Primary Teachers' Diploma

Literacy Module One

Literacy and Language Education Departments

Prepared by Universities and Colleges of Education in Collaboration with the Ministry of Education, Directorate of Teacher Education and Specialised Services, Republic of Zambia.

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Contents

Icons in this module

Icons in this module were developed to visually separate different sections within each chapter of the module and for the reader to easily understand the function of the different sections.

Below are the icons and their meanings.

Learning outcomes

This icon notes the learning outcomes for each chapter.

Key terms

This icon notes the chapter key terms and definitions.

Assessment of learning

This icon notes where there is an assessment of learning for the chapter.

Activity

This icon notes where there is an activity within the chapter.

Sample text

This icon notes where sample text has been included in the chapter.

Teacher educator guidance

Teacher educator guidance is noted by a dotted border.

Introduction

Dear teacher educators and student teachers,

Recent research across Zambia has revealed that while primary school completion rates are increasing (Ministry of General Education, 2017), literacy skills of children in lower primary school continue to be low. In fact, the Early Grade Reading Assessment administered in five provinces in 2018 revealed that one-in-five lower primary school children were unable to answer questions about stories they hear, and nearly half could not identify any letters (USAID, 2019). This means that young children are not learning the basic skills necessary for developing literacy.

One of the factor contributing to these issues is the lack of sufficient teaching and learning materials in institutions that offer pre-service teacher education programmes. Based on these findings, the Ministry of Education, with the support of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), chose to focus on improving the materials available in colleges and universities that train primary teachers. This module is one of six modules that will be developed over the next year — three focused on literacy development and three focused on language development.

These modules were written by teams consisting of lecturers from the University of Zambia, Chalimbana University, and colleges of education, with support from staff from the USAID Transforming Teacher Education activity. They are based on current knowledge about evidence-based approaches to early grade reading and primary grades teaching practices. The modules are freely available and may be shared electronically and reproduced as needed by institutions.

I hope that these modules will be used in all literacy and language education courses in pre-service primary teacher education diploma programmes nationwide and will support high-quality teaching and learning. As a teacher myself, I wish you the best in your careers in education.

Warm regards,

Mr. Joel Kamoko

Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Education

Module Learning Outcomes

Chapter 1

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.1.1 Meaning of communication and study skills

1.1.1.1 Define study and communication skills

1.1.2 Types of study skills

1.1.2.1 Differentiate types of study skills

By the end of the chapter, the students will:

1. define *study* and *communication skills*
2. read for meaning, summarise texts, and practise note-taking skills
3. explain the communication process in line with classroom interaction
4. apply effective and appropriate study and communication skills in academic work
5. compare and contrast the three main types of communication and show how they affect different types of learners in the classroom
6. evaluate their own use of study and communication skills, and develop a plan to improve these skills
7. discuss the importance of the four language skills in connection with literacy development.

Chapter 2

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.1.3 Academic writing

1.1.3.1 Employ the skills of academic writing

By the end of the chapter, the students will:

1. discuss the characteristics and principles of an academic paper
2. identify the implication of command words on academic essays

3. analyse a sample paragraph and identify its component parts
4. analyse sample paragraphs for application of cohesion and coherence strategies
5. state the difference between a paraphrase and a quotation and produce paraphrased text
6. write an academic essay using correct language and layout
7. demonstrate understanding of the concept of referencing in academic writing through writing of correctly referenced assignments.

Chapter 3

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.4.1 Meaning of literacy

1.4.1.1 Explain the terms *literacy*, *initial literacy*, and *functional literacy*

1.4.2 Importance of literacy

1.4.2.1 Explain the roles of literacy in social, cultural, political, and economic learning

1.4.4 Introduction to early grade reading

1.4.4.1 Identify reasons for early grade reading

1.5.2 The difference between teaching early grade literacy and language

1.5.2.1 Distinguish the teaching of early grade literacy and language

By the end of the chapter, the students will:

8. define the terms *literacy*, *initial literacy*, and *functional literacy*
9. discuss the importance of literacy
10. explain how cognitive development impacts literacy instruction
11. analyse how the brain learns to read and write using the Connectionist model
12. discuss the developmental stages of reading
13. justify the relationship between language and literacy development
14. explain the different focuses of literacy and language instruction
15. outline the key component skills of literacy instruction.

Chapter 4

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.4.3 Literacy situation in Zambia

1.4.3.1 Describe the literacy situation in Zambia before and after independence

1.4.3.2 Discuss factors affecting literacy instruction in Zambia

1.4.3.3 Identify challenges affecting the teaching of literacy

1.5.1 Overview of the Primary Literacy Programme (PLP)

1.5.1.1 Describe the background to teaching reading using Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) *(overview)*

1.5.1.3 State reasons for the shift from Primary Reading Programme (PRP) to PLP

1.5.1.4 Identify the goals of PLP *(local language policy)*

1.5.5 Lesson procedure and lesson format

1.5.5.1 Demonstrate steps for teaching a PLP lesson

1.6.1 Meaning of assessment

1.6.1.1 Explain the meaning of assessment

1.6.2 Importance of assessment

1.6.2.1 Discuss reasons for assessment

1.6.3 Types of assessment

1.6.3.1 Discuss different types of assessment

1.6.4 Conducting assessment

1.6.4.1 Explain the procedure for conducting assessment

1.17.1 Meaning of reading

1.17.1.1 Explain the meaning of reading

1.17.2 Importance of reading

1.17.1.1 State the values of reading in everyday life

By the end of the chapter, the students will:

1. outline the literacy situation in Zambia before and after independence
2. understand the factors and challenges that have affected literacy instruction in Zambia
3. identify the characteristics of explicit instruction
4. explain the parts of the gradual release model

5. compare and contrast whole language approaches and phonics-based approaches to teaching reading
6. develop and teach a PLP lesson using a balanced literacy method that integrates the gradual release model
7. justify the importance of a balanced literacy approach with evidence from the chapter
8. explain the meaning and importance of reading
9. explain what assessments are and the various types, the reasons for assessment, and the procedure for conducting assessment.

Chapter 5

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.3.1 Language policy in Zambia

1.3.1.1 Explain the language policy changes in Zambia before and after independence

1.3.2 Language and dialect

1.3.2.3 State the roles of first, second, and foreign languages

By the end of the chapter, the students will:

1. identify the stages of second language acquisition
2. develop a list of appropriate teaching activities for learners at each stage of second language acquisition
3. define the terms *first*, *second*, and *foreign language*
4. identify languages that are usually acquired as second languages in their locality and explain the reasons for their acquisition
5. discuss the roles of first, second, and foreign languages in literacy development
6. apply Cummins' Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) hypothesis to the comparison of English and one Zambian language
7. distinguish between language interference and language facilitation
8. discuss the importance of MTB-MLE and develop an activity using one of the MTB-MLE strategies.

Chapter 6

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.5.3 Approach (key skills) to teaching (PLP) early grade reading

1.5.3.1 Demonstrate knowledge of appropriate key skills of teaching early grade reading

1.5.5 Lesson procedure and lesson format

1.5.5.1 Demonstrate steps for teaching a PLP lesson

1.6.3 Types of assessment

1.6.3.1 Discuss different types of assessment

1.6.4 Conducting assessment

1.6.4.1 Explain the procedure for conducting assessment

1.7.1 Meaning of listening and speaking

1.7.1.1 Explain the meaning of listening and speaking

1.7.2 Importance of listening and speaking

1.7.2.1 Explain the importance of listening and speaking

1.7.2.2 Discuss the processes of speaking and listening

1.7.3 Barriers to effective listening and speaking

1.7.3.1 State the barriers to effective listening and speaking

1.14.1 Riddles, proverbs, puzzles, poems, tongue twisters, and songs

1.7.3.1 Interpret oral forms of literature

2.2.2 Peer teaching

2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

By the end of the chapter, the students will:

1. outline the components of oral language
2. define oral language
3. discuss the importance of oral language
4. explain the connection between oral language and literacy skills
5. explain how oral language is taught
6. identify appropriate MTB-MLE accommodations for oral language development
7. discuss how oral language is assessed
8. develop and deliver an oral language lesson and provide feedback to peers.

Chapter 7

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.4.3 Literacy situation in Zambia

1.4.3.2 Discuss factors affecting literacy instruction in Zambia

1.4.3.3 Identify challenges affecting the teaching of literacy

1.5.3 Approach (key skills) to teaching early grade reading

1.5.3.1 Demonstrate knowledge of appropriate key skills of teaching early grade reading

1.5.5 Lesson procedure and lesson format

1.5.5.1 Demonstrate steps for teaching a Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) lesson

1.6.3 Types of assessment

1.6.3.1 Discuss different types of assessment

1.6.4 Conducting assessments

1.6.4.1 Explain the procedure for conducting assessment

2.2.2 Peer teaching

2.2.2.2 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

By the end of the chapter, the students will:

9. define phonological and phonemic awareness
10. explain the importance of phonological awareness in relation to literacy teaching
11. develop phonological and phonemic awareness activities in Zambian languages
12. identify components of phonological awareness and their application to literacy teaching
13. discuss the challenges of teaching phonological and phonemic awareness in Zambian languages
14. discuss appropriate MTB-MLE strategies for phonological and phonemic awareness instruction
15. practise assessment strategies for phonological and phonemic awareness
16. develop and deliver a lesson on phonological awareness.

Chapter 8

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.17.3 Reading readiness

1.17.3.1 Explain the features of reading readiness

1.17.4 Pre-reading

1.17.4.1 Identify pre-reading skills

1.5.3 Approach (key skills) to teaching early grade reading

1.5.3.1 Demonstrate knowledge of appropriate key skills of teaching early grade reading

1.6.3 Types of assessment

1.6.3.1 Discuss different types of assessment

1.6.4 Conducting assessments

1.6.4.1 Explain the procedures for conducting assessments

2.2.2 Peer Teaching

2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

By the end of the chapter, the students will:

1. define *concepts of print (COP)/print awareness*
2. explain the relationship between COP/print awareness and school readiness
3. explain the importance of COP/print awareness
4. develop concepts of print teaching activities
5. identify appropriate MTB-MLE instructional strategies for teaching COP
6. discuss and practise administering a COP assessment
7. develop and deliver a lesson on COP.

Chapter 9

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.5.3 Approach (key skills) to teaching early grade reading

1.5.3.1 Demonstrate knowledge of appropriate key skills of teaching early grade reading

1.5.5 Lesson procedure and lesson format

1.5.5.1 Demonstrate steps for teaching a Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) lesson

1.5.6 Decodable stories and texts

1.5.6.1 Develop decodable stories and texts to support teaching of reading

1.6.3 Types of assessments

1.6.3.1 Discuss different types of assessments

1.6.4 Conducting assessments

1.6.4.1 Explain the procedure for conducting assessment

1.17.5 The alphabet

1.17.5.1 Sound out letters of the alphabet

1.17.5.2 Recognise and name the letters of the alphabet

2.2.2 Peer teaching

2.2.2.2 Demonstrate skills in literacy teaching through peer teaching lessons

By the end of the chapter, the students will:

1. explain the meaning of the terms *alphabetic principle* and *decoding*
2. discuss the importance of alphabetic principle and decoding skills for reading
3. compare and contrast systematic, explicit phonics with incidental, implicit phonics
4. develop activities in Zambian languages that follow the principles of phonics instruction
5. identify appropriate Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) accommodations for phonics instruction
6. explain how alphabetic principle and decoding skills are assessed
7. develop and deliver a phonics lesson.

CHAPTER 1

Study and Communication Skills

CHAPTER I

Study and Communication Skills

INTRODUCTION

It is important that student teachers develop study and communication skills necessary for learning the content and pedagogy associated with teaching. It is also important that they master the skills to consequently be able to deliver educational information to their learners effectively. In this chapter, student teachers will be introduced to the types of study and communication skills that are expected of teachers in training. They will also be expected to apply these skills to different areas of their teacher training course and, subsequently, with the young learners they will be handling.

1.1

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.1.1 Meaning of communication and study skills

1.1.1.1 Define study and communication skills

1.1.2 Types of study skills

1.1.2.1 Differentiate types of study skills

By the end of the chapter, the student teachers will:

1. define *study* and *communication skills*
2. read for meaning, summarize texts, and practise note taking skills
3. explain the communication process in line with classroom interaction
4. apply effective and appropriate study and communication skills in academic work
5. compare and contrast the three main types of communication and show how they affect different types of learners in the classroom
6. evaluate their own use of study and communication skills, and develop a plan to improve these skills
7. discuss the importance of the different reading skills in connection with literacy development.

1.2

Instructional materials

- Student module
- Checklist (see Activity 7: Part A and Part B)
- Texts to support intensive and extensive reading activities
- Journal assessment directions and rubric/guide (Appendix 1A)

1.3

Key terms

Study skills

A set of skills that help students process, understand, and retain new information and concepts

Communication skills

A set of skills that students need in order to listen, speak, read, and write properly in different contexts

Intensive reading

Reading with concentration for deeper understanding of written information

Extensive reading

Reading widely

Scanning

Reading rapidly to extract specific detail or information

Skimming

Reading rapidly to extract the gist or main idea

Medium

A means or mode through which information is packaged and transmitted

Feedback

A response or reply given to a message or information that was received

Verbal communication

A type of communication that has to do with the production of human speech sounds

Non-verbal communication

A type of communication that does not use or rely on the speech sounds. Instead, it accompanies verbal communication as it involves the use of body movements, facial expressions, eye contact, gestures, or signs

Visual communication

A type of communication that involves the use of drawings, maps, diagrams, colours, or graphic designs

Time management

The ability to use time effectively, efficiently, and productively

1.4

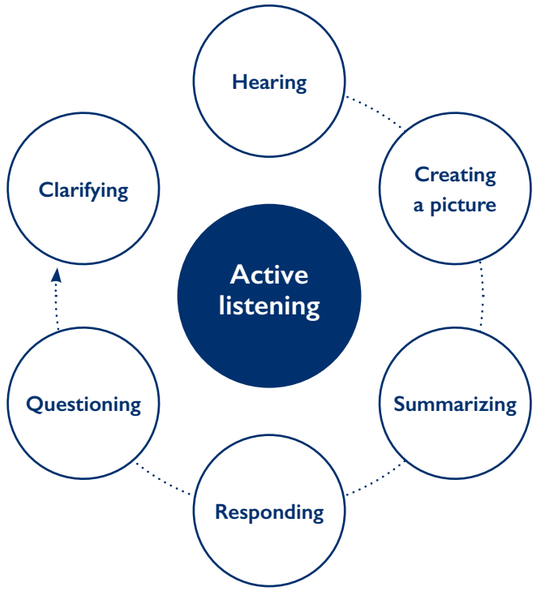
What are study skills?

Study skills are a set of skills that help students process, understand, and retain new information and concepts. As students train to become teachers, it is very important for them to use effective skills to study and learn the content of this course. Study skills include active listening during class sessions, note-taking during class sessions and during independent reading activities, memorisation of important information related to teaching literacy and language skills to learners, monitoring comprehension of what is read, managing time, and managing stress (Study Skills for Students, 2021). These skills will help student teachers gain the necessary knowledge for teaching literacy and language during their teaching practice and when they become teachers in the classroom. In the discussion which follows, study skills are explained along with the role they play in studying.

1.4.1

Active listening

Active listening is when someone is looking at the speaker and trying to understand everything that is being said. They will not be distracted by their mobile phone, other materials, or other students. The person will be hearing what is said and creating a picture in their mind to help them understand the ideas that are being presented or discussed. The person will be mentally summarising what is being discussed and responding when it is appropriate to do so. They will be thinking of questions if there is something that they do not understand and asking those questions when the time is right. This allows that person to clarify meanings and fully understand the concepts and ideas—as well as how those ideas fit with what they have already learnt. Listening differs from mere hearing, because the latter is an unconscious act of receiving sound signals in one's ear without consciously trying to understand those signals.



1.4.2

Note-taking

Note-taking is the process of extracting notes from a spoken source to make a record of information for future use. This is closely connected to the skill of active listening discussed above. It is a skill that student teachers must be able to develop to be able to succeed in their academic work. In the process, a person jots down points from a spoken or oral source such as a seminar or lecture. It is impossible to write down every word uttered in a lecture, so students must be selective and choose what to take down and what to leave out (Kadeghe, 2010). The student must rely on their ability to understand what is being presented. This calls for well-developed active listening skills. There are a number of factors that must be considered for a person to be able to take down notes efficiently. If one is attending a lecture, notes must be taken down quickly. Thus, abbreviation of words should be done where possible using standard and personal abbreviations. Furthermore, a student should determine what to note down, focusing on content words instead of non-content words. Well-organised notes using headings, subheadings, points, and examples will help the student be successful when studying the content of the notes later.

Activity 1

In small groups:

1. What are your experiences with note-taking skills?
2. Brainstorm with peers on the best ways to take down notes.

Teacher educator guidance

Afterwards, get each group to present their findings to the whole class. This can be followed by a plenary activity. Note that each group should be well-balanced in terms of gender.

Activity 2: Learning outcome 4

Use the notebook to record notes on each subsection in the module.

Teacher educator guidance

Introduce note-taking activity to student teachers and help student teachers understand how to organise and record notes in their notebook. The directions and rubric/guide for the note-taking journal is in Appendix 1A.

1.4.3

Note-making

Unlike note-taking, **note-making** is an activity that focuses on coming up with notes taken from a written source. It requires that student teachers organise and conceptualise their thoughts at the end of a given text. This way, they can jot down selected points relevant to their area of interest. The pedagogical implication of having knowledge of the two study skills is that they help student teachers to easily get to the answer posed by the question under discussion. Note-making enhances summary skills in that it focuses on extracting only relevant points from a written text. Furthermore, the skills allow researchers to effectively do their library-related work easily in order to extract the necessary information. Using the two study skills will enable student teachers to avoid the verbatim (word for word) act of writing down notes. Examples of what student teachers might consider notable could be avoiding digression (a sudden drift from the topic under discussion), repetition, and any unnecessary examples. To avoid this, students can take down information on the following during both note-taking and note-making: main concepts, references, evidence, topics, and subtopics.

Teacher educator guidance

Student teachers must be reminded that both note-taking and note-making require actively paying attention to and understanding what the speaker is talking about in both written and spoken texts. This means that a good student teacher is supposed to follow a lecture by taking note of the following:

Signposts (devices): These draw listeners' attention to vital points being raised in a speech. Examples of such are when the speaker says, 'take note of,' 'remember that,' etc.

Words of emphasis: This is done when the teacher educator repeats phrases, words, or even clauses and sentences so to re-emphasis a point.

Examples: In a nutshell, what this entails is that...

Tone-down of a speech: Remember that when the tone is either high or low there is communication taking place. Therefore, if a teacher educator decides to tone down or slow down when they are speaking, then they are trying to make a point.

Student teachers should look out for *sequence indicators*, which could be in the form of expressions and phrases that show the way cardinal points are arranged by order. Examples include, 'the next issue is...' and 'After which... then...'. Look out also for *argument markers*, such as those utterances that illustrate a point of argument.

Other strategies for note-taking and note-making during one's effective studying include abbreviations. Abbreviations are categorised into two types.

1. **Personal abbreviation –** abbreviations made by and understood by oneself.
2. **Conversional/standard abbreviations –** those that are found in the dictionary and can be understood worldwide. For example, UN, USAID, BBC, AIDS, HIV, and many other internationally understood abbreviations. Standard abbreviations exist in the form of clippings, contractions, acronyms, initialisms, and shortenings.

1.4.4

Memorisation

Memorisation is another study skill that some students use to help them recall certain information. This is also referred to as 'rote learning'. It refers to the act or process of committing information to memory rather than applying strategies that require a person to understand information (Merriam-Webster, 2021). Falling under this skill is the use of mnemonics, the use of acronyms, phrases, or sentences, to help one remember certain points of a topic such as formulae. Students mainly use it to help them do well on tests and examinations. Learning by rote is usually discouraged for students because it encourages laziness and laxity on the part of learners. Thus, student teachers should be encouraged to use active methods of retaining and recalling information as much as possible.

1.4.4

Effective and efficient reading

Effective and efficient reading is a skill that any student in a higher institution of learning should develop (Kadeghe, 2010). Reading is a skill that involves the extraction of meaning from print. A reader does not simply match letters or words with their spoken equivalent but does more than that by engaging in a number of steps. One of the things the reader must do is find meaning within the printed word. Effective reading is not a passive activity—student teachers must engage with the written word as though it were something that needed their response (Fitzmaurice & O'Farrell, 2021.). Kadeghe (2010) is of the view that for one to be an effective reader, they should be focused and have a clear mind. This means being clear about their aims and objectives regarding their reading goals. There are a number of skills that go with effective reading. Some of them include the ability to select the right reading resource efficiently, good reading speed, scanning, skimming, questioning, anticipating and making predictions, summarising, and making notes. In short, effective reading should be focused, purposeful, and engaging for the reader. Like any other learning experience, readers must be actively involved if they are to learn anything. Santa

et al. (2004) indicated that neural connections are made when learners act on incoming information and do something with it. What does this entail for the student teacher?

Intensive reading

Intensive reading can be defined as reading a short text deeply and with concentration and is one of the types of reading used by students in institutions of higher learning. This is the type of reading that aligns well with one of the major purposes of a student in an academic setting, that of trying to understand what one reads and possibly make notes from it. (Kandeghe, 2010). Thus, in this kind of reading, a student does not simply read for the sake of reading but does so with deep focus.

Extensive reading

Other than skimming, scanning, note-taking, and note-making, **extensive reading** is another study skill that goes hand in hand with intensive reading. As the name suggests, 'extensive' refers to 'wide' whereas 'reading' entails interpreting well-organised graphics of ideas from a surface of some kind. It can therefore be said that extensive reading is a study skill that involves reading a wide range of books, magazines, newspapers, novels, and other supplementary materials to gain information (Bruder et al., 2004). It is also referred to as reading for enjoyment or pleasure as it requires a general comprehension of a text. Here, it is ideal to mention that the activity of extensive reading might be done outside the classroom. Usually, student teachers choose what they want to read about. Therefore, this activity is also called *supplementary reading*. There are a number of academic advantages of extensive reading. It improves creative writing and enhances reading fluency; it nourishes one's word bank or vocabulary, and it develops reading comprehension skills and improves linguistic skills.

Activity 3: Learning outcome 2

1. Read the passage *Alcohol and its Impact* intensively.
2. Make notes on what you have read using the chart beneath the passage.
3. Volunteers will share their notes with the class.
4. Summarise the main points of the passage by answering the questions on the chart.

Teacher educator guidance

This activity demonstrates the purpose of reading intensively, taking notes, and then using notes to summarise what is most important to remember when reading.

SAMPLE TEXT

Alcohol and its Impact

Alcohol is a pure, colourless liquid found in beer, wine and spirits like whisky and brandy. When we drink it, it has the special effect of making us feel more sociable and content with life. If we have any problems, it can make us forget them or make us see them as less important. For this reason, many people feel a great need to drink alcohol in order to feel truly comfortable and at ease with themselves and with other people. Unfortunately, when alcohol is taken in considerable quantity it makes us drunk. We may then become quarrelsome or act irresponsibly. For this and other reasons, it is important to control our use of alcohol. To do that, it will help to understand exactly what happens when we have a drink.

When we drink a beer or a whisky, the alcohol reaches the stomach and intestines. Unlike food, it does not need any digestion but passes almost immediately into the bloodstream. The alcohol is then carried in the blood to all parts of the body including the brain. Here, it affects the upper part called the cerebrum which acts as a control for the lower brain. This why there is a resultant feeling of social ease and why people under the influence of alcohol do not always talk or behave in a sensible way or why they may even stagger when they walk. Because alcohol is taken directly into the bloodstream, its effects on the brain are felt quickly. One beer, which will introduce about one drop of alcohol for every 1000 drops of blood, is enough to affect the brain. By the time there are four drops of alcohol for every 1000 drops of blood, a person could be drunk. If we continue to drink heavily, the alcohol will eventually affect the part of the brain which controls breathing and the beatings of the heart. These could stop.

Unfortunately, although alcohol enters the bloodstream very rapidly, it is only removed at a slow rate. A very small amount of alcohol is removed from the body by the lungs, which breathe it out. Most, however, is changed into different substances, which the kidneys can then get rid of in urine. The liver slowly changes the alcohol to acetic acid (vinegar) and sugar, which provides units of energy called calories. This process takes place when the oxygen in the blood combines with units of energy from food. The beer drinker often has a fat stomach because of the sugar content in the beer.

Although alcohol, like food, provides us with calories, it cannot be considered the same as food. This is because food contains, among other things, substances called vitamins, which are very important for our nerves and brain. Without the right vitamins, nerves will fail to send messages to and from the brain.

SAMPLE TEXT *CONTINUED*

Alcohol and its Impact

Because alcohol lessens control of the brain, it is often wrongly thought of as food. Because it makes the liver work too hard and because it may damage part of the brain, alcohol can have serious consequences. The heavy drinker can become weak and unhealthy. They may get skin diseases. Their liver may be damaged. They may become irresponsible to themselves, their family, and society in general.

(Adapted from *MK, Junior Secondary English course for Zambia grade 9*)

Main idea of passage:

What is alcohol?	Where can you buy alcohol?
Why do people drink alcohol?	What does alcohol do in the body?
What are the parts of the body alcohol affects most?	How does the body deal with alcohol?
Some good effects of alcohol	Some bad effects of alcohol

Activity 4

What are the differences between intensive and extensive reading?

Did you employ both methods of reading during the activity?

Which method of reading did you find most helpful?

How can you transfer the skills required for using both reading methods to your day-to-day studies?

Teacher educator guidance

Have student teachers work in pairs to complete the activity. One suggestion is to use books on personal hygiene and substance abuse.

1.4.5

Skimming and scanning

Skimming and scanning are study skills that have similar qualities as extensive and intensive reading. However, there are some peculiar differences. Skimming is said to be the act of taking a quick read through a text so as to get the general gist. It is what readers do when they peruse through a newspaper, magazine, or any other text just to see or have a general overview, or indeed, a picture of what that particular document is all about. This study skill has an academic implication in the study, learning, and teaching of literacy and language. as it equips student teachers with strategies for how to look for general information or ideas pertaining to the topic under discussion. KaCE (2018) cites Byrne (1988) who stated that skimming is a very important study skill as it enables student teachers to judge whether a particular material will provide desired information. For example, skimming includes reading through the summary of a novel, the glossary, or table of contents of a book.

Scanning, on the other hand, is the ability to intensively examine a particular text as quickly as possible in order to get specific information or an idea of what one is looking for. It could be looking for a specific word, phrase, and clause in a dictionary or an encyclopaedia. Most often, readers may quickly run their eyes through a book or chapter so as to get specific answers to the many questions that they may have.

Example passage: *Alcohol and its Impact*

Skimming

The following points may be picked from the passage when **skimming**:

- *the main idea of the passage*
- *the main idea from each paragraph*

Scanning

The following information may be sought out when **scanning**:

- *the title of the passage*
- *the other name for vinegar*
- *which organ of the body turns alcohol to vinegar?*

1.4.7

Summarising

Student teachers are exposed to vast amounts of information in the lectures, in their intensive and extensive reading, and their research. All that information cannot be captured in memory; neither can it be recorded on paper in writing as notes. In fact, it is not possible to do so. That being the case, a lot of information has to be left out and only important key points need to be captured. This is what **summarising** entails. Summarising is basically taking a lot of information and creating a condensed version that covers the main points. This means that summaries leave out a lot of details and examples. If used correctly, summarising will help the student teacher save time (which is also important to a student teacher's academic work) and increase understanding of information. Therefore, summarising is a skill that student teachers cannot afford to do without. It is required in note-taking and note-making exercises.

Activity 5

1. Independently, create a mind map to show the different aspects involved in summarising.
2. Share your mind map with a partner.
3. Lecturer will ask volunteers to share with the whole class.

Teacher educator guidance

Make sure to demonstrate to student teachers how to draw a mind map and what your expectations are for the mind map. After student teachers share, point out what you noticed and any areas you see that could be improved. Mind maps could be displayed in the classroom if desired.

1.4.7

Time management

Time management means being able to use time effectively and efficiently, to be productive, and it is one of the keys to study skills. Many good student teachers waste time joining group studies even when they, at the end of the activity, do not achieve anything. It is important that student teachers plan very well prior to their studying. There are many strategies that one can use when studying. Student teachers can choose to organise their study by timetabling it, say, 1–2 hours' time. An efficient student will schedule regular study sessions in their timetable each day. A good study session lasts approximately 90 minutes, as that is how long the brain can concentrate on a subject before requiring a break.

When studying for longer than 90 minutes at a time, efficient students will schedule time to break off from their studies and take a stroll with the intent to refresh the mind. They can also choose a conducive place free from environmental disturbances in which to study. The brain has a certain time when it understands ('prime time', when the brain is at its best). Each person's most efficient study time is unique to them. Student teachers should pay attention to the time of day when they are best able to focus on their studies and learn new concepts—and make use of this period for studying.

Teacher educator guidance

Student teachers often misuse group studies, so let them understand the purpose of the strategy. For example, they can group themselves with those who have goal-oriented principles. They can use group work to answer past paper questions. Groups should not be large as this creates confusion. Student teachers can as well use the 4Rs, which are *read*, *research*, *revise*, and *relax*.

1.4.8

Stress management

The first few days, weeks, or even months in a college can be challenging for student teachers because of the different demands that are placed on them. Suddenly, they find that they must attend lectures and take down their own notes, attend and give tutorial presentations, go to the library to research, write assignments in different course areas, and meet various deadlines. Depending on one's temperament, these pressures can be threatening to some students. Coupled with the pressures and demands of life, student teachers can find themselves feeling quite stressed. The Mental Health Foundation (2021) defines stress as 'the feeling of being overwhelmed or unable to cope with mental or emotional pressure'. **Stress management** requires that an individual takes control not only

of situations they can handle, but also those situations that are difficult or impossible for them. It means handling or managing one's time and schedules and doing what needs to be done at the right time. Student teachers must learn to understand the sources of their stress and manage their timetable to provide enough lead time for assignments and activities, so that they limit the amount of pressure and stress they feel to complete their schoolwork. Maintaining healthy eating and exercise habits helps reduce stress. If necessary, student teachers may need to reach out to a friend or mentor and talk about their concerns.

Activity 6: Learning outcome 1

1. Reflect on the study skills discussed in the chapter.
2. Why is it important for you to master and use these skills?
3. In pairs, write your own definition for each study skill discussed in the chapter.

Teacher educator guidance

Make sure student teachers have a clear understanding of the importance of mastering study skills.

Activity 7: Learning outcome 6

1. Copy the checklist below into your journal and put a tick in the appropriate column as it applies to you.
2. Then answer the following questions by restating the question and writing in complete sentences.
   - Which skills am I most familiar with and use often?
   - Which skills do I need to work on in order to be successful in this course?

Teacher educator guidance

Consider printing the checklist for student teachers to paste into their journals, if easier. You can have volunteers share with each other or with the whole class.

Study Skill	I know this skill and use it often	I know this skill but do not use it often	I have heard of this skill before but never used it	This is a new skill for me
Active listening				
Note-making				
Note-taking				
Memorising				
Effective reading				
Intensive reading				
Extensive reading				
Skimming				
Scanning				
Summarising				
Time management				
Stress management				

1.5

What is communication?

Activity 8

How does communication affect our lives?

Teacher educator guidance

Have student teachers brainstorm how communication affects their lives. Prompt student teachers as necessary to stimulate discussion. How is it useful? What happens when we are unable to communicate? What makes communication easy or challenging?

Communication is a process involving the exchange or transfer of ideas, messages or information from a source or sender to a receiver via a medium. It is said to be a process because it is not a one-off activity but involves a number of steps. Communication is said to have no beginning or end (Grover, 2005). The word *communication* is believed to have been derived from a Latin word *communis* which means *common* (Fatimayin, 2018). The implication here is that there should be a common understanding between the people involved in communication.

Though communication is said to have no beginning or end, there are identifiable stages or components of the communication process. What is known or common knowledge however is that there has to be a source of a message and a receiver of that message. The source, also known as a sender, comes up with the message which has to be shared with the receiver(s). Additionally, communication would not be there if there was no message or information to be shared. This information or message can be in the form of the spoken or written word or even another kind of signal utilising a certain medium. Grover (2005) stated that previously communication was viewed as a linear process. Nowadays, it has become common to look at communication as a circular process involving the generation and interpretation of messages.

Consider Figure 1.1 below.

A sender generates a message that is expressed in a given code or medium, such as speech sounds, written words, or sign language, and sends it to a receiver who interprets the message. The receiver generates an appropriate response or reply that is known as feedback. The process thus repeats itself. Some models of communication include two types of media: transmitting and reception media. Fatimayin (2018) as cited in Awoniyi (1982) identified five elements of the communication process: sender (source), message, medium of transmission, medium of receipt, and receiver.

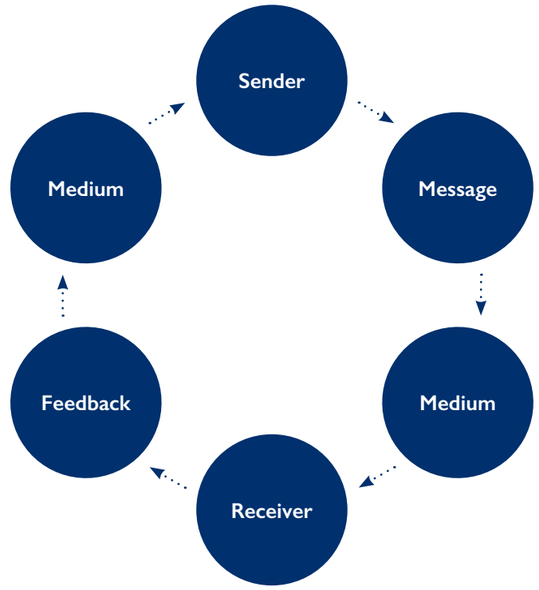


Figure 1.1 A circular model of the communication process

Activity 9

1. Reflect on the explanation of communication and write a definition of communication in your own words.
2. Compare your definition with a peer.
3. Lecturer will ask volunteers to share their definitions.

People engage in communication for various reasons that include trying to solicit support, to express emotions, to seek information, to inform or to educate, to state ideas, to advise, to seek counsel, and to get things done. It should be noted that communication is a characteristic feature of human interaction. Grover (2005) explained that it is an integral part of all areas of human society. In a classroom situation, different types of interaction or communication take place: between the teacher and the learners and among the learners themselves.

Activity 10

In the classroom, what types of communication takes place?

- Who is the source?
- What is the message?
- Who is the receiver?
- What is the medium?

Teacher educator guidance

In pairs, let student teachers take time to think of the interaction that happens in the classroom. They can use their interaction to explain who the source is, what the message is, who the receiver is, and what the medium is.

There are three main types of human communication, namely: *verbal*, *non-verbal*, and *visual* communication.

- **Verbal communication** is that type of communication that has to do with the production of human speech sounds. It can be both oral and written communication. Oral communication involves the use of spoken words and usually takes the form of face-to-face interaction between the sender and receiver. Written communication on the other hand involves the use of symbols or signs that represent the spoken sounds of human speech. It can either be through print or electronic media and does not involve face-to-face interactions between persons.
- **Non-verbal communication** on the other hand does not use or rely on the speech sounds. Instead, it accompanies verbal communication as it involves the use of body movements, facial expressions, eye contact, gestures, or signs. Non-verbal communication plays an important role in human communication, as the understanding of certain verbal communication depends on the interpretation of non-verbal signals or cues on the part of both the sender and the receiver.
- **Visual communication** involves the use of drawings, maps, diagrams, colours, or graphic designs. They help a speaker explain or illustrate issues clearly. The drawings also help capture the attention of the listeners and increase their understanding of the issues presented to them.

Activity 11: Learning outcome 5

Compare/contrast: How does a teacher in the primary school classroom use each of the three main types of communication to interact with learners?

Teacher educator guidance

Arrange student teachers in small groups, and have them complete a graphic organiser to record their ideas.

Activity 12: Learning outcome 3

Read the case study about teacher Christina. Then, complete the chart as it relates to the stage/step of communication.

CASE STUDY

Teacher Christina at the local primary school decides to reteach the functions of the heart to her class. When the topic was presented to the class the first time, a number of learners were confused and thus they did not do well in the post-lesson assessment. Teacher Christina decides to use a chart showing internal parts of the body this time. The teacher begins the lesson by telling the learners that they are going to revise the lesson on the functions of the heart. She reads to them a story of a young boy somewhere who waited for some time to have a heart transplant. One girl in the class who performed quite well on the post-lesson assessment seems to be fidgeting a lot and not paying attention, even when the teacher asks the learners to pay attention. Teacher Christina stops speaking and stares at the girl. The girl quickly notices the frown on her teacher's face. The girl suddenly keeps quiet and becomes attentive. The teacher continues with the lesson, using different teaching strategies and gestures. Occasionally the teacher expresses satisfaction at correct responses by nodding.

Stage/step of communication	Primary school classroom equivalent
Source	
Message	
Medium	
Receiver	
Feedback	

Teacher educator guidance

After student teachers read and complete the chart, make sure to review their responses to make sure they were completed appropriately.

1.5.1

Effective communication

For teachers to appreciate the role of communication in their work, they need to know the desired results can only be achieved with **effective communication**. In this regard, effective communication should be viewed as the transmission of information from the sender to the receiver without misunderstanding the intention of the source. Effective communication is achieved when the message conveyed by the sender is understood by the receiver in the same way it is intended.

It is important that student teachers see how cardinal effective communication is for them to gain much from their studies. This will require them to understand the various factors that come into play for this to be achieved. There is a need to consider issues of brevity, clarity, and competence of the receiver, and many others they will look at in their study.

Activity 13

What are the different aspects that make verbal, non-verbal, and visual communication effective?

Teacher educator guidance

Give student teachers time to reflect on the question and then engage in classroom discussion around the topic.

1.5.2

Barriers to effective communication

Barriers to effective communication are factors that impede or prevent communication altogether. There are several barriers to communication, such us linguistic, psychological, emotional, physical, cultural, environmental, and others. These barriers to effective communication will often lead to the misunderstanding and distortion of information, thereby leading to a failure of communication. While all the barriers to communication cannot be discussed exhaustively, below are several common barriers.

Linguistic barriers

Linguistic barriers *refer to issues that centre on the language or language use, that may pose a threat to effective communication. Examples here include language differences, interpretation, complexity, and phonological differences.*

Physiological barriers

Physiological barriers *relate to how the human body affects how one communicates with others. Here the human mind (memory, attention, and perception) is considered. These barriers may result from an individual's personal discomfort or caused by ill health, poor eye sight, hearing difficulties, or other disabilities.*

Emotional barriers

Emotional barriers *are a result of mental limitations in the individual. It is considered as one of the main barriers in the intrapersonal interactions. When people are under stress or in a state where they are not able to see things as clearly as they would normally, there is bound to be a communication barrier.*

Physical barriers

Physical barriers *are a result of physical or any external element from the environment that may influence the smooth flow of communication. Noise, a non-conducive environment, time, and distance, may have an effect on how one communicates with others.*

Activity 14: Learning outcome 5

How might each barrier happen in your college classroom, and how do you think lecturers can address these challenges?

How might each barrier happen in a primary classroom, and how do you think teachers can address these challenges?

Teacher educator guidance

Divide student teachers into two groups, one for each question. Then pair student teachers within those groups to reflect and discuss their responses. After student teachers finish, discuss the questions as a group.

Extension Activity: If resources are available, ask student teachers to research other barriers to effective communication to share with the class.

1.5.3

Four language skills of communication

For the teachers and students to communicate effectively in their work, they need to be able to use the **four language skills of communication**: *listening*, *speaking*, *reading*, and *writing*. These skills should be used in an active manner to enable the student teacher to get the full meaning of the content. This will enable them to interact with one another and their own learners. The four language skills are sometimes categorised into two groups, namely *expressive skills*, which involve speaking and writing, and *receptive skills*, which include listening and reading. These skills are mostly sharpened over time because of learning and constant practice.

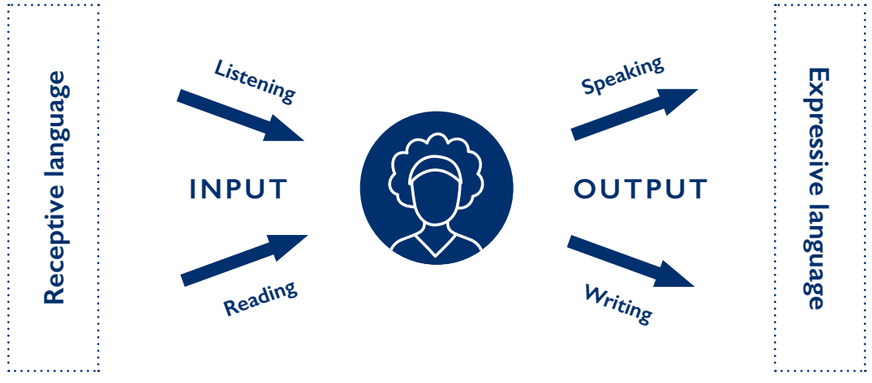


Figure 1.2 The four language skills of communication

Activity 15: Learning outcome 7

What are the four main language skills, and why do teachers need to use all four forms in literacy instruction?

Teacher educator guidance

Make sure to emphasise the importance of each language skill in the classroom discussion.

1.6

Why are study and communication skills important?

Study and communication skills are important because they increase a student teacher's chances to do well in their academic work. Success in academic work will enable student teachers to acquire the knowledge and competencies that will make them become effective and efficient primary school teachers. They will also be able to use the knowledge and skills acquired to teach literacy effectively.

