Know language rules – explain and apply them.

- Cognitive surface errors – rules will correct them – its development stage.
- Pupils ask questions, teachers and pupils to explain and vice versa.
- The teacher must be more competent than the pupils.
- Avoid mechanical drills.

12.4.7 How to teach using Cognitive-Code Approach

- Give rules before explanations.
- Children to make sentences using rules and putting them to situations.
- RP form is not emphasised.
- Errors are allowed as are a process to learning.
- Children build an elect they know, then exploit knowledge.
- Encourage high level of pupil participation.
- Teach all four skills, using both oral and written.
- Use both L1 and L2 when need arises
- Vocabulary teaching is encouraged, especially the expansion of passive voice for reading progression.
- Vitality of comprehension is emphasised.
- Repetition drills are avoided, but used only for remediation and reinforcement.
- Contextualization of all teaching through use of audio-visual aids.

12.4.8 Techniques:

Explanation and application of grammar rules, presentation of meaningful exercise; including situations, contextual, learners actively generates language, emphasis on the use of the mind, dialogue, role playing activities, games.

QUESTION: Are all these techniques applicable for teaching LI?

Key Reminders to you

- The mind is not a Tabular Rasa but an active organ, which plays a big role in language acquired.
- The mind is central in perception, storage and acquisition of knowledge.

- Children learn by discovery and meaningful activities, not by listening and memorisation.
- LAD is the ability a child has to learn a language. Environment is vital but LAD differentiates animals from man. Acquisition of language is internalising as system of rules of language, which enable infinite production of sentences from finite rules.
- LAD consists of a hypothesis – making device, which helps children to form theories about data they have. e.g. walked – coward.

12.5.9 Disadvantages of the approach

- Teachers may leave out certain information as they assume pupils already know them.
- Teaching is so concentrated around sentences, which lacks at whole passage level.
- Rule explanation, once over done is counterproductive as it confuses pupils. e.g. over generalization of the -ed to all the verbs irregular or regular ones to make – ed1 and –ed 2 (x cost, costed (-ed1) costed (-ed2)x).

12.6 The Situational Approach

The Situational method was developed in Britain where structuralism was emphasised. Speech is recognised as the basis of language learning and structure is placed at the heart of speaking ability. Language is taught by association with some physical characteristics of the classroom; use of gestures etc. used to illustrate and giving meaning to lexical (grammatical) items and structure items.

12.6.1 Principles and Teaching Strategies of the Situation Approach

The method focuses on accuracy by situational drills and practice. The language skills are introduced in this order: Listening, speaking, reading and writing by use of inductive approach to teaching grammar. Rule explanation only comes in where necessary otherwise meaning is not contextually taught. Situational exercises are used e.g. demonstrations,

dialogue, passages in pictures and the use of auditory instruments – i.e. from idiophones. You do not describe, you make sound and learners describe the meaning.

12.6.2 Demerits of the Situational Approach

It puts emphasis on mastery of structures not communicative proficiency. It is only concerned with teaching of structure. Presentation of structural items in situations promotes pseudo – not real situations as some are very artificial / awkward / fake – not realistic communication.

Here we go again, let us look at the techniques we can use in the Situational Approach.

- Role play- in a context of situation, e.g. a doctor, a nurse and a patient when introducing vocabulary.
- Drama – teacher creates a situation for learners to act in a scene hence achieving intended goals (sentence constructions, tenses, vocabulary).
- Composition writing- teacher ask learners to write an essay of their choice depicting a scene.
- Dialogue -learners can be engaged in talk to practice speech work.
- Question and answer techniques can also be applied.
- Drills in the context of situation to practice oral speech work for fluency

12.7 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

This method started in Britain in the late 1960s. Noam Chomsky influenced the development of this approach. The approach covered the theories of language competence and language performance. In the mid-1970s, the scope of CLT expanded under the influence of British and American Linguists. The idea was to move away from Grammatical Theories to practical ones in performance. This was mainly to promote effective and appropriate communication.

12.7.1 The Emphases of C.L.T are as follows:

- The communicative principle – use of activities involving real communication to promote learning.