1.7

Chapter summary

It is important for student teachers to develop strong study skills such as active listening, note-taking, memorisation, reading comprehension, skimming and scanning, summarising, time management, and stress management. These skills contribute to academic success. It is also important for student teachers to develop effective communication skills, so that they can easily communicate with the learners in their classes as well as their colleagues and superiors. Verbal, non-verbal, and visual communication support high quality interactions between teachers and learners. Student teachers need to develop strong study and communication skills in order to fully participate in their own education, and ultimately, become efficient teachers of literacy and language.

1.8

Assessment of learning

Study skills checklist, note-taking, and research activities: Learning outcomes 2, 4, and 6

The final assessment includes four component assignments. A brief description of each assignment follows. Directions for how each assignment is to be graded is in Appendix 1A.

Study skills checklist and reflection: You will record whether you are using any, and if not all, of the specific skills on the checklist each week. Then you will write a weekly reflection on your study skills habits.

Note-taking and note-making journal: You will take notes for each of the literacy modules. These should be written neatly and arranged by topic.

Intensive reading and research journal: In chapter 2, you will begin taking notes for an academic paper you will be writing. We will begin setting up this journal in preparation of this activity. The guide/rubric for this is in Appendix 2A.

Tutorial presentations: After you complete your academic paper, you will present your paper to the class which is to reflect the study skills you have developed. (By virtue of undertaking these tasks/activities, you will have used a number of skills discussed in this chapter, such as *organising information*, *time management*, *extensive reading*, *intensive reading*, *skimming*, *scanning*, *summary skills*, and *the four language skills*: *speaking*, *listening*, *reading*, and *writing*.) The rubric/guide for this is in Appendix 2B.

Teacher educator guidance

More clarification: Ask student teachers to prepare three notebooks for this activity. One notebook should be used as a journal where each student teacher will record their experiences weekly, regarding their use of specific study skills listed. The journal should cover a period of one term and must be divided into two parts: part A where they record by ticking against each skill, and part B where they make general comments regarding their weekly progress. Let student teachers identify the skills they use each week and tick against each skill that they have used. (This type of grid can be made on a single page). Let student teachers submit their notebooks in turns for inspection; each week have a different set of students turn in their journal—say, a quarter of the class turns it in after week 1, the second a quarter of the class after week 2, the third quarter of the class on week 3, and the fourth quarter after week 4. The rotation should continue until the end of the term. Note that the project activity may/can be used for summative assessment and may last the whole term. (At the end of the term, collect the student teachers' project books to award marks for Continuous Assessment (CA) under the project.)

Checklist: part A (copy this into a notebook):

Skill/Week	Wk. 1	Wk. 2	Wk. 3	Wk. 4	Wk. 5	Wk. 6	Wk. 7	Wk. 8	Wk. 9	Wk. 10	Wk. 11	Wk. 12	Wk. 13
Active listening													
Note-making													
Note-taking													
Memorising													
Effective reading													
Intensive reading													
Extensive reading													
Skimming													
Scanning													
Summarising													
Time management													
Stress management													

Checklist: part B

Comments on monthly progress: Reflect on the types of study skills used throughout the term and develop a plan for improving these skills.

Week	Comment(s)
Week 1	
Week 2	
Week 3	
Week 4	
Week 5	
Week 6	
Week 7	
Week 8	
Week 9	
Week 10	
Week 11	
Week 12	
Week 13	

1.9

Supplemental readings and resources

'Study Skills,' *Skills You Need*. https://www.skillsyouneed.com/learn/study-skills.html, June 5, 2021.

Websites

https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/summarizing

https://www.mindtools.com/pages/article/paraphrasing-summarizing.htm

https://www.researchgate.net/publication/274310952_Language_and_Language_Skills#:~:text=From%20the%202017%20edition%2C%20the,speaking%2C%20and%20reading%2Dwriting

https://www.academia.edu/37871134/COMMUNICATION_SKILLS_1ST_YR_2_pdf

Intra-Personal Barriers to Effective Communication | Ifioque.com

https://socialmettle.com/cultural-barriers-to-effective-communication

CHAPTER 2

Academic Writing and Research Skills

CHAPTER 2

Academic Writing and Research Skills

INTRODUCTION

Academic writing and research are some of the skills that student teachers will be expected to master and use throughout their training. They will be writing research papers and developing professional documents for lesson plans, reports for school administrators, and research papers. It is therefore important that student teachers conceptualise, understand, and develop the skills needed for these activities. This chapter discusses the important aspects of **academic writing and research skills** as they pertain to the teacher training programme in Zambia.

2.1

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.1.3 Academic writing

1.1.3.1 Employ the skills of academic writing

At the end of this chapter, student teachers will be able to:

1. discuss the characteristics and principles of an academic paper
2. identify the implication of command words on academic essays
3. analyse a sample paragraph and identify its component parts
4. analyse sample paragraphs for application of cohesion and coherence strategies
5. state the difference between a paraphrase and a quotation and produce paraphrased text
6. write an academic essay using correct language and layout
7. demonstrate understanding of the concept of referencing in academic writing through writing of correctly referenced assignments.

2.2

Instructional materials

- Student module
- Sample books with tables of contents, chapters, headings, glossaries, indices, appendices, in-text citations, and reference lists
- Rubric/guide for an academic paper (Appendix 2A)
- Rubric/guide for a tutorial presentation (Appendix 2B)

2.3

Key terms

Formal

Serious; official; done according to prescribed rules or practice/done according to convention/methodical (in an organised manner)

Slang

Informal or non-standard words or expressions usually used by a particular group of people

Colloquialism

An informal expression suitable for speech and not formal writing (e.g. *well*, *you know*, *ok*, *sort of*, etc.)

Shortenings (also known as contractions)

Short forms of words: can't (cannot), don't (do not), needn't (need not)

APA

American Psychological Association referencing style

Citation

A mode of referencing a paraphrase or direct quotation by providing the author and publication year, which can be easily located in the reference list

Paraphrase

An expression of someone's spoken or written ideas that uses the writer's own words—used especially to summarize text and make what was said or written easier to understand

Plagiarism

Copying another person's ideas, words, or work while pretending that they are one's own; This is the most serious academic crime that a student can commit.

Research

Field of study in which scholars investigate challenging issues facing society in order to find solutions, and in which they identify sources of information to organise and use accurately

2.4

Academic writing

Academic writing is a systematic, professional, and formal way of presenting scholarly work in institutions of higher learning. The work presented in this manner includes research papers, student assignments, journals, theses, and other academic-related articles and books. Therefore, academic writing ought to have a formal tone and an appropriate diction (style), as this is meant to reduce complicated vocabulary. If one is to develop high-quality academic writing, they should make it clear, concise, evidence-based, and well-structured.

This chapter presents practical skills on academic writing. During the course of their studies, student teachers will be involved in writing different types of scholarly assignments. In order for students to be effective and successful in their academic work, they need to have well-developed academic writing skills.

2.4.1

Characteristics and principles of academic writing

Academic writing follows certain standard principles that set it apart from less formal pieces of writing. It is generally *formal* and *objective* as well as technical (Sydney University, 2021). When writing formal documents, students need to be *honest*, *realistic*, and *clear*, as well as present information that is *relevant*. **Honesty** requires that a writer states only what can be supported with factual evidence and acknowledge the sources of one's information or evidence. This helps to avoid plagiarism. Further guidance on how to use and acknowledge sources of information is given in the subsections on paraphrasing and plagiarism. Being **realistic** requires a writer to state only that which must be stated, assuming that the readers already have basic knowledge of the world and do not require the writer to explain trivial issues. An academic piece of writing also needs to present material in a **clear** and direct manner. This involves being clear about the aims and objectives of the piece of writing. **Relevance** relates to the presentation of information or ideas that help writers to achieve their objectives and help readers understand the message. Anything that cannot be linked to the argument or to its impact on the topic being presented should not be included.

Activity 1: Learning outcome 1

In small groups, discuss the characteristics and principles of academic writing and reflect on how this will affect your own work.

2.4.2

Types of academic papers

The four main types of academic writing are *descriptive*, *analytical*, *persuasive*, and *critical*. Each of these has unique language features and purposes (Sydney University, 2021). However, in most of the academic writing tasks, a scholar has to deal with more than one of the above types of academic writing. Mongu College of Education (MoCE) (2014) identified three other types of academic writing: *a claim*, *an argument*, and *a critical analysis*. MoCE asserted that a claim presents an assertion thought to be true based on factual evidence. Argumentative text presents and discusses a set of related claims, typically focused on a thesis or hypothesis. In critical analysis essays, the focus is usually on how well claims or arguments are presented or how conclusively ideas are linked (MoCE, 2014). It should be noted, however, that the type of academic writing one develops will be dictated by the discipline, the subject/topic, and the objectives of the essay. In many academic writing tasks, a writer uses more than one type of writing.

2.4.3

Key words representing certain types of academic tasks

The way academic essay tasks are phrased often dictate the type of academic writing a student ought to develop. The **key words** in essay questions are *command words* that require a certain kind of approach to be taken. These guide a writer as to the exact kind of essay that is required. A writer must think about what the question means and what it is asking the writer to do.

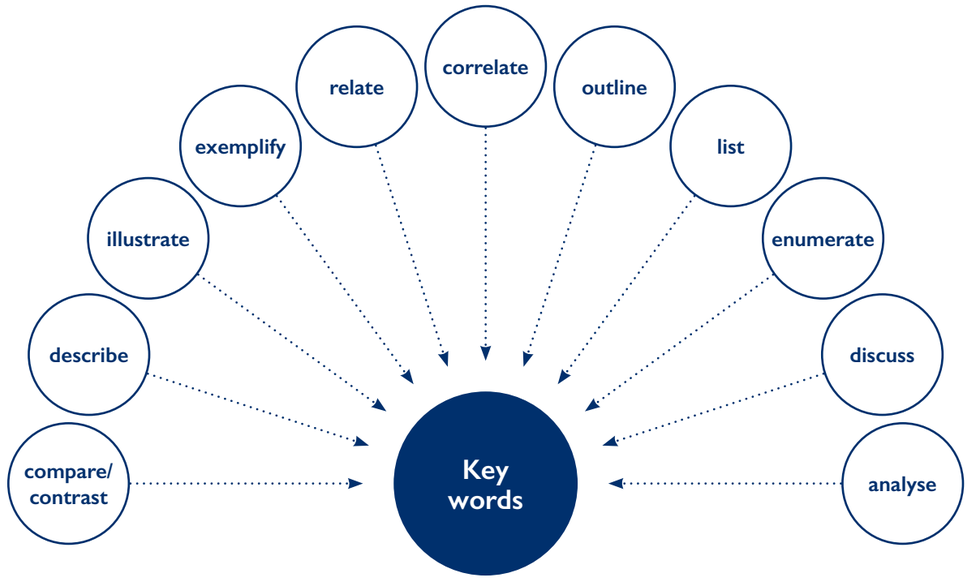


Figure 2.1 Examples of key words in academic writing

An example of an essay question using one of these is as follows: **Discuss** the causes and effects of learner truancy in the schools found in your locality.

Such a question requires a writer to approach the topic from several angles. For example, the student must look at *different facets of learner truancy* in one's locality and reach a conclusion at the end of the writing task.

Activity 2: Learning outcome 2

What are the implications of different command words in academic essays?

Teacher educator guidance

Discuss different command words with the student teachers. You may wish to assign groups of student teachers to look at specific command words and to state their meaning and implication in academic essays. This can be followed by a whole class discussion.

2.4.4

Paraphrasing

As students will be engaged in a considerable amount of academic writing during their teacher training programme, it is important that their work be credible. They will, therefore, need to support their work by providing evidence from, and citing, works from various written academic sources. **Paraphrasing** skills will play a major role in ensuring that the work produced is ethical. The Iowa State University's (2019) library website defines *paraphrasing* as '…incorporating someone else's ideas into your own work, using your own analysis and voice'. Students should be aware that paraphrasing might serve to build on another's point of view, dispute it, or support the writer's own view. Students should understand the need to consider the author's perspective and intended message. This will demand one to remain true to the source, represent the author's ideas and views correctly, and provide a citation for the source. Emphasis should also be made that the use of paraphrases is meant to be shorter in length than the original text. Note that direct quotes should be used sparingly and reserved for statements that would lose their impact if stated another way. Student teachers should predominantly use paraphrasing in their writing.

SAMPLE TEXT

Corruption

Corruption—defined as 'the abuse of public power for personal ends'—has always existed. During recent decades, however, it has grown both in terms of geographic extent and intensity. Needless to say, corruption and its effects can be seen from a multitude of viewpoints. Corruption should be approached from the point of view of the effects it has on development. It is intrinsically linked to underdevelopment.

(Adapted from an English Language Paper [Examinations Council of Zambia, 2013])

A poor direct quotation

'I say that needless to say, corruption and its effects can be seen from a multitude of viewpoints as ECZ (2013) puts it.'

A better direct quotation will look something like this:

'… corruption and its effects can be seen from a multitude of viewpoints' *(Examinations Council of Zambia, 2013).*

A poor paraphrase

Corruption has always been in existence. However, it has grown in recent decades and should be viewed from multiple viewpoints *(Examinations Council of Zambia, 2013).*

A better paraphrase

Although corruption has always been in existence, it has grown in coverage and intensity and can be seen with its effects from various perspectives. It should be dealt with in respect to its influence on development as it is innately connected *(Examinations Council of Zambia, 2013).*

Activity 3: Learning outcome 5

What is the difference between a direct quote and a paraphrase?

Read *Gender-Based Violence* and paraphrase the passage according to the lecturer's directions.

Teacher educator guidance

Discuss the question with the student teachers. Then, have them read the passage and paraphrase it.

SAMPLE TEXT

Gender-Based Violence

When violence occurs against girls and women, it is usually committed by boys or men. Violence against women stems from the unequal power relations between men and women. A person with more power has many choices, while a person with less power has few choices. There are many types of power, such as economic power (control or access to money and other resources) and physical power (strength or weapons). The person with less power is vulnerable in many ways. Women have less power than men and as a consequence are more vulnerable to violence.

(Adapted from The Open University, 2021)

2.4.5

Paragraphing

A paragraph is a unit of written text consisting of a series of closely related sentences expressing one central idea. Lunsford and Collins (2003) defined a paragraph as 'a group of sentences or a single sentence that forms a unit'. The main idea is contained in a thesis or topic sentence. The act of composing paragraphs that make up a larger unit of a written text is what is referred to as **paragraphing**. It is important to mention that paragraphs show readers where the subdivisions of an essay begin and end, thereby helping them to understand the organisation of the essay and grasp its main points. Let student teachers know that a paragraph contains three types of sentences: the *thesis/topic sentence*, *supporting sentences*, and the *concluding sentence*. Some academic papers contain what is known as a *lead*.

Here is a diagrammatic representation of the relationship of sentences in a paragraph.

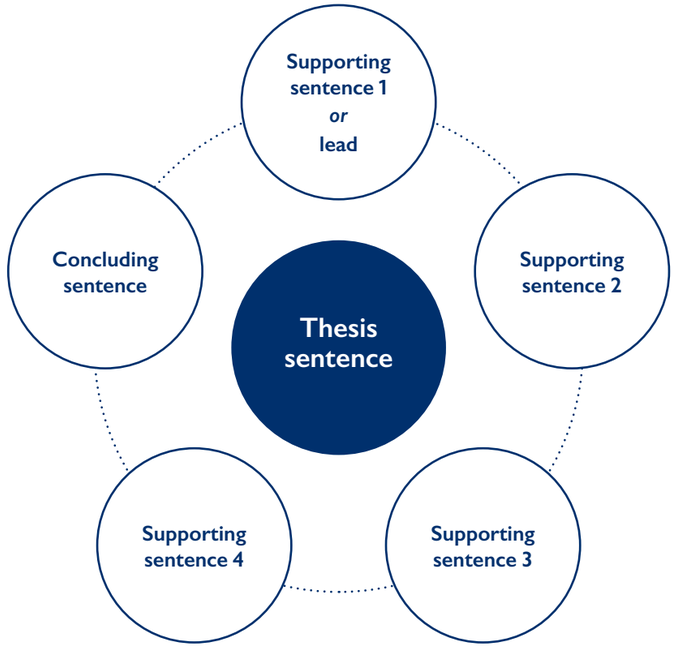


Figure 2.2 Types of sentences in a paragraph and the roles they play.

The topic sentence or thesis statement

The **topic sentence** controls the development of the central idea while the rest of the sentences in the paragraph support the single idea. It should capture the main focus of the writer, that is, the idea one intends to put forward. The positioning of the topic sentence depends on how the writer chooses to develop the paragraph. However, it is preferable that the topic sentence comes at the beginning of the paragraph for clarity and coherence.

The lead/topic sentence

A **lead sentence** comes in the form of a question, an amazing fact, a quotation, or an anecdote (Santa et al., 2004). The purpose for this sentence is to capture the reader's attention. The thesis sentence comes as the last sentence in some instances, such as the one where we find the lead sentence.

Supporting sentences

When writing **supporting sentences**, a writer should aim at expanding or clarifying the ideas presented in the thesis or lead sentences. A number of styles can be used to develop a paragraph. These include explaining, discussing, describing, comparing and contrasting, telling a story, or giving an anecdote. This also depends on the type of essay one is writing or the prompt to which one is responding.

The concluding sentence

The **concluding sentence** sums up the idea in the paragraph. It synthesises the information from the lead sentence and the supporting sentences.

Activity 4: Learning outcome 3

In small groups, discuss *Gender-Based Violence* on page 56 and identify the role of each sentence in the paragraph.

Teacher educator guidance

To make things more explicit and if materials are available, consider assigning a colour for each type of sentence. Then have the students colour-code the sentences in the paragraph.

2.4.6

The three-part structure of an academic paper

An academic essay has a **three-part structure** comprising of an introduction, a main body, and a conclusion. Each of these subdivisions play a specific role in the development of the larger unit of text.

The **introduction** serves as the opening paragraph that presents the main focus of the essay in a concise manner. In shorter texts, it usually constitutes one paragraph but may be made up of two or more paragraphs or may even constitute a whole chapter in longer pieces of writing such as research papers. Here, the writer briefly defines key words of the topic to be discussed and lays the foundation for the description, argument, or information presented in the rest of the paper. This section may provide the reader with a theoretical framework or lens through which the writer is presenting the information.

The **main body** is where the argument introduced in the introduction is developed or expanded through the presentation of evidence. The number of paragraphs (or chapters) in the main body depends on the amount of necessary information needed to inform, persuade, or entertain the reader. This will depend on the author's reasons for writing. A number of citations supporting one's arguments are made here. However, a writer should not become monotonous. The idea is not to begin every argument with a citation throughout one's writing; rather, a high-quality academic paper presents the writer's opinion with justification from credible sources.

The **conclusion** sums up the arguments presented in the main body. This section may only be a paragraph, or it may be a chapter. The conclusion serves to reinforce what has been discussed in the main body (KUCE, 2019). It may also state the lessons learnt and the findings that have been made. For emphasis' sake, the conclusion also contains a sentence (or paragraph) that essentially sums up the argument or information presented by all the other sentences in the section. This is where the writer justifies the entire piece of writing by providing the reader with a big takeaway message.

Teacher educator guidance

Emphasise the fact that the layout of academic papers in shorter essays differs slightly from that of longer papers. In shorter papers, the introduction, the main body, and the conclusion are paragraphs while in longer papers, they are whole chapters. Consider Figure 2.3 below.

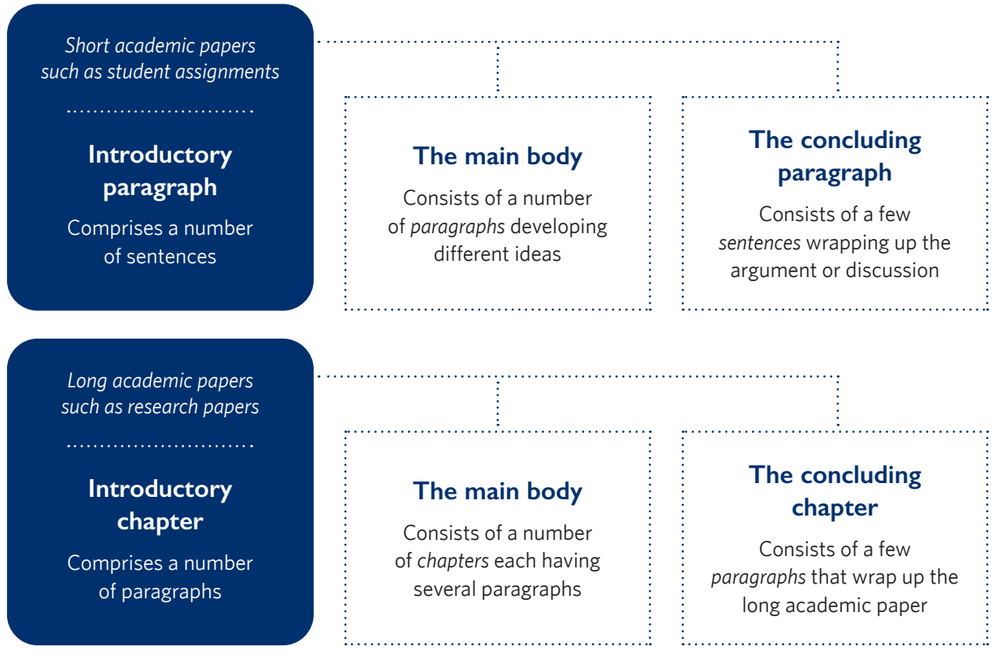


Figure 2.3 Layout of short and longer academic papers

2.4.7

Achieving coherence and cohesion within a written text

Achieving unity and proper coordination of ideas in academic writing requires that a writer pays attention to the aims and objectives of the writing task. A writer also has to be mindful of the readers' needs as they work to understand a given written text. Thus, a written text should have both **coherence** and **cohesion**. Coherence is concerned with the clear and logical presentation of facts, while cohesion deals with the formal (stylistic) aspects involving the sense relations within sentences and paragraphs in a piece of writing. In other words, coherence deals with the logical flow of ideas, while cohesion deals with the connectedness of the ideas in a piece of writing.

There are a number of strategies writers use to achieve coherence and cohesion. The strategy one chooses mainly depends on the aims and purposes of a piece of writing. Below are four strategies that student teachers should familiarise themselves with and learn to use in their writing.

1. **Adopting a chronological style of writing**
   By using a chronological order, a writer guides the reader through the information, telling a story that the reader understands. This style of writing is typically used when narrating a story, describing information, explaining a process, or describing the order of events.

2. **Using transitions**
   Using words such as *also*, *besides*, *equally important*, *for example*, *for instance*, *in fact*, *specifically*, *that is*, etc. helps the reader understand the connections between sentences and paragraphs, and how sentences connect with the overall theme of the paper.

3. **Using anaphoric reference, synonyms, and hyponyms**
   Using words and phrases to reference an idea or concept that was presented earlier in the text helps the reader follow the writer's train of thought and successfully connect ideas across a text.

4. **Repeating key terms or key words**
   Writers who use a predetermined set of key words and repeat them throughout the text help the reader remember the meanings of those words and how they relate to the overall theme of the text.

Activity 5: Learning outcome 3

Read and analyse the text, *Challenges of Implementing the Anti-Gender-Based Violence Act 2011 in Zambia*.

Identify features of the text that show chronology, transitions, anaphoric reference, synonyms, hyponyms, or the repetition of key terms or words, by making an annotation in the text directly.

Teacher educator guidance

Group student teachers into pairs or in a small group. Student teachers can divide the tasks between them and share what they have found.

SAMPLE TEXT

Challenges of Implementation of the Anti-Gender-Based Violence Act 2011 in Zambia

Gender-based violence (GBV) is endemic in Zambia, with half of Zambian women having experienced some form of GBV in their lives. The passing of the Anti-Gender-Based Violence Act (Anti-GBV Act) is a marked progress in the struggle against pervasive violence, which has its roots in social and gender exclusion and power imbalance, horizontal inequalities and poverty. However, 5 years after enactment, implementing the Act and other laws and policies in Zambia that promote and protect persons from GBV has been far less successful. Avocats Sans Frontières (ASF) with the support from the European Union led a field case study to examine the lacunae in implementation, and the barriers that exist which impede GBV survivors to seek protection under the Anti-GBV Act.

(Adapted from Avocats Sans Frontières (ASF) Case study, 2017)

Activity 6: Learning outcome 4

Analyse the text *Child Labour* for completeness, coherence, and cohesion. How well does the paragraph communicate ideas? Which strategies did the writer use to make the ideas flow smoothly and facilitate reader comprehension?

Teacher educator guidance

Review with student teachers what completeness, coherence, and cohesion are. Then have them complete the activity.

SAMPLE TEXT

Child Labour

Child labour is a phenomenon caused by a myriad of factors. Empirical findings across the globe show poverty as the greatest determinant of child labour. Low household income prompts parents to send their children to work or ask them to work on the family business or on the family farm. This is because the poor families require the earnings of the children to contribute to the household income. Child labour is a major problem in Zambia, as in many other African countries. Through its persistence, child labour has had a huge impact on education, and particularly on academic progression of learners. Even though the government introduced free primary education, many children of school-going age continue to stay out of school and get engaged in work of one kind or another. Child labour in most developing countries has long been a critical issue. This is not only because child labour is a moral issue, but also because of its significant impact on children's development. The choice to outlaw child labour is a decisive factor for a country's future growth and development.

(Adapted from the International Journal of Multi-Disciplinary Research)

2.4.8

Choice of words (diction)

In order to be considerate, writers need to choose their words carefully if they are to communicate effectively and easily. Use of sophisticated language or unexplained technical terms makes it difficult for many readers to follow and understand the intended messages. This is not any different in academic writing. Whilst using formal language, scholars need to make sure their writing is clear and to the point. If necessary, refer to the section on characteristics and principles of academic writing discussed earlier.

2.4.9

The writing process

Many novice writers, student teachers included, find writing quite challenging for various reasons. One of the reasons is that writing is a solitary action in which writers try to communicate with readers who are not there to give them feedback. Writing requires that the author understand the topic and be able to put those ideas into a concrete form. A writer must undergo a number of stages to come up with a completed piece of writing. Student teachers need to know that the **writing process** has a series of related sub-tasks, involving five main stages in essay writing. These stages are: prewriting (concerned with essay question analysis, data collection, and planning); drafting (getting one's ideas down on paper); editing and proofreading (refining the draft and making grammatical edits); revising (using feedback from oneself or a peer to further refine the draft); and final paper writing and publication (developing a draft for submission or sharing).

2.5

Academic research skills

The previous chapter discussed study and communication skills—the meaning and process of communication, extensive and intensive reading, skimming and scanning, barriers to effective communication, types of communication, and how important these are to the student teacher. This section discusses the scope of **academic research skills** and how this is important to the student teachers. It should be understood that apart from study and communication skills, academic research skills—also referred to as *library or referential skills*—are vital skills for the student teachers. Students should have knowledge of how books are organised; manipulation and use of dictionaries, thesauruses, tables of content, and glossaries; the use of an encyclopaedia; and understanding the index.

When preparing for academic writing, student teachers will need to preview sets of text or publications to determine which are most appropriate for the assignment. Previewing is the act of reviewing a given material for content prior to the actual reading. The student might read through the table of contents, look at headers, photos, and/or read the conclusion/summary to get an idea of what the text is about. Student teachers will need to be able to locate information by reviewing book titles, understanding the logic of using the title page, table of contents, index, appendices, and the glossary, so that they know how these might be useful in the teaching and learning of literacy. If well understood, previewing helps to save time as it assists the student teacher in selecting only important information that one might need.

2.5.1

Referencing in academic writing

Referencing is a key skill used in academic writing. It is one of the characteristics of academic writing without which student teachers would be committing an academic crime called *plagiarism*. Referencing is the act of acknowledging the source of information used and provides the reader with full information about the name of the publication and the publisher. Paraphrasing is one way to reference the ideas of the original author within the text but without committing plagiarism. Plagiarism or academic theft is a situation where a writer uses the work of others as if it were their original idea by not acknowledging the source. When the work is paraphrased in the main body of the paper, a citation is entered (typically this is the author's last name and the date of publication). All works that are cited in an academic paper should be referenced at the end of the paper using a properly formatted reference list. This section will emphasise types of citations, discuss various formats of in-text citations, and demonstrate how those citations are linked to a reference list. Remember that there are a number of referencing styles such as the American Psychological Association (APA), Chicago Manual of Style, the Harvard Style, and many more. However, in this programme, student teachers are expected to use the APA style of referencing.

Activity 7

Highlight the implication of the terms *paraphrase* and *plagiarism* in the text.

Teacher educator guidance

Explain why referencing is important to the researcher or student teacher. Since the two terms, *paraphrase* and *plagiarism*, have been introduced in the discussion, briefly re-emphasise their meanings.

Referencing helps researchers and scholars in the following ways:

- whosoever is reading and evaluating the writer's work should be able to easily know or locate the source of information; in this case, the reader could be a teacher-educator or other scholar
- scholars can prove to their readers that the academic work is evidence-based
- it shows how intensively and extensively scholars have to read prior to the essay writing process; it shows the scope of one's study
- plagiarism is completely curbed, and there is validation of one's work.

To show scope and breadth of one's research or academic work, without plagiarism, it is important to paraphrase the essay and acknowledge the sources of one's information. Some student teachers might act clever by copying their friend's work, making alterations here and there. Yet, both the one copying and the one whose work has been plagiarised could be penalised for this activity.

Activity 8

You will explore the resources in the library. Your lecturer will show you how to use different parts of the book to preview texts and find information relevant to a research topic of interest, by using the index, table of contents, and the title.

2.5.2

Types of citations

The Purdue University Online Writing Lab website (https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/purdue_owl.html) explains and defines the kinds of references listed below in the following way:

- **In-text citation:** This is providing the author's name and publication date at the point in the text where the paraphrase or quotation appears.
  - *For example:* It is thought that by keeping a diary, one is able to think deeply about one's own writing skills (Smith, 2000).

- **Citing two authors:** List both authors, separate with the ampersand, and add the date.
  - *For example:* It is important for parents to support early literacy practices before children enter school (Martini & Senechal, 2012).

- **Citing three or more authors:** Here you state the name of the first author followed by *et al.* which means 'and other authors'. Also, note when using *et al.* inside of brackets, a comma is required before the year. (e.g. Barnes et al., 2021, p. 45). However, for using *et al.* outside of brackets, no comma is required (see example below).
  - *For example:* Barnes et al. (2021, p. 45) claims that it is important that 'teacher educators understand the scope of phonemic awareness as this will be helpful in the teaching and learning of literacy and language'.

- **For in-text citations with no date:** Rather than providing a date, the author uses the abbreviation n.d.
  - *For example:* Mutombo (n.d.) suggests that education is what remains in human beings after much of what they learnt has been forgotten.

- **Direct quotation:** This is the taking of a word, phrase, or sentence(s) directly or indirectly from the person who originally used that word, phrase, or sentence(s), and then placing them inside of the quotation marks with an in-text citation.
  - *For example:* 'Keeping a diary helps one think about one's writing' (Smith, 2000, p. 23)

- **Block quote:** This involves taking larger chunks of text such as a paragraph or two from the original source and putting them in one's text with a citation. In a block quote, no quotation marks are used. A block quote should be used if the quote has more than 40 words. A block quote should be properly indented to set it apart from the rest of the text.
  - *For example:* According to Smith (2000), a student needs to keep a diary to think about certain topics and write about them in his or her own words. Keeping a diary gives students the opportunities to express their ideas and reflect on their everyday life and write about how they felt or thought about certain topics (p. 23).

- **Footnotes:** This is another kind of reference that is placed at the foot or bottom of a page and is usually represented by a raised number or what may be called superscript.
  - *For example: When Chisandi and Chikoye visited the Victoria Hospital*[1]*, the doctor rolled out a recent study sheet which found that nearly 40 percent of children who tested positive for COVID-19 were asymptomatic*[2] *and could spread the virus to others.* The raised numbers after *Victoria Hospital* and *asymptomatic* are examples of numbers indicating the *footnotes* that appear at the bottom of this page. Refer to the bottom of the page on which the footnote appears.

- **End notes:** These are notes collected at the end of the whole academic work. They may also be notes collected at the end of a section or chapter.

- **Secondary sources:** If you are citing works that have already been cited by another person, this is called a *secondary source*. It is important to provide credit to both sources. The primary source (in this case, Maurice, 1999) should appear in the reference list.
  - *For example:* Zimba (2020) as cited by Maurice (1999) adds that education is nothing more than what one goes through from the time they are born to the time they die.

- **Newspaper articles:** Provide the name of the newspaper and publication date.
  - *For example:* Sata felt that it was not necessary to win elections by shedding the blood of the voters (*The Post*, 2006, December 21).

- **Citing online/electronic resources:** These citations are similar to print resource citations. In an event that there is no name of the author, the owner of the website can be used along with the year of publication. The website link should be included in the reference list.
  - *For example:* Child labour is a phenomenon that is caused by a myriad of factors (University of Iowa Labor Center, n.d.)

[1] *A private hospital situated in the Kalundu area of Lusaka*

[2] *Silent carrying and spreading of coronavirus or any other illness while showing little or no symptoms*

2.5.3

Writing the reference list

A **reference list** provides the reader with a listing of all sources whose works have been cited in the actual body of one's essay. The format is to begin with authors' surnames followed by the titles of their publications, and then rearranging them alphabetically. Note that this list of authors should be written on a separate page of one's academic work. See the reference list at the end of this module for a full example.

For further guidance on how to reference different sources or materials with different numbers of authors, organisations as authors, materials without authors, as well as online resources using the APA (7th Edition) Referencing Style, consult the following sites:

- Online Writing Lab at Purdue University: https://owl.purdue.edu/owl/purdue_owl.html
- The Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association or the APA Style website at: https://apastyle.apa.org/
- And for examples and tutorials, visit: https://libguides.csudh.edu/citation/apa-7

Teacher educator guidance

This module can also be used for guidance on making in-text citations as well as preparing the reference list. Check inside the module to see how citations have been done and the end of each chapter for insights on making reference lists. This will help the teacher-educator and the student teachers.

2.6

Chapter summary

This chapter has discussed academic writing and how a student teacher can write a good academic essay using the correct format, language, and upholding the highest academic principles. An academic paper consists of three parts: an introduction, the main body, and a conclusion, where the conclusion restates the main points of the paper and provides a 'take-away message' for the reader. High-quality academic writing incorporates a good mix of the writer's own ideas and paraphrasing from credible sources. Direct quotes should only be used when the quote would lose its impact on the reader if stated another way. Student teachers will need to go through the stages of the writing process to produce academic writing for their respective teacher training programmes.

This chapter also presented research and reference skills. These are the processes a student teacher must undergo to compile necessary information for providing evidence for one's writing. The American Psychological Association (APA) style of writing and providing credit to sources is expected of all student teachers. This includes the use of appropriate in-text citations as well as a complete reference list. Examples of these styles have been included in the chapter, and both teacher-educators and student teachers can refer to in-text citations and reference lists used throughout this module.

2.7

Assessment of learning

Academic paper
Learning outcomes 6 and 7

Develop an academic paper in the form of a long essay on a cross-cutting issue that has educational implications. This paper should also exhibit skills related to the contents included in this chapter. Details related to this activity will be shared by the course instructor.

Teacher educator guidance

At the end of chapter 1, 'Communication and study skills', you may have informed the student teachers that they will be completing research to develop an academic paper in the form of a long essay on a cross-cutting issue that has educational implications. This paper should also exhibit skills related to the contents included in this chapter. A sample rubric is provided in Appendix 2A. Make adjustments to the rubric as necessary.

Student teachers can complete this assignment over a period of 3 to 4 weeks. Student teachers may be requested to submit *handwritten* or *typed* work depending on the culture in individual colleges of education and then present their work as an oral presentation. A sample rubric is provided in Appendix 2B for how to evaluate the students' presentations. Make adjustments to the rubric as necessary.

For example: Write an academic essay on child abuse and its effects on the academic performance of children in your province using correct language, layout, coherence/cohesion, and referencing. You are advised to use the APA Referencing Style, 7th Edition. Your work should be between 4–6 pages, excluding the cover page and reference list.

2.8

Supplemental readings and resources

For supplementary resources on the topics covered, kindly refer to the materials and sites listed directly below.

Books

Asheli, N. (2014). *Advanced level English – A practical approach*. Dar es Salaam: Good Books Publishers.

Folse, K. S., et al. (2010). *Great sentences for great paragraphs* (3rd ed.). USA: Heinle Cengage Learning.

Little, M. (1998). *The writer's craft*. USA: A Houghton Mifflin Company.

Online resources

http://www.howtostudy.org/resources.php

CHAPTER 3

Cognitive Development and Literacy

CHAPTER 3

Cognitive Development and Literacy

INTRODUCTION

This chapter will discuss cognitive development in relation to literacy using the Connectionist model. The chapter will further highlight the developmental stages of reading as well as the key component skills of literacy. Understanding how the brain of a child operates in the process of learning to read and write is critical for developing effective instruction. Therefore, there is a need to equip student teachers with skills that will empower them to use appropriate pedagogies and learning activities while teaching literacy skills.

3.1

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.4.1 Meaning of literacy

1.4.1.1 Explain the terms *literacy*, *initial literacy*, and *functional literacy*

1.4.2 Importance of literacy

1.4.2.1 Explain the roles of literacy in social, cultural, political, and economic learning

1.4.4 Introduction to early grade reading

1.4.4.1 Identify reasons for early grade reading

1.5.2 The difference between teaching early grade literacy and language

1.5.2.1 Distinguish the teaching of early grade literacy and language

By the end of the chapter, the student teachers will:

1. define the terms *literacy*, *initial literacy*, and *functional literacy*
2. discuss the importance of literacy
3. explain how cognitive development impacts literacy instruction
4. analyse how the brain learns to read and write using the Connectionist model
5. discuss the developmental stages of reading
6. justify why language matters for literacy development
7. explain the different focus of literacy and language instruction
8. outline the key component skills of literacy instruction.

3.2

Instructional materials

- Student module
- Graphic organiser: Component skills of literacy (Appendix 3A)

3.3

Key terms

Literacy

The ability to read, write, speak and listen—as well as to interpret what has been read or heard in a particular language

Initial literacy

The earliest stages of literacy in which children begin developing literacy skills

Functional literacy

Basic literacy skills that every adult needs to be able to function within a society

Cognitive development

The construction of thinking processes from childhood through adolescence to adulthood

Reading

The process of making meaning from written words or symbols

Emergent reading

Specific pre-reading skills observed in children in the early years of their lives, even before they start school

Connectionist model

A simplified model that illustrates how the brain reads or recognises words

3.4

What is literacy, and why is it important?

In this section, the module will focus on three main definitions of literacy. These are not the only definitions of literacy. However, these three definitions will help students to have a wider view of literacy. According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2004), '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' (p. 13).

Secondly, the European Literacy Policy Network, as cited by Montoya (2018) asserted that literacy refers to the ability to read and write at a level whereby individuals can effectively understand and use written communication in all media—be it print or electronic. This definition also applies to digital literacy.

The third definition by the Department of Education and Skills (DES) (2011) referred to literacy as the capacity to read, understand, and critically appreciate various forms of communication including spoken language, printed text, broadcast media, and digital media.

From the three definitions above, it can be noted that literacy is more than having the ability to read and write but includes aspects such as making sense of the world and being able to interpret sign systems in all fields. It also includes oral aspects of communication such as listening and speaking. In other words, literacy in a broader sense encompasses all the skills of language: listening, speaking, reading, writing, viewing, talking, creativity, and technology.

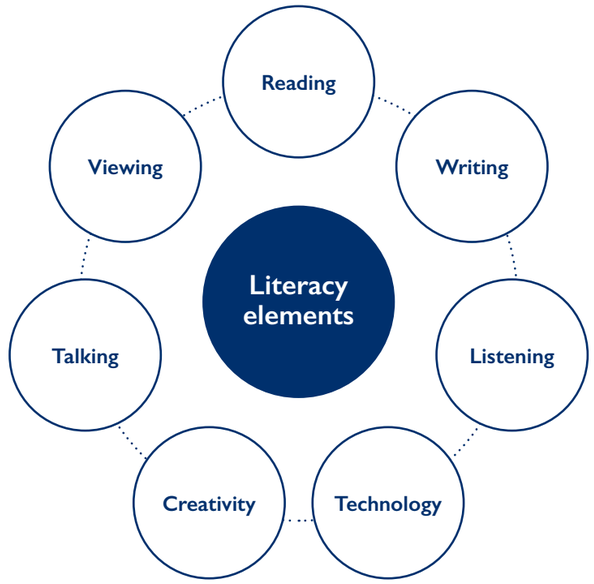


Figure 3.1 Diagram showing a wide view of literacy

(Adapted from Latch-On™ Uniquest Pty Limited, 2021)

Initial literacy refers to the earliest stages of literacy. These are the skills that children learn as they begin developing literacy. **Functional literacy**, on the other hand, includes those basic skills that every adult needs to be able to function within society—and these skills might change depending on the person's place of living. For example, in a large city, functional literacy might include knowing how to interpret a schedule for public transportation. However, in a rural area, functional literacy may include knowing how to interpret directions for feeding or treating animals or plants on a farm.

Activity 1: Learning outcomes 1 and 2

What do the terms *literacy*, *initial literacy*, and *functional literacy* mean?

Identify environmental signs and symbols that learners can easily identify and interpret to help them enhance their literacy skills.

Why is literacy important?

Teacher educator guidance

Ensure that your students explain the term *literacy* from a broader perspective and not from the narrow definition of just being able to read and write.

Literacy is an important part of a globally competitive society. A literate society is able to transfer knowledge easily through the use of written information as well as document history, growth, and change within the society. Literate individuals are better able to engage in social activities, convey cultural learning and knowledge, and understand and respond to both political and economic situations within Zambia and the wider world.

Learners must begin to gain literacy skills early on in life. When children in primary school are guided to develop initial, or emergent, literacy skills, they have a better chance of becoming successful readers early in their school years. Early grade reading focuses on those foundational skills that young children need to develop in order to gain initial, functional, and advanced literacy skills. It is for these reasons that early grade reading programmes have been integrated into all Zambian school systems.

3.5

Cognitive development and its relationship to literacy

Cognitive development is a field of study in medicine and psychology that looks at how children receive and store information in the brain. It is a theory used to explain the ability to think and understand (Atherton & Nutbrown, 2013). Literacy is defined as a cognitive process involving component subprocesses such as letter formation, phonological decoding, decoding of graphemes, word recognition, word knowledge, and comprehension.

The term *cognitive* refers to capabilities including memory, thinking and reasoning, spatial processing, problem-solving, language, and perception—the ability to receive, process, and respond to different types of information. The term *development* refers to certain changes that occur in humans (or animals) between conception and death. It also important to note that the theories of cognitive development aim to explain mechanisms of change which lead to development, rather than to merely describe the capabilities of children across ages or between children, adults, and aging populations (Richland et al., 2016). Thus, one can see that one's cognition is linked to language development and language provides resources for cognitive processes such as thinking, perception, understanding and construction of meaning. Further, writing as a process is influenced by cognitive developments in the brain. Since, language is linked to cognitive development and language is the vehicle and object of literacy means that there is a direct relationship between cognitive development and literacy development.

Activity 2

What is the relationship between cognitive development and literacy?

Teacher educator guidance

Cognitive development can refer to changes that take place in humans in terms of their thinking, reasoning, and decision-making. It is related to literacy because literacy skills are developed through the cognitive processes such as letter formations, phonological decoding, decoding of graphemes, word recognition, word knowledge, and comprehension.

The relationship between cognitive development and language has over the years been researched and discussed by various scholars. As school success depends on developing one's mastery of language, children's first language is important for their overall language and cognitive development as well as their academic achievement (UNESCO, 2011). However, the relationship between cognitive development and literacy has its roots in language development, because the two key skills of listening and speaking are vital. Before children begin to read and write, they acquire listening and speaking skills. Language is critical for cognitive development because it provides a way to express ideas and ask questions, helps the speaker identify categories and concepts for thinking, and allows the person to make links between the past and the future. Language frees us from the immediate situation to think about what was and what might be (Mercer, 2013). Therefore, language plays a fundamental role in literacy development. More on language is included further in the module in section 3.8.

Activity 3

Language development is also important to cognitive development and literacy development. Explain the link between language and literacy.

Piaget (1964; as cited in Ferhat, 2014) wrote on cognitive development. His work focused on cognitive development and how children learn. The theory of cognitive development is characterised by the belief that children construct their own knowledge and understanding of the world through active exploration of their environments. The theory therefore can also be explained in line with the constructivist model. In this model, curricula are planned and learning experiences are selected to follow children's interests or expose them to new areas according to their interests. Many activities and experiences are selected to help children think about solutions to social as well as cognitive problems. Literacy is taught in the context of children's other activities, as they extend their language to reading and writing. Constructivism assumes that literacy skills are best learnt within a context in which they can be applied. Reading and writing, according to constructivist thinking, are representational systems that people use to communicate an almost limitless body of information, including thoughts, emotions, descriptions, and much more.

Piaget proposed four stages of cognitive development: the **sensorimotor**, **preoperational**, **concrete operational** and **formal operational** period. See Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 Piaget's stages of cognitive development

Stage	Approximate age	Characteristics	Implications for teaching literacy
Sensorimotor	0–2 years	• Learns through reflexes, senses and movement—actions on the environment • Begins to imitate others and remember events • Shifts to symbolic thinking • Comes to understand that objects do not cease to exist when they are out of sight—object permanence • Moves from reflexive action to intentional activity	Instruction and interaction should be focused on helping the child become aware of his or her senses and body—and understanding and reacting to the environment
Preoperational	Begins at the time the child starts talking, to about 7 years old	• Develops language and begins to use symbols to represent objects • Has difficulty with past and future—thinks in the present • Can think through operations logically in one direction • Has difficulty understanding the point of view of another person	Instruction should focus on understanding symbols and their use, particularly how symbols are used to represent language, helping children develop an understanding of other points of view (theory of mind), and logical sequencing of events
Concrete operational	Begins about first grade to early adolescence, around 11 years old	• Can think logically about concrete (hands-on) problems • Understands conservation and organises things into categories and in series • Can reverse thinking to mentally undo actions • Understands past, present, and future	Instruction should build abstract ideas about the world, particularly through the use of literature
Formal operational	Adolescence to adulthood	• Can think hypothetically and deductively • Thinking becomes more scientific • Solves abstract problems in logical fashion • Can consider multiple perspectives and develops concerns about social issues, personal identity, and justice	Instruction should encourage critical thinking and evaluation of situations and problems in the world

In line with the stages of cognitive development, the preoperational and concrete operational stages are the categories into which primary school learners fall. Learners at this stage are learning to think logically. This means that they should be able to use literacy skills acquired from home, as well as describe or write about what happened in the past, the present, and what they expect to happen in the future. Given an activity to write points in sequential form, learners should be able to arrange the sentences in the correct order, but this is according to the level of the particular learner.

Activity 4: Learning outcome 3

In pairs, discuss and summarise how each of the stages of cognitive development impacts literacy instruction.

Apply this knowledge by creating an example of a literacy activity in which a teacher can engage learners during each cognitive stage.

3.6

How does the brain learn to read and write?

A learner processes information using four systems in the brain that work together. The four systems are the phonological processor, orthographic processor, meaning processor, and context processor. The theory or model behind these four systems is known as the Connectionist model, which illustrates how the brain reads words (Adams, 1990). This model is shown in Figure 3.2 on the next page.

3.6.1

Phonological processor

The **phonological processor** is a system that processes the speech sounds or phonemes, of language. For example, in the word *cat*, there are three phonemes: /c/, /a/, /t/. By using this processor, it is possible to recognise if the sounds are the same or different. It also helps to say sounds in words when reading. The phonological processor also supports the production of speech sounds, comparisons of words, memory for sound sequences, phonological awareness skills as well as segmenting, blending and manipulation of phonemes (Colorado Reading First, 2015). Phonological awareness is explained more in-depth in chapter 7.

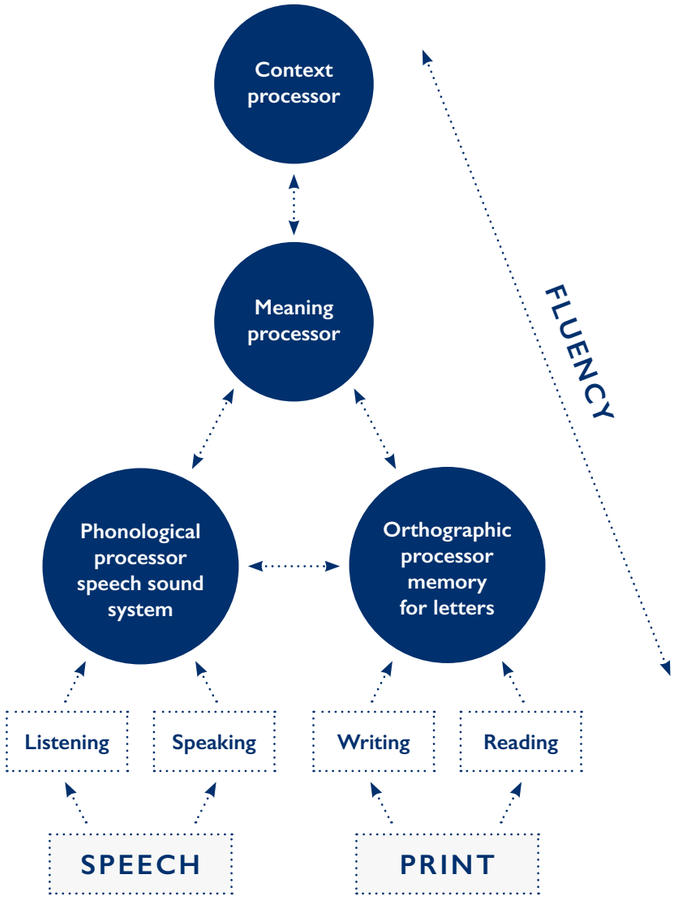


Figure 3.2 The Connectionist model

(Adapted from Adams, 1990)

Activity 5

Practise identifying speech sounds in words from any of the Zambian languages.

Teacher educator guidance

Use an 'I do', 'We do', 'You do' approach.

3.6.2

Orthographic processor

The **orthographic processor** helps the learner notice the sequences of letters in text. This is the only processor that receives information directly from the printed page. When someone is reading, it is the visual, orthographic information that comes first and causes the system to begin working. The orthographic processor organises written language visually to help the reader recognise letters, patterns, words, spacing between words and punctuation—it also stores information about print (Colorado Reading First, 2015). The orthographic processor works with the phonological processor to associate letters and words with speech sounds. This makes it possible to fluently read words that have been learnt and to sound out words that are new. In addition, these two processors can work together to segment the sounds in words when spelling and writing. If the learner is visually impaired, activities in the orthographic processor might be affected. Orthographic processing is discussed more comprehensively in chapter 9.

3.6.3

Meaning processor

The **meaning processor** is used to understand the meanings of words and information that is stored in the brain, as well as to organise and store information about word meanings. Word meanings and information are stored in categories and are closely connected to words with related meanings. The meaning processor assists learners to remember the meaningful parts of words as well as to read and understand longer words.

3.6.4

Context processor

The **context processor** accesses information about the mother tongue, prior life experiences, and what is known about the world. The context processor is responsible for constructing a clear ongoing interpretation of the text. In particular, it is responsible for selecting word meanings appropriate for the text. When words have more than one meaning, the context processor uses information that learners have about their mother tongue and about how the words are used in the text and then identifies which meaning is correct.

All of the processors must work together for a learner to listen, speak, read, and write fluently. For instance, when trying to read a new word, the learner first sees the word in print; this means the orthographic processor is at work. Learners can use the phonological processor to try sounding out the word. The meaning processor accesses the word's meaning. Then, the context processor helps the learner know about what is being read as well as the correct meaning of the word (Adams, 1990).

Activity 6: Learning outcome 4

1. Explain what the Connectionist model is.
2. How do the four processors of the Connectionist model work in the reading process?

Teacher educator guidance

Model drawing a diagram showing how each of the four processors work when a child reads the word *apple*. Then, complete another diagram with student teachers with a word of your choice. Afterwards, have student teachers work with a peer on their own diagram with a word of their choice. Check student teachers' work when completed.

3.7

Developmental stages of reading

Many scholars have written on the **developmental stages of reading**. Some scholars focus on what a learner is able to do in a particular age group. Other scholars focus on the grade level and expected competencies. Yet other scholars focus on the age, grade level, and how the teacher can promote literacy competencies in those grades or age levels. In this module, we will discuss the six stages presented by Jeanne S. Chall (1983). The stages are *pre-reading* (stage 0), *initial reading and decoding* (stage 1), *confirmation and fluency* (stage 2), *reading for learning the new* (stage 3), *multiple viewpoints* (stage 4) as well as *construction and reconstruction* (stage 5). Table 3.2 below outlines the stages of reading by: age/grade, characteristics, competencies, and how a child can acquire the competencies.

Table 3.2 Chall's stages of reading development

Types of literacy	Emergent literacy	Learning to read		Reading to learn		
Stage	**STAGE 0** **Pre-reading 'pseudo reading'**	**STAGE 1** **Initial reading decoding**	**STAGE 2** **Confirmation and fluency**	**STAGE 3** **Reading for learning the new** **Phases A and B**	**STAGE 4** **Multiple viewpoints**	**STAGE 5** **Construction and reconstruction**
Age/grade	6 months–6 yrs. Preschool (ECE)	7–8 yrs. old Grade 1 and start of Grade 2	8–9 yrs. old Grades 2–4	10–14 yrs. old Grades 5 to 9 Upper primary and Junior sec. school	15–17 yrs. old Grades 10–12	18+ yrs. old College and beyond
Characteristics and observable competencies	• Child pretends to read • Retells story when looking at pages of book previously read to child • Names letters of alphabet • Recognises some signs • Prints/writes own name • Plays with books, pencils, pens, paper (any other writing tools)	• Child learns relation between letters and sounds and between printed and spoken words • Child is able to read simple text containing high frequency words and phonically regular words • Uses skill and insight to sound out new one-syllable words	• Child reads simple, familiar stories and selections with increasing fluency • This is done by consolidating the basic decoding elements, sight vocabulary, and meaning context in the reading of familiar stories and selections	• Reading is used to learn new ideas, to gain new knowledge, to experience new feelings, to learn new attitudes, generally from one viewpoint	• Reading widely from a broad range of complex materials, both expository and narrative, with a variety of viewpoints	• Reading is used for one's own needs and purposes (professional and personal) • Reading serves to integrate one's knowledge with that of others, to synthesise it and to create new knowledge • Reading is rapid and efficient
How child can acquire the competencies	• Being read to by an adult/peer/older child/caregiver who responds to and warmly appreciates the child's interest in books and reading • Being provided with books, paper, pencils, pens, blocks, and letters • Through dialogic reading	• Direct instruction in letter-sound relations (phonics) and practise in their use • Reading of simple stories using words with phonic elements taught and words of high frequency • Being read to on a level above what a child can read independently to develop more advanced language patterns, vocabulary, and concepts	• Direct instruction in advanced decoding skills • Wide reading of familiar, interesting materials that help promote fluent reading through independent reading and direct instruction • Being read to at levels above their own independent reading level to develop language, vocabulary, and concepts	• Reading and study of textbooks, reference works, trade books, newspapers, and magazines that contain new ideas and values, unfamiliar vocabulary and syntax • Systematic study of words and reacting to the text through discussion, answering questions, writing, etc. • Reading of increasingly more complex text	• Wide reading and study of the physical, biological, and social sciences and the humanities, high quality and popular literature, newspapers, and magazines • Systematic study of words and word parts • Engage child in formal and creative writing	• Wide reading of ever more difficult materials, reading beyond one's immediate needs • Writing of papers, tests, essays, and other forms that call for integration of varied knowledge and points of view

Activity 7: Learning outcome 5

1. What is your understanding of the term *emergent literacy*?
2. What is the difference between 'learning to read' and 'reading to learn'?
3. State two things that parents can do when their child is in the emergent literacy stage to help their child move up to the next level.
4. How can teachers best support children who are learning to read?

3.8

Role of language in literacy development

The two terminologies *literacy* and *language* sound familiar. Literacy is reading and writing skills, while language, on the other hand, is many times viewed as a means of communicating and sharing ideas (Mkandawire, 2018). Language and literacy involve development of the skills used to communicate with others through language as well as the ability to read and write.

Children acquire language through social interactions, and language use varies based on social backgrounds, roles of the speaker, and the social settings. Language develops very quickly over the first 4 years of life. Children across the world master many aspects of their first language by the time they are 3 or 4 years old. From birth, language is observable from the cries of an infant that are meant to express themselves to the sounds and words expressed by a toddler. Therefore, both receptive (hearing and understanding) and expressive (speaking) forms of language are the basic building blocks for literacy development. When the language is familiar, it builds on existing knowledge and enables learners to express themselves and engage in discussion—thereby participating in their own learning (Sampa, 2008).

Activity 8

What are some of the local languages, and in which provinces are they used as the language of instruction?

Teacher educator guidance

Expected answers: Tonga, Lozi, Nyanja, Bemba, Lunda, Kaonde, and Luvale

Almost all children learn the rules of their language at an early age with little, if any, formal instruction. Human beings are born to speak, and they have an innate ability for figuring out the rules of the language used in their environment. The environment itself is also a significant factor. Children learn the specific variety of language that people around them speak (parents, caregivers, and siblings). Children do not, however, learn only by imitating those around them. Children work through linguistic rules on their own because they use forms that adults never use, such as 'I goed there before' or 'I see your feets'. Children eventually learn the conventional forms, *went* and *feet*. They tend to correct themselves as they continuously interact with people. Language occurs through an interaction among genes, environment, and the child's own thinking abilities (Genishi, 1988).

In literate societies, children are exposed to various literacy activities and tools in their homes and communities and begin to learn the basic forms and functions of literacy at an early age. Like language, literacy develops through the interactions a child experiences with others. Literacy can develop through hearing stories read from books and showing children pictures with words. It can also be developed by drawing the child's attention to different environmental print. It is important that adults do not attempt to force adult levels of reading onto children in their early development, as this is considered developmentally inappropriate and may actually delay development of literacy skills (Universal Class, 2021).

Literacy is based on language competence, starting from the basic sounds and extending to the most frequent and complex structures of text (Moats, 2005). The beginnings of literacy lie in the everyday experiences of early childhood, which appear to be crucial to literacy acquisition. Parents, siblings, peers, teachers, and the environment all play a role in a child's literacy development.

'Literacy is a secondary system, dependent on language as the primary system. This means that effective literacy teachers need to have a good command of language and language development' (Snow et al., 2006). The relationship between language and literacy is reciprocal in nature and changes over time. 'Young children need writing to help them learn about reading, they need reading to help them learn about writing, and they need oral language to help them learn about both' (Roskos et al., 2003, p. 3). The ability to produce and comprehend spoken language is one of the earliest predictors of literacy achievement (National Early Literacy Panel, 2008).

The conventional forms of literacy and language are so closely related to the extent that it is impossible to discuss reading, writing, and literacy skills without implying the existence of language skills. This simply means that language and literacy cannot be separated—one skill builds upon the other. For instance, one can only read and write meaningfully in a language that they understand. Similarly, when one discusses written language, literacy is implied.

In other words, there is no such thing as written language that does not involve literacy. When learning about any written language such as the alphabetic system, phonetics and phonology, and conventional literacy, language knowledge is necessary (Mkandawire, 2018). However, language instruction and literacy instruction are different, requiring different pedagogies, and should be taught at separate times during the school day.

Children who enter school with strong oral language skills tend to learn how to read and write with greater ease and tend to excel more in school than their peers with less knowledge of vocabulary and language structure. More information on oral language development is provided in chapter 6. Language is about listening and speaking within a system that has its own rules and conventions and focusing on building a deep understanding of the language and its use. Pedagogies include developing an understanding of the underlying structure of the language—the phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics[1].

Literacy instruction focuses on understanding how symbols are assigned to the sounds within language and developing skills of applying language skills to printed text: reading and writing, in order to understand print and convey meaning by using print. Pedagogies should focus on how to break the code of printed language and developing automation in word recognition and fluency in reading. Children's language and literacy development is facilitated by their experiences at home, in school, and in the community. As they interact with people and objects, they construct their own knowledge and use language and concrete representations such as drawing, mark making, and writing to communicate what they know and have learnt. The link between language and literacy is quite natural, because long before a child learns how to read words and recognise symbols, he or she will develop the skills required to understand how language works. Unlike learning to speak a language, learning to read is not a natural process. Learning how to read requires specific training to be able to recognise letters and words (Wolf, 2007).

Activity 9: Learning outcomes 6 and 7

1. Think about this statement and discuss its meaning: '*Young children need writing to help them learn about reading, they need reading to help them learn about writing, and they need oral language to help them learn about both*' (Roskos et al., 2003, p. 3).
2. Explain why language matters for literacy development and justify your answer with information from this chapter.
3. What differences are there between teaching literacy and teaching language?

[1] These topics are discussed further in chapter 6 of the literacy module and chapter 5 of the language module.

3.9

Component skills of literacy

This section of the module will give you a quick overview of the key skills that student teachers will be exposed to as they prepare to teach their peers in college and consequently learners in schools, during their teaching practice. These skills are phonological awareness, concepts of print, alphabetic principle, reading fluency, vocabulary, oral language, listening and reading comprehension, and writing. This section of the chapter will provide a very brief highlight of each skill. Other chapters of this module and the following modules will provide detailed explanations on each skill, why it is important, how it is taught, and how it is assessed. Additionally, opportunities will be provided to develop and deliver lessons in these component skill areas to peers.

Teacher educator guidance

Provide student teachers with the graphic organiser in Appendix 3A or ask student teachers to draw the graphic organiser in their notebook. While reviewing the information on the component skills of literacy, student teachers should record notes into their graphic organiser.

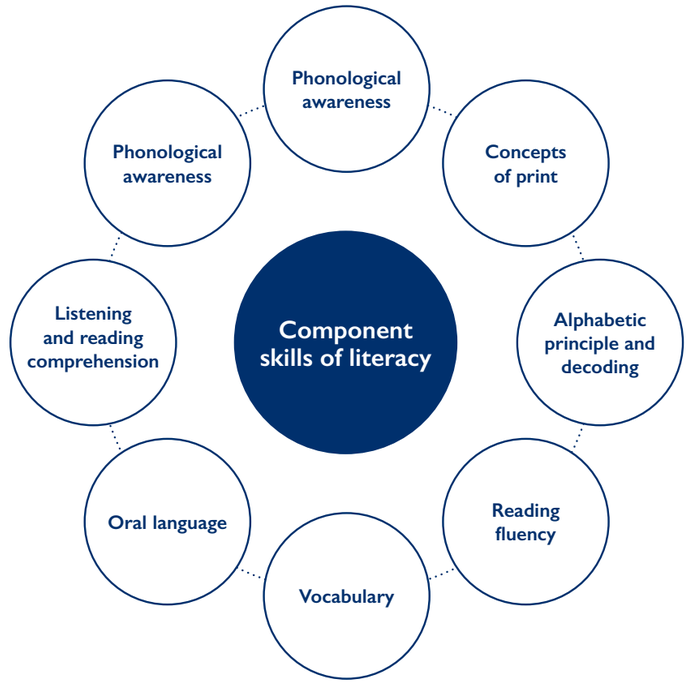


Figure 3.3 Component skills of literacy

- **Phonological awareness**

  The ability to hear, identify, and manipulate the sounds in spoken words. Before children learn to read print, they must become aware of the sounds in language. Awareness at the individual sound level is a very special type of phonological awareness called phonemic awareness.

- **Concepts of print (COP)/print awareness**

  The knowledge of how print and books work. Young readers require explicit instruction in the ways that books are used and how print represents spoken language.

- **Alphabetic principle and decoding**

  The recognition that letters represent sounds in a systematic and predictable way. The sounds of letters can be blended together to read words and segmented to allocate letters to write words.

- **Reading fluency**

  The ability to read connected text with speed, accuracy, prosody, and comprehension. Reading fluency is an important link between decoding and comprehending. Fluent reading allows learners to focus on the meaning of the text rather than on trying to sound out the words.

- **Vocabulary**

  The knowledge of the meaning of words. Vocabulary skills are key to comprehension. There are four types of vocabulary: listening vocabulary, speaking vocabulary, reading vocabulary, and writing vocabulary.

- **Oral language**

  Knowing vocabulary, grammar, language structures, and the way a language is used. Language development begins early in life, long before children attend school. Language structures used in speaking and listening activities support reading comprehension.

- **Listening and reading comprehension**

  The understanding and interpreting of what is heard or read. This refers to the ability to extract meaning from what has been read or heard. This skill is critical for thinking about how one thinks.

- **Writing**

  The ability to express ideas and knowledge in written form. Writing supports reading and reading supports writing. Students who practise encoding (using phonics skills to write words) are better at decoding (using phonic skills to read words). Writing skills should be introduced early to their learners. Writing takes time and practice to learn.

Activity 10: Learning outcome 8

Explain the meaning of the following terms:

a. *Phonological awareness*

b. *Concepts of print (COP)/print awareness*

c. *Alphabetic principle*

d. *Reading fluency*

e. *Vocabulary*

f. *Oral language*

g. *Listening comprehension*

h. *Reading comprehension*

i. *Writing*

3.10

Chapter summary

Literacy is more than having the ability to read and write but includes, in a broader sense, all the skills of language: listening, speaking, and reading, as well as interpretation of symbols. Cognitive development is key for attaining literacy skills. In order for learners to develop cognitively, there is a need for them to be engaged in hands-on activities that can help them learn on their own. It is key for teachers to use language that learners are familiar with and activities that are based on mastered skills, so that learners can construct their own knowledge.

The model behind these four systems is known as the Connectionist model. There are four systems in the brain that work together to help a learner read. The phonological processor helps the reader interpret sounds. The orthographic processor helps the reader interpret text. These first two processors work together to build letter-sound associations in the

brain. The meaning processor helps the reader assign meaning to the words that are read. The context processor helps the reader determine the appropriate meaning for each word, given the context, and links world knowledge to the reading experience.

Jeanne S. Chall's five stages of reading development are pre-reading (stage 0), initial reading and decoding (stage 1), confirmation and fluency (stage 2), reading for learning the new (stage 3), multiple viewpoints (stage 4), and construction and reconstruction (stage 5). It is important for teachers to understand the appropriate types of instructional activities that learners in each of these stages are prepared to complete, and how learners can be supported to grow to the next level of reading development.

Language and literacy coexist. When a child is born, he or she develops the listening skill and later the speaking skill of the language in the environment around him or her. Reading skills, however, must be explicitly taught and learnt. Emergent literacy skills are acquired from the environment a child is exposed to, alongside language, typically during the early years before school. Therefore, a learner in a school setup is expected to be a competent speaker of a language before the literacy skills can be applied. Conclusively, language and literacy are intertwined.

There are several key components of literacy instruction. These are phonological awareness, concepts of print, alphabetic principle and decoding, reading fluency, vocabulary, oral language, listening and reading comprehension, and writing. Phonological awareness is the ability to hear, identify, and manipulate the sounds in spoken words. Concepts of print refers to the knowledge of how print and books work. Alphabetic principle and decoding refer to the recognition that letters represent sounds in a systematic and predictable way and the sounds of letters can be blended to read words. Reading fluency is the ability to read connected text with speed, accuracy, prosody, and comprehension. Oral language refers to knowing vocabulary, grammar, language structures, and the way a language is used. Vocabulary refers to the knowledge of the meaning of words. Listening and reading comprehension refers to the understanding and interpreting of what is heard or read. Writing is the ability to express ideas and knowledge in written form. These key components will be discussed in detail later in this module and in subsequent modules.

3.11

Assessment of learning

Below are chapter self-assessment items. Put a tick (√) if you agree with the given items (statements) and (X) if not, and put a question mark (?) if you are not sure about the item.

Table 3.3 Chapter 3: Self-assessment

S/N	Statements	Yes	No	Not sure
1	I can define the term *literacy*.			
2	I can explain the terms *cognitive development*, *reading*, *emergent literacy*.			
3	I can explain the parts of the Connectionist model as well as the model's implications for teaching literacy.			
4	I can list the six stages in the stages of reading and discuss appropriate instruction for each of the stages.			
5	I can distinguish between emergent literacy, reading to learn, and learning to read.			
6	I can explain the link between language and literacy and why language is important in literacy development.			
7	I can briefly explain each of the key components of literacy instruction.			

3.12

Supplemental readings and resources

EdCircuit. (2020). *Cognitive Skills and Reading*. Retrieved from: https://www.edcircuit.com/cognitive-skills-reading/

The MAClab. (2021). *Reading*. Retrieved from: https://psychology.uiowa.edu/maclab/research/reading

Work & Days. (2021). *Chall on Stages of Reading Development*. Retrieved from: https://newlearningonline.com/literacies/chapter-15/chall-on-stages-of-reading-development

Other websites for additional information

https://www.universalclass.com/articles/psychology/child-development/language-and-literacy-development-in-understanding-child-development.htm

https://www.asha.org/public/speech/emergent-literacy/

https://www.universalclass.com/articles/psychology/child-development/language-and-literacy-development-in-understanding-child-development.htm

https://www.n2y.com/blog/language-literacy-development-and-relationship/

https://www.latch-on.net/literacy-elements/

CHAPTER 4

Balanced Literacy

CHAPTER 4

Balanced Literacy

INTRODUCTION

Literacy instruction in Zambia has changed over the course of history. Today, a balanced literacy approach is used because it is effective for improving reading outcomes for both struggling and fluent readers (Adams, 1990; National Early Literacy Panel, 2008). Balanced literacy includes both systematic phonics-based instruction and aspects of whole-language instruction. This chapter first orients student teachers to the history of the literacy situation in Zambia to understand what led to the creation and adoption of the Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) implemented in schools today which uses a balanced approach. As well as this, the chapter builds on the value evident in the PLP by expanding on literacy practices that are included in balanced approaches, specifically: explicit, systematic instruction, the gradual release model, implicit instruction, lesson planning procedures, and assessment.

4.1

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.4.3 Literacy situation in Zambia

- **1.4.3.1** Describe the literacy situation in Zambia before and after independence
- **1.4.3.2** Discuss factors affecting literacy instruction in Zambia
- **1.4.3.3** Identify challenges affecting the teaching of literacy

1.5.1 Overview of the Primary Literacy Programme (PLP)

- **1.5.1.1** Describe the background to teaching reading using Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) *(overview)*
- **1.5.1.3** State reasons for the shift from Primary Reading Programme (PRP) to PLP
- **1.5.1.4** Identify the goals of PLP *(local language policy)*

1.5.5 Lesson procedure and lesson format

- **1.5.5.1** Demonstrate steps for teaching a PLP lesson

1.6.1 Meaning of assessment

- **1.6.1.1** Explain the meaning of assessment

1.6.2 Importance of assessment

- **1.6.2.1** Discuss reasons for assessment

1.6.3 Types of assessment

- **1.6.3.1** Discuss different types of assessment

1.6.4 Conducting assessment

- **1.6.4.1** Explain the procedure for conducting assessment

1.17.1 Meaning of reading

- **1.17.1.1** Explain the meaning of reading

1.17.2 Importance of reading

- **1.17.1.1** State the values of reading in everyday life

By the end of the chapter, the student teachers will:

1. outline the literacy situation in Zambia before and after independence
2. understand the factors and challenges that have affected literacy instruction in Zambia
3. identify the characteristics of explicit instruction
4. explain the parts of the gradual release model
5. compare and contrast whole language approaches and phonics-based approaches to teaching reading
6. develop and teach a PLP lesson using a balanced literacy method that integrates the gradual release model
7. justify the importance of a balanced literacy approach with evidence from the chapter
8. explain the meaning and importance of reading
9. explain what assessments are and the various types, the reasons for assessment, and the procedure for conducting assessment.

4.2

Instructional materials

- Student module
- National Literacy Framework
- Tracing the history of literacy in Zambia (timeline) (Appendix 4A)
- Language and literacy activities (Appendix 4B)

4.3

Key terms

Primary Reading Programme (PRP)

A reading programme used in Zambia from 1999 to 2013, which used an eclectic approach to reading instruction as well as aspects of a language experience approach and whole-language instruction

Primary Literacy Programme (PLP)

A reading programme used in Zambia today which was fully implemented in 2014; it uses a systematic phonics-based approach

National Literacy Framework (NLF)

The framework from which the PLP is based; includes five components of reading (phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, and oral reading fluency)

Reading

The process of deriving meaning from text

Mother tongue

The language that children first learn to speak after they are born

Balanced literacy

Reading instruction that balances whole-language and phonics-based approaches that is responsive to individual learners' needs

Explicit instruction

Teaching in a direct, structured way so that learners understand exactly what is expected of them

Gradual release model

An instructional model where teachers scaffold learning by strategically transferring the responsibility in the learning process from the teacher to the learners ('I do', 'We do', 'You do')

Local language

A native language spoken in the area that a speaker resides in

Language of instruction (LOI)

The language chosen for instruction in a subject area

4.4

Literacy situation in Zambia

In chapter 3, literacy was defined as the ability to read, write, speak, and listen in addition to being able to interpret what has been read or heard in a particular language. When we think of literacy, **reading** likely comes to the forefront of our thinking. When we read, we make meaning from print which includes recognising the linkages between the letters and sounds that form words that string together to make sentences. To read fluently, we must be able to accurately read words at a good rate so that we can focus on the meaning of the text. Vocabulary knowledge helps us to know what the words mean so that through fluent reading, comprehension takes place. Aspects of literacy are important to all cultures because it is a driver for sustainable development; it enables greater participation in the labour market, improved child and family health and nutrition, a reduction in poverty, and an expansion of life opportunities. People with low literacy levels are not able to participate fully in their communities; it is a stepping-stone to an improved livelihood. Thus, literacy is important to the success of every Zambian. In this section, the history of literacy in Zambia is traced from its origin to the present[1].

Activity 1: Learning outcome 8

What is 'reading'?

Why is reading important to our everyday lives?

Activity 2: Learning outcome 1

Use the timeline provided in Appendix 4A to record the most important events concerning the literacy situation in Zambia.

Teacher educator guidance

Provide student teachers with the timeline graphic organiser located in Appendix 4A or have them copy the timeline on paper. Student teachers should record the main events for each year onto their graphic organiser.

[1] This topic is revisited again in chapter 7 of the language module.

4.4.1

Precolonial to pre-independence education

According to researchers, literacy was present during the period of indigenous education, and at the centre of it was language—the **mother tongue** (MT), the language children grow up learning how to speak (Brock-Utne, 2000; Ngulube, 1989). It was also the earliest form of education that Zambia, Northern Rhodesia then, introduced by the early missionaries (Chishiba & Manchishi, 2016). The missionaries set up numerous village schools where reading, writing, and arithmetic were taught to children who stayed after religious instruction.

In June 1924, the Phelps-Stokes Commission visited Northern Rhodesia and made important recommendations to improve literacy education which laid out the *Three Tier Language in Education Policy*. In this policy, the **local language** was to be used for the language of instruction (LOI) in primary grades. Then, learners were expected to shift to the **lingua franca**, the most widely spoken language in the area. English was introduced in upper grades.

Years later, the colonial government recommended a system of education catering for both children and adults and appointed a Commissioner for Native Development who set up Area Development Centres in each province. These centres taught courses such as homecraft, brickwork, carpentry, tailoring, leatherwork, blacksmithing, and adult literacy (Mwansa, 2005). Some voluntary organisations and individuals also became interested in adult literacy, but literacy was, however, overshadowed by skills training.

In 1963, a United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) mission visited Northern Rhodesia and found that 50% of learners enrolled in grade 1 (Sub A) did not proceed beyond grade 4. As this was close to the time of Northern Rhodesia gaining independence, it was also concerning that there was not a cadre of educated Zambians to stimulate economic development when independence was achieved. Therefore, there was motivation for starting a literacy campaign to create a literate electorate. Thus, the UNESCO mission made many recommendations concerning *adult* literacy. First, it recommended English as the language of instruction (LOI) for literacy. Second, it recommended a 6-month literacy course for teachers who taught reading. Finally, literacy was to be implemented by the Ministry of Community Development and the Ministry of Education. The recommendations from the UNESCO mission were not taken seriously by government officials. Though some form of literacy was introduced in community development materials, they were not suitable, and those who attended classes soon relapsed into illiteracy (Mwanakatwe, 1974). At the time of political independence, there were over 1 million adults who were not able to read and write (Mwanakatwe, 1974; Alexander, 1971), and adult illiteracy was estimated at 61%. Seeing the high illiteracy rate, the government immediately began to consider how to develop programmes aimed at reducing illiteracy in the country.

In 1964, but before Zambia's independence, non-formal literacy programmes in Zambia were predominantly operated by voluntary agencies such as the missionaries of different Christian denominations (like the precolonial era). These missionaries' main goal was to spread Christianity, which could only work well if people were able to read (the Bible) and write (verses for later reference). Thus, schools were opened in which reading and writing were taught first in the local language and then in English. So, literacy in the MT was the shared vision among various missionaries of the time (Kashoki, 1978). Apart from the missionaries, local municipalities, and relatively much later, the mining companies situated in the mining towns were responsible for these programmes. Formal government contributions were made initially by the Department of African Education and later by the Commission for Rural Development.

Activity 3: Learning outcome 2

What factors and/or challenges were evident at this point in Zambia's literacy history?

Teacher educator guidance

Pause to allow student teachers to make sure they are completing the timeline. Next, review with student teachers the origins of literacy in Zambia and the history of literacy up until this point in the module. Then, ask student teachers the question.

4.4.2

Post-independence education

In 1965, there were two important developments in the promotion of non-formal literacy, commonly referred to as *adult education*. These were the formation of the Zambia Adult Literacy Programme and the Department of Community Development. Among other things, this newly created department was tasked to run the literacy programmes (Kashoki, 1978). Many campaign programmes were organised by teachers and learners. Radio programmes were put in place to foster literacy campaigns. In these programmes, the use of a MT was cardinal as there was abundant community participation.

In 1966, the Education Act legislated that English would become the LOI from grade 1 until the end of tertiary education. Years later, the 1977 Educational Reforms proposed a return to local languages as the LOI in the early grades, but this was not agreed upon. English was still to be used as the LOI. Following these reforms, Focus on Learning (1992) attempted to again return to local languages used in the early grades but once again this policy was not implemented, but it was not until the Educating Our Future (1966) policy document came in to force, that things changed. The policy recommended that learners be given opportunities to use a local or familiar language when learning foundational reading and writing skills and then later transition to English as the official language of instruction (MoE, 1996). It was under this current policy that MoE introduced the Primary Reading Programme (PRP). which was fully implemented in 1999 and phased out in 2013 (Chibamba et al., 2018). The PRP is discussed next.

4.4.4

Primary Reading Programme (PRP)

The PRP was a literacy programme implemented in Zambian in 1999 and phased out in 2013. It used a language experience approach and a whole language approach to phonics instruction (Sampa et al., 2018). Language experience approaches 'promote reading and writing through the use of personal experience and oral language' (Taylor, 2000, para. 1).

The PRP consisted of three parts:

i. **New Breakthrough to Literacy (NBTL)** is a course through which learners spent an hour each day learning to read fluently and write easily and accurately in their local language in grade 1. There was also an oral English course called Pathway to English that taught English language twice a week to ensure that learners develop enough English language to learn literacy in English in grade 2.

ii. **Step into English (SITE)** is a literacy course that enabled learners to read fluently and to write clearly and accurately in grade 2. This helped learners to build onto literacy skills they would have acquired reading in their local language in grade 1. The Pathway to English course was for oral English in grade 2.

iii. **Read on Course (ROC)** is a literacy course for grades 3–7 to support reading and writing in both local and English languages. It consists of a single teacher's guide that helped teachers identify the reading ability levels of learners and provided appropriate learning activities to help them improve their literacy skills.

While the PRP sought to improve learners' literacy outcomes, research studies have demonstrated that improvements could have been better. For example, the baseline study of the Zambian PRP (1999) found that among the learners tested in grades 1–6, the majority of children were reading two grades below grade level in English and three grades below level in their own Zambian languages. The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (Musonda & Kaba, 2011) assessed 2,895 grade 6 learners who attended a registered primary school in reading. They divided reading competencies into eight levels ranging in order of complexity: pre-reading, emergent reading, basic reading, reading for meaning, interpretive meaning, inferential reading, analytical reading, and critical reading. The majority of the learners assessed were reading at level 2: Emergent reading.

Indeed, there are numerous factors associated with learner outcomes besides what takes place in the classroom (e.g. parental beliefs towards literacy, the language background of both teachers and learners, learner absenteeism, learner motivation), but there were specific aspects of the PRP that did not support best practices for literacy instruction (Chibamba et al., 2018). Literacy instruction that begins with developing a foundation in letter-sound recognition improves learner outcomes (Honig et al., 2000), a component that the PRP was lacking in. However, there was also another critical aspect lacking in the programme; reading instruction was taught using a local or familiar language up through grade 1 with children then transitioning to English in grade 2 (Sampa et al., 2018). Yet, research shows that when children learn how to read in a language, they are most familiar with, they can transfer that knowledge to learning a new language (Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training & Early Education, 2013). The inability for the PRP to improve learner outcomes provided impetus for another educational policy change and the emergence of the Primary Literacy Programme (PLP).

4.4.5

Primary Literacy Programme (PLP)

The PLP was introduced in 2013 and fully implemented nationwide in 2014. It uses a systematic phonics-based approach and the inclusion of the seven official languages: Icibemba, Citonga, Silozi, Lunda, Luvale, Cinyanja, and Kikaonde. It is based on the National Literacy Framework (NLF) (MESVTEE, 2013) which includes the five key skills of teaching reading: 1) Phonemic awareness; 2) phonics; 3) oral reading fluency; 4) vocabulary; and 5) comprehension. Along with the key skills, there are other embedded skills like writing and grammar. The programme is systematic in that the sounds of the languages are introduced in sequence based on frequently used sounds. This ensures that learners encounter the most familiar sounds first before those that are less familiar. Learners are taught that

these sounds are mapped to letters, the letters form syllables and words, and words form sentences. The expected outcomes of the PLP as outlined by the NLF (MESVTEE, 2013) are outlined in Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Goals of the Primary Literacy Programme (PLP)

Grade	Competencies
1	• Show skills of reading initial sounds (e.g. letters, syllables, and words) • Demonstrate basic skills in reading and writing common words and simple sentences
2	• Demonstrate basic skills in reading and writing short paragraphs • Show understanding of short written text
3	• Write legibly and neatly in script and cursive forms • Communicate in speech in different situations
4	• Demonstrate basic skills and knowledge to: – retell a story – punctuate simple sentences and short paragraphs – describe various activities, objects, places, actions, and simple processes
5	• Demonstrate skills and knowledge to express feelings, thoughts, experiences, and convictions clearly and effectively in speech and writing at this level • Demonstrate ability to read with steady and clear comprehension
6	• Demonstrate high level skills, knowledge, and values in a Zambian language to express feelings, thoughts, experiences, and convictions clearly and effectively in speech and writing at this level • Demonstrate ability to read with steady and clear comprehension
7	• Demonstrate high level skills, knowledge, and values in a Zambian language to express feelings, thoughts, experiences, and convictions clearly and effectively in speech and writing • Demonstrate high level skills, knowledge, and values by integrating life skills in academic and challenges in life while at this level and the other levels

4.4.6

Factors and challenges affecting literacy instruction in Zambia

Regardless of the PLP, there are numerous classroom-level factors and challenges that affect the implementation of literacy instruction in Zambia as outlined in Figure 4.1.