- Task principle – states that language should be used to carry out certain meaningful tasks.
- Meaningful principle – states that language which is meaningful to learners supports the learning process.

Here there is no use of mechanical exercises like substitution tables where there is no meaningful use of language. The language used must be authentic – the kind of language learners know and situations should be appropriate to the environment. Skill development principles – the aim should be to equip learners with communication skills. This in turn will enhance communicative competence. It uses concepts such as speech community, speech event and rules of speaking as variables of verbal interaction, selected speech situations, events, topics etc, and create materials on their bases.

12.7.2 Principles, Techniques and Exercise of Communicative Approach

- Use of role play, drama and dialogues to teach communicative activities.
- Use of visuals and audial eliciting use of function
- Group-work and out-door activities to simulate real life situation.

12.7.3 Influence from Linguistics

- The ethnography of speaking and its proposal of speaking and communicative competence.
- The sociolinguistic theories which consider language as reflection of social relations, social control and perceptions.
- That branch of anthropology which looks at language as a reflex of culture.

12.7.4 Demerits of C.L.T.

The method concentrates on function not form. Free communication makes some talkative pupils dominate discussions. Cooperative activities rather than individualistic may be unfamiliar to the learners. Correction of errors may be absent or infrequent; this may lead to poor learning of structure and grammar.

12.8 The Eclectic Approach (fitting the method to the learner, not the learner to the method).

Teacher of language needs to acquaint himself/herself with all the many useful methods of language teaching. The Eclectic Approach is an approach that uses any relevant method, technique or approach as may be appropriate in a given lesson. It is an attempt to introduce pragmatics in language to replace dogmatism and prescriptivism.

A teacher can use a combination of techniques from various approaches and methods.

With this approach, you can use a variety of techniques in one lesson as illustrated below;

- You can introduce the lesson using audiolingual approach; teacher demonstrates how to pronounce words (swept, bought, made) and learners repeat after the teacher for correct pronunciation.
- Learners can be asked to make sentences using the words introduced. This is cognitive code approach.
- Pupils can also be asked to have a dialogue where these words will be practiced (situational approach).
- Role play can also be used for learners to communicate using the vocabulary learnt.

Activity:

Illustrate in detail B. F. Skinner, M.A.K. Halliday and Noam Chomsky viewed language learning.

Clearly show where they did not agree with each other.

12.9 Total Physical Response

Total Physical Response (TPR) method is one that combines information and skills through the use of the kinaesthetic sensory system.

This combination of skills allows the learner to assimilate information and skills at a rapid rate. The basic rules are:

Understanding the spoken language before developing the skills of speaking. Imperatives are the main structures to transfer or communicate information. The learner is not forced to speak, but is allowed an individual readiness period and allowed to spontaneously begin to speak when he/she feels comfortable and confident in understanding and producing the utterances.

Procedure:

The teacher says the commands as he himself performs the action.

The teacher says the command as both the teacher and the learners then perform the action.

The teacher says the command but only learners perform the action.

The teacher tells one student at a time to do commands. The roles of teachers and learners are reversed. Learners give commands to teacher and to other learners. The teacher and learner allow for command expansion or produces new sentences.

Activity

You have identified several approaches and techniques to language teaching. Of these which ones have you found effective and why?

During your free time try to compare and contrast different methods of English language teaching.

Summary

Other than the methods and techniques you have encountered, several approaches to language teaching such as the Phonic, syllabic, whole word and language experience can

also be used side by side with those you have been exposed to. However, the cardinal thing to do is to try them out and see which one/s gives you the desired results.

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Unit 13: Other methods of English language teaching

13.0. Introduction

English as a second language requires you to use a variety of methods and strategies that can make learners understand quickly. In this unit, you will be introduced to other methods of teaching apart from the ones we have discussed earlier.



Learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- discuss the differences the whole language approach and look and say
- apply the methods and strategies in the lesson

13.1. Pictorial /Situational Method

Emphasizes the use of pictorial aids (pictures) when teaching reading. Therefore Language learning can be facilitated by use of familiar matter (situations). Language is learnt in the context of a culture and its people (use meaningful, and relevant situations as culture is bound in situations. These situations could be in form of pictorial aids (pictures, maps e. t c) which enhances learners' understanding of the passage, especially when pictures are used in combination with written or oral instructions. Knowledge of structures must be linked to situations; at the market; at the farm, etc.

13.1.2 Application in the classroom

- The teacher sets up situations befitting the targeted structure.
- Models the new structure for students to repeat.
- Uses questions, commands and other clues to elicit correct sentences from the learners.
- Directs and sets the pace for the lesson.
- Gives pupils practice to enable them use structures in less controlled situations – but correct any mistakes being made instantly.

13.2 Participatory Method

- The Participatory approach is under the umbrella of Content-Based Instruction (CBI) in that it uses topics for specific purposes.

- It is similar to pictorial method in that the themes derive from real issues that affect students' daily lives where language learning is used as a vehicle to solve social problems.
- There are various activities that can be incorporated in this teaching strategy which aim to develop all language domains in the learning process.
- In this method, learners are also encouraged to take ownership of their learning as well as collaborate with the teacher, including participating in small and whole group activities for learning to be meaningful.
- However, in the participatory approach meaning precedes form.
- Many researchers have also referred to this method as the Freirean Approach to language literacy education.
- Freire is the author of the book "Pedagogy of the Oppressed".
- Freire further contends that unjust social problems originate from illiteracy and the solution lies in helping learners empower themselves from the circumstances they are in.
- The Participatory Approach belongs under the umbrella of CBI because it employs themes and topics that affect or interest learners.

13.3 Look and say: (whole word method)

This method requires creativity because you need to prepare flash cards on which words are written. In some cases, flash cards are accompanied by a picture for a word. Make sure you show learners flash cards one at a time and allow them to read the word after the teacher. After this has been done a number of times, learners are shown the cards and they have to read the words on their own. It is also possible to write words on the chalk board, practice reading them and then rub them and ask learners to write them when they are dictated.

13.4 Language experience approach

Language experience Approach teaches children from known to unknown. You should understand that children come to school with the prior knowledge of the language. They

bring with them speaking and listening language experiences from their homes. Your job is to help learners to express themselves freely and to build on what they already have.

Activity

Explain the difference between language experience approach and the look and say method.

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UNIT 14: TEACHING WRITING SKILLS

14.0 Introduction

In this unit we discuss the teaching of writing in Primary schools. The information here should be taken as supplementary to what is provided under the teaching of literacy above.

My main aim is to provide information about the meaning of writing and different ways of teaching writing.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- define writing;
- discuss the importance of writing in everyday life;
- discuss features of writing readiness;
- demonstrate different prewriting skills;
- write and sequence all the letters of the alphabet;
- form syllables and build them into meaningful words;
- demonstrate knowledge on the teaching of writing in the classroom;

14.1 Definition of Writing

Do you still remember what ‘literacy’ means? Writing is one part of the literacy programme that is very important in someone’s life.

Activity:

In your own words, how would you define writing?

Now that you have defined writing, we would like to look at how your definition of writing can be used to help children write successfully. But before we do that, compare your definition with the one below. I hope that your answer is similar to the one provided below.

Writing is a means of communication and can be referred to as the act of forming graphic symbols which relate to the sounds that we make when we speak. It is a process of presenting speech in a more permanent visual form. Writing involves the encoding of thought into recognizable symbols that can be translated and read. The MOE (2011:8) defined writing as “a means of communication in which transaction of thought from one mind to the other occurs through graphic symbols or letters or combination of letters that relate to sounds that people make”

This means that our thoughts are translated into language and this language can be communicated either by speaking or writing. Often, when we write, we have a purpose and an audience in mind. The style that we use to write largely depends on the kind of audience it is intended for.

Activity

Why should individuals learn how to write?

Can you give your own reasons why we should learn how to write?