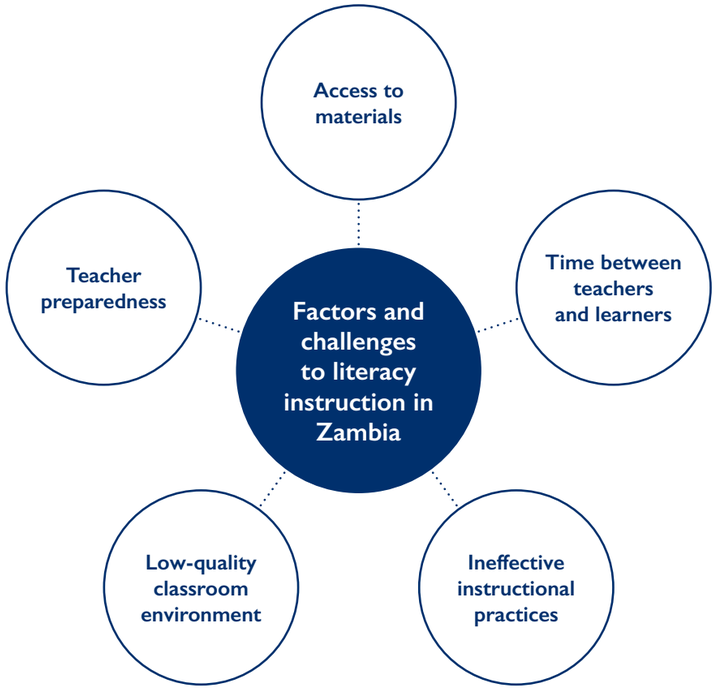


Figure 4.1 Factors and challenges to literacy instruction in Zambia (Kombe & Mwanza, 2019; MESTVTEE, n.d.).

- **Access to materials:** Some schools in Zambia have limited access to appropriate learning materials.
- **Time between teachers and learners:** For adequate learning to take place, learners need to spend sufficient time engaged in learning. Insufficient time may be due to poor planning and learner absenteeism.
- **Ineffective instructional practices:** The curriculum emphasises the use of the MT from grades 1 to 4.
- **Low-quality classroom environment:** Schools may be inadequately sourced with enough desks, seating, storage, and other necessary equipment that aids in learning.
- **Teacher preparedness:** Properly trained teachers in the curriculum and pedagogical practices is key to learners' success.

Literacy instruction has changed over the course of Zambia's history from precolonial times to the present day, with much learnt along the way. The NLF has outlined goals and best practices for the PLP to guide and support teachers in the classroom. In the next section, *balanced literacy* will be explained further to expand on the value of the PLP and provide student teachers with more expertise and pedagogical knowledge to support teaching and learning.

Activity 4: Learning outcome 2

There are always challenges to teaching and learning. What are some of the other challenges to the educational context in Zambia, and what do you think teachers can do to mitigate these challenges?

4.5

Whole language versus phonics-based instruction

Firstly, it must be noted that there are two basic methodologies to the teaching of literacy. These are the whole language approach and the phonics method also referred to as systematic explicit approach or instruction. As an overview, Table 4.2 outlines some of the key aspects of these approaches to teaching reading with more detailed discussion following.

Table 4.2 Principles of whole language and phonics-based reading instruction

Whole-language	Phonics-based/systematic, explicit instruction
Reading skills are acquired through trial and error with teacher guidance, but with little direct instruction.	Learners are explicitly taught to connect the sounds of spoken language to letters.
Phonics is taught within the context of the book being read.	Phonics is taught in sequential order or planned sequence.
Comprehension is emphasised over whether learners read words accurately.	Learners are taught to become fluent readers with comprehension also being important.
When learners cannot read words, they are encouraged to guess by using clues.	When learners cannot read words, they are encouraged to sound out the sounds and blend them together to form words.

4.5.1

Phonics-based/systematic, explicit instruction

The most effective and efficient way to teach literacy to young learners is through the direct and explicit teaching of skills. Systematic, explicit instruction is teaching in a direct way rather than in an implicit way so that the learner knows exactly what is expected. This style of teaching requires carefully planned teacher and learner interactions. Teachers begin instruction with being fully responsible for learning and then gradually hand over this responsibility to learners as they become successful and able to apply skills and strategies independently. Thus, instruction moves from teacher modelling to guided practice using prompts and cues, and then to independent and fluent performance on the part of the learner (Rosenshine, 1986). Systematic, explicit instruction proceeds in small steps, checking for learners' understanding, and aims to achieve active and successful participation by all learners (Rosenshine, 1997). There is a plan or logical sequence of teaching meant to reduce learners' confusion and errors. This is evident when teaching letter sounds in a phonics-based approach (e.g. separating the teaching of [b] and [d] and focusing on high-frequency sounds such as /a/ and /s/ among those taught first). Explicit, systematic instruction can also be referred to as the 'I do', 'We do', 'You do' approach (Archer & Hughes, 2011) or the **gradual release model** of instruction. We will look at this model next.

4.5.2

The gradual release model

When you adopt explicit teaching practices, you are clearly showing your learners what to do and how to do it. You are not relying on learners to construct this information for themselves. Figures 4.2 and 4.3 illustrate the gradual release model in different ways.

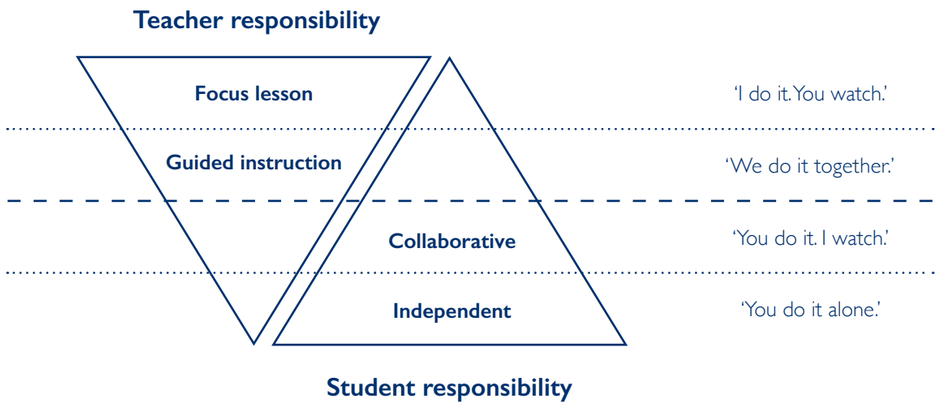


Figure 4.2 The gradual release model (Frey & Fisher, 2008)

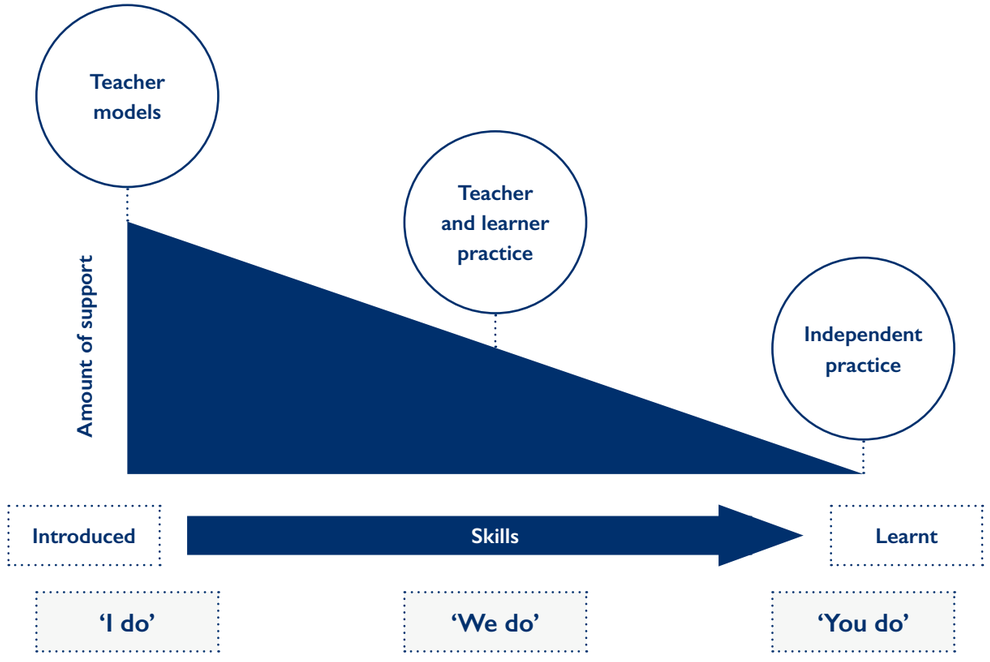


Figure 4.3 The gradual release model progression

There are several characteristics of the gradual release model (Fisher & Frey, 2013):

- ## 'I do'

  ### Teacher does, learners watch

  The teacher establishes a purpose, goal, or target to focus on in the lesson and models what is to be expected by demonstrating and sharing his or her thought processes aloud rather than simply explaining.

- ## 'We do'

  ### Guided practice

  The teacher guides learners in the activity by doing it with them and supports learners' progress through scaffolding. Scaffolding includes asking questions, prompting, and providing cues. *(This shows the careful planning that must take place prior to instruction. Anticipating where gaps may occur in learners' progress will help teachers prepare for how to scaffold learning.)*

- ## 'You do, together'

  ### Collaborative learning

  In small groups or pairs, learners apply what they have learnt on a new task. They take on more responsibility, but the teacher continues to monitor and scaffold learning.

- ## 'You do, alone'

  ### Independent learning

  Teachers release learners to work alone and apply what they have learnt on a similar but new task. The teacher only intervenes to provide feedback or correction.

Teacher educator guidance

Carefully review the examples of using the gradual release model that follow in Tables 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5, while drawing connections between the examples and the characteristics of the model.

Table 4.3 Using the gradual release model in reading example

Stage	Instructional activity
'I do'	*Read aloud:* Teacher reads a text aloud to learners while discussing features of the text and modelling strategies like previewing, making predictions, questioning, and visualising.
'We do'	*Shared reading:* The teacher and learners read a text together while discussing features of the text and practising the strategies as set forth by the teacher. Shared reading often includes big books, charts, and pictures.
'You do, together'	*Collaborative reading:* Learners read a text together practising the same skills as previously learnt through the 'I do' and 'We do' stages of the lesson. The teacher monitors and scaffolds instruction as needed.
'You do, alone'	*Independent reading:* Learners read a new text independently and apply the skills they learnt in the lesson on their own. The teacher may provide an assessment tool to gauge learners' progress.

Table 4.4 Using the gradual release model in writing example

Stage	Instructional activity
'I do'	*Modelled writing:* The teacher models the writing activity for the learners. Before modelling writing, the teacher may also share a text that also models the same skills.
'We do'	*Shared/interactive writing:* The teacher and learners work together to create another composition using the focus skills of the lesson. Learners provide the teacher with the ideas while the teacher writes.
'You do, together'	*Guided writing:* The teacher works with small groups who have similar strengths and weaknesses. The teacher matches instructional skills and strategies to learners' instructional levels.
'You do, alone'	*Independent writing:* Learners apply the skills they have learnt on their own composition, but the teacher still takes learners through the editing, revising, and publishing stages of their writing.

Table 4.5 Sample lesson plan for any lesson

Lesson components
Set purpose • Today we are going to learn... • The reason we are learning this is...
State objective • At the end of this lesson you will be able to...
Connect to and review previous learning • Yesterday, you...
Teach new concept/skill ('I do') • Watch me or listen to me as I...
Guided practice ('We do') • Now, let's try this together.
Assess learners application ('You do') • Now, let's see you try this on your own.
Return to purpose • Tell your partner what you learnt and practised today.
Provide opportunity for independent practice • I want to give you a chance now to show that you can do this independently. • When you're working independently today, I would like you to...

(Laine et al., 1998, as cited in Colorado Department of Education, 2019)

Activity 5: Learning outcome 4

1. What is the gradual release model?
2. How does the gradual release model support learning? What are its strengths?

Teacher educator guidance

As a resource, there is a list of primary activities listed in Appendix 4B.

4.5.3

Whole language approach

The whole language approach holds that language should not be seen in terms of its letters building into syllables and syllables building into words. Rather, it argues that language is a complete meaning making system in which words work in relation to other words in an utterance in specific communicative contexts. Thus, the whole language approach is a child-centred literature based on literature teaching which involves learners in real-life communication. The method suggests that literacy of reading is learnt from whole to part, in this case, learners are presented with whole and natural language and the teacher leads learners into breaking or analysing that language from whole language into parts that make up the language. For instance, learners will identify words from sentences and syllables, from words and sounds, from syllables, etc. This is the opposite of the phonics-based method which starts with sounds and letter relationships, building phonemes into syllables and using syllables to form words and words to make sentences. This is the reason why whole language is said to be whole to part, while the phonic-based method is said to be from part to whole (Froses, 1991, p. 2). Goodman (1989) stated that whole language has the following features: integration of curriculum, use of authentic predictable materials for reading and writing, and democratic classrooms. The belief of the whole language approach according to Smith (2015) is that children and adults use similar strategies to process and comprehend. Aspects of the whole language method, therefore includes adults modelling reading, recognising words in context, and phonics skills are acquired naturally through exposure to reading. The belief is that it is easier to learn reading from whole to part in authentic contexts. While there are notable merits of the whole language approach, the method is criticised for being unsuitable as the sole method of instruction for beginners and struggling readers.

Activity 6: Learning outcome 5

Compare and contrast the whole-language versus the phonics-based approaches using a Venn diagram.

Teacher educator guidance

Have student teachers compare and contrast the whole-language versus the phonics-based approaches to instruction. They can do this independently at first, and then discuss as a group. Make sure student teachers record answers from their peers, if it is important and was not included in their original responses. Make sure to consider the value in both approaches and why a balance could be achieved between both of them.

4.7

What is balanced literacy instruction?

Balanced literacy instruction is an approach to instruction which combines the best features of the whole language and the systematic, explicit approach to literacy instruction. According to Bingham and Hall-Kenyon (2013), balanced literacy is a 'philosophical perspective that seeks to combine, or balance, skill-based and meaning-based instruction in order to ensure positive reading and writing results in children' (p. 15). Bingham and Hall-Kenyon (2013) add that better literacy instruction should combine both skill-based aspects of reading such as phonemic awareness, alphabetic principle, letter sound association and the meaning-based aspects of reading such as vocabulary and comprehension. In the classroom, the teacher is expected to use several activities to meet the needs of all the learners. These activities will include 'daily reading and writing activities, independent reading with self-selection of texts, teacher reads aloud, writing, oral and literacy responses' (Duffy et al., 2002, p. 43). When providing balanced instruction, the teacher will test the learners and know the reading needs of each learner. Thereafter, the teacher will provide systematic, explicit instruction to beginners or struggling leaners and provide whole language instruction to skilled readers. When and if all learners have acquired reading proficiency, learners' needs may shift resulting in more instruction that is whole language-based. Regardless, it must be mentioned that balanced instruction recognises that phonics-based, systematic, explicit instruction is a superior approach especially for early graders and struggling learners. Alternatively, in balanced literacy instruction, the teacher will read texts aloud or learners will read the text and identify their mistakes and teach those areas of reading weaknesses using systematic, explicit instruction. As indicated already, the idea behind balanced literacy instruction is to integrate teaching approaches to literacy in order to provide a context sensitive pedagogy which is responsive to the needs of diverse learners. There are a number of benefits of balanced literacy instruction. These include differentiation in instruction, gradual release of responsibility, and balanced instruction. Practically, balanced literacy instruction allows for multiple activities to take place in the classroom to increase learner success and to create differentiation in teacher instruction. Here, the learner spends time working independently, in small groups, and one-to-one with the teacher (Bingham & Hall-Kenyon, 2013).

Using a balanced approach supports all learners' success in being able to link sounds to letters. While learners may be able to use context clues or pictures to support the reading of unknown words, if learners know how to sound out sounds and blend them together to read words they do not know, they will be more likely to read that word on their own. When learners are provided with enough practice to become fluent readers along with adequate vocabulary knowledge, they will be able to focus on making meaning from text much easier.

Activity 7: Learning outcome 3 and 7

1. With examples, explain the meaning of systematic, explicit phonics-based instruction.
2. How is the whole language approach used in the classroom to teach literacy?
3. Why is balanced instruction better than using a single approach? Justify your answer with evidence from the text.

4.8

Lesson planning

The PLP provides a lesson format for teachers to follow that includes seven parts. Below is the structure.

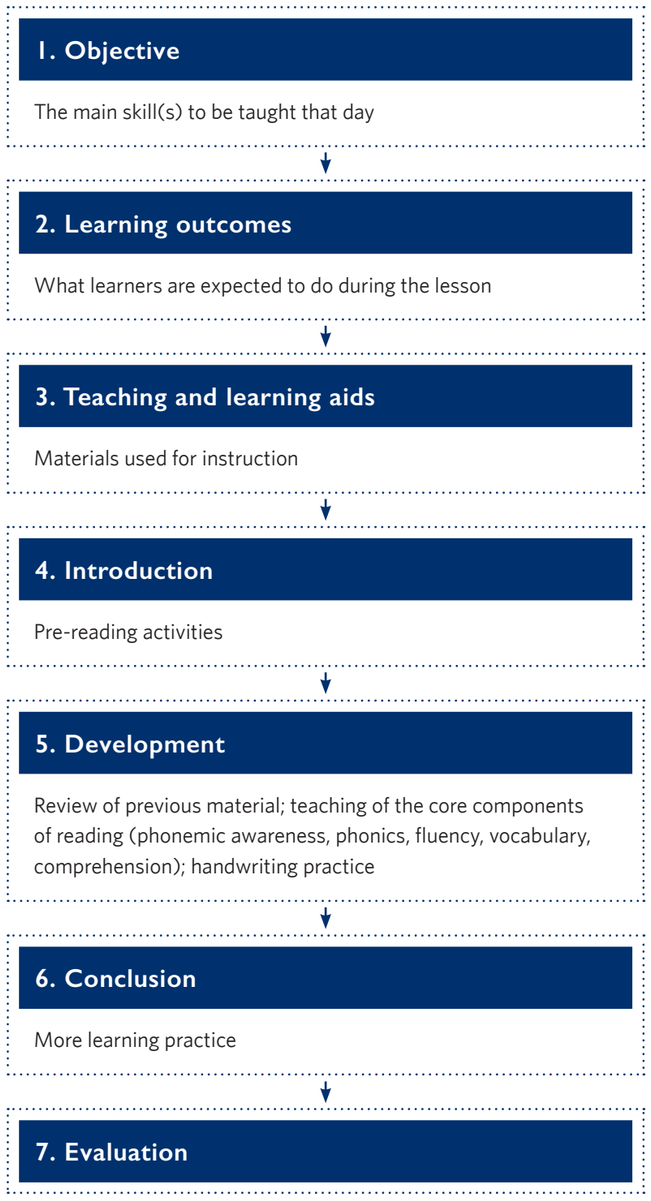


Figure 4.4 Primary Learning Programme (PLP) lesson format

Teacher educator guidance

Discuss with student teachers the features of the basic lesson plan in the PLP. Use the PLP as a resource to refer to and/or look at specific lessons. Then, discuss with student teachers how explicit instruction using the gradual release model can be integrated into their lessons to help support learning. At the end of the chapter, student teachers will apply their knowledge to creating a PLP lesson that also includes the gradual release model, and then teach their lesson to the class.

4.9

Assessments

Balanced literacy instruction also includes assessment of learners' progress. Teachers' knowledge of the different types of assessments and when to use them is essential to facilitating learners' achievement in the classroom. Assessments guide teachers to monitor their learners' progress and help teachers to know when to modify instruction to meet their individual learners' needs. There are specific assessments related to the components of literacy instruction which are brought to light where applicable throughout the remaining chapters of the module (e.g. fluency checks, comprehension questions, vocabulary assessments). Thus, for this chapter, it is important to have a broader sense of the types of assessments that are used to guide instruction.

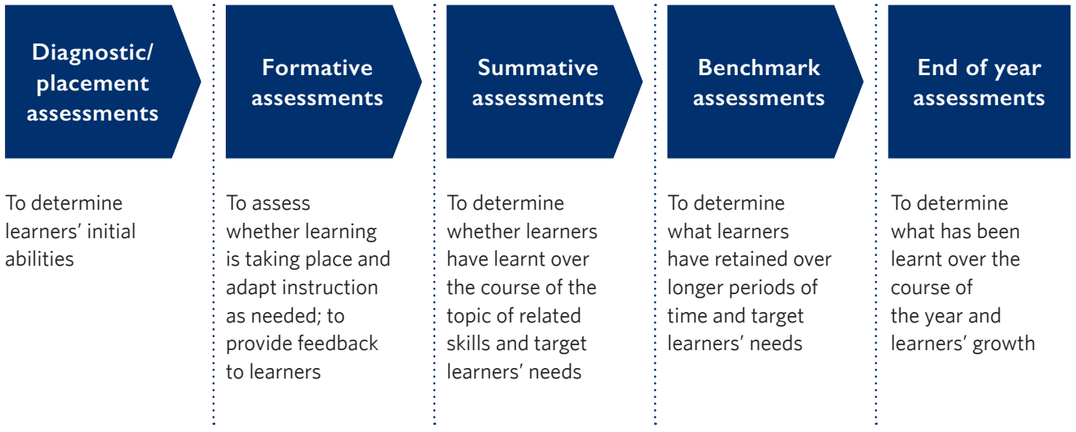


Figure 4.5 Types of assessments

Teachers use **diagnostic assessments** at the beginning of the year to determine what learners know or have retained from previous years. This helps teachers gain a sense of the overall ability level of his or her learners which can help the teacher decide what strengths and weaknesses already exist. It also helps the teacher plan for how to group learners together. An example of a diagnostic assessment is one that assesses learners' knowledge of the material from the year before. **Formative assessments** are used during lessons and throughout a unit or topic to gauge whether learning is taking place and provide feedback to help address misconceptions during learning. These types of assessments can be as simple as asking learners to answer questions, read a passage aloud, or complete a worksheet activity. When wanting to know how much learners have retained over a longer period, like after completing a unit or topic, teachers administer a summative assessment. They are a summation of what has been learnt. This helps teachers know what may still needs to be reviewed or retaught, and areas of strength. **Benchmark assessments** are given after longer periods of time, after more than one unit depending on the programme, quarterly, or halfway through the school year. In this way, they are similar to summative assessments but of course show what learners have retained over this extended period of time. Finally, **end-of-year assessments** help teachers know how much learners have retained over the course of the school year. This may help guide decisions on learners' placement in the next school year and recommendations for continuing to enhance learners' strengths and enhance areas of improvement.

The broad assessment categories described in this section help us to see that there are a variety of measures used to monitor learners' progress and guide teachers' instruction. Teachers' awareness of the tools available to them and how to use them are necessary to being an effective teacher because teachers need to know whether learning is taking place, or not.

Activity 8: Learning outcome 9

1. What are assessments and what are they used for?
2. Why is it important for teachers to be knowledgeable about the different types of assessments?
3. What are some of the broad types of assessments that were shared in this chapter, and how do you think they should be conducted or used in the classroom?

Teacher educator guidance

Explain to student teachers that they will continue to build their understanding of the various types of assessments that teachers use to gauge learners' progress as they continue the course. They will also have opportunities to engage with assessment tools.

4.10

Chapter summary

This chapter has looked at balanced literacy. To do so, the literacy situation in Zambia has been explained together with the historical contexts of the PRP and the PLP. Factors and challenges affecting literacy instruction in Zambia have also been explained. Having provided the context of literacy instruction in Zambia, the two methodological approaches to literacy instruction namely, whole language approach and systematic, explicit phonics-based literacy instruction have been explained. This led to the discussion of balanced literacy instruction which is basically a combination of the two approaches. The chapter has demonstrated that balanced literacy instruction is learner-centred and supports all learners regardless of their reading abilities. Finally, an overview of assessments and their purposes was made to foreshadow further discussions on how assessments help to guide learning in the classroom.

4.11

Assessment of learning

1. What led to the formulation of the PLP?
2. What factors and challenges affect literacy instruction in Zambia?
3. Learning outcome 6: Develop and teach a sample reading lesson using balanced literacy instruction and the gradual release model.

CHAPTER 5

Second Language Acquisition

CHAPTER 5

Second Language Acquisition

INTRODUCTION

It is important that student teachers understand the different factors that come into play during the process of language acquisition, as well as the roles that first, second, and foreign languages play in literacy and language development. Student teachers need to be aware of the pedagogical implications regarding the use of these languages in facilitating literacy and language development at different stages. As such, this chapter first introduces student teachers to the language policy in Zambia to help teachers understand the rationale behind current language practices and then proceeds to stages of **second language acquisition** and different teaching activities that can be employed for learners at different stages of development. Next, the chapter goes on to discuss the roles of first, second, and foreign languages in literacy development and further invites student teachers to a discussion on the language situation in their localities. Student teachers will also become familiar with **Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP)** hypothesis and its implications relating to the comparison of English and Zambian languages. Finally, the chapter discusses the importance of the **Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE)**.

5.1

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.3.1 Language policy in Zambia

1.3.1.1 Explain the language policy changes in Zambia before and after independence

1.3.2 Language and dialect

1.3.2.3 State the roles of first, second, and foreign languages

At the end of this chapter, student teachers will be able to:

1. identify the stages of second language acquisition
2. develop a list of appropriate teaching activities for learners at each stage of second language acquisition
3. define the terms *first*, *second*, and *foreign language*
4. identify languages that are usually acquired as second languages in their locality and explain the reasons for their acquisition
5. discuss the roles of first, second, and foreign languages in literacy development
6. apply Cummins' Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) hypothesis to the comparison of English and one Zambian language
7. distinguish between language interference and language facilitation
8. discuss the importance of MTB-MLE and develop an activity using one of the MTB-MLE strategies.

5.2

Instructional materials

Student module

5.3

Key terms

First language (L1)

The first language a person acquires in early childhood, usually unconsciously, through interaction with their environment; also known as a native language or Mother Tongue (MT)

Second language (L2)

Any language that an individual acquires after they have acquired the first language

Language acquisition device (LAD)

A mechanism in our brains which provides us with the innate ability to learn languages

Second language acquisition

The learning of a second language (L2) or other language(s) (Lx)

Foreign language

A language usually originating from another country other than a speaker's country of origin

Local language

A native language spoken in the area in which a speaker resides

Language facilitation

The characteristics or features between the L1 and L2 that make it easier for learners to become proficient in L2

Language interference

The characteristics or features between the L1 and L2 that make it more difficult or challenging for learners to become proficient in L2

Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) hypothesis

The interdependence of concepts, skills and linguistic knowledge found in a central processing system which, if present in an individual's L1, can be drawn upon and be advantageous to L2 acquisition

Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE)

The education system that helps learners of non-dominant language communities who do not understand or speak the language of instruction when they begin their formal education

Translanguaging
Language strategies that are used to bridge learning from one's first language to a second language

Multilingualism
The ability of an individual speaker or a community of speakers to communicate effectively in three or more languages

Bilingualism
The ability of an individual or the members of a community to use two languages effectively

Monolingualism
The condition of being able to effectively use only a single language

5.4

Language policy in Zambia

In chapter 4, an overview of the history of the literacy situation in Zambia was presented which also included the evolution of language policies. Some of these points are reviewed in the chapter herein to situate the topic of second language acquisition within the larger landscape of the Zambian education system. Thus, it was learnt that during the colonial period, missionaries in the area called Northern Rhodesia (now Zambia) taught initial literacy skills using the **local language** as the language of instruction (LOI) and transitioned learners to English after grade 5. A local language is a native language used within a given area or region. The local languages used for instruction were Cibemba, Citonga, Cinyanja, and Silozi. The colonial government also implemented this structure for education. The term *local language* is often used interchangeably with familiar language. A child who grew up speaking Cibemba would also consider Cibemba to be 'familiar' to him or her. However, a child who grows up speaking English in an area in which Cibemba is a local language would consider English to be a familiar language to them.

After Zambia became an independent nation in 1964, the nationalist government implemented the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation's UNESCO's recommendation that the English language should become the official language of instruction starting in grade 1 and continuing through the university level (Education Act, 1966). Years later, the Draft Statement (1976) proposed that the structure of using local languages in primary grades 1–4 instruction be returned. However, the proposal was not well designed, and the 1977 Educational Reforms document reaffirmed the use of English as the language of instruction (LOI) across all levels of education in Zambia. However, the 1977 Educational Reforms document did acknowledge that learning is done best in a familiar language.

In 1992, a document entitled Focus on Learning replaced the 1977 Educational Reform policy document. This policy emphasised that children should use a local language of instruction until they were taught English and were able to transition to English as the LOI. This inferred that local languages were required to be used in all government primary schools. Then, in 1996, the Educating Our Future policy document provided for learners to be given an opportunity to learn initial basic skills of reading and writing in a local language, while English remained the official language of instruction. Educating Our Future is currently the language policy document in use across Zambia.

Activity 1

What do you think are the advantages and disadvantages of the current language policy in Zambia?

Teacher educator guidance

Ask them to consider ideas such as costs of producing materials in multiple languages, availability of teachers to instruct in those languages, the ability to teach subjects like science and mathematics in local languages that may not have appropriate vocabulary, and mechanisms for transitioning learners to English.

5.5

First, second, and foreign languages

It is important that teachers understand what first, second, and foreign languages are. **First languages (L1)** can be defined as the language that an individual first learns to speak, before any other language. This language (also known as native or mother tongue) is often learnt in the first 2 years of one's life, and usually without classroom instruction. This language could be a person's Mother Tongue (MT) or even another language that they are exposed to during their earliest years of growth. It is a language which the individual is exposed to in natural situations. A **second language (L2)**, on the other hand, is any language that an individual acquires after they have learnt their first language. This language could be any language that the learner might be exposed to at home or in their immediate surroundings for some extended periods of time. A speaker tends to demonstrate lower mastery of a second language in comparison to their first language. A **foreign language**, on the other hand, might imply a language that is not predominantly used in a given country or one that originates from another country. A speaker's second language in the context of Zambia could be another local language, or it could be a foreign language. For example, someone may speak Bemba as a first language, English as a second language and French as a foreign language.

Activity 2: Learning outcomes 3 and 4

What languages are usually acquired as second languages in your locality, and what are the processes by which they are acquired as second languages, including English?

Record in your notebook, your own definitions of the terms *first*, *second*, and *foreign languages*. Then give examples of each of the three types of languages.

5.6

Stages of second language acquisition

Many theorists believe that humans have the innate ability to learn language, called **language acquisition device (LAD)** (Chomsky, 1959; Umarlebbe & Binti Mat Said, 2021; Yule, 2017). While languages may be different, there are universal qualities across languages. As such, human ability to learn a language is not dependent upon the language itself but rather the abilities to acquire language that we are born with. There are also theorists who believe that language learning is shaped by the environment in which we are born, that language learning is not innate but developed through imitating the language modeled by others and reinforced by interactions within the social environment (Piper, 1998; Sundberg et al., 1996). However, these two theories can be joined together to form a more holistic view of language, that indeed, humans have innate abilities to learn language, but that they need social and environmental factors to develop their language.

Second language acquisition (SLA), or the learning of an additional language or languages beyond one's first language, is important to teaching and learning in Zambia because of several reasons. For one, children may enter school speaking a language that is not the LOI. When this is the case, children must actively focus on learning the L2 which rests upon the language skills already developed in their L1. In fact, skills developed in an L1 can positively or negatively affect L2 learning (Fromkin et al., 2009). On the negative side, if the grammatical rules of the L1 are drastically different than the L2, L2 learning will be more challenging. In this case, it is said that L1 is interfering with L2 acquisition, resulting in a linguistic phenomenon called language interference. However, similarities between L1 and L2 facilitate learning language. These concepts of language interference and language facilitation will be examined further in the section on the CUP hypothesis. Teachers must know the appropriate pedagogical practices to teach diverse groups of learners and be able to implement these practices effectively in order to ensure learning takes place. This section explores the stages of SLA to draw connections between how language develops and its implications for literacy and language instruction.

Activity 3: Learning outcome 5

What is the meaning of L1 and L2? What are the differences between them, and what roles do they play in literacy development?

Teacher educator guidance

L1 is the learning of a child's native language. It is also the situation where a child learns a particular language in the linguistic environment to which they are exposed. Here, the children acquire language subconsciously and are unaware of grammatical rules. Briefly discuss the differences between L1 and L2. Noticeably, all L1 learners are exposed to their L1 in the earliest stages of life, at a time when many other developmental processes are just beginning to appear. On the other hand, L2 learners would already have gone through fundamental cognitive stages. For example, they would want to be exposed to grammatical rules of the target language.

Second language acquisition (SLA) follows five stages, and each stage has its own pedagogical implications. See the table below and examine the stages as espoused by Ellis (1990), Krashen (1985), and Hymes (1964).

Table 5.1 Stages of second language acquisition

Stages	Characteristics	Learners' behaviour	Approximate time frame	Teacher prompts
Pre-production (Silent period)	A learner listens to the new language but does not speak it	Learner has minimal comprehension and does not verbalize; nods 'Yes' and 'No,' draws and points	0–6 months of language study or immersion	Show me... Draw the... Where is...? Who has ...?
Early production	Learner begins to speak but using short words and sentences (still listening more than speaking itself)	Learner has limited comprehension—produces one- or two-word responses, e.g. uses key words and familiar phrases; Also uses present tense verbs and makes many errors in L2	6 months–1 year of language study or immersion	Yes/No questions Either/or questions Who? What? How many?
Speech emergence	Speech becomes more frequent, words and sentences are longer; Learner still relies on context clues and familiar topics	Learner has good comprehension, produces simple sentences, makes grammatical and pronunciation errors; Frequently misunderstands jokes, vocabulary increases and errors decrease	1–2 years of language study or immersion	Why? How? Explain... Questions requiring phrase or short answer Sentence
Intermediate fluency	Communication in L1 is fluent particularly in social situations; The learner speaks almost fluently in a new situation, demonstrates higher order thinking skills in L2 (e.g. opinion)	Learner has excellent comprehension, makes few grammatical errors but still has gaps in vocabulary knowledge and some unknown expressions	2–5 years of language study or immersion	What would happen if...? Why do you think...? Questions requiring more than a sentence response
Advanced fluency	Communicates fluently in all contexts and academic situations	Learner has a near-native level of speech, but still has an accent problem and sometimes uses idiomatic expressions incorrectly	5–7 years (or more) of language study or immersion	Decide if... Retell...

Activity 4: Learning outcomes 1 and 2

Create a chart that summarises the stages of SLA and include questions or activities for learners at each stage by referring to the examples of teacher prompts in Table 5.1.

Teacher educator guidance

Student teachers can work together for this activity according to your directions. You may need to elaborate on each of the stages of language acquisition and provide further examples as needed. Help student teachers notice how the complexity of children's ability to respond with language changes over the stages of development.

5.7

Roles of first, second, and foreign languages in literacy development

As discussed previously, developed skills and abilities in a first language (L1) affect second language acquisition (SLA). SLA develops across stages, and teachers can support children's language development by understanding what is anticipated at each stage. Teachers can also support children's learning of language by understanding the features of language that interfere with SLA, language interference, and the features of language that facilitate SLA, language facilitation. Cummins' CUP hypothesis provides a framework for how to teach in a **multilingual** classroom with attention to both language interference and facilitation. As such, teachers need to know that second language learning will not progress as smoothly as does the acquisition of the first language, and it is easier for a learner to start learning literacy in a language with which they are familiar as opposed to one where they are less skilled. Yet, the success of development of literacy in the L2 is dependent on whether learners are put in situations where they see a need to communicate in the L2 as well as situations where they cooperate to solve different problems (Herrell & Jordan, 2008). Herrell and Jordan (2008) put it this way:

> *Language acquisition is gradual, based on receiving and understanding messages, building a listening (receptive) vocabulary, and slowly attempting verbal production of the language in a highly supportive non stressful situation. It is exactly these same conditions that foster the acquisition of a second language (p. 2).*

Knowing that children's proficiency in an L2 is dependent upon their proficiency in their L1 is the premise of Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) programmes. A learner's L1 serves as a bridge to learning the L2. In the following section, how the CUP hypothesis is useful for effective teaching in a multilingual learning environment and afterwards relates this knowledge to MTB-MLE programmes.

Activity 5: Learning outcome 5

Discuss the role of a first language in facilitating literacy development in line with your own experiences as first and second language users. How do you think your experiences influenced your own literacy development? Write down your views and share with peers.

5.8

Cummins' Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) hypothesis

The Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) hypothesis holds that there are similarities between languages forming a common underlying proficiency. Therefore, acquisition of similar features in one language facilitate the learning of another language through linguistic transfer. It is believed that if learners have mastered the skills so well in the first language, they will be able to transfer some of the competencies and skills acquired to learn the L2. This is the basis of the CUP hypothesis.

Sources of underlying proficiency across languages include:

- **similar features** (letters that are the same across languages, sounds that are the same across languages, words that have the same pronunciation and same meaning [cognates], similarities in how words are sequenced in a sentence, etc.)
- **concept knowledge** (categories of plants and animals—the concept is the same, but requires different vocabulary and labels across languages)
- **basic literacy skills** (book and print knowledge, predicting a topic based on a picture, making predictions, asking, and answering questions).

Figure 5.1 below illustrates the Common Underlying Proficiency connection between L1 and L2 acquisition.

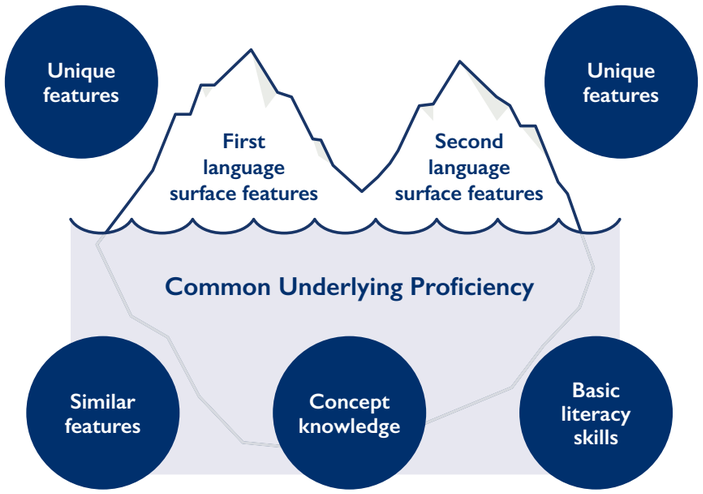


Figure 5.1 Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP)

The CUP hypothesis helps to illustrate that there are common features across languages (to varying degrees of course), and these features contribute to language facilitation. However, each language has its own unique features which contribute to language interference. In the next section, we'll look at these concepts more in depth as applicable when comparing a Zambian L1 and English as an L2.

5.8.1

Specific areas of language interference

When it is time to begin literacy and language instruction in English, there will be many challenges for those learners whose MT is a Zambian language. This is because there are major differences between the sound systems. For example, there are five vowels in Zambian languages—/a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/—which can either be short or long. These vowels are similar in many Zambian languages. However, in the English language there are these vowels as well as diphthongs where the tongue glides, moving from one vowel position to the other, as in /oi/ in the word *oil*.

Additionally, there are also a few differences when it comes to consonants. In English, there are many consonants apart from the common ones. To make matters worse, some consonants in English can represent more than one sound and also one sound can be represented by different consonants. For example, the letter 'c' can be the sound /k/ as in **c**up, can be realised as /s/ as in **c**ircle and con**c**ern. This confuses a Zambian learner who is used to a spelling system which has a one-to-one correspondence between letters and sounds.

Moreover, the syllable structure of Zambian languages is typically one that ends with vowels. Relatively all syllables in Zambian languages end in vowel sounds commonly known as open syllables. Typically, Zambian languages' syllables are made up of vowels (V) and consonants (C), so the patterns are as follows: V – *a*, CV – *ba*, CCV – *mba*, and CCCV – *mbwe*, etc. There are no consonant clusters such as *spl* in Zambian languages but are found in English such as in the word *splash*. English has some open and many closed syllables. In closed syllables words end with consonants, such as *steam*. Understanding the syllable structure of the Bantu languages spoken in Zambia will help in understanding the phonological challenges that learners may experience, as they are helped to develop phonological awareness skills in the English language.

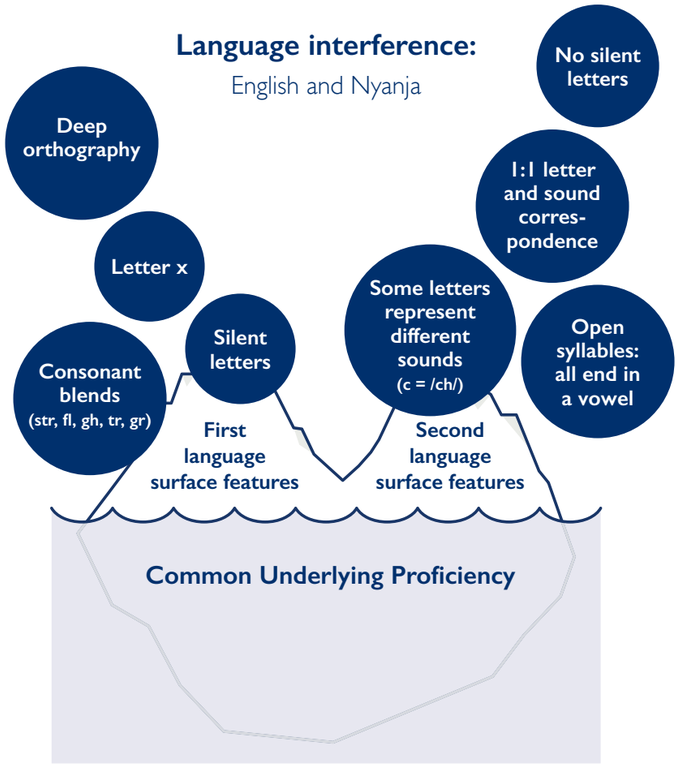


Figure 5.2 Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP), language interference

In addition, Bantu languages are tonal languages and generally have two distinctive tones, high and low (Kisseberth & Odden, 2003), which is in contrast to the English language as it is a stressed language. How words are pronounced in tonal languages will differ from how they are pronounced in stress languages, as the placing of tone and stress in words differs considerably.