14.2 The Importance of Writing

Now compare your answers to the reasons given below: Writing is of importance in our lives because:

- it reinforces what has been learnt orally;
- it provides different learning styles and needs.
- it acts as a retention aid i.e. to keep information learnt;
- it serves to provide learners with tangible evidence that there is progress in the language;
- it exposes the learner to foreign language through more than one medium;
- it increases the amount of language contact through varieties of activities in the classroom;
- it is needed for formal and informal testing; and
- it is a form of communication.

14.3 Writing Readiness

Have you ever taught a Grade 1 class? When did they begin to do writing activities? How did you know they were ready to write? What activities did you engage them before beginning to write?

Writing readiness can be defined as the skills and understanding necessary for minimum success in completing a writing task. The skills that are involved are called writing readiness (pre-writing) skills.

14.3.1 Writing Readiness Skills (Pre-writing)?

Pre-writing skills are the fundamental skills children need to develop before they are able to write. These skills contribute to a child's ability to hold and use a pencil, and the ability to draw, write, copy, colour and paint.

14.3.2 Importance of Writing Readiness skills (Pre-writing)

You may have a number of reasons for enhancing pre-writing skills in children. Pre-writing skills are essential for a learner to be able to develop the ability to hold and move a pencil or any writing instrument fluently and effectively and therefore produce legible writing. This will prevent frustration and resistance that can lead to poor self-esteem and academic performance. Some of the skills learners should develop are:

14.3.2.1 Firm pencil-grip:

Correctly hold a writing tool.

14.3.2.2 Hand and finger strength:

Exert force on the learners' hand and fingers to strengthen their muscles.

14.3.2.3 Hand-eye coordination:

The ability to process information received from the eyes to control, guide, and direct the hands in the accomplishment of a given task, such as handwriting or catching a ball.

14.3.2.4 Bilateral integration:

Using two hands together with one hand leading (e.g. opening a jar lid; with the other helping).

14.3.2.5 Upper body strength:

An ability to sit upright to maintain good sitting posture when writing.

14.3.2.6 Object manipulation:

The ability to skillfully manipulate tools, including the ability to hold and move pencils and scissors with control, controlled use of everyday tools such as a toothbrush, hairbrush, and cutlery.

14.3.2.7 Visual perception:

The brain's ability to interpret and make sense of visual images seen by the eyes.

14.3.2.8 Hand dominance:

The consistent use of one (usually the same and normally the right) hand for task performance, which allows refined skills to develop.

Some learners may need more practice than others. You should then be able to detect problems in a child's writing readiness and be able to offer remedial work.

14.4 Handwriting

In some of our Zambian schools, children enter school with no experience of handling a pencil. It is our primary concern that we help the child not to only handle the pencil correctly, adopt a good writing posture but also help them to express their ideas in the writing code beginning with the shaping of letters up to the stage when they can use words (by linking them) so as to arrive at meaning. Before the children can do this, they have to be taken through a series of steps that are called pre-writing activities.

Everybody requires handwriting. It plays a major role in human communication and it is one of the most effective methods of storing information. When people want to express their feelings and ideas, they put them on a piece of paper using a pen or pencil. It is universally believed that a handwritten letter has a personal urge because there are no two people with exactly the same handwriting.

Handwriting refers to a person's writing created with a writing tool such as a pen or pencil. It is essentially a visible form of a person's voice, including pitch and tone. Although each person has their own unique style of handwriting, the shapes of the letters of the alphabet are basically the same.

14.4.1 Shapes and Heights of Letters

Learners will only appreciate the value of writing if meaning is attached to the activity. As earlier stated, writing is not merely the graphic representation of symbols for words but a way of expressing one's innermost thoughts, feelings, anxieties and fears. At a lower level, learners need to be taught the correct posture before commencement of any handwriting activity. They will need to do hand/finger exercises coupled with the drawing of patterns, and then the shaping of letters. Each of the letters of the alphabet has got its own configuration, that is, its shape and height that distinguishes it from the other. The 'ascenders' are letters with ascending strokes such as the letter 'b' while 'descenders' have descending strokes, like the letter 'g'. There are also other letters such as 'x' and 'a' that do not have ascenders and descenders.