If one takes English and Nyanja, for example, there are also several characteristics of English and Nyanja that interfere with second language learning. English has a deep orthography, meaning that some letters represent several sounds, and some sounds can be spelled several ways. This is different from Nyanja because Nyanja has a 1-to-1 letter and sound correspondence. This means that each letter represents only one sound, and each sound is spelled in only one way.

English uses the letter [x], whereas Nyanja does not. English has silent letters, whereas Nyanja does not. English has some consonant blends that Nyanja does not use. In Nyanja, the letter [c] represents the aspirated /ch/ and unaspirated /c/ sounds but does not represent /k/ or /s/ sounds as would be the case in English. Additionally, Nyanja syllables are open and end in vowel sounds, whereas English has both open and closed syllables.

Figure 5.2 shows the areas of interference between English and Nyanja.

How can these differences interfere with language learning? When Zambian children read the English word *future*, they will automatically try to pronounce it as /foo/-/too/-/ray/ because they are applying their knowledge of Nyanja 1-to-1 letter sound correspondences. They may also pronounce *China* as /ch/-/ee/-/na/ and *cake* as /ch/-/ah/-/k/-/ay/. They will also pronounce letters that are silent, such as the [h] in *honest*. These mistakes cause learners to lose the meaning of the word, interfering with their language learning. Therefore, these and other differences across languages must be explicitly taught to learners.

The pedagogic implication of these unique language features means that they should be taught explicitly. Teachers sometimes assume that learners will know on their own. Sometimes, teachers blame learners for making mistakes arising from such differences. On the contrary, teachers teaching a second language should see such mistakes as normal and teach such language aspects explicitly so that learners know and practise.

5.8.2

Some areas of facilitation

When we compare English and Nyanja, we can easily identify characteristics of the languages that facilitate language learning. Some sources of underlying proficiency

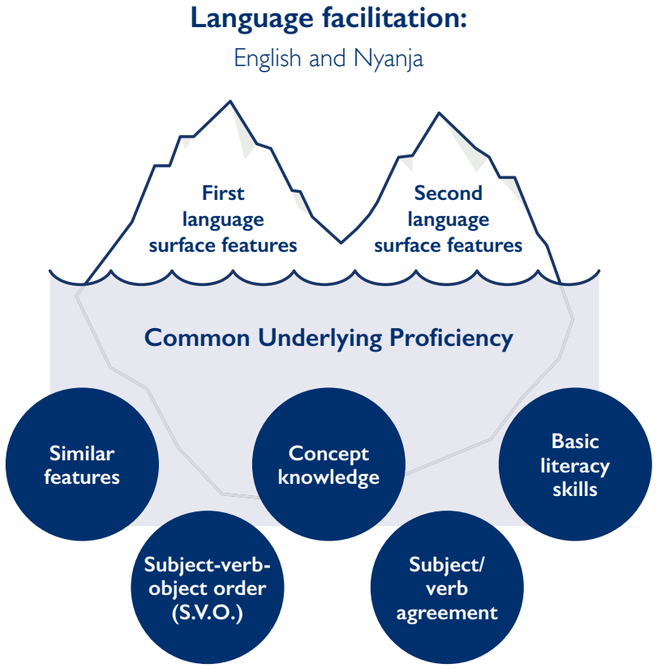


Figure 5.3 Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP), language facilitation

between English and Nyanja include basic language skills, similar morphology rules, several sounds used in both languages, both languages sharing a subject-verb-object order for sentences and both languages requiring subject/verb agreement. These characteristics do not represent all of the areas of underlying proficiency across the two languages; rather these are a few of the obvious areas of facilitation. They are said to be areas of facilitation because they are similar between L1 and L2 (familiar language and target language). Therefore, the similarities help to transfer L1 skills to learn L2. Teachers need to identify these areas which form the common underlying proficiency and use them as stepping stones to second language acquisition.

Figure 5.3 shows that between English and Nyanja, for example, there are linguistic similarities such as the sentence structure, subject-verb agreement, and similar morphology rules as well as some similar sounds. Thus, if a child has mastered Nyanja, these similarities between the two languages would facilitate the learning of English, because the child would easily relate with the new language being learnt by transferring the skills already acquired in the first language.

Activity 6: Learning outcome 7

Distinguish between language interference and language facilitation in second language learning.

Why is it important for teachers to understand the concepts of language interference and language facilitation?

Activity 7: Learning outcome 6

Compare your first language to English in line with the Common Underlying Proficiency hypothesis.

Teacher educator guidance

You can pair student teachers together that have the same first language. If their first language is Nyanja, let them compare Nyanja to another Zambian language. Then, ask the student teachers to identify the implications for instruction (i.e. what must be explicitly taught to learners as they transition to English?). Have student teachers share their work with the class.

5.9

Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE): Benefits and challenges

Mother-Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) is a programme that serves learners of nondominant language communities who do not understand or speak the LOI when they begin their formal schooling. There are a number of benefits of using this approach in the classroom where children come from diverse homes in which a variety of languages are spoken. As mentioned earlier, it has been observed that learners in an MTB-MLE programme can more easily transfer early literacy skills from their MT into other languages—and once they reach proficiency in oral skills, they also progress to other literacy skills. In addition, learners are able to grasp concepts better and easily articulate issues in a language with which they are familiar. This enables them to integrate and apply what they already know into a new curriculum. Cognitive skills are also developed, and learners understand academics at an early stage. Language and critical thinking skills are also strengthened. It is also evident that MBT-MLE acts as a good bridge to listening, speaking, reading, and writing of new languages using high-quality educational principles for building fluency and confidence. As they progress, learners also adequately learn an L2 for development and communication. MTB-MLE further enables teachers to teach for meaning and accuracy. Additionally, this approach enhances the learner's confidence and proficiency in two or more languages.

5.9.1

MTB-MLE strategies

It is important for teachers to note that MTB-MLE programmes do not need to be identical in all contexts and that there can never be a 'one-size-fits-all' situation. This is because there are different multilingual contexts in the world. In Zambia, for instance, there are communities which are linguistically very diverse. That being the case, even if one local language is chosen for use as the language of initial literacy and means of instruction in the early grades, chances are that for a number of learners this would not be their first language but may be a second language.

Basic Strategies used in MTB-MLE

There are a lot of MTB-MLE strategies which can be used in a second language classroom. In this section, only a few of them are discussed:

1 Preview-View-Review

Preview (L1-Nyanja)

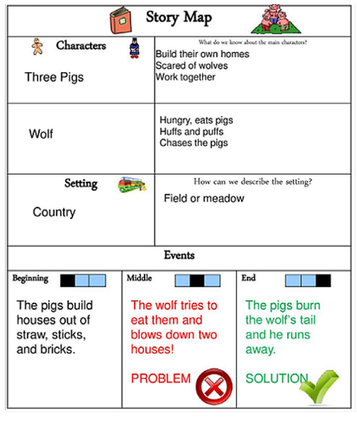
The teacher provides a Nyanja language story book for the lesson. Learners read the story.

View (L2-English)

The learners work in small groups. They use English to discuss the story and create a story map that shows the characters, setting, events, problem, and solution for the story.

Review (Nyanja)

The teacher asks comprehension questions to the class and the learners discuss the story in Nyanja.



The preview-view-review activity provides learners with an opportunity to activate their background knowledge in a familiar language, study new content in the less familiar language, and then summarise their learning in a familiar language.

Learners will first preview content by reading a book or watching a video in the L1.

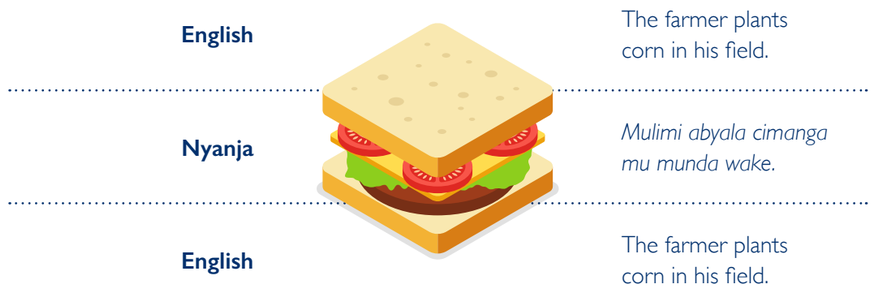
Then, they engage in a learning activity in the L2. In our example, learners are creating a story map.

Finally, the learners can summarise their learning in L1. In our example, the teacher asks comprehension questions and engages the learners in a discussion about the story.

These types of activities support cross-language transfer and SLA.

2 Sandwich technique

The sandwich technique is about sandwiching the L1 between L2 utterances to support learner understanding. Teachers can sandwich instructions and explanations to scaffold learner comprehension.



A teacher uses both MT and the target language to give directions or explanations. This is referred to as *sandwiching*. The sandwich technique involves the teacher using both the MT and the target languages to refer to the same aspect, be it a concept, an instruction, or an explanation. Here the learners' understanding is supported as there is use of more than one language. It is also an organised way of presenting information across languages for learners transitioning to LOI as they listen, speak, read, and write. This strategy can be used to give instructions and explain concepts, vocabulary, and social language phrases.

3 Trans-languaging/Bridging strategies – Sounds and letters

Translanguaging/bridging strategy involves using the knowledge the teacher and the learners have of multiple languages (MT and the target language) in the learning process. The teacher will support the learners' understanding of the different languages. The teacher will highlight the similarities and differences in the sounds and written letters in the languages (perhaps using information from the Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) model to determine what should be explicitly taught).

4 Trans-languaging/Bridging strategies – Words and sentences

The strategy is similar to the above strategy; the difference is that the activities include translation, code-mixing, and code-switching. The learners are supported as they move from the MT to the target language during classroom discussions, instructional activities, and other similar classwork. This provides a solid foundation of knowledge and communication skills in the languages involved.

5 Multilingual word charts/walls

Bemba	Nyanja	English
mwashibukeni	*mwauka bwanji*	good morning
mwaiseni	*mwalandilidwa*	welcome
ikala panshi	*khala pansi*	sit down
umfwa	*mvela*	listen
asuka	*yankha*	respond/answer
landa nomunobe	*kamba na mzako*	talk with a partner/friend
senda penso yobe	*tenga penso yako*	pick up your pencil

A multilingual word chart/wall is a collection of words in two or more languages displayed in large visible letters on a wall, bulletin board, or any other surface in a classroom. It is designed to be an interactive tool for learners and contains an array of words that can be used to show the learners the words used in two or more languages. Here, learners are able to see how languages may be different or similar. The word charts/walls act as a great source of reference in L2 development and as a vision teaching and learning aid.

6 Language experience approach

This strategy involves the learners writing about a shared experience such as a read aloud or a field trip. The learners work in small groups to write about the experience using a familiar language. The teacher supports the learners in their documentation of experiences and ideas, using familiar and expanded vocabulary and modelling ways in which their thoughts and words can be written down and later read. Learners may use their MT, and the teacher may repeat the information in the target language. If the teacher is writing the learners' responses, the words are written and the sentences read to the learners in the target language.

7 Visual scaffolding

As the name suggests, the strategy involves use of actual objects where possible and illustrations or any form of images that will promote connection of spoken words with visual images in the target language. In this strategy, there is active involvement from the learner as vocabulary development and building of background knowledge is encouraged. Learners are able to connect with objects and understand certain abstract concepts that would otherwise not have been understood.

8 Inside/Outside circle

This is an oral language strategy that involves learners sharing information in their MT and/or in the target language. Students are supported in learning the target language as they hear the sounds, words, and structure of the language. This can be listening comprehension or any other short activity where the learners answer questions or share ideas and thoughts on a topic.

9 Think-Pair-Share

This is a cooperative learning strategy that involves learners sharing what they have learnt and know with their peers. Here, the teachers may ask the learners to think about a question silently and then share their thoughts or speak to a partner either in their MT or the target language. The teacher will later call upon some learners to share their responses with the entire class in the target language. The strategy encourages interaction and helps build competence in the use of the target language.

Activity 8: Learning outcome 8

1. Imagine you are preparing to teach oral English fluency to second language learners on vocabulary used around the home, such as table, chair, door, mother, father, etc., but the learners hardly know many words in English.
2. What MTB-MLE strategy do you think would be best to use in that scenario?
3. Create an activity using any of the strategies above to teach a given topic in a specific learning area.

Teacher educator guidance

As an extension activity, ask student teachers to research more about MTB-MLE strategies.

5.10

Chapter summary

The language situation in Zambia has impacted language policy throughout the history of the nation. Before independence, local languages were used for instruction before learners were transitioned to English. After independence, English became the formal language of instruction in Zambia. In 1997, policy changed so that now young learners begin their education in Zambian languages and transition to English once they have developed basic literacy skills. There are five main stages of SLA, including pre-production, early production, speech emergence, intermediate fluency, and advanced fluency. Each of these stages has unique features, and teachers can use this information to develop appropriate comprehension prompts for use during instruction. The CUP hypothesis helps teachers identify language characteristics that facilitate or interfere with second language learning. Using this model helps teachers understand what specific characteristics of the target language must be explicitly taught to learners.

Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) is an instructional model that emphasises learning how to read by using a familiar language as the medium of instruction. Then, as learners begin to transition to the target language (English, in the case of Zambia), teachers can use MTB-MLE accommodations to support second language learning. Many of these strategies have been discussed in the chapter.

5.11

Assessment of learning

Formative or summative assignment for student teachers
Learning outcomes 5–8

Write an essay explaining how the first language (L1) can be used to facilitate second language literacy acquisition in English among early primary school children considering Cummins' Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) hypothesis and the Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education strategies and principles. Your essay should be 4–6 pages long (excluding the cover page and the reference page). Remember to use APA referencing style.

5.12

Supplemental readings

Malone, S. (n.d.). MTB-MLE Resources. Retrieved from: sil-lead.org/susanmalone

CHAPTER 6

Oral Language Development

CHAPTER 6

Oral Language Development

INTRODUCTION

Oral language is a system through which we use spoken words to express knowledge, ideas, and feelings. Oral language encompasses two components: a) *expressive language* (speaking), which is the use of words and non-verbal processes to share meaning with others, and b) *receptive language* (listening), which is the process of understanding what has been expressed (Hadley et al., 2020). When children are born, they naturally develop listening skills and later develop speaking skills when they wish to communicate with their family and peers. Oral language is developed within the cultural contexts of an individual that makes it possible for one to acquire a language (Honig, 2007). Oral language is the foundation for the development of literacy skills and is a strong indicator of later reading, writing, and overall academic achievement (Bradfield et al., 2013; Communication Trust, 2013; Gross, 2013; Hill, 2012; Hougen & Smartt, 2012). This chapter will address the importance of listening and speaking skills for literacy development and provide samples of activities that teachers can use to help children develop their oral language skills. Additionally, this chapter will identify appropriate Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) accommodations and provide opportunities for student teachers to develop and deliver lessons for oral language development.

6.1

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.5.3 Approach (key skills) to teaching (PLP) early grade reading

1.5.3.1 Demonstrate knowledge of appropriate key skills of teaching early grade reading

1.5.5 Lesson procedure and lesson format

1.5.5.1 Demonstrate steps for teaching a PLP lesson

1.6.3 Types of assessment

1.6.3.1 Discuss different types of assessment

1.6.4 Conducting assessment

1.6.4.1 Explain the procedure for conducting assessment

1.7.1 Meaning of listening and speaking

1.7.1.1 Explain the meaning of listening and speaking

1.7.2 Importance of listening and speaking

1.7.2.1 Explain the importance of listening and speaking

1.7.2.2 Discuss the processes of speaking and listening

1.7.3 Barriers to effective listening and speaking

1.7.3.1 State the barriers to effective listening and speaking

1.14.1 Riddles, proverbs, puzzles, poems, tongue twisters, and songs

1.7.3.1 Interpret oral forms of literature

2.2.2 Peer teaching

2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

By the end of the chapter, the student teachers will:

1. outline the components of oral language
2. define oral language
3. discuss the importance of oral language
4. explain the connection between oral language and literacy skills
5. explain how oral language is taught
6. identify appropriate MTB-MLE accommodations for oral language development
7. discuss how oral language is assessed
8. develop and deliver an oral language lesson and provide feedback to peers.

6.2

Instructional materials

- Student module
- Manila paper
- Components of oral language graphic organiser (Appendix 6A)
- Teacher responses that elaborate or extend the child's language (Appendix 6B)
- Teaching oral language chart (Appendix 6C)

6.3

Key terms

Oral language

Receptive and expressive language that includes the domains of phonology, syntax, semantics, morphology, and pragmatics

Oral language proficiency

The ability to proficiently understand and produce oral language

Early childhood education

Education that begins around 3 years of age until children enter primary school

Listening skills

The ability to accurately receive and interpret what is expressed by another person

Speaking skills

The ability to communicate verbally and in a way that the listener can understand

Receptive language

The understanding of information provided in a variety of ways such as sounds and words; movement and gestures; and signs and symbols

Expressive language

The ability to communicate or express thoughts and feelings through words, gestures, signs, or symbols

Phonology

The study of speech sounds in combination

Syntax

The study of rules governing the grammatical structure of language

Semantics

The study of meaning

Morphology

The study of word forms and parts (i.e. prefixes, suffixes)

Pragmatics

The study of language use in different contexts, the social rules of communication

School readiness

A child's readiness for school that begins at home and is related to the emergent literacy skills of oral language and concepts of print (COP)

Alphabetic principle

The understanding that words are made of letters, and letters represent sounds in a predictable way

6.4

What is oral language?

Oral language refers to receptive and expressive language that includes the domains of phonology, syntax, semantics, morphology, and pragmatics.

Oral language is the foundation for beginning reading. It involves communicating, understanding words or concepts, obtaining new information, and expressing thoughts (Goodson & Layzer, 2009). Young learners must understand the sounds language, the meanings of words, and how those words fit together to form ideas before they are able to apply these skills to print and engage in reading and writing. **Listening skills** help children receive and interpret what is expressed by another person, while **speaking skills** help children communicate verbally in a way that others can understand. Listening and speaking skills combine with body language and context to form receptive and expressive language skills. **Receptive language** helps children understand information provided in a variety of ways, such as sounds and words, movements and gestures, and signs and symbols. **Expressive language** helps children communicate their thoughts and feelings through words, gestures, signs, or symbols. When children demonstrate **oral language proficiency**, they are able to use listening and speaking skills, as well as receptive and expressive language to acquire or express information through language processes. Before children engage in literacy activities, they must develop oral language aspects such as phonology, semantics or vocabulary syntax, pragmatics (Snow et al., 1998).[1] Figure 6.1 below summarises the components of oral language.

Activity 1: Learning outcome 1

Use the provided graphic organiser (Appendix 6A) to record notes about the components of oral language as it is reviewed in the chapter. Make sure to record any examples provided by the lecturer.

Teacher educator guidance

Provide student teachers with the graphic organiser (Appendix 6A) to record notes about the components of oral language as it is reviewed. Provide examples to the student teachers for each component.

[1] These topics are explored in depth in chapter 5 of the language module.

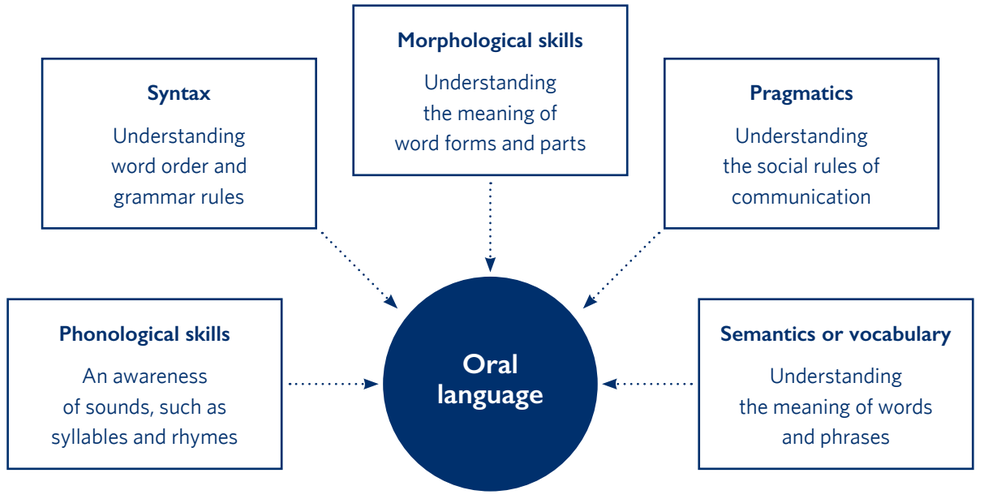


Figure 6.1 Components of oral language

Source: https://blog.heinemann.com/what-is-oral-language

Phonological skills give children an awareness of the sound of language, and therefore **phonology** is the study of sounds of speech in combination. **Syntax** is the study which focuses on how words are arranged into sentences. **Morphology** refers to the form of words. The ways in which people use language to communicate is known as **pragmatics**. Vocabulary refers to words in a language while **semantics** is a study of meaning. As children use oral language, they develop an understanding of the syntax (structure) of their native language, as well as comprehend and share meaning (semantics). These components of oral language are integral to children's success upon entering school. In the next section, we explore just what that means in relation to emergent literacy skills and school readiness.

Activity 2: Learning outcome 2

Reflect on the components of oral language and define oral language in your own words.

6.5

Why is oral language important?

Oral language is an aspect of **emergent literacy**, the literacy skills that begin to develop prior to reading and writing. It begins after birth and is supported by the exposure and access to language in the home. Thus, oral language as a component of emergent literacy is also an aspect of whether a child is ready for school—**school readiness**. Partly, this is because oral language enables the child to communicate with the teacher and peers, as well as being able to receive information from teachers and peers during classroom interaction. Oral language is therefore central to school readiness because it is the means to oral/aural communication which is necessary for early grade learning. The multilingual classroom is linguistically diverse and includes a wide range of ability in terms of oral language proficiency. Therefore, it is important to understand the nature of this diversity and how children's development in these skills prior to primary school contribute to their future academic success. In this section, we explore the importance of oral language within the frame of emergent literacy and school readiness and also understand the role of **early childhood education (ECE)**.

Activity 3

How or in what ways do you think oral language contribute to children's school readiness upon entering primary school?

Teacher educator guidance

Pair student teachers together to think about the question and share responses.

6.5.1

Emergent literacy, school readiness, and early childhood education (ECE)

Emergent literacy skills begin in the home and are fundamental to literacy development. Repeated exposure to rich language can help children become successful communicators, readers, and writers (Simmons & Kameenui, 1998; Himmele & Himmele, 2009). The role of parents is essential since they are tasked with preparing young children for more complex environments found in school. Simply put, the more children use and interact with language that is rich and meaningful, the more prepared they will be for school. Thus, educating and engaging parents on the importance of oral language and encouraging them to communicate and read with their children as early as possible can help children be prepared and develop the necessary skills for school (National Literacy Panel, 2008). Besides having a language-rich environment at home, parents can also prepare children for school by talking about and interacting with print materials (i.e. books, signs), by introducing them to the **concepts of print (COP)**. This begins to build the relationship between language and printed text. For example, when parents read books to their children, they are able to demonstrate how to open a book, that a book is used to convey a story or message, and that there is a directionality to the way text is printed on a page. COP are discussed more in-depth in chapter 8 of this module, but brought up here because of how closely tied the concepts are to language development in these early years.

When children enter ECE programmes, their teachers are responsible for building on the oral language skills developed in the home and encouraging parents to continue supporting their child's development in these skills. They do this by providing a language-rich classroom environment in which children use language to communicate with peers and adults whether that be through structured lessons that support children's academic language skills, or unstructured play in which children are able to experiment with language socially in interaction with their peers. Therefore, the language skills that children have developed before primary school are of no small consequence. When children enter primary school, the degree to which these skills have been developed will contribute to their future reading achievements.

Activity 4

In pairs, reflect on your early childhood experiences. In what ways were your experiences the same, and in what ways were they different?

How could you encourage your learners' parents or caregivers to support their child's oral language development?

6.5.2

The connection between oral language and written language

After ECE, children continue to build on their oral language skills but also begin to learn how oral language connects to written language. Again, oral vocabulary is key when a beginner reader makes the transition from oral to written forms. (McCardle & Chhabra, 2004). Fountas and Pinnell (2009), emphasised that the more effectively learners use oral language, the more knowledge they bring to becoming literate. This means that interaction with others through oral language is central to learning how to read and write. The role of the teacher is to promote high levels of cognitive interaction, including fostering children's engagement in oral language, and scaffolding/supporting young learners as they try out new language skills. The connection between oral language and literacy is outlined in Table 6.1 below. As children engage in early language interactions, they begin to understand various aspects of language that will eventually support their reading development. They make sounds and combine them into words and sentences, (Goswami, 2001; Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998). When they begin school, learners become aware of the separate sounds in words. This forms the basis for learning the written symbols that match those sounds, the orthography of a language, and they begin to understand the **alphabetic principle**. The alphabetic principle and orthography are discussed further in the module in chapter 9.

Table 6.1 The connections between oral language and written language

Oral language component	Written language component
Phonology	Sounds of spoken language connect to written text; the alphabetic principle is learnt; orthographic awareness develops
Vocabulary	Listening comprehension and word recognition connect to reading comprehension
Syntax/grammar	The rules of spoken language transfer to written text
Pragmatics	How language use changes according to context is found in print (i.e. narrative text versus expository text)
Morphology	The connection between the smallest parts of words that have meaning are found in print and are able to be used to make new words and identify the meaning of unknown words in text

Activity 5: Learning outcomes 3 and 4

What is the connection between oral language and literacy learning?

Why is a child's oral language development prior to formal schooling an important factor in literacy development?

What challenges do you think primary teachers face because of the possible range of differences in oral language proficiency among their learners?

6.6

How is oral language taught?

Oral language instruction is an umbrella term that encompasses all forms of listening and speaking that goes on in a classroom. Oral language instruction consists of five main components: 1) developing listening and speaking skills; 2) teaching a variety of spoken texts; 3) creating a language-rich learning environment; 4) teaching and extending vocabulary; and 5) promoting auditory memory.

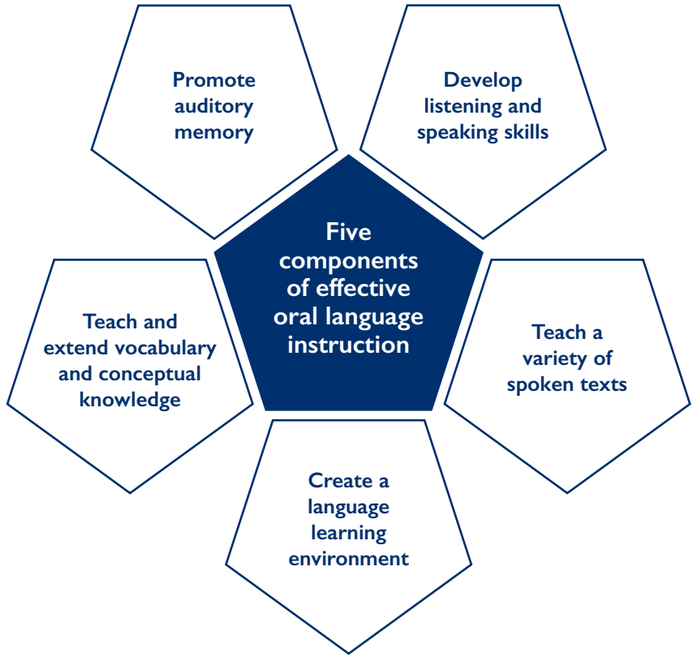


Figure 6.2 Components of effective oral instruction

(Adapted from Eisenhart, 1990)

6.6.1

Developing listening and speaking skills

Development of listening and speaking skills happens at the classroom level when the teacher invites learners to be part of a meaningful conversation. This includes teaching learners how to be active listeners by facing the speaker and knowing that it is time to give their fullest attention (Wasik & Hindman, 2018). During lessons, teachers can build learners' oral language skills by asking open-ended questions (questions with no *correct* answer, like 'Why do you like that picture?') while providing learners with plenty of time to answer (waiting for learners to think about their answer), and keeping the conversation flowing by asking follow-up questions (Ford-Connors & Roberston, 2017) Responses from learners should not be left hanging. The teacher should encourage learners to elaborate more on their responses. It is therefore important that, 'teachers and researchers need to be careful not to interpret silence or one-word answers as lack of knowledge' (Cazden, 2001, p. 86). This indicates that teachers might have to be persistent in their efforts to engage students in classroom talk. This helps to extend children's language which develops their language as well. Follow-up questions can include rephrasing what learners say, asking for clarification, and asking them to expand what they have said. One strategy for building on learners' responses is called 'Strive for Five' (Dickinson, 2003, as cited in Hadley et al., 2011). In this strategy, teachers aim for at least five back and forth interactions between the teacher and the student. For example:

Teacher: *How did the character feel at the beginning of the story?*

Learner: *He was upset.*

Teacher: *Yes, he was upset about something that he lost. What did he lose?*

Learner: *He lost the toy train his father gave him.*

Teacher: *Yes, that's right. He was upset because he lost the toy train his father gave to him.*

Here is another example:

Examples of teacher elaborations of correct responses

'You're right! Can you tell me more?'

'Yes, that's good. What else do you know about that?'

'You are correct. How did you learn that?'

'Yes, that's a very good answer. Can you also tell me why this [concept, information] is important?'

'I like that good thinking, and I like the way you said that.' (Perhaps repeat the answer.)

Source: https://www.readingrockets.org/article/extending-english-language-learners-classroom-interactions-using-response-protocol

From the examples of teacher elaborations shown above, it can be noted that although the teacher acknowledges the learner's answer, he or she encourages the learner to explain more, which helps to develop language. Teachers can explicitly model desired listening and speaking patterns to help young learners understand what is expected of them. For another example on how to elaborate on learners' responses, see Appendix 6C.

Teacher educator guidance

Read aloud a picture book of your choice with student teachers that demonstrates how to build on learners' listening and speaking skills by using the strategies in the section above. Engage student teachers with how this builds oral language and how it is different than simply reading a story aloud without these types of interactions.

6.6.2

Teaching a variety of spoken texts

Atkinson (2018) noted that the type and structure of language to be used depends on the purpose to be accomplished by it. Teachers can use different forms of oral literature to develop speaking and listening activities for learners. These can include riddles, proverbs, puzzles, poems, tongue twisters, and songs. The purpose of language includes communicating needs, wants, ideas, information, and feelings. When presenting an oral language task to learners, one must teach them the type of language needed for responding appropriately. This involves providing learners with opportunities to practise different language structures in a comfortable and supported setting. It is useful to examine speaking and listening through Halliday's functions of language[2], as children need to practise each type of speaking and listening task (see Table 6.2 below). Teachers can use the functions of language to design oral language interactions for their learners.

2 More on Halliday's functions of language is included in chapter 3 of the language module.

Table 6.2 Halliday's functions of language

Function	Explanation of purpose (Used for)	Demands language of	Example
Instrumental	Language for meeting wants and needs *(Expressing needs and getting things done)*	Asking, requesting, explaining	'I want to read that book.'
Regulatory	Language for controlling others *(Influencing the behaviour, feelings/attitudes of others)*	Setting tasks, managing, negotiating, instructing, directing, controlling	'Please give it to me.'
Interactional	Language for forming and maintaining relationships *(Getting along with others)*	Initiating, sympathizing, reconciling, arguing, encouraging, empathising	'She is my best friend.'
Personal	Language to express opinions, feelings and identity *(Expressing individuality and personal feelings)*	Stating opinions, confronting, expressing thoughts and feelings, recounting experience	'I'm a good reader.'
Heuristic	Language for learning *(Seeking and learning about the social and physical environment)*	Interrogating, discussion, asking, querying, investigating, clarifying	'What makes the wheels move?'
Imaginative	Language to tell stories, jokes and play *(Creating stories, games, new words and texts)*	Storytelling, anticipating, predicting, imagining, playing, experimenting	'Let's pretend we're lost in the jungle.'
Representational	Language to convey facts *(Communicating information)*	Telling, lecturing, stating facts, sharing skills, commenting, imparting knowledge	'It takes 2 hours to travel the distance.'

(Adapted from https://www.education.vic.gov.au/school/teachers/teachingresources/discipline/english/literacy/speakinglistening/Pages/instruction.aspx)

6.6.3

Creating a language-rich learning environment

This refers to both the physical environment and linguistic context for learning. Oral communication is about purpose and audience. In order to motivate learners to be better communicators, teachers must provide their learners with authentic and relevant contexts for the language they produce. Teachers can find ways to improve classroom interaction as well as participation. Young children need many opportunities to interact in social and academic situations. Effective teachers encourage their students' participation in classroom discussions, welcome their contributions, and motivate them by such practices (Cazden, 2001; Stipek, 2002). This means creating engaging and interesting topics for discussion and structuring learner-centred interactions. Children do need to communicate with their teachers but also need to be able to use language with their peers whether that is in small groups or with a partner. There is also need to have *talking walls* in the form of pictures in class, which also support oral language.

6.6.4

Teaching and extending vocabulary

Vocabulary development is an essential component of oral language development and instruction. If learners cannot comprehend what they hear in class, and if learners cannot reliably use academic vocabulary in their spoken communication, they may not recognise words in academic contexts nor use them in writing. Therefore, teachers should be proactive when teaching learners new vocabulary. They should teach strategies for remembering these words and their meanings. Learners need to go beyond copying definitions from a glossary, and instead, focus on applying words in context. Teachers should present words in multiple modes and across multiple contexts so that learners are constantly hearing, seeing and using the target vocabulary in numerous different ways and contexts throughout the lesson (PCCSS Professional Learning, 2018). To further support vocabulary, teachers can bring in concrete objects that stimulate conversations in the classroom. For example, when reading a story with animal characters, the teacher could bring in stuffed animals or cardboard cut-outs for learners to use to interact with the story.

6.6.5

Promoting auditory memory

Auditory memory involves learners' ability to process and recall the information they hear. Auditory memory includes the task of attending to, listening, processing, storing, and recalling information heard. Auditory memory at class level could be promoted by repeating

and rephrasing information; pairing auditory information with relevant visuals; providing organisational tools to assist memory (graphic organisers); and using poems, songs, and rhymes to assist learners in memorising difficult chunks of information. Teachers can also provide oral check-ins throughout the lesson by having learners retell information back to them (the teacher), as they go (Atkinson, 2018).

Activity 6: Learning outcome 5

Using the provided chart in Appendix 6C, brainstorm strategies for each of the five components of instruction discussed in this section to illustrate how oral language may be taught.

Teacher educator guidance

Print the chart for student teachers from Appendix 6C or have them copy the chart into their notebooks. Have volunteers share responses. Student teachers should record responses onto their charts as needed. The book can be used as a reference.

Activity 7: Learning outcome 5

What other forms of oral literature could be used to develop children's oral language skills?

Teacher educator guidance

If possible, provide resources for student teachers to explore (poems, songs, plays, or other resources you are able to find).

Activity 8: Learning outcome 5

In pairs, role play being the teacher and the learner. The teacher will help the learner to extend his or her language. Each pair should have at least four rounds of learner response and teacher prompting.

Teacher educator guidance

You may need to first model this activity with the student teachers to help them understand the role-playing activity.

Oral language extension activity

Prompt: Learners were asked to describe what they do after school.

Learner 1	I eat
Teacher	
Learner 2	Go to play
Teacher	
Learner 3	With friends
Teacher	
Learner 4	Games
Teacher	

Teacher educator guidance

Before we share sample teaching documents, a brief background is given regarding oral language as well as the literacy and language strategy in the Zambian revised curriculum of 2013.

6.7

Oral language and education policy in Zambia

In 2013, the Ministry of Education revised the curriculum in which there is an amended language and literacy policy strategy. The revised language policy strategy provides for the use of a Zambian language as a medium of instruction from preschool to grade 4. The English language will assume the status of a medium of instruction for all subjects from grade 5 to tertiary levels of education, while Zambian languages will be compulsory up to grade 9 and optional from grades 10 up to 12. Under the revised curriculum, the English language is to be introduced in schools as a subject from grade 2. This is through an oral English course at grade 2 for a full year from terms 1 to 3. When English is introduced at the grade 2 level, it will be taught orally (listening and speaking) only. The literacy in English (reading and writing) components will be included or introduced from grade 3 and continued in grade 4. The justification for a full year of oral English in grade 2 before introducing literacy in the English language is based on the theory that reading is most effective and successful in a language one already speaks and understands. This was the same justification for teaching initial literacy in early education and grades 1 to 4 in a familiar zonal Zambian language.

In terms of content, the oral English course has 18 units for grade 2. The content is packaged in the teachers' guide (TG), the oral English course (grade 2), and the learners' activity book and materials. The 18 units are outlined as follows. Each theme has six topics that will exploit vocabulary relevant to each theme. Each topic relates to one oral English lesson and one expected learning outcome. There is a total of six lessons for each theme. This means that for all 18 themes, there will be a total of 108 topics and 108 lessons, respectively.

NOTE: Each oral language lesson at grade 2 lasts for 30 minutes. This means when a teacher makes a weekly forecast, the number of lessons per week will be dependent on the number of oral English periods allocated on the timetable per school. For instance, some schools only allocate three periods, which translates to 1 and a half hours per week. This is for 30 minutes per day. Some schools with sufficient teachers and classroom space have allocated five periods, which translates to 2 and a half hours per week. This is for 30 minutes per day for 5 days, Monday to Friday.

Table 6.3 Term themes

Term I	Term II	Term III
Home	Health and safety	Self-awareness
School	Gender	Child abuse
Farm	Religion	Decision-making
Market	Environment	Effective communication
Hospital	Governance	Animals
Transport	Drug and substance abuse	Entrepreneurship

(Adapted from Curriculum Development Centre (CDC), 2014: xii)

Below is a sample weekly forecast based on one of the themes in the school in Table 6.3 above. This forecast is based on a school that has only three periods of oral English per week. A lesson plan derived from the weekly forecast is also presented after the weekly forecast.

Miselo Kapika Demo School

Grade 2 – Oral English Language – Weekly Forecast – Term 1, 2021
Week Beginning: 07-03-2021 – Week Beginning: 11-03-2021

Week	Lesson	Topic	Content	Learning outcomes	Method	Teaching/ learning aids	References	Record of work
6	1	**School**	Things found in the classroom	• Identify and classify simple objects • Use the new structure for questioning and responding	• Look and say • Question and answer • Pair work	• Poster(s) • Learners' activity book	• Oral English TG, p. 7 • Learners' activity book, p. 9	
	2	**School**	Things found in the classroom	• Identify and classify simple objects found in the school • Use the new structure	• Look and say • Question and answer • Pair work	• Poster(s) • Learners' activity book	• Oral English TG, p. 8 • Learners' activity book, p. 10	
	3	**School**	Things found in the classroom	• Recognise possessive pronouns • Use the structure for questioning and responding	• Look and say • Question and answer • Pair work	• Poster(s) • Learners' activity book	• Oral English TG, p. 9 • Learners' activity book, p. 10	

Lesson Plan

Teacher: Ms. Corona Sanitiser
School: Miselo Kapika Demo School
Grade: 2A
Subject: Oral English
Topic: School
Subtopic: Things found in the classroom

Date: 07-03-2021
Duration: 30 min
Time: 12:50–13:20hrs
No. of Pupils:
Boys: 22 **Girls:** 18

Rationale: In this lesson, learners will learn about school. This is meant to help them acquire more knowledge and vocabulary about things found in the classroom and strengthen their speaking and listening skills. This will be done through look and say, pair work, as well as question and answer methods. This is the first lesson in a series of three lessons.

Learning outcomes: During and after the lesson:

- Identify things found in the classroom
- Use the structure correctly

Pre-requisites: Some learners have an idea about objects in the classroom.

Teaching/ Learning aids: School conversation poster(s), learners' activity book, word cards

Reference: Oral English teacher's guide, p. 7
Learners' activity book, p. 9

Lesson Progression

Stage/Time	Teacher's and Learners' Activities	Teaching Points
Introduction 5 min	• Ask learners to look at the picture showing classroom and identify objects in a local language and English • Learners will say book, table, pens, and ruler	• Book, pencil, pens, table, duster, chalk and uniforms
Development 25 min	• Ask learners to say names of classroom objects they know in English, beginning with those they mentioned in the introduction • Tell learners names of objects found in the classroom in English • Paint each object and ask learners to name it in English • Teach the structure: What is this/that? • Learners practise the structure: What is this/that? • Put learners in groups and let them practise the learnt structure • Go round the classroom listening to how learners are practising and correcting an identified mistake	• Box, book, rubber, pencil, ruler, table, duster, chalk • What is this/that? Ans: That/this is a book. • What is this/that? Ans: That/this is a book.
Conclusion 5 min	• Reinforce what has been taught • Revise with learners the objects learnt in English	• Things in the classroom • desk, book, pencil and duster
Homework	• Tell learners to continue practising at home using the structure: What is this/that? with different objects found at home	

Lesson Evaluation

NOTE: The revised 2013 curriculum encourages teachers to use methods, strategies, approaches, techniques, and tools such as:

Pair work, group work, role play, language games, songs, rhymes, dialogue

6.8

Appropriate MTB-MLE accommodations for oral language development

Learners who do not speak the language of instruction (LOI), or who are transitioning to a new language, should receive additional explicit instruction in the structure of the target language. Any syntactical differences (how words are ordered) and morphemic differences (how affixes are applied to change the meaning of words) should be directly pointed out and taught to the learners. Additionally, learners will need to be aware of and practise any differences in how the languages are used (conversationally and formally), as well as the appropriate manner to respond to certain people (e.g. elders).