14.4.2 Points to remember about your hand writing:

- Capital letters should all be the same height
- Small letters should also be of the same height but smaller than capital letters
- Your writing should always rest on the line
- You should always leave an even amount of space between words.
- For important work, use a pen rather than a pencil.

14.4.3 Characteristics of handwriting include:

- specific shape of letters, e.g. their roundness or sharpness;
- regular or irregular spacing between letters;
- the slope of the letters;
- the rhythmic repetition of the elements;
- the pressure to the paper;
- the average size of letters; and the thickness of letters.

Although handwriting is relatively stable, a change in the handwriting can be a result of the nervousness or excessive speed by the writer. As already stated above, learners will need your added effort on practice and guidance during handwriting learning sessions so that they would be able to produce legible handwritten work.

14.4.4 Types of Handwriting

When we talk of types of handwriting, we are specifically referring to:

14.4.4.1 Print (manuscript or simply script) - letters stand disjointed in a sentence.

Modern manuscript starts with slanted manuscript letters with the intent to move easily to cursive writing.

14.4.4.2 Cursive - letters are joined together in words. The lower case manuscript letters are made with one continuous stroke and most have ‘tails’. The letters ‘n’ and ‘d’, for example, will have tails protruding in front in readiness to connecting to the next letter in cursive writing.

Note: The teaching of advanced writing will be discussed in module LLE 3103.

Activity

In your own free time, try to produce different types of handwriting

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For grades 1-3 in primary school however, there is need to start with simple manuscript then move to slanted manuscript. For grades 4-7 introduce cursive writing. Note that you will discuss other types of writing in LLE 3103 module.

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UNIT 15: PREPARATION FOR TEACHING PRACTICE

15.0Introduction

As a teacher, you are expected to go for Students' Teaching Practice after being equipped with the skills in teaching methodologies. As a result, you need to spend some time on this topic as you will be required to prepare your teaching professional documents in your respective schools.

Learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you should be able to:

- demonstrate an understanding of the meaning of the teaching professional documents.
- apply the knowledge and skills you have acquired to prepare the professional documents of a teacher.

15.1 Professional Documents

These are the documents which are used by the teacher in the preparation; implementation and evaluation of teaching/learning process. Teachers utilize different documents during school teaching experience. These include the official school curriculum, subject syllabus, scheme of work, lesson plans, and record of work.

15.2. Curriculum

- This is a national document where a syllabus for a specific subject is derived.
- Teachers must read and understand the curriculum at national level for them to link its content to what is in the syllabus for their specific subject areas.
- The curriculum is designed and developed by the Ministry of Education and is therefore a policy which schools are expected to implement.

15.3 Syllabus

This is a national document where specific subject content in form of objectives and topics are contained and these are usually in a suggested sequence based on logicity and levels of difficulty.

- In the Zambian situation this document is designed and developed by subject specialists commissioned by the Ministry of Education and is therefore an official document of the Ministry and teachers are expected to follow it in their teaching.
- When you graduate with a good degree and you join the permanent teaching fraternity, you could be one of the teachers invited to join the English subject panel to work on the syllabus, so it is important you understand the theories governing syllabus design which you studied under the third year course.

15.4 Schemes of work

- It is a detailed breakdown of the syllabus in terms of lessons, weeks, terms and year for the purpose of orderly and systematic teaching.
- This is a plan of topics is extracted from the English or Zambian language syllabus detailing what to be taught in a term and week.
- This plan is a product of the teacher unlike the first two documents of curriculum and syllabus.
- The importance of the scheme of work is that it guides the teacher and department on what to teach in which week. It also helps sections and departments to share components to teach and in case of absence of a teacher, the substitute teacher is guided on how to proceed.
- It also helps in establishing which components have been covered or not. The details of an ideal scheme of work are given in table 1 below.

15.5.5 Lesson Plan

- This is a plan of work to be covered or done in a particular lesson. It is extracted from the scheme of work.
- The lesson plan is important because it helps the teacher to be organised and run the lesson smoothly. It also helps the teacher to focus clearly on the content to be covered and the way it should be taught thus avoiding vagueness and irrelevance.

- A lesson plan helps to prepare and assemble teaching and learning resources. It also helps to contextualise in advance the teaching strategies and methods to be used in a particular lesson.
- Lesson plans also help to select and design appropriate assessment methods. In the event that one teacher has an emergency, another teacher can take over to teach the lesson using the same plan.

15.5.5.1 Advantages of a lesson plan include:

- It helps with sequencing and orderliness of lesson activities
- It helps with planning for lesson activities, techniques, methods to use in the lesson
- It helps with selection of lesson resources such as textbooks to be used
- It helps with planning and selection of teaching aids
- It helps enhance teacher confidence
- It helps with anticipation of potential difficulties that learners may encounter
- It helps with smooth teacher substitution in the event of the subject teacher being absent.

15.5.5.2 The details found in a lesson plan are as follows

15.5.5.3 Biographic data Section (Bio data section)

This section contains details of the school, teacher, subject, class, time, objectives (Rationale), references and materials to use in that lesson.

15.5.5.4 Introduction Section (Teacher Exposition)

This is where the topic of the lesson is presented and rule explanation and any other concept relating to the topic is explained. New concepts and phrases are explained under this section. The lesson may start with revision where the previous topic is related to the new topic or it may start straight with the new topic of the day.

15.5.5.5 Development section

This is a practice stage for learners having understood the topic from the introduction. Activities under this section may include group discussion, debate, oral exercise, quiz,

written exercise and homework. Anything that can help learners internalise the teaching point by practicing falls under this section. It involves development of the new teaching point in the minds of the learners.

15.5.5.6 The Conclusion

The Conclusion Stage of the lesson is where summing up of the content learnt in the lesson is done. Conclusion is divided into two parts namely: Cognitive closure and social closure. Under cognitive closure, the teacher asks learners what they have learnt from the lesson and learners respond. The teacher agrees if it's correct and if it's wrong, he corrects the pupils. It is recommended that this process is participatory with learner involvement. Teachers should avoid summarising the lesson on their own.

Under social closure, the teacher praises the pupils for their participation in the lesson and encourages learners who had difficulties during the lesson so that learners can go home motivated.

15.5.5.7 Evaluation section

Evaluation of the lesson is based on whether or not the learners got the exercises given in development stage correctly or not. Teachers usually say, the lesson was successfully taught as the learners got almost all the exercises given to them both orally and in writing correctly. Others would say, the lesson was taught but some learners did not understand the topic well as they got most of the questions wrong in their exercises, therefore, there may be need to reteach the lesson in future.

Note:

Lesson plans differ in style but the key components must always be there as these are crucial in every lesson. It is also important to note that other topics such as literature may demand a different format of a lesson but the stages may not be very different from the ones discussed in this section.

15.6. Records of work

This is a document where all the work done or covered by the teacher is recorded or entered every day. This document is more prominent at secondary level where teachers account for what they have taught. This document relates to the scheme of work. While the scheme of work contain work planned to be taught, record of work shows what has been taught and it includes comments on the success or failure of the lesson.

Records of Work is important as it helps with accountability and transparency as it shows work covered by the teacher in a particular subject within a given period under review (week or term). In the event that the teacher is transferred or changed, it is easy for another teacher to trace where to start continuing from by taking over that particular class. Records of work also help in the evaluation of schemes of work after a period of time. It is through records of work that uniformity in content coverage in case of variations and differences in implementation. A sample record of work is shown below:

15.7 Weekly forecast

A weekly forecast is a plan of work to be covered within a week. It is common at primary school level in Zambia. Its layout is similar to a scheme of work.

Summary

This unit discussed various documentations. A teacher should always possess these documents for effective teaching. The documents are not only vital to an individual teacher but also to the learners and your supervisors to ensure quality education delivery in schools.

Activity

- Explain why the professional documents are important to the teacher.
- Why the lesson plan is seems to be so crucial in the teaching profession?
- Explain the differences between the schemes of work and a record of work

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