When children enter school, they come from environments where they are exposed to a language. It is expected that children should be helped to become literate in their Mother Tongue (MT) first before they can become literate in a second language. The argument of becoming literate in the MT first is because the children are able to communicate orally in their MT and it can be easy to transform their oral language into reading and writing. The United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) (1999) has asserted that the use of the MT is an essential foundation for learning as well as a scaffold for future literacy in additional languages. First language learning can help a child in the first stages of learning. Children's ability to learn a second language depends mainly on first learning to read in their first language, which is also dependent on developing listening and speaking in one's first language. Literacy in one's first language develops the foundational cognitive and linguistic structures for learning additional languages more easily (Kosenen, 2005; UNESCO, 2011). When children are able to develop the skills in reading and writing in the first language, they can apply the same skills to the learning of another language.

Children are more likely to succeed in school when the first language is used. This is because parents become more invested in their children's learning if they are able to understand and help their children use a familiar language (Ball, 2010). It is important here to remember that Zambian classrooms may include language diversity with children's MT being the same or different to the official LOI. In some cases, English is a first language to some learners. No matter what a child's MT is, the reward of first language instruction is still higher. When children enter school, teachers ought to plan activities that are in the language they are familiar with, and this helps children acquire the basic skills of learning. When children go home, parents help their children because they can relate to both the school and home environments.

The teacher should be able to use words that are familiar and basic, because at times some words and word structures in the learners' first language maybe different from the LOI. Some learners may be aware while others may have no idea about these differences. Therefore, learners must be allowed to discuss concepts in their first language and share with others. Allowing learners to use their first language also helps them to build their communicative skills, which will later lead to cognitive development. It also allows learners to understand more and ask questions where they need help because they are allowed to express themselves in their familiar language.

Activity 9: Learning outcome 6

Brainstorm other MTB-MLE accommodations for oral language.

What are the advantages of using the learners' first language for instruction?

Teacher educator guidance

Have student teachers add these accommodations to their chart, that they used for activity 6.

6.9

How is oral language assessed?

Children enter the classroom with varying degrees of oral language proficiency. Thus, it is critical that teachers include assessment components of oral language, so they have the appropriate data to target instruction. Research has indicated that these early language skills are strong indicators of future reading success (Foorman et al., 2015). An early screener of language skills and an early intensive focus on oral language skills is imperative for all learners to read at grade level and succeed in all other subject areas. This type of oral language assessment relates to children's ability to effectively use semantic (meaning) and syntactic (function and grammar) elements that are essential to the learning of reading and writing skills. The following are examples of assessment in listening and speaking.

6.8.1

Listening

Listening tests involve the learner listening to some type of dialogue. In assessing listening, a teacher can use a post-listening activity to check comprehension and evaluate listening skills and the use of listening strategies. A post-listening activity may follow a pre-listening activity like *predicting* or *expanding* on the topic of the listening text. This would be followed by an application activity, which can assess whether or not the learner listened and understood the test. One example of this is when the teacher lets the learner listen to a story and after listening to the story, the teacher asks questions to check how much of the story the learner remembers. Retell or asking learners to retell the story is another strategy to assess listening.

6.8.2

Speaking

A teacher can assess a learner's speaking skills through certain activities such as making an oral report, speech, role play, and other activities that require the learner to speak. Activities that involve speaking allow the teacher to evaluate the learners in terms of grammar, vocabulary, and fluency. For example, a teacher can ask the learners to stand in front of the class and give a certain time to describe an event. In this way, the teacher can see and grade the learner accordingly on a given criteria, such as how fluent the learner was in delivering the speech and what types of words he or she used (Mead & Rubin, 1985).

The next section of the module will focus on assessment of the grade 2 oral English language course. Take note that after a unit covering six lessons, a revision is done to check vocabulary acquisition in the six lessons under that unit. There is a formal assessment activity after every twelve lessons and marks recorded in the continuous assessment form. This is intended to assess the progress of the learners at the end of a sequence of twelve lessons. Assessment is based on the learning outcomes and content learnt such as vocabulary items. The teacher assesses learners one by one while other learners are engaged in other tasks. Clear guidelines are given in the grade 2 oral English course teacher's guide on how to complete these assessments. Some hints are also given below.

SAMPLE

Grade 2 oral English formal assessment sheet

	Assessment items					Proficiency level
Name	Identifies family members	Uses objects	Follows instruction	Performs an action	Answers short questions	*1. Below minimum* *2. Minimum* *3. Desirable* *4. Outstanding*
Mwansa						
Phiri						
Nyambe						
Mwanza						
Hamalambo						
Ngosa						
Simwanza						
Zulu						
Sakuwaha						
Foloko						
Musonda						

NOTE: After recording marks in the sheet above, arrange the learners in such a way that the learner with the highest score (mark) will be at the top and end with the learner with the lowest score (mark).

The table below helps to grade the proficiency level of learners.

Levels	Below minimum	Minimum	Desirable	Outstanding
Marks (scores)	0–7.5	8–11	12–15	16–20
Percentage	0–39%	40–59%	60–79%	79–100%

Activity 10: Learning outcome 7

What are some ways that teachers may assess learners' oral language skills?

6.10

Chapter summary

Oral language skills include listening/receptive skills and speaking/expressive skills. The early development of oral language skills significantly impacts later reading comprehension development. Children start developing oral language from home long before they ever enter school. It is important for parents and teachers to provide good language models and scaffold young learners to listen and speak with higher levels of language skills. Strong oral language skills help children to develop reading and writing (literacy), as well as other academic skills. When children enter school, they should be assessed on their language skills, so that teachers have a clear picture on how instruction in the classroom can be handled in the best way possible for all learners. Later, assessment data should guide instruction, particularly for children whose language skills are very low in comparison to their peers.

6.11

Assessment of learning

Learning outcome 8

Develop and deliver an oral language lesson and provide feedback to a peer.

Teacher educator guidance

As a teacher educator, you will be expected to check through and give guidance on the lesson plan before the actual lesson. This means that you are expected to be involved in the process of lesson planning on oral language, and providing student teachers feedback as they develop and plan their lessons for delivery.

Student teachers will evaluate peers on their oral English lesson delivery. Ensure this is done systematically. Let the peers bring out positive comments about their colleagues' lessons and end up with suggestions for improvement. You might also consider using the sample peer teaching observation checklist below.

Peer teaching observation checklist		Comments:
Content/skill: Student teacher includes the appropriate content and teaches the appropriate skill for the lesson.	Yes No	
Materials: If materials are to be used, the Student Teacher uses appropriate materials in the expected way (self-created materials are neat and usable).	Yes No	
Approach: Student teacher uses the proper approach. Student teacher provides corrective feedback for incorrect answers.	Yes No	
Pedagogy: Student teacher uses stories, pictures, songs, role play, and dialogue to scaffold and extend learners' oral language skills.	Yes No	
Presentation: Student teacher uses eye contact, appropriate volume, and engages all or most peers in the lesson.	Yes No	

6.12

Supplemental readings and resources

https://www.readingrockets.org/article/oral-language-expanding-your-childs-vocabulary

https://www.britishcouncil.my/english/courses-children/resources/fun-activities-that-develop-language-learning

https://blog.brookespublishing.com/11-ways-to-improve-your-students-oral-language-skills/

CHAPTER 7

Phonological Awareness

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Phonological Awareness

INTRODUCTION

There are many skills a child needs to develop before successfully learning how to read and write. Children need to be aware of how sounds work and how these relate to words before they can fully develop reading and writing skills. Phonological awareness is the foundation upon which all the other layers of literacy are built and unless it is solid, the other layers will truly be affected negatively such that the learner will struggle to read. It is important, therefore, that student teachers understand the concept of phonological awareness for them to be able to help the learners learn how to read fluently and write accurately. This chapter will discuss what phonological awareness is, its importance, how it is taught, how it is assessed, and what appropriate Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) accommodations can be made. Therefore, student teachers need to be grounded effectively.

7.1

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.4.3 Literacy situation in Zambia

1.4.3.2 Discuss factors affecting literacy instruction in Zambia

1.4.3.3 Identify challenges affecting the teaching of literacy

1.5.3 Approach (key skills) to teaching early grade reading

1.5.3.1 Demonstrate knowledge of appropriate key skills of teaching early grade reading

1.5.5 Lesson procedure and lesson format

1.5.5.1 Demonstrate steps for teaching a Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) lesson

1.6.3 Types of assessment

1.6.3.1 Discuss different types of assessment

1.6.4 Conducting assessments

1.6.4.1 Explain the procedure for conducting assessment

2.2.2 Peer teaching

2.2.2.2 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

By the end of the chapter, the student teachers will:

1. define phonological and phonemic awareness
2. explain the importance of phonological awareness in relation to literacy teaching
3. develop phonological and phonemic awareness activities in Zambian languages
4. identify components of phonological awareness and their application to literacy teaching
5. discuss the challenges of teaching phonological and phonemic awareness in Zambian languages
6. discuss appropriate MTB-MLE strategies for phonological and phonemic awareness instruction
7. practise assessment strategies for phonological and phonemic awareness
8. develop and deliver a lesson on phonological awareness.

7.2

Instructional materials

- Student module
- Module – Teacher effectiveness enriching our teaching: teacher group meeting
- National Literacy Framework (NLF)
- Picture cards and real objects
- Elkonin boxes, bottle caps, or other manipulatives

7.3

Key Terms

Phoneme

The smallest unit of sound in a language

Syllable

A unit of pronunciation having one vowel sound, with or without surrounding consonants, that forms the whole or a part of a word

Rhymes

Words that sound the same at the end of a word

Alliteration

A series of words or syllables which begin with the same consonant sound

Phonological awareness

The ability to hear and manipulate sound structures of language

Manipulating

Deleting, adding, and substituting syllables and sounds

Blending

Combining sounds to form syllables or words

Segmenting

Dividing words into phonemes or syllables

Phonemic awareness

The ability to recognise and manipulate individual sounds in words

Pre-assessment

An assessment that is administered before a learner begins a lesson, unit, course, or academic programme to establish the baseline against which educators measure academic readiness or learning progress over the duration of the course, programme, or instructional period

Formative assessment

Spot check or in-process assessment conducted by an educator to get feedback about the learning so that instructional approaches, teaching materials, and academic support can be modified

Summative assessment

used to evaluate learning over a longer period like after completing a unit or topic; a summation of what has been learnt

7.4

What is phonological awareness?

Phonological awareness refers to the ability to recognise, discriminate, and manipulate the sounds in one's language, regardless of the size of the word unit that is the focus (Anthony & Francis, 2005). It is knowing and demonstrating that spoken language can be broken down into smaller units—words, syllables, phonemes—and manipulated. Phonological awareness includes being able to identify words that rhyme, recognise alliteration, segment a sentence into words, identify the syllables in a word, and blend/segment word parts (Vaughn et al., 2017). Phonological awareness is said to have moderate to significant effects on reading and spelling, and typically, both developing children and those with reading difficulties benefit from direct instruction in phonological awareness (National Reading Panel, 2000).

Development of phonological awareness does not come naturally. Rather, these skills must be explicitly taught. In the early stages of reading, phonological awareness is key to helping a child learn how to read, as awareness of the sounds within language form the basis of the alphabetic principal. Phonological awareness provides learners with the skills they need for understanding phonics, which are letter-sound relationships through print.

Phonological awareness is an umbrella term that includes four developmental levels: word awareness, syllable awareness, onset-rime awareness, and phonemic awareness (Honig et al., 2000). This is an oral/aural skill and does not involve words in print. Therefore, a teacher should never show words to his or her learners when teaching phonological awareness skills.

Before children learn to read print, they need to have a strong awareness of how spoken language can be broken into parts. This knowledge of how language works is called *phonological awareness*. When children become aware of, and are able to manipulate, the individual sounds within words, this is called *phonemic awareness*.

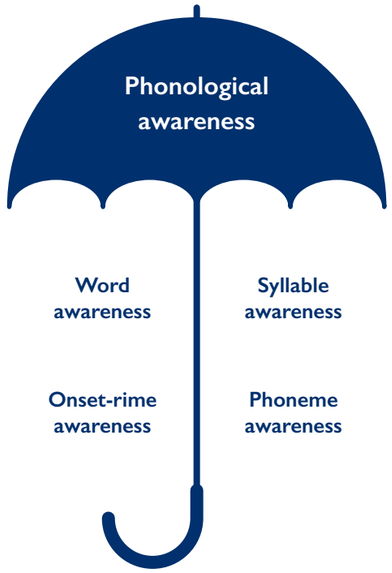


Image: Lane et al. (2001)

7.5

What is phonemic awareness?

Phonemic awareness is a subset of phonological awareness and involves the ability to hear, identify, and manipulate the individual sounds (phonemes) in spoken language. Honig et al. (2000) defined phonemic awareness as the conscious understanding that spoken language is composed of individual speech sounds. Phonemic awareness involves the ability to blend, segment, and manipulate phonemes in spoken words. The significance of phonemic awareness lies not in the ability to recognise differences in sounds (phonemes), but in knowing that these sounds are elements of our language that can be manipulated. Learners need to be able to hear sounds, know their position, and understand the role they play within a word. Recognising that words are made up of sounds and that those sounds can be changed to form new words is essential for success in learning to read and spell. To build phonemic awareness, learners should be exposed to instruction in the following activities: isolating, blending, segmenting, deleting, adding, and substituting sounds in words. The first three skills (isolating, blending, and segmenting) normally develop first and the last three skills (deleting, adding, and substituting) take longer to master. It is important to note that phonemic awareness is purely an auditory and oral skill, so learners should be working with objects or picture cards, not printed text.

Figure 7.1 shows the relationship between phonological awareness and phonemic awareness. Phonological awareness is comprised of all competencies related to language and words, and phonemic awareness is a very special type of phonological awareness related to individual sounds.

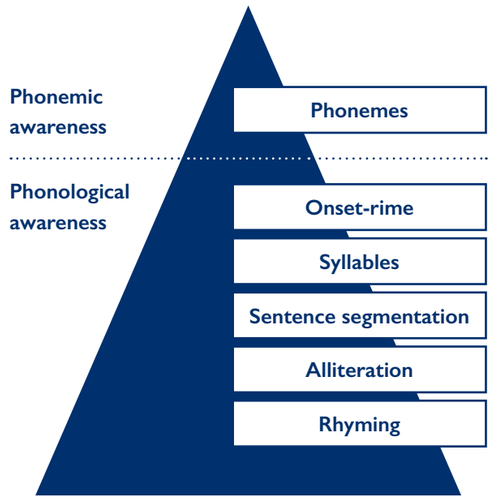


Figure 7.1 Phonological and phonemic awareness

Activity 1: Learning outcome 1

In groups of four, discuss the difference between phonological and phonemic awareness. Decide on a definition for each and record the definition into your notes.

7.6

Importance of phonological awareness

Developing phonological and phonemic awareness is important for all learners because the awareness of sounds and syllables will help learners to be able to hear, blend, and segment the sounds in words that they want to read and spell. When the learners hear the sounds in a word and identify where the sounds occur in the word, they are developing strong pre-reading skills. Phonological awareness also facilitates the development of vocabulary and word consciousness, as learners attend to unfamiliar words and compare them with known words.

Phonological awareness is a key early competency of emergent and proficient reading and spelling. It involves an explicit awareness of how words, syllables, and individual speech sounds (phonemes) are structured. Phonological awareness also enables the learner to segment words into smaller units. This knowledge can be useful in helping children learn about letter-sound correspondence. Being aware of the sounds that make up words helps learners to be able to blend sounds together to read, as well as to segment words into sounds for writing.

For example, if a child is able to hear and identify the sounds in the word *cat* as /k/ /a/ /t/, then they will be able to blend them together and read. If the learner can hear the sounds /k/ /a/ /t/ in the word and can identify which letters represent each sound, then he or she can correctly write the word *cat*.

Therefore, the relationship between phonological and phonemic awareness to literacy teaching is that phonological, and especially phonemic, awareness is a key skill in beginner readers because awareness of individual sounds in language will help learners tie those sounds to the letters of the alphabetic writing system that represent those sounds (Ministry of General Education, n.d.).

Activity 2: Learning outcome 2

What are the main skills involved in phonological awareness?

What are the main skills involved in phonemic awareness?

Why is phonological and phonemic awareness important to early literacy development?

7.7

How is phonological awareness taught?

Phonological awareness skills are the building blocks of future reading success. Therefore, learners should be helped to develop these skills in early grades in order to motivate them to learn how to read. Learners should be made aware that there are sounds in each word and that words are made up of strings of sound that will later facilitate the subsequent acquisition of reading skills.

The best way to teach phonological awareness is by using systematic, explicit literacy instruction. This type of instruction should be done step-by-step where the skills are taught in a logical order that follows the natural development of these skills. These skills will help a learner develop phonemic awareness, which is the most complex skill under phonological awareness. Phonological awareness skills are developed within a sequence of increasing complexity: learners start developing phonological awareness in English by rhyming, identifying beginning sounds in words, and playing with alliteration. In Bantu languages the order would be to first teach learners to segment sentences into individual words. When learners are aware of individual words, they are ready to learn about syllable segmentation. Learners should be given opportunities to identify, blend, segment, add, subtract, and substitute word parts (syllables) to make new words. With the teacher taking the lead, learners can play English rhyming games, sing songs, and chant rhymes, do finger plays, and clap out the syllables of their names. When teachers read aloud books that play with language and rhymes and include consistent language patterns such as alliteration and rhyme, learners enjoy them greatly and gain in phonological awareness. Later, teachers can start involving learners in supplying their own rhymes, alliterations, and other variations that can further enhance their phonological awareness (Copple & Bredekamp, 2013).

Learners must be exposed to phonological patterns such as rhyme, alliteration, syllable isolation, blending, and segmentation—manipulation at the word level. See the examples below.

a. Rhyming

Identify and later produce words that have the same endings. Example—looking at the pictures of a *cat*, *dog*, *bat*, *hat*, *rat*, and *mat*—and finding the words that rhyme.

Student teachers can do other activities where they are required to come up with sentences with rhyming words. For example: Jane put the *rag* in the *bag*.

Create cards with pictures whose titles rhyme; learners can sort these into piles (e.g. mouse-house and dog-frog).

Images: Florida Center for Reading Research (2021)

In Bantu languages, children can play games with syllables; for example, by saying syllables in short words backwards, e.g.:

Lunda: *mata*, 'guns', *tama*

Lozi: *lata*, 'love', *tala*

b. Sentence segmentation

Learners will be helped to understand how to hear individual words in the whole sentence before moving to hearing syllables. For example, the teacher educator provides a sentence and models clapping for each of the words in the sentence. Thereafter, the learners need to come up with a sentence each and practise segmenting it through clapping. 'The boy is eating' – the / boy / is / eating. The teacher educator will do four claps.

c. Syllable isolation

This involves identifying individual syllables in words.

d. Syllable blending

This calls for blending the syllables together to make a word such as /ba/ /na/ na/ – *banana*; /win/ /dow/ – *window*

Bemba: *ba-lee-lya – baleelya* 'They are eating'

Tonga: *mu-si-mbi – musimbi* 'girl'

e. Syllable segmentation

Separating the syllables in a word such as in the word *wonderful* – /won/ /der/ /ful/; *donut* – /do/ /nut/.

Bemba: *Bakabwekeshapo* 'They will repeat'
ba-ka-bwe-ke-sha-po

Lozi: *Bayukula* 'They are paddling fast'
ba-yu-ku-la

f. Syllable addition

This involves adding syllables to words to make new words; some examples are: *hop + ing = hopping*; *soft + ball = softball*

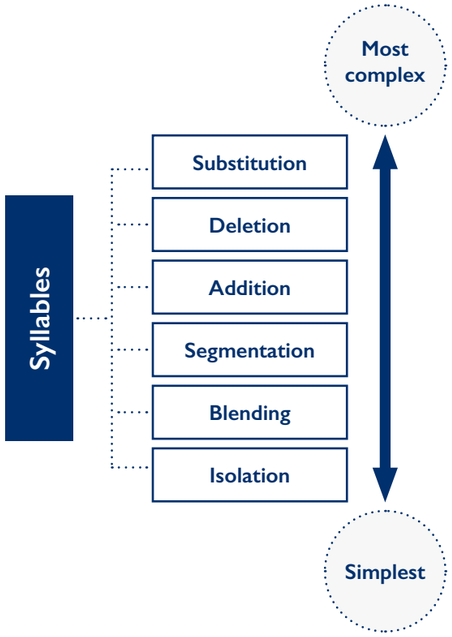
Bemba: *Pa* 'give' + *nga* = *panga* 'make'

g. Syllable deletion

This involves removing syllables from words to make new words; some examples are: *rainbow – rain = bow*; *baseball – ball = base*

h. Onset-rime

This is awareness and manipulation of word parts smaller than syllables. In English, learners are asked to explore word families (sets of words with the same rime, or ending, and with different onsets, or beginning letters). For example, the teacher might distribute a set of picture cards: dug, pig, fit, pen, big, bit, hug, ten, wig, mug, men, kit, hen, jug, dig, spit. Learners will be asked to match up the picture cards that have the same endings (rimes).



Activity 3: Learning outcome 3

Develop Zambian language activities and appropriate materials for teaching rhyme, alliteration, sentence segmentation, and all levels of syllable awareness. Remember not to use texts/words. All activities must include only pictures or objects.

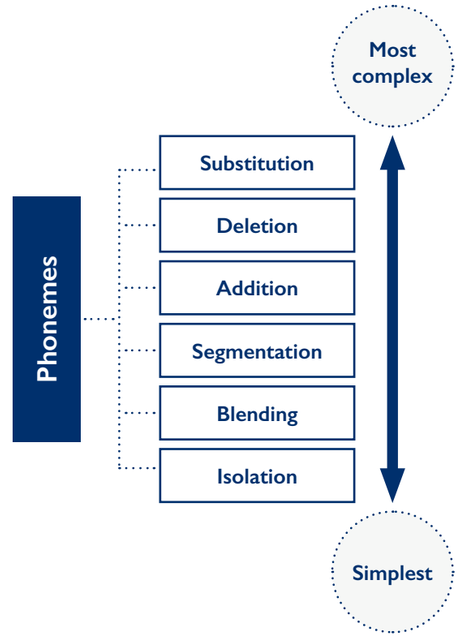
Teacher educator guidance

Emphasise the point that learners beginning to read in Zambian languages can benefit from phonemic awareness and syllable awareness, but not the onset-rime awareness as discussed above. We have seen that syllables, in particular, are simple and easily identified in Zambian languages. This level of phonological awareness may be more suitable when teaching in Zambian languages than focusing on onset-rime awareness.

7.8

How is phonemic awareness taught?

When learners are able to manipulate word parts, their attention can finally be directed to the individual sounds within words. Here, they should be guided to identify, blend, segment, add, subtract, and substitute individual sounds within words. This will build the foundation upon which later reading skills are developed.



The goal of phonemic awareness is to help learners develop an 'ear' for language—to hear specific sounds, identify sound sequences, and understand the role phonemes play in word formation. The tasks under phonemic awareness include phoneme isolation, blending, segmentation, addition, deletion, and substitution. These are the same skills that the learners applied to syllables, only now the learners must apply these skills to individual sounds. Note that for each task, the teacher should only provide one prompt to the learners at a time. Learners will become overwhelmed if asked to think about multiple words at one time.

a. Phoneme isolation

Isolating phonemes is the first step in developing phonemic awareness. This involves having learners identify specific phonemes in words. Learners will first be able to isolate the first sound in the word, then the last sound in the word, and finally the middle sounds in the word.

This also takes place orally without the written word. For example, the teacher might ask the learners to identify the first sound in the word *fan* – /f/; or the last sound in the word *fan* – /n/.

Image: Florida Center for Reading Research (2021)

Tonga: *bulumbu*, 'reward', /b/

Cinyanja: *munyamata*, 'young man', /m/

The teacher can also place objects in a box or bag (toy car, toy lion, pencil, rock, etc.). S/he can pull an item out of the bag and then guide the learners to count the number of sounds and identify the first, last, and middle sounds of the object.

b. Phoneme blending

At this level, learners listen for sounds and blend them to say a word. This level is very important as it is the backbone of decoding. The focus is on hearing sounds in sequence and blending them together to make a word. For example, a teacher might say, 'Listen. I'm going to say the sounds and then blend them to say the word. The sounds are /r/ /u/ /g/. The word is *rug*.

The teacher might assign a sound to each learner and ask them to blend the sounds to say the word. The first learner would be assigned the sound /k/, the second learners would be assigned the sound /a/, and the third learner would be assigned the sound /t/. Then they work together to say the word *cat*.

Bemba: Kafundisha: *kuminkanya ifi ifiunda ukupanga ishiwi –*

Teacher: 'Combine these sounds to form a word – /p/ /a/ /l/ /a/.'

Umwana (learner): *pala*, 'resemble'

Kafundisha: *kuminkanya ishi nundwa ukupanga ishiwi –*

Teacher: 'Combine these syllables to form a word – /lo/ /ndo/ /lo/ /la/'.

Umwana (learner): *londolola*, 'explain'

Lozi: Teacher: 'Combine the following sounds to form a word: /m/ /e/ /t / /o/'.

Learner: *meto*, 'eyes'

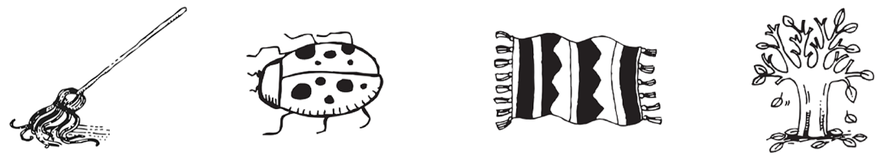
Teacher: 'Combine these syllables to form a word: *si-hwa-na*'.

Learner: *sihwana*, 'calabash'

c. Phoneme segmentation

Segmenting phonemes or syllables helps learners encode (spell) and decode (read). Segmentation helps learners develop correct pronunciation of words and helps them to hear all the sounds in words. At this level, learners have acquired a good sense of phonemic awareness and are ready to divide words into separate sounds (phonemes). This skill is a reverse of phoneme blending where sound syllable units are combined (see blending above).

The teacher can share picture cards or objects to support understanding, or simply use oral words. The learners should be directed to first listen to the teacher, and then say a word very slowly, stretching it apart (e.g. *flag* = /fffffflllllaaaag/). Learners should be directed to count the number of sounds in a word as they are segmented. Say each word slowly as learners listen, tap out, and count the number of phonemes they hear. After the learners are able to identify the number of sounds in a word, move on to the more difficult task of identifying individual phonemes or syllables. Teachers can provide pictures of objects and ask the learners to identify and segment the sounds of the name of the object.



Images: Florida Center for Reading Research, (2021)

An example: segmenting phonemes – separating the phonemes in a word such as in the word *cat* [/k/ /a/ /t/].

Bemba: *Ukupatulukanya ifiunda mwi shiwi ngeefi* (segment the sounds in the word like this *isa* [/i/ /s/ /a/].)

Lozi: Teacher: segment this word like this: *mme*, 'mother', [/m/ /m/ /e/].

Teacher educator guidance

Emphasise that the students repeat the sound they hear and not letter names. All of these activities are oral/aural and should not include any letters or text.

d. Phoneme addition

The phoneme addition activities will help learners develop their phonological awareness by listening to words and adding a phoneme to the beginning or end of the word to form a new word. For example, the teacher can say, 'If I add the sound /s/ to the word *mile*, the new word is *smile*. Now, if I add the sound /f/ to the word *arm*, what is the new word? That is right, it is *farm*'. Once the learners understand the task, they can be asked more challenging questions like:

Teacher: What sound can you add to the word *cap* to make it *caps*?

Learners: /s/

Teacher: Now say *belt*, *map*, *bag*.

Learners: *belt*, *map*, *bag*

Teacher: Now say *belt*, *map*, *bag* but add /s/ at the end of the words.

Learners: *belts*, *maps*, *bags*

Teacher: Say at.

Learners: *at*

Teacher: Now add /b/ to the front.

Learners: *bat*

The teacher continues to guide learners to add the new sound to *at*: /m/, /f/, /r/, /c/

Learners: *mat*, *fat*, *rat* and *cat*

In local languages, we can have phoneme addition activities, such as:

Bemba:

Teacher: *lundako iciunda /a/ pakutampa kwa amashiwi* (add a /a/ to the beginning of the words): *buuka*, *isa*, *leka*: 'wake up', 'come', 'stop'.

Umwana (learner): *abuuka*, *aisa*, *aleka* – 'She has awakened', 'She has come', 'She has stopped'.

Teacher: *lundako inundwa bu- kuntanshi yamashiwi*; *tuka*, *lila* (add the syllable 'bu' to the words): *tuka*, *lila*. *Butuka*, 'run', *bulila*, 'missing'.

Kaonde:

Teacher: Add *ba* to the beginning of these words to make words: *mona*, *lala*, *pusa*.

Learner: *bamona*, 'they see', *balala*, 'they break', *bapusa*, 'they miss'.

Activity 4

Practise the above activities in a local language used in your area.

Teacher educator guidance

Ensure that the student teachers know that each example must be provided separately. Learners will be overwhelmed if asked to do several words at once.

d. Phoneme deletion

Deleting phonemes is a strategy where learners remove a sound from a given word and say what is left. Note that the remaining part of the word should be meaningful. This is an advanced activity in which learners take words apart, remove one sound, and pronounce the word without the removed sound.

Teacher: say *tan*

Learners: *tan*

Teacher: Now say *tan* without the /t/

Learners: *an*

Teacher: say *fat*

Learners: *fat*

Teacher: Now say *fat* without the /f/

Learners: *at*

Once learners are able to do this, they can receive more challenging questions, like:

Teacher: What sound do we take away to change *cup* to *up*?

Learners: /c/

Teacher: What sound do we take away to change *mat* to *at*?

Learners: /m/

Bemba:

Teacher: *landa ishiwi 'fuma' ukwabula* /f/

Umwana (learner): *uma*

Teacher: say the word *fuma* 'get out' without the /f/.

Umwana (learner): -*uma*, 'beat'.

Teacher: *Ninundwanshi wacifunya ku ishiwi 'kapokeni' pakuti libe pokeni.*

Teacher: Which syllable do you remove from *kapokeeni*, 'to and get' to have *pokeeni*, 'receive/get'?

Lozi: What do we remove from *bo ndate*, 'fathers', so that we have *ndate*, 'father'?

f. Phoneme substitution

Phoneme substitution is a strategy in which learners are manipulating spoken words by substituting certain phonemes for others to form a new word. Phoneme substitution takes place orally without the written word. This is where a word is transformed into a new word simply by changing any of its phonemes or sounds. Look at the examples below.

Teacher: Say *lip*

Learner: *lip*

Teacher: now say *lip*, but take off the /l/ and add /s/

Learner: *sip*

Teacher: *sip*, correct. Now take off the /s/ and add /t/

Learner: *tip*

(Teacher continues to guide learners by substituting sounds at the beginning and then at the end of the word.)

Zambian language examples:

Bemba:

Teacher: *pala*, 'resemble', use /s/ at the beginning

Learner: *sela*, 'move'

Teacher: *sela*, move', use /b/

Learner: *bala*, 'provoke'

Tonga:

Teacher: *luka*, 'vomit', use /b/

Learner: *buka*, 'wake up'

Activity 5: Learning outcome 4

1. Why is it necessary to teach identifying initial, final, and medial phonemes before teaching blending and segmenting phonemes?
2. What do you think are the reasons to begin teaching phonological awareness starting with rhyming, and then moving to sentence segmentation, and then to syllable blending and segmentation?
3. Why should learners master syllable awareness before working with individual phonemes?

7.9

MTB-MLE strategies for phonological and phonemic instruction

Use of mother tongue in teaching is considered to be an important component of quality education. Below are some of the strategies that can be used to teach phonological and phonemic awareness to learners who do not speak the language of instruction, or who speak another Zambian language as their primary home language.

a. Think-Pair-Share strategy

Think-Pair-Share is a cooperative learning strategy in which learners can talk with their peers about rhyming words. For example, after being given a word to guide such as *cat*, learners can think silently and then share the answer or thoughts with a partner (this can be in a language other than the language of instruction (LOI)). Then, the teacher calls on some learners to share their responses with the whole class. This strategy gives learners the opportunity to talk with their peers, which can improve the acquisition of the LOI.

b. Teaching using objects

Teaching with objects is a strategy in which the pupils use concrete objects or manipulatives to support development of phonological and phonemic awareness. Manipulating objects helps pupils to connect abstract concepts with concrete experiences. The objects can be concrete representations of the concepts being taught and can facilitate discussion of syllables and sounds in words. Learners can discuss the names for the items in their home language and in the LOI. Concrete

representations are often used to support the development of phonological and phonemic awareness. For this strategy to be effective, it is important that the teacher models how to connect the object with the concepts in both the home language and the LOI.

Activity 6: Learning outcome 5 and 6

Discuss the challenges that may be encountered when teaching phonological and phonemic awareness using Zambian languages, especially in peri-urban and urban areas.

What MTB-MLE strategies may be helpful in teaching phonemic and phonological awareness?

7.10

How is phonological and phonemic awareness assessed?

The term *assessment* refers to the wide variety of methods or tools that educators use to evaluate, measure, and document the academic readiness, learning progress, skill acquisition, or educational needs of learners. This is done through the pre-assessments, formative assessments, and summative assessments. Assessment of phonological and phonemic awareness will help the teacher to identify skills that need more instruction, monitor the progress of learners, personalise learning strategies, identify learner strengths and weaknesses, and improve instruction.

The phonological awareness assessment is a short assessment that tells teachers how learners are progressing in phonological awareness. It allows learners to demonstrate what they know and can do and clarifies for teachers their learners' skill level for the sub-skills. Individual teachers will be flexible to choose which sub-skill they will assess at a time. However, it is important that learners are assessed in all the phonological awareness levels. The assessment should encompass rhyming, word awareness, syllable awareness, initial sound identification, final sound identification, sound segmentation, sound blending, medial sound identification, and deletion (word, syllable, and phoneme).

To assess phonological awareness, a teacher should prepare all the necessary materials adequate to carry out an assessment effectively, such as assessment sheets to record learners' answers.

According to the Zambian curriculum, there are four school-based assessments that are conducted to assess phonological awareness. These include daily, weekly, monthly, and end-of-term assessments. The monthly assessments are conducted in week 5 and week 10 of the term.

7.10.1

Directions for conducting assessments

a. The assessment is administered individually. A teacher takes a few minutes to assess each learner depending on the learner's ability and how many sub-skills the teacher is assessing learners on.

b. This assessment is administered daily, weekly, monthly in week 5 and week 10, and at the end of the term.

c. Each learner assessed is given appropriate scores on each sub-skill assessed. At the end, the scores are added together and provides feedback on learners' skill development in a period of time on the sub-skills covered by the assessment.

Look at the suggested phonological assessment task map below.

Learner's name	Rhyme recognition	Rhyme production	Word awareness	Syllable awareness	Initial sound ID	Final sound ID	Medial sound ID	Phoneme blending	Phoneme segmentation	Deletion tasks		
										word	syllable	phoneme

According to the Zambian curriculum, learners should be assessed on all levels of phonological awareness. Assessment should begin from the larger units of words and then move to smaller units, word parts (syllables), and finally individual sounds. At the sound level, start with phoneme recognition and production, and later move to blending, segmentation, and later to manipulation, which involves deletion and substitution of phonemes.

Teachers may wish to use a formal assessment that is based on the skills they have already taught to the learners. A formal assessment might look something like the following.

7.10.2

Assessment of phonological awareness

Note that mastery of a skill means that the learner correctly answered four out of five items (80%).

Task description	Guidelines for practice or feedback	Mastery (yes/no)
Rhyme		
The teacher says two words and asks the learner if the two words rhyme or do not rhyme. 'Tell me if these two words rhyme or do not rhyme.' Practice items: *man/fan, fat/hat,pig/pot* Test items: *cat/hat, rat/fan, sit/hit, hot/pot, sack/sick*	**Practice:** The teacher can repeat the words saying the endings louder than the rest of the word to draw the learner's attention. For example, if the learner incorrectly says that pig/pot rhyme, the teacher can ask if the sounds –ig and –ot sound the same and tell the learner that they do not sound the same. The teacher DOES NOT provide any help for test items.	
Sentence segmentation		
The teacher says a sentence and asks the learner to repeat the sentence and clap every word. Practice item: *'We go to school in the morning.'* Test items: *Choose five short sentences from the primary school curriculum.*	**Practice:** If the learner does not clap for each word in the sentence on the practice item, the teacher can say the sentence and clap for each word (the learner should clap 7 times). The teacher DOES NOT provide any help for test items.	
Syllable blending		
The teacher says syllables in a word separately. The teacher asks the learner to 'say the syllables'. Next, the teacher asks the learner to 'blend the syllables and say the word'. Practice items: *pen - cil, teach - er* Test items: *fast - er, soc - cer, test - ing, kit - ten, ap - ple* (or use appropriate words from the primary curriculum)	**Practice:** If the learner does not blend the syllables for the first practice item, the teacher models how to do this for the first item only.	
Syllable segmenting		
The teacher asks the learners to 'say the word', and then 'say the syllables in the word'. Practice items: *helper, monkey* Test items: *reader, singing, player, booklet, learner*	**Practice:** If the learner does not segment the word into syllables for the first practice item, the teacher models how to segment the word for the first practice item only.	

7.10.3

Assessment of phonemic awareness

Note that mastery of a skill means that the learner correctly answered four out of five items (80%).

Task description	Guidelines for practice or feedback	Mastery (yes/no)
Phoneme isolation (developmental progression: first, last, middle)		
The teacher says a word and then asks the learners to 'say the word'. Then the teacher says, 'Tell me the (first, last, or middle) sound in the word'. **a. First sound** Practice items: *run, mat* Test items: *(choose five familiar words with three sounds)* **b. Last sound** Practice items: *sun, hat* Test items: *(choose five familiar words with three sounds)* **c. Middle sound** Practice items: *ball, put* Test items: *(choose five familiar words with three sounds)*	**Practice:** If the learners does not correctly identify the sound in the practice word, the teacher can say the word again, saying the first/last/middle sound loudly (depending on what is being assessed). Then, s/he can ask the learners to identify the sound. The teacher DOES NOT provide any help for test items.	
Phoneme blending		
The teacher says the sounds in a word. The teacher asks the learner to 'say the sounds'. Then the teacher asks the learner to 'blend the sounds and say the word'. Practice items: *two words with three to five sounds* Test items: *Choose five familiar words with three to five sounds.*	**Practice:** If the learner does not blend the sounds for the first practice item, the teacher models how to do this for the first item only. The teacher DOES NOT provide any help for test items.	
Phoneme segmentation		
The teacher asks the learner to 'say the word'. Then the teacher asks the learner to 'say the sounds in the word'. Note: if the learner has been taught to count the number of sounds in the word, he/she can hold up a finger for each sound in the word. Practice items: *two words with three to five sounds* Test items: *Choose five familiar words with three to five sounds.*	**Practice:** If the learner does not segment the word into sounds for the first practice item, the teacher models how to do this for the first item only.	

Activity 7: Learning outcome 7

In pairs, find appropriate words to use for the assessment. Then practise administering the phonological awareness and phonemic awareness assessments to each other.

Teacher educator guidance

You may need to provide modelling of the activity before asking student teachers to begin the activity.

7.10.4

If/then charts for phonemic awareness and decoding

If/then charts are a mechanism to help teachers determine what instruction is appropriate for the learners given their current skill level. They provide a guide for developing instruction based on what the learners know and what skills they possess. Figure 7.2 is an if/then chart for phonemic awareness and Figure 7.3 is for decoding. On the left is a column of skills that should be learnt. Skills are listed top to bottom in order of developmental progression (easy skills are at the top, harder skills are at the bottom). Along the top is a row of instructional strategies for skills.

If the student is ready to learn the skill below:	Then select one of the related instructional approaches marked with an X below							
	Sing songs and read poetry	Explicit, scripted instruction	Clap words, syllables, or sounds	Use objects or pictures	Use manipulatives (no letters)	Physical movement	Concepts of first, last, and middle	Elkonin boxes
Rhyming words	X		X	X		X		
Sentence segmentation		X	X			X		
Identify initial/finial/ medial sounds	X	X	X		X		X	X
Blending syllables/sounds		X	X	X	X	X		X

Figure 7.2 If/then chart: phonemic awareness

If the student is ready to learn the skill below:	Then select one of the related instructional approaches marked with an X below						
	Explicit, scripted instruction	Letter cards and sight word cards	Word walls and letter charts	Physcial movement – talk about where sounds are made in the mouth	Making words	Word sorts and word hunts	Elkonin boxes
Alphabet knowledge	X	X	X		X		
Letter-sound correspondence	X	X	X	X	X		X
Identify initial/finial/ medial sounds	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Blending syllables/sounds	X	X	X	X	X		X
Deleting syllables/sounds	X	X	X	X	X		X
Identifying word families	X	X	X		X	X	
Blending and segmenting morphemes	X				X	X	
Reading multi-syllable words	X		X		X	X	
Reading sight words		X	X				

Figure 7.3 If/then chart: decoding

Teacher educator guidance

Review the chart with student teachers and discuss how this type of chart is helpful to teachers' decision-making.

7.11

Peer teaching practice

Peer teaching involves one or more students teaching other students in a particular subject area and builds on the belief that 'to teach is to learn twice' (Whitman, 1998). Peer teaching can create a more engaging learning experience. It can be an effective tool to generate new knowledge through discussion between peers and improves student understanding. The teacher educator can use this as a monitoring tool when student teachers are presenting lessons to their peers in class.

Activity 6: Learning outcome 4

1. Using the PLP teachers' handbook grade 1, create a lesson plan to use to teach the following *phonemic* awareness skills: isolation, blending, segmentation, addition, deletion, and substitution of phonemes.
2. Present lessons to peers in class.
3. Use the observation checklist to provide feedback to peers.

Teacher educator guidance

Provide a model of a lesson that shows what is expected of student teachers' for the assignment. Provide feedback to student teachers on the elements of their lesson before they are required to present their lesson. Demonstrate a lesson to the student teachers to solidify learning.

7.11.1

Sample observation checklist

Peer teaching observation checklist		Comments:
Content/skill: Student teacher includes the appropriate content and teaches the appropriate skill for the lesson.	Yes No	
Materials: If materials are to be used, the Student Teacher uses appropriate materials in the expected way (self-created materials are neat and usable).	Yes No	
Approach: Student teacher uses the proper approach. Student teacher provides corrective feedback for incorrect answers.	Yes No	
Pedagogy: Student teacher uses stories, pictures, songs, role play, and dialogue to scaffold and extend learners' oral language skills.	Yes No	
Presentation: Student teacher uses eye contact, appropriate volume, and engages all or most peers in the lesson.	Yes No	

7.12

Chapter summary

Phonological and phonemic awareness skills refer to the awareness of how parts of language fit together and can be segmented and manipulated. Phonological awareness is the ability to hear, identify, and manipulate syllables in spoken words. Phonemic awareness is the ability to use the same skills at the individual sound/phoneme level. Phonological, and especially phonemic, awareness skills are important for teaching literacy skills because this is the foundation upon which higher-level skills are built. Included in this chapter were methods of teaching phonological and phonemic awareness skills—and it is emphasised that these activities use objects and pictures, but never use text or letters. The chapter also presented the appropriate MTB-MLE strategies in fostering phonological and phonemic awareness skills. As soon as children enter school, and even before, special attention should be given to instruction and practice in phonological and phonemic awareness skills. These skills are important because they support learners' ability to later link sounds in spoken language to letters in written language.

7.13

Assessment of learning

a. Write your own definition for the following terms: *rhyming*, *sentence segmentation*, *syllable blending*, *syllable segmentation*, *identifying initial/final/medial phonemes*, *blending and segmenting phonemes*, *manipulating phonemes*.

b. Choose the instructional strategies that you can use to teach phonological awareness: blending and segmenting and explain how you can use the strategies to teach the two sub-skills.

c. Discuss the difference between phonological awareness and phonemic awareness.

d. Select a lesson from the grade 1 PLP teachers' guide and design an activity to teach phoneme blending or segmenting with the new sounds being introduced.

e. In your own words, explain why phonological awareness is important in relation to literacy teaching.

f. Discuss three activities that you can do with your learners in Zambian languages to practise syllable blending, syllable segmentation, and syllable substitution.

g. Giving a feasible example, show how phonological awareness can be assessed.

h. Explain why it is necessary to teach identifying initial/final/medial phonemes before teaching blending and segmenting phonemes.

7.14

Supplemental readings and resources

Kangwa, N. K. (2017, August). Vowel substitution of English loanwords in Bemba. *International Journal on Studies in English Language and Literature, 5*(8), 30–41. http://dx.doi.org/10.20431/2347-3134.0508005 www.arcjournals.org

Ministry of General Education. (n.d.). *Teacher effectiveness enriching our teaching: Effective practice for transitioning from literacy in Zambian languages to literacy in English*. Teacher's Manual. USAID.

Mwansa, Joseph M. (2017). Theoretical reflections on the teaching of literacy in Zambian Bantu languages. *International Journal of Humanities Social Sciences and Education (IJHSSE), 4*(10), 116–129. http://dx.doi.org/10.20431/2349-0381.0410015

CHAPTER 8

Concepts of Print

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Concepts of Print

INTRODUCTION

Some teachers assume that learning the process of reading is automatic. Owing to this, it is critical for teachers to recognise that understanding components of emergent literacy skills like **concepts of print (COP)** or **print awareness** contribute to school readiness. COP is also known as *print awareness*, or the knowledge of how print works, that print conveys meaning through written text which is connected to oral language and its functions across contexts. It also includes aspects of print like text directionality and features of text as they relate to specific genres (i.e. diagrams, illustrations, maps, captions). Children start building key skills that form the foundation necessary in learning to read and write long before they begin school as we learnt in the module on oral language. However, there are children who begin school with limited knowledge about concepts of print due to a lack of exposure to home literacy activities. This chapter will discuss different components of COP as well as their importance for literacy development. Further, the chapter will present ways to teach COP and suggest appropriate MTB-MLE instructional strategies. Finally, the chapter will present assessment methods for COP and provide opportunities for student teachers to practise delivering COP lessons to peers.

8.1

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.17.3 Reading readiness

1.17.3.1 Explain the features of reading readiness

1.17.4 Pre-reading

1.17.4.1 Identify pre-reading skills

1.5.3 Approach (key skills) to teaching early grade reading

1.5.3.1 Demonstrate knowledge of appropriate key skills of teaching early grade reading

1.6.3 Types of assessment

1.6.3.1 Discuss different types of assessment

1.6.4 Conducting assessments

1.6.4.1 Explain the procedures for conducting assessments

2.2.2 Peer teaching

2.2.2.1 Demonstrate skills in language teaching through peer teaching lessons

By the end of the chapter, the student teachers will:

1. define *concepts of print (COP)/print awareness*
2. explain the relationship between COP/print awareness and school readiness
3. explain the importance of COP/print awareness
4. develop concepts of print teaching activities
5. identify appropriate MTB-MLE instructional strategies for teaching COP
6. discuss and practise administering a COP assessment
7. develop and deliver a lesson on COP.

8.2

Instructional materials

- Student module
- Writing tools (pencils, markers)
- Manila paper
- Books with pictures and less print
- Lesson plan templates

8.3

Key terms

Concepts of print (COP)

The knowledge that print carries meaning and understanding of how print and books work

Print-rich environment

A classroom where learners see print everywhere: in books, on labels, on wall posters, etc.

8.4

What are COP/print awareness?

As learners begin learning about literacy, they encounter print. Early experiences with print and learning within a print-rich environment help young learners understand the connection between oral and written language. A print-rich environment is a classroom where learners see print everywhere: in books, on labels, on wall posters, and in other areas around the room. Print awareness refer to the knowledge that print carries meaning and understanding of how print and books work. Some learners develop print awareness before entering school and the teacher's role is to help them formally develop these skills. Other learners enter school with limited or no knowledge of COP and teachers must introduce these concepts to them. Understanding that print carries meaning and knowing how books work is an important step in literacy development, as these skills are the basic understandings of reading (McKenna & Stahl, 2009).

Print awareness include the ability to locate the front and back of a book; notice that the words (print), and not the picture, tells the story; locate a letter; locate a word; locate the first and last letter of a word; notice when words and letters are out of order; match spoken words to printed words; identify that print is read from the top of the page to the bottom and from the left to the right; and recognise sentence punctuation (Clay, 2005). Print awareness or COP also include the ability to differentiate between letters, numbers, words, and pictures. However, COP are just the beginning of understanding literacy, and are not sufficient alone to make a child a reader (Irwin et al., 2012). Children should learn about COP by interacting with books and discussing their parts and how they are used.

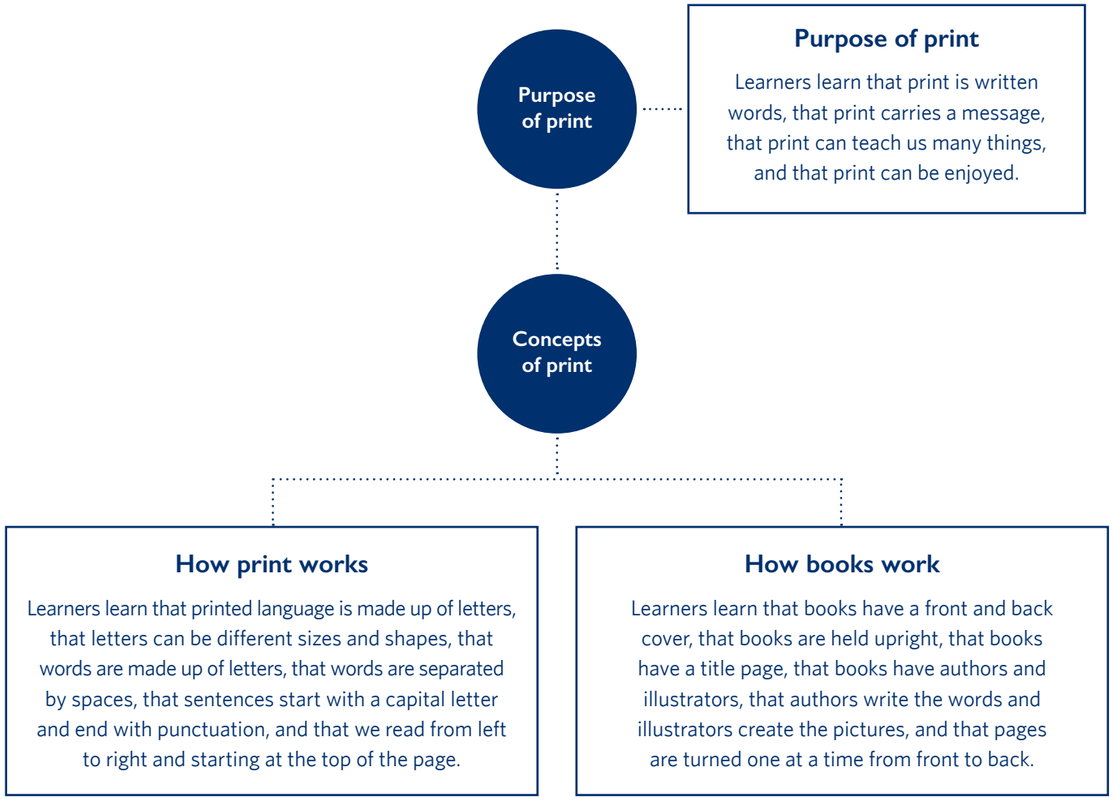

Figure 8.1 Diagram summarising concepts of print (COP)

As children learn about COP, they go through several developmental stages. These stages include:

- **Moving from pictures to text –** beginning to pay attention to the text in the book, in addition to the pictures.
- **Directionality –** holding the book upright and turning the pages from beginning to end without being told to do so.
- **Linking language and print –** beginning to point to words and following text left to right and top to bottom as they pretend to read and retell a story.
- **Word isolation –** beginning to point to individual words and may make up meanings for them.
- **Scribbling –** beginning to scribble in lines starting at the top of the page, one below the other, and scribbling from left to right as they pretend to write.

Activity 1: Learning outcome 1

Define 'COP/print awareness' and record the definition along with some examples into your notes.

Teacher educator guidance

Student teachers should conclude that COP is the basic understanding of how books and print work.

8.5

Why are COP/print awareness important?

Emergent literacy skills such as alphabet knowledge, print concepts, emergent writing, and phonological awareness emerge early in life and are important foundational skills for conventional reading and writing ability (Otto, 2008). Sociocultural interactions with environmental print potentially provide young learners with valuable opportunities to make meaning, communicate, and develop their knowledge about print (Fingon, 2005). Additionally, environmental print may be a promising resource for parents to support their children's emergent literacy and interest in print due to the salience of letters and words in environmental print (Neumann et al., 2015). The large bold appearance of environmental print may provide increased opportunities for letter and word learning to children (Neumann & Neumann, 2009).

The importance of COP knowledge lies in the capacity for learners to understand just how reading works (Holdgreve-Resendez, 2010a). Learners' performance on print awareness tasks is a very reliable foundation and predictor of their future reading and writing achievement. This is because learners' sensitivity to print is a major first step toward reading. Young learners can begin to understand that print is everywhere in the world around them, and that reading and writing are ways for them to get ideas, information, and knowledge.

Young learners need to develop an understanding that print carries meaning and provides information about the text. This knowledge helps in the development of language, reading, and writing. For example, print awareness supports phonics and word reading (Honig et al., 2000). As a part of learning how to read, learners also need to learn the basic conventions of print. Conventions include understanding that words are separated by spaces and that text runs in a specific direction (i.e. left to right), among other skills.

Learners with strong COP knowledge understand that written language is related to oral language. They know that the printed language carries a message and is a source of both information and entertainment. Print awareness is a child's earliest introduction to literacy (Walker, 2012). COP knowledge is a powerful predictor of early reading success. Most learners entering school are expected to have acquired some or most of these skills. However, some learners lack basic knowledge of COP, and they tend to perform poorer than learners with more advanced print awareness skills. Without print awareness, learners are unable to develop other literacy skills such as reading, spelling, and handwriting. Print awareness is a major indicator of literacy success.

Activity 1: Learning outcomes 2 and 3

Why are COP/print awareness important, and what is its relationship to school readiness? Be prepared to support your answer with information from the text.

Teacher educator guidance

Do not assume that student teachers know how to handle COP or print awareness in learners, if they are not carefully guided while in college. Make this task as interesting as you possibly can make it, if it is to yield its intended results.

8.6

How are COP/print awareness taught?

Learners need to be exposed to a variety of print materials to learn about print. A print-rich classroom will help learners develop their awareness of print and how it is used. Learners initially believe that the pictures in books carry the information for the story and must therefore be guided to look at the words on the page and relate them to pictures. There are many different instructional strategies for teaching learners about COP.

Print awareness can be taught using shared reading of books and texts, interactive writing, and exploring print in and outside the classroom environment. A teacher may use interactive read aloud to talk about the parts of the book and discuss the roles of the author and/or illustrator. The duty of the teacher is to expose learners to different components of COP, which will help them develop a variety of skills.

8.6.1

Key components of COP

a. How books work — lessons should include:

- Books are held a certain way and opened a certain way
- Pages of a book are turned from left to right
- Identifying the front and back of the book
- Books have covers
- Identifying the name of author and illustrator
- Other parts of books including an index, table of contents, glossary, etc.

Table 8.1 Sample script for teaching how books work

I do	We do	You do
T: Books are important for learning. Look at the book I am holding. See this part? *[put your hand on the cover]* This is the front cover of the book. **T:** These words are the title *[point to the title]*. This tells me the name of the book. These words are the name of the author *[point to the author's name]*. This is the person who wrote the book. **T:** I can open the front cover *[open the book]* and find the first page *[turn to the first page]*. I know this is the first page because it has the number 1 right here *[point to the page number]*. **T:** When I read a book I start here on page 1, at the beginning. As I read, I turn the pages one at a time, like this *[turn to page 2]*. **T:** I can only turn one page at a time or I will miss parts of the story.	**T:** Let's try it together. Is everyone holding their book upright? *[check that learners are holding the book correctly]* **T:** Let's put our hand on the front cover of the book *[teacher and learners put a hand on the cover]*. **T:** Who remembers what the title tells us? *[learners say that the title tells us the name of the book]* Let's point to the title *[teacher and learners point to the title]*. **T:**Who remembers what the author is? *[learners say it is the name of the person who wrote the book]* Let's point to the author's name *[teacher and learners point to author]*. **T:** Let's open the front cover and find the first page *[teacher and learners turn to page 1]*. **T:** Who can tell me how we know this is the page we start on? *[learners say it has page number 1]* **T:** Who can show me what we do as we read each page? *[learners and teacher turn the pages one at a time]* **T:** What will happen if I turn more than one page? *[learners say they will miss part of the story]*	**T:** Now you try. Show me the front cover of the book *[learners place their hand on the front cover]*. **T:**Now point to the title *[learners point to the title]*. What does the title tell us? *[learners say the name of the book]* **T:** Now point to the author *[learners point to the author]*. What is the author? *[learners say the person who wrote the book]* **T:** Now open the book and show me what page to begin on *[learners open to page 1]*. How do I know this is where I begin? *[learners say it is page number 1]* **T:** Now show me what to do as I read the book *[learners turn the pages one at a time]*. **T:** Why should we turn only one page? *[learners say that they will miss part of the story]*

b. Purpose of print — lessons should include:

- The print, the words on the page, is what is read in a book
- Illustrations are not read, but are related to the print
- Print represents spoken language
- Print has many purposes (or genres)
- The same text will have the same words at all times; print does not change

Table 8.2 Sample script for teaching purpose of print

I do	We do	You do
T: When we read a story, we use the words to find out what is happening. Pictures can show us something about the story, but only the words tell us the story. **T:** Look at this page in your learner book. *[teacher chooses the page for the learners]* You can see words at the top and pictures below. I have the same story in my book too *[show learners the teacher guide]*. **T:** Look at the words at the top of the page *[point to the title of the story]*. This is the title of the story. The title of the story gives us an idea about what we will read. **T:** Look at the words in the story. This is where we will read the story *[point to the words that are in the body of the text]*.	**T:** Let's try this together. Look at this page in your book *[choose a different story on a different page than the one used for I do]*. Point to the words in the title of the story *[teacher and learners point to the title—the teacher looks around to be sure all learners are pointing to the title and not the picture or other parts of the text]*. **T:** Now point to the pictures *[teacher and learners point to the pictures]*. **T:** Point to the words where we will read the story *[teacher and learners point to the words in the body of the text]*.	**T:** Now you try. Point to the title *[learners point to the words in the title as the teacher circulates the classroom, ensuring that all learners are pointing to the title]*. **T:** Now point to the pictures *[learners point to the pictures and the teacher checks that all learners understand]*. **T:** Now point to the words where we will read the story *[learners point to the words in the body of the text and the teacher checks that all learners understand]*.

c. How print works — lessons should include:

- Words are read from left to right
- A line of text on a page is read word by word from left to right
- Lines of text on a page are read from top to bottom (unless the text is meant to be read differently)
- 'Return sweep' – at the end of a line of text reading continues on the next line down at the left side again
- Orientation of letters is important (e.g. p, b, q, and d have the same physical shape but are oriented in different ways)
- Print has a distinct 'right side up'
- Space separates words from each other
- Words, sentences, and texts have a 'beginning' and 'end'
- Each word has a 'first letter,' 'last letter,' and 'middle letters'

Table 8.3 Sample script for teaching how print works

I do	We do	You do
Step 1 **T:** When we read a book or a story, we read the words. Pictures show us something that is happening, but we read the story from the words. **T:** I will read the words on this line *[teacher points to the first word in a line of text and moves finger from left to right under the line as he or she reads the text—this is called tracking text]*.	**Step 1** **T:** Let's do this together. Look at this page in your learner book. *[teacher chooses the page for the learners]* Point to the first word on the line and move your finger under the words in the line *[Teacher and learners both point to the first word on a line and move their finger under all the words in the line as the teacher reads the line. The teacher is watching the learners to be sure they understand. If a student is doing this incorrectly, the teacher prompts with: 'Watch me and do as I do. Put your finger under the first word and then move your finger under all the words in the line.']*.	**Step 1** **T:** Now it is your turn. Put your finger under the first word and then move your finger under all the words in the line *[learners point to the first word and move their fingers under all the words in the line as the teacher reads the line; The teacher circulates the room, providing corrective feedback as needed]*.

Table 8.3 Sample script for teaching how print works *(continued)*

I do	We do	You do
Step 2 *(when students are able to do Step 1 with several different stories, without help or corrections)* **T:** Watch what I do when I read words in a story. When I get to the end of the line, I move my finger to the first word in the next line *[teacher tracks text under the first line, then returns the finger to the first word in the second line and continues reading]*.	**Step 2** **T:** Let's try this together. Look at this page in your learner book. *[teacher chooses the page for the learners]* Point to the first word in the line and move your finger under all the words in that line. When you get to the end of the line, move your finger down to the first word in the next line *[Teacher and learners track text along the first line and down to the second line as the teacher reads the text. The teacher is watching the learners to be sure they understand. If a student is doing this incorrectly, the teacher prompts with: 'Watch me and do as I do. Put your finger under the first word and then move your finger under all the words in the line. When you get to the end of the line, go down to the first word in the next line.']*.	**Step 2** **T:** Now it is your turn. Put your finger under the first word and move your finger under all the words in the line. When you get to the end, go down to the first word in the next line *[Learners point to the first word and move their fingers under all the words in the line as the teacher reads the line. The teacher circulates the room, correcting pupils as needed]*. *Note: Once learners are able to do this, the teacher should constantly monitor that learners are tracking text as they practise reading. This will allow teachers to see which learners are on task and which learners still need instruction in How Print Works.*

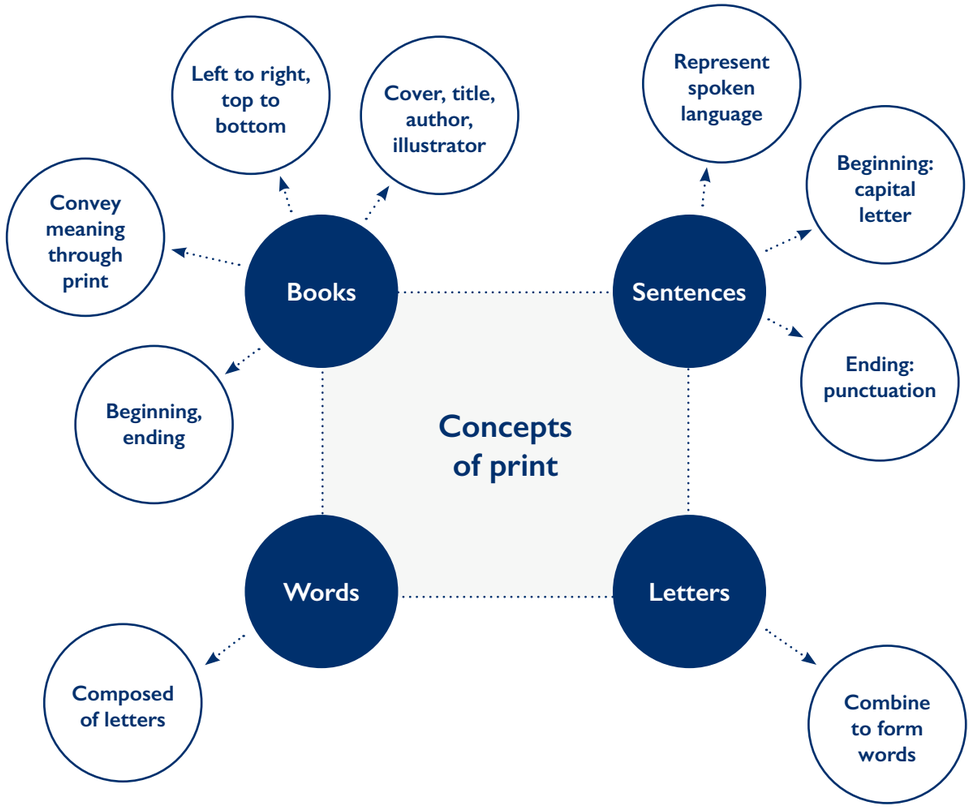

Figure 8.2 Topics for COP lessons

(*Source:* Adapted from https://www.pinterest.ca/pin/839358449275006831/)

The order for teaching COP is book concepts, directionality concepts, reading concepts, concept of letter and word, and punctuation marks. Some learners may develop these concepts much earlier than others. Learners should be exposed to different types and sizes of books according to their level, and they should be encouraged to bring books from home to share. Aspects such as the front and back covers, and authors and illustrators should be discussed. This will build their knowledge of the concepts of books.

Learners should be provided daily opportunities to participate in shared reading so that they interact with the text by making predictions and discussing pictures and highlights of the text. The teacher should read aloud to learners every day while pointing to words so as to model that the message is in the print and demonstrate the one-to-one correspondence between spoken and written words. This will help the learners develop a sense of language-to-text relationship, meaning the spoken words come from the print within the book.

The teacher should use an environment of print to make references to words, spaces, letters, and lines of print. A print-rich environment in the classroom is also important and everything should be labelled with well set up reading corners with frequently written or recognised words, and fun alphabet posters, charts, poetry posters, and word walls. The teacher should not only display an alphabet chart but also should talk about letters, making sure the children can see that a letter is different from a word. This will help them build alphabet awareness.

Teacher educator guidance

Demonstrate a COP of print lesson using a book of your choice so that student teachers clearly understand how to do the next activity.

Activity 3: Learning outcome 4

Develop a print awareness/COP lesson for each of the three areas based on the provided scripts:

a. How books work

b. Purpose of print

c. How print works

You may also use additional lesson topics beyond those included in the scripts.

Teacher educator guidance

Students may work together on this lesson or with a partner.

8.7

MTB-MLE instructional strategies for teaching COP

For COP, learners will need to receive explicit instruction on any COP that differ between their mother tongue (MT) and the target language of instruction (LOI). For example, learners who have begun to learn literacy skills in one language may need to learn that in the target language, words can be much longer or shorter than in their first language. Since all Zambian languages and English use the same style of directionality, this should not be an issue for young learners who do not speak the LOI.

Activity 4: Learning outcome 5

What should teachers remember when teaching COP/print awareness to learners whose MT is different than the LOI?

8.8

How are COP assessed?

An assessment of each learner's level of book and print understandings and misunderstandings helps teachers know how much their students have attained and what still needs to be learnt. This knowledge enables teachers to design lessons that help learners attain better knowledge of COP.

Teachers can assess COP informally by giving a learner a book and observing him or her. For example, how do they hold the book? Can they point out features like the cover page and title, a word, a period, and a space? Do they know where to begin and in which direction to read? These behaviours help the teacher to note the level and developing understanding of the COP.

A formal assessment of COP is the best way for a teacher to know where each child stands in terms of skills development.

8.8.1

Sample print awareness assessment

The teacher should choose a book that has the features listed below. The book should be developmentally appropriate and reflect the learner's interests and literacy experiences. It should contain examples of the following features:

- Print and illustration on a single page or two consecutive pages
- Multiple lines of text on a single page
- A variety of punctuation marks (periods, question marks, exclamation marks, quotation marks, and commas)

Give a book to the child and ask the following questions (remember to only assess the skills that the learner has already been taught).

Concept	Concepts	Prompts by teacher	Correct	Incorrect/comments
Book concepts	Front cover	'Show me the front of this book.'		
	Back cover	'Show me the back of this book.'		
	The title	'Show me the name of this book or story.'		
Reading concepts	Print carries the message	'Show me where I start reading.'		
Directionality concepts	Beginning of text	'Show me with your finger where I have to begin reading.'		
	Left to right; Top to bottom	'Show me with your finger which way I go as I read this page.'		
	Return sweep	'Where do I go then?' (at the end of a line of text)		
Reading concepts	One-to-one Match	'You point to the words while I read the story.' (Read slowly, but fluently.)		
Concepts of word	First word	'Use your finger to show me the first word on this page.'		
	Last word	'Use your finger to show me the last word on this page.'		
	Word	'Move your fingers until I can see one word. Now, show me two words.'		
Concepts of letter	First letter in a word	'Show me the first letter in a word.'		
	Last letter in a word	'Show me the last letter in a word.'		
	Letters	'Move your fingers and show me one letter. Now, show me two letters.'		
	Letter names	'Show me three letters that you know on this page and tell me the name of each one.'		
	A capital letter	'Use your finger to show me a capital letter.'		
	A small letter	'Use your finger to show me a small letter.'		
Punctuation marks	Period (.)	'What is this called?' or 'What is this for?'		
	Question (?)	'What is this called?' or 'What is this for?'		
	Exclamation (!)	'What is this called?' or 'What is this for?'		
	Quotation (')	'What is this called?' or 'What is this for?'		
	Comma (,)	'What is this called?' or 'What is this for?'		

Activity 5: Learning outcome 6

Work with a partner to practise administering the print awareness/COP assessment to one another using a sample book.

8.10

Chapter summary

Print awareness also referred as COP refers to what learners need to know about how books and print work. Reading is not an automatic act like language is, so learning about COP is new to beginner readers. Learners believe that the information for stories is in the pictures and must be directed to look at the words on the page. They must learn how to hold a book and turn the pages, that spaces separate words, that text runs from left to right, that the reader starts at the top of the page and goes to the bottom of the page, that a sentence continues from the end of one line to the next line until a punctuation park is reached, what punctuation marks mean, etc. Sensitivity to print is the first developmental step toward learning to read. As learners begin to read, they need to know how books work. They need to learn book handling, understand that letters combine to make words and words make sentences, and that words and sentences have meaning. Learners also need to understand the concept about punctuation marks. All the skills that children are expected to acquire are called COP.

It is important to note that COP do not develop only at school but begin developing in the home. Learners are exposed to different print and literacy experiences at home and begin to develop ideas about print long before attending school. It is important for the teacher to take a keen interest in how each learner progresses and develops their knowledge of COP. In order to fully develop the necessary skills required to enhance COP, learners should interact with books, be exposed to print-rich environments, be read to, and be guided in noticing print.

Assessing learners' knowledge of the COP provides information that can guide teachers to develop lessons based on the needs of the learners. The teacher can fill the gaps of knowledge and help learners to better understand how books and print work, so that they can become strong readers.

8.10

Assessment of learning

Learning outcome 7

Develop and deliver a lesson based on any of the components of the COP/print awareness

Student teachers should deliver the lessons to peers and provide feedback for all lessons presented using the observation checklist below.

Teacher educator guidance

As a teacher educator, you will be expected to check through and give guidance on the same before the actual lesson. In short, be involved in the process of lesson planning on COP for each student and complete your own observation of student teacher skills using the observation checklist below. Student teachers will also evaluate their peers on their concepts of print lesson delivery. Ensure this is done systematically. Let the peers bring out positive comments about their colleagues' lessons and end up with suggestions for improvement.

Peer teaching observation checklist		Comments:
Content/skill: Student teacher includes the appropriate content and teaches the appropriate skill for the lesson.	Yes No	
Materials: If materials are to be used, the Student Teacher uses appropriate materials in the expected way (self-created materials are neat and usable).	Yes No	
Approach: Student teacher uses the proper approach. Student teacher provides corrective feedback for incorrect answers.	Yes No	
Pedagogy: Student teacher uses stories, pictures, songs, role play, and dialogue to scaffold and extend learners' oral language skills.	Yes No	
Presentation: Student teacher uses eye contact, appropriate volume, and engages all or most peers in the lesson.	Yes No	

8.11

Supplemental readings and resources

https://www.readingrockets.org/article/print-awareness-guidelines-instruction

https://littlelearningcorner.com/2020/08/20-tips-for-teaching-concepts-of-print.html

https://achieve.lausd.net/cms/lib08/CA01000043/Centricity/domain/335/secondary%20instructions/Newcomer%20Instructional%20Resources/mlpp_concepts-of-print-a.pdf

https://blog.allaboutlearningpress.com/print-awareness/

https://www.portdiscovery.org/news-room/early-literacy-play-tips-print-awareness

CHAPTER 9

Alphabetic Principle and Decoding

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Alphabetic Principle and Decoding

INTRODUCTION

Understanding the **alphabetic principle** and developing **decoding** skills are critical for early literacy development. The alphabetic principle is the awareness that the sounds of spoken language, or **phonemes**, correspond to letters or symbols which are called **graphemes**. To read, we must be able to *decode* words which means blending the sounds of letters to read words, and to write, we need to be able to segment sounds. In typical reading development, children learn to apply their knowledge of the alphabetic principle to decode text fluently and automatically. This allows them to focus their attention on understanding the meaning of the text which is the primary purpose of reading. Learning and applying the alphabetic principle takes time. Therefore, explicit phonics instruction and extensive practice reading connected text are important for young readers. Student teachers should be well-grounded in the pedagogical practices associated with teaching the alphabetic principle, decoding skills, and phonics instruction. This chapter will discuss the meaning of the alphabetic principle and decoding skills, their importance, how phonics is taught, and accommodations that can be applied for language learners. Student teachers will be provided opportunities to practise instruction with their peers.

9.1

Learning outcomes

Topics and outcomes from the National Syllabus:

1.5.3 Approach (key skills) to teaching early grade reading

1.5.3.1 Demonstrate knowledge of appropriate key skills of teaching early grade reading

1.5.5 Lesson procedure and lesson format

1.5.5.1 Demonstrate steps for teaching a Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) lesson

1.5.6 Decodable stories and texts

1.5.6.1 Develop decodable stories and texts to support teaching of reading

1.6.3 Types of assessments

1.6.3.1 Discuss different types of assessments

1.6.4 Conducting assessments

1.6.4.1 Explain the procedure for conducting assessment

1.17.5 The alphabet

1.17.5.1 Sound out letters of the alphabet

1.17.5.2 Recognise and name the letters of the alphabet

2.2.2 Peer teaching

2.2.2.2 Demonstrate skills in literacy teaching through peer teaching lessons

By the end of the chapter, the student teachers will:

1. explain the meaning of the terms *alphabetic principle* and *decoding*
2. discuss the importance of alphabetic principle and decoding skills for reading
3. compare and contrast systematic, explicit phonics with incidental, implicit phonics
4. develop activities in Zambian languages that follow the principles of phonics instruction
5. identify appropriate Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) accommodations for phonics instruction
6. explain how alphabetic principle and decoding skills are assessed
7. develop and deliver a phonics lesson.

9.2

Instructional materials

- Student module
- National Literacy Framework
- Primary Literacy Programme Teachers' Guide
- Elkonin boxes, bottle caps, or other manipulatives
- Letters/syllable cards
- Pictures

9.3

Key terms

Alphabetic principle

The understanding that words are made of letters, and letters represent sounds in a predictable way

Orthographic awareness

The understanding of the rules of the orthographic system of a language (i.e. how letters join to make new sounds or how the position of a letter changes its sound)

Phonemic awareness

Being able to discern between the individual sounds in words (aurally and orally)

Decodable text

Reading materials in which a high percentage of words are linked to phonics lessons using letter-sound correspondences children have been taught. Decodable text is an intermediate step between reading words in isolation and reading literature

Decoding

The process of using letter-sound correspondences to recognise and sound out words

Phoneme

The smallest unit of sound in a word

Grapheme

The individual letter or sequence of written symbols (e.g. a, b, c) and the multi-letter units (e.g. ch, sh, th) that are used to represent a single phoneme (sound)

Irregular word

A word that cannot be decoded because either (a) the sounds of the letters are unique to that word or a few words, or (b) the student has not yet learnt the letter-sound correspondences in the word

Orthography

The system of symbols used to represent language

Regular word

A word in which all the letters represent their most common sound

Stop sound

A sound that cannot be prolonged (stretched out) without distortion; a short, plosive sound (e.g. p, t, k)

9.4

What is the alphabetic principle?

Learning to read progresses in a set of steps that are fairly predictable. One of the earliest steps, establishing **phonemic awareness**, comes from the learner listening to and producing sounds and sound patterns that are associated with the phonemes contained in the language. As mentioned in chapter 7, reading to learners is of high importance to establish phonemic awareness; a skill that, like all things, is very easy for some learners, yet quite challenging for others. The next major step in learning to read is developing the alphabetic principle. This is the understanding that words are made of letters and letters represent sounds in a predictable way. It also includes the understanding that by putting letters together in different ways we make different words (Honig et al., 2000). The alphabetic principle includes the knowledge of letter and sound relationships. For example, a child who knows that the written letter [f] makes the /fff/ sound is demonstrating the alphabetic principle. When a child understands both that speech is made of individual sounds called *phonemes*, and that these sounds are represented by letters arranged to form words, the ability to read and write should naturally follow. The next major step in learning to read is developing alphabetic knowledge.

Alphabetic knowledge is knowing that words are made up of letters that have names, represent the sounds of speech, and are shaped differently. When gaining alphabetic knowledge, children are exposed to the following principles:

- Letter shapes (how the letter is formed)
- How the letters look: difference between similar letters and the direction of each letter (e.g. differences between b, d, p, and q)
- The sound(s) the letters represent

In order to help learners, gain alphabetic knowledge, teachers use songs such as the 'Alphabet Song', chanting rhymes, and alphabet books. They also have students manipulate letters to observe relationships between them and use games and other activities that will help learners identify letters, learn upper-case and lower-case forms, and be able to point out differences and similarities among the letters. Teachers should also encourage learners to practise writing letters they are learning (Blevins, 1998) and should be guided by the weekly schedule on which letter names/sounds are identified in the curriculum to teach learners on each particular day following the given order.

The alphabetic principle is critical in reading and understanding the meaning of text. In typical reading development, learners learn to use the alphabetic principle fluently and automatically. This allows them to focus their attention on understanding the meaning of the text, which is the primary purpose of reading. Learning and applying the alphabetic principle takes time and may be difficult for some learners. Learners who cannot name certain letters are likely to have trouble connecting sounds to their corresponding letters (Chard & Osborn, 1999). There are many letters for which learners need to learn the sounds, and there are many ways to arrange the letters to produce different words used in print. As noted in chapter 7, in English, the same letter can represent more than one sound, depending on the word (e.g. the vowel sounds are different in the words *mat* and *mate*). While in Zambian languages, the vowel sound /a/ is always pronounced the same way regardless of what word it is in. For example, the sound /a/ in Bemba words *isa* (come) and *sala* (choose) sound identical.

Activity 1

1. Select a Zambian language.
2. Make a list of the letters of the alphabet of the selected language.

Teacher educator guidance

Student teachers could be grouped/paired together according to language of choice.

9.5

Orthographic awareness

Orthography refers to the system of symbols used to represent language. In other words, orthography refers to a writing system of a particular language. Decoding involves combining phonological (sound) information with orthographic (print) knowledge about words. This simply means that learners must apply their understanding of letter/sound relationships to figure out how to read and spell words. In other words, you apply decoding skills to words you read in text and words you spell when writing. You recognise and remember that at makes a specific sound and use this knowledge to read words like *cat*, *mat*, and *sat*.

In reading, children encounter different types of words. These are regular and irregular words. Regular words are simply made up of letters that represent their usual and familiar sounds, such as /a/ and /t/ in *at*. The learner should start to decode using simple, common sounds for each letter first. These are found in regular words like *at* and *fat*. Eventually, the learner will begin to rely less and less on decoding as their memory of words increases and they learn to identify words by sight. Some words are irregular—meaning that they cannot be sounded out by using letter sounds. Words like *the* and *one* are irregular and must be memorised.

9.6

Importance of the alphabetic principle and decoding

Like other pre-reading skills such as knowledge of letter names and shapes, the alphabetic principle directly predicts later reading achievement (Reutzel & Cooter, 2011). Knowing letter names as well as sounds is strongly related to the ability to remember that the form of written words is made up of a specific sequence of letters. Knowledge of the alphabetic principle enables learners to decode letters into their respective sounds. This skill is essential for independent reading of both familiar and unfamiliar words. Letter-sound knowledge allows learners to link the unfamiliar print words to spoken language by sounding out (decoding) the printed words. Over time, learners become familiar with patterns of letters found in familiar words—learning these patterns helps learners translate written words into speech sounds automatically.

Activity 2 : Learning outcomes 1 and 2

What is the meaning of the alphabetic principle, and how is the alphabetic principle related to decoding?

Why are these skills important to learning how to read?

Teacher educator guidance

Ask the student teachers to work in groups to discuss the meanings of the terms *alphabetic principle* and *decoding* and write their own definitions. Then, explain the importance of each for reading using justifications from the text. Have the student teachers write down those responses through the group secretaries and present to the whole class.

9.7

Phonics instruction

The most efficient way to teach decoding skills is using explicit phonics instruction. Phonics is a type of instruction that focuses on building learners' ability to associate sounds with letters and use these sounds to read words. Phonics instruction teaches learners the relationship between letters (graphemes) and speech sounds (phonemes) and how to blend these sounds to read unfamiliar words that they encounter in print. Phonics instruction is a technique for getting off to a fast start in mapping the relationships between letters and sounds (Anderson et al., 1985).

If learners do not know letter names, it will be difficult for them to learn letter sounds and recognise words. Learners cannot understand and apply the alphabetic principle and learn to decode until they can recognise and name a number of letters. Therefore, learners whose alphabetic knowledge is not well developed will need explicit instruction in identifying, naming, and writing letters. Once learners can identify and name several letters with ease, they can begin to learn letter sounds and how to decode words. It is also important to remember here that children should receive beginner reader instruction in their Mother Tongue (MT) because those are the sounds of language that they are most familiar with.

9.7.1

Approaches to phonics instruction

Learners who are just developing reading and writing skills need to receive explicit, systematic instruction around the alphabet and the corresponding sounds. Using words to teach letters and sounds integrates the skills and teaches their application from the beginning. This is done using phonics instruction. A solid approach to phonics instruction is one that is carefully sequenced and paired with plenty of reading practice. By applying the skills as they are learnt, young readers can build word recognition skills. The two approaches to phonics instruction that have been researched and used most extensively are systematic, explicit phonics and incidental, implicit phonics. These approaches differ in several ways (Honig et al., 2000) and are part of a balanced literacy programme as was learnt in chapter 4.

Systematic, explicit phonics

The systematic, explicit phonics approach is referred to as a bottom-up approach. It is part of the structured literacy approach that builds learner understandings of letter-sound relationships from part to whole. The teacher first introduces the sound(s) of a letter or set of letters in isolation. Then, s/he writes words with the letter and other letters that have been taught. The learners then blend the sounds of the letters to read words. These words are then used to read sentences and passages. For example, systematic, explicit instruction is used to teach the sound /a/ and the spelling (letter name) [a], along with the sound /m/ and the letter name [m], and the sound /t/ and the letter name [t]. Next, the teacher writes the word *mat* on the board. The learners say the sounds for the letters in the word: /m/ /a/ /t/, and then blend the sounds: /mmmmm/ /aaaa/ /t/ to read the whole word *mat*. The learners also practise blending words with the vowel /a/ using letters and sounds that have already been taught (e.g. /b/, /k/, /f/, and /r/ to form words such as *bat*, *cat*, *fat*, and *rat*. Finally, learners use these words and some sight words to read sentences and passages (Honig et al., 2000). The Zambian curriculum, the PLP, uses the explicit instruction model ('I do', 'We do', 'You do') to teach this strategy with the teacher modelling the skill, the learners practising the skill with teacher feedback, and then the learners applying the skill independently. Learners who struggle to learn how to read often exhibit large gains when provided with repetitive systematic, explicit phonics instruction.

Incidental, implicit phonics

Incidental, implicit phonics is referred to as a top-down approach. It moves from the whole to the smallest part. Under this approach, phonemes associated with particular graphemes are not taught in isolation. Learners analyse words and look for the common phoneme in a set of words. This instructional strategy is part of the whole language method for teaching reading (Honig et al., 2000). This approach is usually used when the teacher notices that, when reading, the learners have difficulty blending the sounds to say the word *fat*, for example. The teacher will then switch to an implicit phonics approach where he or she will start by writing the word *fat* on the board and asking learners to say the word with the teacher together. The teacher will ask the learners to listen for the middle sound and point out that the sound in the middle of *mat* is the same. The learners are asked to say other words that have the same middle sound as *fat* and the words are printed on the board (e.g. *fat*, *cat*, *rat*, and *bat*), and learners read the words out loud. This approach is predominantly implicit because the sound/spelling for the vowel /a/ must be inferred from reading words with the target sound—it is not explicitly taught in isolation. In addition, there is no explicit instruction and practice in applying these skills. Learners who struggle to understand letter-sound correlations often continue to struggle learning how to read when taught using an incidental, implicit phonics approach.

Activity 3: Learning outcome 3

Compare and contrast incidental, implicit phonics instruction with systematic, explicit phonics instruction. Be prepared to discuss the following questions:

1. Why do you think the implicit approach to phonics instruction is called *top-down* and the explicit approach is called *bottom-up*?
2. What are the similarities and differences between the two?
3. Based on the discussion you had in question 2, do you think that it is an appropriate decision to use explicit phonics in primary school language teaching? Explain/justify your answer.

Teacher educator guidance

Student teachers may organise their thoughts using a Venn diagram or another graphic organiser of your choice.

9.7.2

Strategies for teaching phonics

Letter-sound correspondence—the relationship of the letters in the alphabet to the sounds they produce—is a key component of the alphabetic principle, and learning to read. To teach letter- sound correspondence, work with a few sounds at a time by teaching each letter of the alphabet and its corresponding sound. For each letter-sound relationship, instruction should include naming the letter or letters that represent the sound and associating a picture cue of an object with the target sound. This will help learners remember the relationship between the letter and the sound. For example, a teacher can present an image of a 'pig', the printed letter [p], and the sound /p/ together.

Additionally, incorporating a short story or sentence that includes the sound and has a picture of an object with the target sound and letter helps learners remember the picture and the sound when they encounter the letter in print. For example, if learners are learning the letter [p] and sound /p/ with an image of a 'pig' as the picture cue, the accompanying sentence may be 'Polly Pig likes to eat pizza and play with her pals'. When teaching the relationship between each letter and its corresponding sound, introduce the letter in upper case and lower case. Multiple practice opportunities with letter-sound relationships should be provided daily to teach new letter-sound relationships and to review letters and sounds previously taught.

When teaching new letter-sound relationships, begin with letter-sound relationships of the most frequent sounds in the language (such as /m/, /a/, and /s/) so that learners can begin sounding out words as soon as possible. Separate letter-sound relationships that are confusing (such as /b/ and /v/) or visually similar (such as [b] and [d]). Provide learners with the opportunity to fully understand the name/shape/sound of one before introducing the confusing counterpart.

Once learners have learnt a few letter-sound relationships, they can begin to read regular words, or words that follow the phonetic rules and can be sounded out (e.g. *cat*, *box*, *bet*), containing the letters and sounds they have learnt. In applying phonics, learners 'blend' the sounds made by individual letters into a whole word. For example, the sounds /m/ /a/ /t/ represented by the letters [m] [a] and [t] are blended together seamlessly to make the word *mat*. Learners should begin learning to read by producing the individual sounds in words and blending the sounds together quickly to produce the whole word, starting with simple words before progressing to more complex words. Teaching several of the most common sounds for a few individual letters allows learners to read many different words depending on the letter order. Irregular words, or words that do not follow phonic rules, such as *said* and *was* should not be taught using blending strategies. Instead, learners should be taught to read those words as whole words, or by sight, rather than using a 'sound it out' approach.

During instruction, teachers can use a strategy such as 'I do', 'We do', 'You do', to show learners what to do (how to blend sounds to read the words), practise with learners (teacher and learners blend sounds to read the word(s) together), and then the learners do it on their own and the teacher provides feedback as needed.

Strategies for blending, reading words by linking each letter or group of letters to their sounds, can be taught to help learners decode regular words. One such strategy is encouraging learners to read words without stopping between sounds. Learners can be encouraged to 'keep their motor running' (keep their voices on) or to 'not stop between sounds', as they say the sounds in a word to read the word. After learners have blended the sounds together to read the word, they should read the word in a 'fast' way, or in a fluent voice without holding each sound. As learners become more fluent, they should do the blending work in their heads without saying sounds aloud and only read the word aloud in a quick, fluent voice.

Continuous and stop sounds contribute to the difficulty of the blending task. **Continuous sounds** are sounds that can be held without being distorted (e.g. /n/, /s/, and /f/), so they are easier to hold and blend together when learners are first starting to blend sounds and read words. **Stop sounds** are made with quick puffs of air and cannot be held without

becoming distorted (e.g. /b/, /p/, and /k/). Most learners are successful with blending words containing both continuous and stop sounds. Some learners may struggle with blending words that contain a mixture of continuous and stop sounds. To support learners who are struggling to blend words with both continuous and stop sounds, the following sequence explains the progression of blending from easiest (1) to most difficult (4). Using only words in one level and checking for learner mastery before moving to the next level in the sequence will provide support for learners who need additional time learning to blend sounds to read words. When teaching early reading skills in Zambian languages, teachers will need to apply these principles to Zambian languages words or syllables to help young readers improve their decoding skills.

1. Begin with words that follow the consonant-vowel-consonant (CVC) pattern and contain all continuous sounds (e.g. *man*, *run*, *rim*, *win*);
2. next, move to words that follow the CVC pattern with a stop sound at the end of the word (e.g. *sap*, *mat*, *fit*, *lot*);
3. after that, move to words that follow the CVC pattern with a stop sound at the beginning of the word (e.g. *top*, *pan*, *big*, *ten*);
4. finally, move to words that follow the consonant-consonant-vowel-consonant (CCVC) pattern with a blend at the beginning that includes a stop sound (e.g. *step*, *skit*, *spot*, *spun*).

After learners have mastered blending words that follow CVC and CCVC spelling patterns, words with more advanced spelling patterns, such as vowel-consonant-silent 'e' (e.g. a_e, o_e) and vowel sounds spelled with more than one letter (e.g. /ai/, /igh/), can be introduced. As more complex spelling patterns and words are taught, teach learners to recognise the vowel pattern and corresponding sound in the word to assist with decoding the word.

When learners understand the alphabetic principle and are able to apply what they know about letter-sound correspondence to translate printed letters and letter combinations into the sounds they make, they are able to accurately read a vast number of words—including words they have never encountered in text before.

Activity 4: Learning outcome 4

Work in groups to develop Zambian language activities for each of the four levels of difficulty listed above and practise teaching them to one another using the 'I do', 'We do', 'You do' approach.

9.7.3

Sample alphabetic principle and phonics activities

Ways to help young learners develop alphabetic knowledge are endless, but below are a sample of activities for teaching the alphabetic principle.

Read to learners every day

As teachers, we already understand the importance of reading to our learners from an early age. Research has highlighted the great benefits attached to reading every day to learners, not just occasionally. While reading to the learners, remember to highlight new words that they may be unfamiliar with. Say them out loud and pronounce them so that your learners will familiarise themselves with the sounds that compose the words.

Sing the 'Alphabet Song'

How can your learners learn to read and write without knowing the alphabet? Help your learners grasp all the letters in a fun *and* engaging *way, like singing the 'Alphabet Song'. This can be especially great for younger learners as you begin introducing them to different letters.*

Teach learners both upper-case and lower-case letters

If your learners only learn [a] when it is written in lower case, it will be a little confusing for them when they start reading to understand why [a] now looks like [A]. Expose the learners to both upper-case and lower-case letters so they understand that they are the same letter.

The first letter game

Recognising the first letter of a word is a great way to begin to grasp the concept of the alphabet principle.

What you will need: *Letter cards*

Directions: *Ask the learners to choose the letter that represents the sound they hear at the beginning of a word.*

For example: *'If I were reading the word* hat*, which letter would you see at the beginning of that word?' If the learner hears the /h/ sound, they would then pull out an [h] card from the letter cards.*

Beginning, middle, or end?

This game helps your learners understand where they hear specific sounds in words.

What you will need: *Clear sheet, crayon or pen to draw with, letter cards*

Directions: *To get started, draw two lines to make three columns: first, middle, last (or beginning, middle, end). Once these columns are complete, it is time to play. The learners will need to indicate whether they hear certain sounds in the beginning, middle, or end of the word.*

For example:

Teacher: *Where do you hear the sound /rrr/ in* rabbit*? Let's say 'rabbit' out loud together! (Sometimes it is better for your learners to sound out the words so that they can 'feel' its sounds in their mouth.)*

Learners: *(indicate on the board where they hear the /rrr/ sound).*

Teacher: *Yes! At the beginning! What letter makes the sound /rrr/?*

Teacher and Learners: *The letter [r] makes the /r/ sound.*

Teacher: *Now, let's find the letter [r] (from a group of different letters). Great job! That's the letter [r].*

Swapping letters

As highlighted above, phonemic awareness is the concept of identifying and manipulating individual sounds (phonemes) in words. Manipulating these sounds includes stretching, blending, or changing the words completely. For example, take the word hat*. If the beginning of the word is changed to /m/, then you will end up with a new word (*mat*), with a completely different meaning.*

What you will need: *letter cards (these can be made from locally available materials such as cut outs from carton boxes)*

Directions: *Start by spelling out a simple word such as* dog*. Then ask the learners to change a letter from* dog *to form a new word. For example, you can ask them to change one letter in* dog *to form the word* fog*. They would then have to understand that the change needs to happen at the beginning of the word, and it would require swapping out [d] with [f].*

Decoding (blending sounds to read words)

Blending is saying the sounds of letters to read whole words. Some words are very long, so learners may need to focus on building syllable fluency before moving to long words. Below are scripts for blending syllables and blending sounds.

SAMPLE LESSON SCRIPT

Blending syllables to read words

Teacher explains the task *(Key: T = teacher and L = learners)*

We are going to blend syllables to read words. When you see a long word and you do not know how to read it, knowing how to blend syllables to read words will help you be able to say that word.

I do

T: *[Write the word **pencil**—or a short Zambian language word with two syllables—on the board.]* Now we will practise blending syllables to read words. First, I will say the syllables and then say the word. Listen. I am going to say the syllables and then say the word. The syllables are ***pen - cil*** *[point to each syllable as you say it]*.

T: The word is ***pencil*** *[sweep your finger under the word as you say it smoothly. Repeat saying the syllables and then reading the word]*.

We do

T: *[Write the word **baby** on the board—or choose another Zambian language word with two syllables. Be sure to use a new word that is different from the one you used in the I do section above.]* Let's do one together.

T: The syllables are ***ba - by*** *[point to each syllable as you say the syllable]*. Let's say the syllables together.

T/L: ***ba - by*** *[point to each syllable as you and the learners say the syllable]*.

T: The word is?

T/L: ***baby*** *[sweep your finger under the word as you and the learners say the word smoothly].*

*[If the learners are not firm, repeat the word used in the **I do** section and then the word used in this section. If needed, add additional words (two-syllable words) as practice before moving to the **You do** section.]*

You do

T: *[Write the word **football** on the board—or choose a Zambian language word with two syllables.]* Now you say the syllables in the word and blend the syllables to say the word. Say the syllables.

L: ***foot - ball*** *[point to each syllable as they say the syllable]*

T: The word is?

L: ***football*** *[sweep your finger under the word as they say it smoothly]*.

T: Yes, the word is ***football***.

*[Use several other two-syllable words for practice. When learners are able to decode two-syllable words, teach the next lesson on decoding words with more than two syllables (three to four syllables) and begin again with the I do, then move through **We do** and **You do** activities.]*

Supporting all learners

Ensure that all learners can complete the task and provide additional practice if needed. If any learner is unable to blend words with three or more syllables, return to practising with two syllables and consider providing a picture after they have decoded the word. This will help build comprehension at the word level.

SAMPLE LESSON SCRIPT

Blending sounds to read words

Teacher explains the task *(Key: T = teacher and L = learners)*

We are going to blend sounds to read words. When you are trying to read a word that you do not know, you can blend the sounds of the letters to read and say the word.

I do

T: *[Write the word **rat**—or a short Zambian language word—on the board.]* Now we will practise blending sound to read words. First, I will say the sound and then say the word. Listen. I am going to say the sound and then say the word. The sounds are /r/ /a/ /t/ *[point to each letter as you say the sound]*.

T: The word is ***rat*** *[sweep your finger under the word as you say it smoothly. Repeat saying the sounds and then reading the word]*.

We do

T: *[Write the word **hat** on the board—or choose another short Zambian language word with two syllables. Be sure to use a new word that is different from the one you used in the I do section above.]* Let's do one together.

T: The sounds are /h/ /a/ /t/ *[point to each letter as you say the sound]*. Let's say the sounds together.

T/L: /h/ /a/ /t/ *[point to each letter as you and the learners say the sound]*.

T: The word is?

T/L: ***hat*** *[sweep your finger under the word as you and the learners say the word smoothly]*.

*[If the learners are not firm, repeat the word used in the **I do** section and then the word used in this section. If needed, add additional words with only a few sounds as practice before moving to the **You do** section.]*

You do

T: *[Write the word **man** on the board—or choose a short Zambian language word.]* Now you say the sounds in the word and blend the sounds to say the word. Say the sounds.

L: /m/ /a/ /n/ *[point to each letter as they say the sound]*.

T: The word is?

L: ***man*** *[sweep your finger under the word as they say it smoothly]*.

T: Yes, the word is ***man***.

*[Use several other short words for practise. When learners are able to decode short words, teach the next lesson on decoding words with more sounds and begin again with the I do section and then move through **We do** and **You do** activities.]*

Supporting all learners

Ensure that all learners can complete the task and provide additional practise if needed. If any learner is unable to blend longer words, return to practising with short words and consider providing a picture after they have decoded the word. This will help build comprehension at the word level.

Encoding (segmenting sounds to write words)

When a learner is trying to write a word, they are encoding. This means that the learner must segment the word into the individual sounds that he or she hears and identify the appropriate letter that goes with each sound. Below is a script for teaching segmenting and encoding.

SAMPLE LESSON SCRIPT

Segmenting sounds to write words

Teacher explains the task *(Key: T = teacher and L = learners)*

We are going to segment words into sounds. When you are trying to write a word that you do not know, you can segment the sounds and be able to spell and write the word.

I do

T: Now we will practise segmenting sounds in words. First, I will say the word and then say and count the sounds *[Counting the sounds supports learners who struggle to read or who do not speak the language of instruction—use a short Zambian language word if desired]*.

T: Listen. I am going to say the word and then say the sounds. The word is ***man***. The sounds are /m/ /a/ /n/ *[hold up a finger for each sound]*. There are three sounds in the word ***man***.

T: Now I'm going to write the letter for each sound /m/ /a/ /n/ *[Write the letters for each sound on the board as you say the sound. Repeat saying the word, segmenting the sounds, and writing the letters for each sound]*.

We do

T: Let's do one together. The word is ***ran***. Say the word. *[Use a short Zambian word if preferred.]*

T/L: ***ran***

T: The sounds are?

T/L: /r/ /a/ /n/ *[hold up a finger for each sound as you and the learners say each sound]*.

T: How many sounds?

T/L: three

T: What are the letters for each sound?

T/L: [r] [a] [n] [*Write each letter as you say them with the learners.]*

*[If the learners are not firm, repeat the word used in the **I do** section and then the word used in this section. If needed, add additional words with only a few sounds as practise before moving to the **You do** section.]*

You do

T: Now you say the word, segment the word into sounds, and tell me what letters represent those sounds. The word is ***rat***. Say the word.

L: ***rat***

T: The sounds are?

L: /r/ /a/ /t/ *[hold up a finger for each sound as the learners say each sound]*.

T: How many sounds?

L: three sounds

T: What are the letters for each sound?

L: [r] [a] [t] *[write each letter as the learners say them]*.

T: Yes, the letters that spell ***rat*** are [r] [a] [t].

*[Use several other short words for practice. When learners are able to encode short words, teach the next lesson on encoding words with more sounds and begin again with I do and then move through **We do** and **You do** activities.]*

Supporting all learners

Ensure that all learners can complete the task and provide additional practice if needed. If any learner is unable to encode longer words, return to practising with short words, and consider providing a picture to help them visualize the word as they segment the sounds. This will help build comprehension at the word level.

9.7.4

Teaching phonics in English lessons (Zambian curriculum sample)

Step 1

Teacher will start by revising the previously learnt graphemes and/or blending and segmenting, then move into the next lesson unless the teacher is teaching the first lesson of a particular grade level where there is no sound(s) to be revised.

Step 2

Teacher will show a picture of a bag or a real bag. Ask learners to identify the name of the object: 'What is this?'

Learners will say 'bag'.

Step 3

Teacher asks learners to listen to the beginning sound of the word *bag* and identify what sound they are getting. Learners will identify the sound /b/ and say 'b'. Teacher will write the letter [b/B] on the board in both lower case and upper case and ask learners to practise saying the sound several times for competence.

Step 4

Teacher will also flash the letter to the learners and tell the learners that this is letter [b] and it gives the sound /b/. Teacher will ask individual learners to say the letter [b]. Thereafter, say the sound /b/ as individuals and then the whole class choruses the sound /b/.

Step 5

Teacher will ask learners to blend sound /b/ with the vowel sounds /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/, /u/ to have the syllables ba, be, bi, bo, bu, bu. Ask learners to read the syllables. *(Note: In English, the sound /u/ has different pronunciations such as in the words* bus *and* bull.*)*

Teacher will ask learners to make words from the syllable such as *bat*, *bed*, *big*, *bim*, *bog*, *bull*. Teacher will also prompt learners to come up with any other words that have the sound /b/, such as *table*, *boat*, *baby*, *mob*, *bomb*, *bun*, *bake*, *but*, etc. *(Note: The teacher should accept all the words said by the learners as long as they contain the sound, even if they have no meaning).*

Step 6

Teacher will write all the words said by the learners that contains the sound /b/ on the board and ask learners to come and underline the day's sound /b/ in the words. Teacher will read the words on the board with the learners as s/he points at the words focusing on the day's sound.

Step 7

Teacher will conclude the lesson by having a recap of the whole lesson through question and answer or other activities such as an 'I Spy' game, think-alouds *(where a learner would think of the word with the sound /bu/ and share with the partner and* vice-versa*)*, etc.

Teacher educator guidance

Emphasise to student teachers that only one sound should be taught at a time. To help recall the sounds, they should help learners associate key words with pictures and verbal labels. For example, to help the learners recall the short /a/ sound, a teacher should present a picture of an apple and say the word *apple*. Always use key words that *begin* with the target sound. Use a variety of strategies to help learners master target sounds.

9.7.5

Phonics instruction in Zambian languages

How phonics instruction is conducted according to the Zambian National Literacy Framework (NLF):

Step 1

Teacher will start by revising the previously learnt graphemes and/or blending and segmenting, then move into the next lesson unless the teacher is teaching the first lesson in the grade level where there is no sound(s) to be revised.

During the second week of term 1, learners will be taught to identify the five vowel sounds: /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/. To teach the vowels first: /a/ /e/ /i/ /o/ /u/, a key picture, object, or story is used to elicit the day's sound.

Step 2

Teach one frequently used consonant at a time in conjunction with vowels: [m/M] /ma/ /me/ /mi/ /mo/ /mu/.

Step 3

Blend sounds /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/ with the consonant sound of the day to make syllables such as /ma/ /me/ /mi/ /mo/ /mu/.

Teacher will ask learners to form words such as *mama*, *uma*, *imu*.

Make more syllables and words in the language that contain the sound of the day. The teacher should write all the words on the board and ask the learners to identify, point to, and practise saying the sound of the day from those words.

Step 4

Review all above but change the order, e.g. /mu/, /me/, /ma/, /mi/, /mo/, etc., using flash cards or a chalkboard. Write letters and syllables in a random order. Be sure to mix the order so that learners do not memorise or chant. Ask some individual learners to read those syllables and later the whole class to chorus reading the syllables.

Step 5

Follow the weekly schedule and repeat with another common consonants: [k/K], e.g. [kK] /ka/ /ke/ /ki/ /ko/ /ku/. Words: *ku*, *koma*, *ake*, *ka*. Make more syllables and words in the language and repeat.

Step 6

Based on syllables and words learnt, write short sentences for learners to read and write. Gradually, they should be able to form short sentences and write paragraphs on their own or in pairs or groups.

Follow the weekly schedule for term 1, 2, and 3. It is recommended that no more than two letters are introduced per week. One sound is taught for 2 days, another sound is taught for the next 2 days, and the fifth day is used for revision and for working on the other key reading skills.

Brainstorm words that can be formed using syllables learnt. They are 'decodable' words because they are made completely of sounds the learners have been introduced to. Choose words that will be most interesting and useful to learners.

Teacher educator guidance

Be sure to emphasise the following instructions:

1. Recognise that learners will master sound-letter relationships at different rates.
2. Introduce sound-letter relationships at a reasonable pace, in a range from two to four letter-sound relationships a week, depending on the level and ability of the class.
3. Teach high-frequency letter-sound relationships early.
4. Introduce consonants and vowels in a sequence that permits the learners to read words quickly.
5. Avoid the simultaneous introduction of auditorily or visually similar sounds and letters such as /b/ and /d/.
6. Introduce single consonant sounds and consonant blends/clusters in separate lessons.

Provide blending instruction with words that contain the letter-sound relationships that students have learnt.

9.8

Differences between English and Zambian languages alphabet

As we have learnt in previous chapters, MTB-MLE refers to any form of schooling that makes use of learning how to read in a familiar language. This is usually the language that children speak at home with their family. There are some differences between English and Zambian languages. Therefore, teachers should have a high level of linguistic competence in both English and Zambian languages if they are to teach reading effectively in the two languages—that is in the Zambian languages from preschool to grade 2 and in English from grade 3 upwards. If teachers are adequately equipped, they will be able to apply appropriate MTB-MLE accommodations to support their learners. A teacher should be able to make adjustments in the methodologies and content delivered to learners to support them in learning how to read. It is important therefore, that teachers take note of the following differences in the two languages:

In Zambian languages, the sound system is consistent in that they have an inventory of five vowel phonemes /a/, /e/, /i/, /o/, /u/, corresponding perfectly to the five vowel graphemes in the English language. The five vowels in Zambian languages make one sound in all the words in which they are used. For example, the letter [a] will be read as /a/ in all the words in which it is found like *aisa* in Icibemba and *abwela* in Cinyanja. In English, however, a single letter might represent several different sounds in different words or a single sound might be spelled several different ways. For example, the letter [u] clearly represents different phonemes in the following words: *cup*, *put*, *use*, and *lurch*.

When it comes to teaching reading in the English language where some letters can represent more than one sound, it is challenging for learners because they will try to use their knowledge of letter-sound relationships from their Zambian language. Therefore, a teacher should find appropriate MTB-MLE accommodations, such as explicit instruction, to apply, in order to help the learners. The information below will need to be explicitly taught and explained to young readers so that they are able to understand the challenges of reading in English.

English has more digraphs and trigraphs than Zambian languages do. This has made the spelling system of English inconsistent, for instance the digraph [ch] in words like *church* also appears as part of a trigraph in *catch*, but not in *rich*.

The consonant clusters in English can be found in both initial and final syllable positions, while in the Zambian languages they are only found in initial syllable positions. This means that the teachers may find it challenging to help the learners understand the inconsistencies between Zambian languages and English, into which the learners in grade 3 are transitioned (Mwansa, 2017).

Vowel length is distinctive in Zambian languages. That is, the length of the vowel sound changes the word meaning. For example, take the two Nyanja words, *mbale* (plate) and *mbaale* (brother). The two words have different meanings because although the vowels sound the same, one has a longer duration. In all the Zambian languages except Luvale, in which vowel length is believed not to change word meaning, the orthographies reflect vowel length distinctions through the doubling of the vowel grapheme (MOE, 1977).

Beginner readers, in particular, need to be sensitised to vowel length distinctions very early and, as they develop as readers, they should be helped to understand the morphophonological processes that are responsible for changes in vowel length. There is a need to emphasise aspects like these in the pre-service training of teachers, so that they are empowered to correctly teach the spelling of words that contrast due to vowel length. The Zambian PLP, produced by the Zambian Ministry of Education (MOE) in 2013, explicitly includes the teaching of the distinction between short and long vowels from the beginning of reading instruction (Mwansa, 2017).

There are no diphthongs or reduced vowels such as the English Schwa /ə/ in Zambian languages. Vowels are syllabic in Bantu, so two different consecutive vowels belong to different syllables (e.g. *eisa*). In English, two different consecutive vowel graphemes are always interpreted as diphthong digraphs *(where the tongue glides from one vowel position to another rapidly)* as in the word *boy*, with the sound /boi/.

In all the seven Zambian languages used in education, the letters [x] and [q] are not found. Some letters, which are also not found in some of the languages, are [v], [r], and [z]. These are often replaced by [f], [l], and [s], respectively. This is particularly true for loan words from English. Additional graphemes used in Zambian languages include digraphs such as [sh], [ch], [dz], [ny], [ng], [zh], [th], [ts], [pf], and [ng]. In Tonga, additional graphemes are used to indicate, for example, differences between plosives and fricative allophones such as [bb] indicating a voiced bilabial plosive sound and [b] indicating a voiced bilabial fricative sound.

The use of rimes (word families) in teaching reading in Zambian languages is of little value. In English, rimes are used as a way of preparing learners to use analogy to identify words with rime similarities later in reading, because they are common in the language. For example, a child can mentally compare the rime *-at* in cat, to read *chat*, *fat*, *rat*, *mat*, and so on. This method is not helpful in learning to read in Zambian languages. It is imperative that a teacher should take note of the above phonological, morphological, and orthographic facts for the teaching of initial literacy in Zambian languages compared to English. This will help in finding the appropriate pedagogies and strategies to use in teaching initial literacy.

9.9

MTB-MLE accommodations

Teaching the alphabetic principle in a multilingual classroom requires multilingual language strategies to ensure that learners access learning and also to distinguish between what they know and what they may not know. Therefore, teachers are encouraged to use translanguaging when giving explicit instruction. It is also recommended that teachers can use the sandwich multilingual strategy to teach the alphabetic principle and decoding in which case, learners will use their mother tongues to make sense of the alphabetic of the target language. These multilingual accommodations will encourage learner participation, understanding, and biliteracy development.

Activity 5: Learning outcome 5

Which other MTB-MLE strategies can you use when teaching alphabetic principle and decoding?

9.10

How are alphabetic principle and decoding skills assessed?

At the most basic level, alphabetic principle is the ability to identify letters and their names. Therefore, assessment of learners' progress in understanding the alphabetic principle should be focused on letter names and sounds. It can be conducted as follows:

a. A teacher prepares adequate assessment materials to use such as syllable and word cards that contain only letters, sounds, and syllables that have been taught. There should also be assessment record cards for all the learners to be assessed.

b. As the assessment begins, teachers will make available the necessary materials for an assessment, such as a card or paper with the letters on it, which they will be using to say the letter names and/or sounds. Letter cards should include both upper-case and lower-case letters. The letters should be presented in a random order—not in alphabetical order, nor in the order that they were taught.

c. The learners should be assessed in only the covered letters in a given period. The teacher can write the learner's name on the assessment card before starting an assessment.

9.10.1

Assessment of letter names and letter/sound correspondence

Teacher educator guidance

You may choose what you want to assess your learners on, such as covered letter names and/or letter sounds. Also, create letter cards.

The teacher can choose an appropriate strategy to use to assess individual learners.

For example, the teacher can put the cards of the letters in both upper case and lower case on the surface. The teacher would say, 'I will be showing the cards to you, and I want you to say the name of each letter I show you'. The teacher will then start showing the card to a learner and ask him/her to say the name of the letter.

S/he can mention the letter name and then ask the learner to get the appropriate card and show to the teacher, or the teacher will be showing the cards to the learners and asking the learners to identify what letter it is. If it is the correct card, the teacher will mark it as right; if not, the teacher will jump to the next try and the next until all the letters are assessed. The teacher will go back to those that were missed, and if the learner tries more than two times to say the name of the letter and fails, the teacher will mark it as wrong. The teacher will move to the next missed letter and ask the learner to say the letter until all of them are done.

Another activity could be the teacher asking learners to match lower-case letters to their equivalent upper-case letters. The teacher will give the learners the cards with the upper-case and lower-case letters listed, as provided below. Cut them out and put them on the surface. Ask the learners to match small letters with their capital letters.

Upper-case and lower-case letters

A	M	S	T	E	R	O
F	H	I	N	P	U	W
B	C	G	L	D	K	J
Q	Y	V	Z	X		
a	m	s	t	e	r	o
f	h	i	n	p	u	w
b	c	g	l	d	k	j
q	y	v	z	x		

The teacher will say, 'I want you to match the small letters with their capital letter from the given cards, and tell me the letter's name', and then allow learners to match on the surface and provide the letter name of each letter.

Letter sounds

The teacher could say, 'I will be showing the sound cards to you and I want you to say the sound of each letter I show you', or 'I will be saying the sound loudly and then you should pick the correct letter from the cards'. The teacher will then start showing the card to a learner and ask him/her to say the name of the sound on the sound card shown—or say the sound and ask a learner to pick the correct card, depending on the chosen assessment strategy.

The teacher can put the lower-case cards only on the surface. S/he can mention the letter sound and then ask the learners to get the appropriate sound card and show that card to the teacher or the teacher can show the sound cards to the learners and ask them to identify what sound it is. If it is the correct card, the teacher will mark it as right; if not, the teacher will jump to the next try and go to the next until all the sounds are assessed.

If the learner says the letter name when the teacher is assessing the letter sounds, s/he can remind the learners that it is the letter name and ask him/her to say the sound of the letter. Allow the learner to try more than two times to say the sound of the letter. If the learner fails, mark it as wrong. Move to the next letter and ask the learner to say the sound of the letter until all the planned work is covered.

9.10.2

Blending the sounds of letters

During 'You do' approach, make sure that learners are saying each individual sound, syllable, morpheme, (root word, prefix, suffix, and infix) before blending them into a word.

The teacher may have five to ten words on which to assess learners. Teachers should be showing learners a word card and then asking them to use the letter cards to blend a word that they were shown.

The teacher will be assessing learners one by one and showing him/her a word at a time. Ask the learner to blend the sounds, make a word, and say the word.

The teacher will say, 'I am going to be showing you some words one by one, and I want you to blend the sounds using these letters I have given you to make the word shown to you. Then read the word'. Have the learner say the sounds and blend the sounds to say the word.

If the learner fails to blend the word correctly, the teacher will mark it as wrong after failing more than twice.

The teacher should allocate specific seconds in which the learner should blend the word. A learner should be able to quickly blend the sounds and say the word. If the learner cannot do this in 3 seconds, the teacher should move to the next word and show it to the learner and ask, 'What is this word?' If the learner finishes the assessment, move to the next section until all the sections are done. Then the teacher should add the score to check the mastery of the skills.

Another method for assessing learners' ability to blend sounds to read words is to have them make words. Making words is a strategy found in the primary text:

Letters that have been taught can be listed on the board. Ask learners to make words with the letters and write the words in their exercise book or on a piece of paper. Early grade learners should be able to make two-, three-, or four-letter words.

For example, the teacher can write the following letters: a, l, o, d, n, s, i, r, u.

Say, 'I want you to use the letters to make and write two-letter words'.

Allow learners to make words, have learners say the words they have made, and ask them to write them in their exercise books or on a piece of paper. Words such as *on*, *an*, *do*, *is*, and *so* can be made.

Next, have the learners make three-letter words (*and*, *sun*, *ran*, *run*, etc.).

Finally, have them use the letters to make four-letter words (*said*, *loan*, *runs*, etc.).

9.10.3

Segmenting phonemes/syllables for writing

Informal assessment

Informal assessments include asking learners to work with manipulatives to write and spell words. The teacher might ask the learner to use letter manipulatives, and as the teacher says the word, the learner can choose the letter and move up each letter as s/he says it to spell the word. Or, learners can be given a set of manipulatives and asked to see how many words they can make (e.g. f, r, h, s, a, t makes the words *far*, *fat*, *hat*, *has*, *as*, *at*, etc.). Ask learners to write the words and then segment them.

The teacher could also say words one at a time for the learners to write. Learners can write each word part as it is said and then read the whole word.

Formal assessment

When collecting information about learners' progress in using decoding skills, more formal assessments can be used. Teachers can use assessments that measure the ability of learners to blend sounds, syllables, and morphemes to say and read words. These assessments can be used with the whole classroom or with an individual learner. Individual learners are assessed when the teacher is concerned about the progress of some of the learners and/or for learners that may need enrichment or support. It is recommended that the assessments of decoding skills use nonsense words to measure decoding. If real words are used, it is hard to know if the learner already knows the word or if it is a new word that the learner must blend to read. Teachers should assess a learner's ability to blend sounds, syllables, or morphemes to read new words.

General guidelines:

1. Tell the learner what s/he should do *(i.e. blend the letter sounds to read the word)*.
2. Provide two practice examples and provide the learner with feedback *(yes, the word is* pig*; no, that's not quite right—the word is* pig*)*.
3. Next, have the learner read the test words, but do not give any feedback; these are test items.
4. The learner should get at least 80% mastery for each set of test items:

   Begin with simple words with two to three syllables, such as:

   Individual sounds: /s/ /e/ /t/ = set

   Patterns: /s/ et = set (get, let, met)

   Syllables: re + set = reset; up + set = upset

   More complex two to three syllable words

Teacher educator guidance

It would be helpful to demonstrate each of these different assessment methods with student teachers so that they are more capable of completing the subsequent activities.

Activity 6: Learning outcome 6

Explain some of the different methods teachers may use to assess learners' awareness of the alphabetic principle and their decoding skills. Refer to the text to support your answer.

Activity 7: Learning outcome 6

Prepare a sound/syllable blending assessment and practise the assessment with two of your peers. You will need to prepare all the materials that you will be using.

Teacher educator guidance

Monitor how the student teacher demonstrates blending sounds to say words. You may need to make reference to the NLF, pages 20–23 and the school-based assessment module.

9.11

Peer teaching practice

Peer teaching can create a more engaging learning experience. It can be an effective tool to generate new knowledge through discussion between peers and improve students' understanding. Teacher educators can use this as a monitoring instrument to assess student teachers' peer teaching in class.

Activity 8: Learning outcome 7

Using the PLP teachers' handbook grade 1, choose one or more high-frequency letters of your choice and develop a lesson plan to teach blending sounds to make words. Peers will use the observation checklist below to score your lesson.

Teacher educator guidance

Make sure that you practise the 'I do,' 'We do', 'You do' model. Try by all means to demonstrate to the student teachers how the alphabetic lessons should be conducted before you allow them to practise.

Peer teaching observation checklist		Comments:
Content/skill: Student teacher includes the appropriate content and teaches the appropriate skill for the lesson.	Yes No	
Materials: If materials are to be used, the Student Teacher uses appropriate materials in the expected way (self-created materials are neat and usable).	Yes No	
Approach: Student teacher uses the proper approach. Student teacher provides corrective feedback for incorrect answers.	Yes No	
Pedagogy: Student teacher uses stories, pictures, songs, role play, and dialogue to scaffold and extend learners' oral language skills.	Yes No	
Presentation: Student teacher uses eye contact, appropriate volume, and engages all or most peers in the lesson.	Yes No	

9.12

Chapter summary

The alphabetic principle is knowing that sounds are linked to symbols in a predictable way. Learners apply the alphabetic principle to decode (read) and encode (write) words. These skills are fundamental for reading and continued literacy development. One strategy used to teach decoding is called phonics. Incidental, implicit phonics instruction requires the learners to focus on the whole word and figure out letter-sound patterns. This is not an effective way to teach struggling readers. Explicit, systematic phonics instruction provides young readers with explicit information about how letters and sounds are paired and can be linked to sound out new words when reading. Teachers should begin with instruction of simple, decodable words and progress to more complex words as the learners develop reading fluency and can recognise words by sight. As words become longer, learners should be taught how to segment words into morphemes. Phonics skills help learners blend new words to read words and segment words to spell. Using explicit instruction to teach decoding skills has been found to be the most effective method, supporting an inclusive classroom and meeting the needs of all learners (Honig et al., 2000).

9.13

Assessment of learning

1. Discuss the difference between phonemic awareness and the alphabetic principle.
2. With the help of examples, explain the differences that exist between
   i. vowels in English and vowels in Zambian languages;
   ii. consonants in English and consonants in Zambian languages;
   iii. alphabetic knowledge and alphabetic print;
   iv. regular and irregular words; and
   v. encoding and decoding.
3. Discuss at least two challenges that exist between teaching phonics in English and teaching phonics in Zambian languages.
4. Discuss the importance of phonics for reading.
5. Give examples of five sight words that you cannot teach using phonics instruction.
6. Discuss the similarities and differences between explicit phonics and implicit phonics approaches.
7. Why is it important to teach students to blend/segment using syllables and morphemes?
8. How does explicit phonics instruction support learners in learning to read and spell?
9. What strategies would you use to support learners struggling in learning to blend/segment words?
10. How will you assess learners' understanding of the alphabetic principle in your MT?

Table 9.1 Chapter 9: Self-assessment

Statement	Yes	No
I can explain the alphabetic principle and its role in learning to read.		
I can summarise the major principles in teaching decoding skills.		
I can discuss the role of decoding and encoding in learning to read and write.		
I can compare and contrast explicit and implicit phonics instruction.		
I can demonstrate teaching techniques for decoding (blending) in Zambian languages.		
I can demonstrate teaching techniques for encoding (spelling) in Zambian languages.		

9.14

Supplemental readings and resources

Ministry of General Education. *Teacher effectiveness enriching our teaching: Effective practice for transitioning from literacy in Zambian languages to literacy in English teacher's manual*. USAID.

Ministry of General Education. *Teacher effectiveness enriching our teaching: Teacher group meeting modules*. USAID.

Ministry of General Education. (2013). *Teachers' curriculum implementation guide: Guidance to enable teachers to make best use of the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework*. Lusaka: CDC.

Ministry of General Education. (2002). *Step in to English literacy course teacher's guide*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Module Summary

Module Summary

Congratulations on completing the module! Over the course of this term, you have learnt about many important topics related to your training to become a teacher and how you can best meet the needs of the learners in your classroom.

Chapter 1 focused on study and communication skills. These are the basic skills that every learner aspiring to receive a higher education must master. Study skills such as active listening, note-taking and note-making, memorisation, reading comprehension, and time and stress management will help you become a stronger learner. Developing strong communication skills such as verbal, non-verbal, and visual communication will help you better communicate with both the learners in your class and the superiors in your school.

Chapter 2 focused on the academic writing and research skills that you will need to use as you continue studying to become a teacher. It is important for teachers to be able to write high-quality reports and responses to parents and school officials, as well as to be able to guide their learners to use appropriate writing skills. Many of these academic writing skills pertain to college courses; however, the more skilled a teacher is, the easier it is for him or her to teach writing to the learners.

Chapter 3 focused on understanding the Connectionist model and how the brain learns to read. Here you learnt about the four processors—the phonological processor, the orthographic processor, the meaning processor, and the context processor—and how they work together to help the reader make meaning from printed text. There are six stages of reading development, and you, as a primary school teacher, can help your young learners transition to higher stages of reading. This chapter also set the stage for the remaining chapters in the module by introducing the major components of literacy instruction: phonological awareness, concepts of print (COP), alphabetic principle and decoding, reading fluency, vocabulary, oral language, listening and reading, comprehension, and writing.

Chapter 4 presented the most common approaches to teaching literacy skills via explicit, systematic instruction and implicit instruction. You learnt that the best approach is a balanced approach, which integrates the best parts of each method. Namely, the gradual release model is used to build learner responsibility for learning and language-based activities like read-aloud support through strong explicit phonics instruction. This allows teachers to differentiate instruction to meet the needs of all learners.

Chapter 5 addressed the language situation in Zambia and provided a brief history of the policies around language use in literacy instruction from pre-independence to post-independence. You learnt about the five stages of second language acquisition and the appropriate prompts that teachers should use to engage learners in each stage. The Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) provided a framework for comparing Zambian languages to one another and to English in order to identify what aspects of the second language should be explicitly taught to language learners. You also learnt about Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) and how these strategies can be used in the classroom to support learners as they transition to either an unfamiliar Zambian language or to English.

Chapter 6 was the first chapter dedicated to one of the component skills of literacy instruction. In this chapter you learnt about oral language development and its importance for later reading comprehension. Specific information was provided about oral language development activities that you can use with your primary grade students. You learnt about methods for assessing oral language skills and how to make MTB-MLE accommodations for learners who do not speak the language of instruction (LOI) in your classroom. Then, you were provided an opportunity to develop and practise delivering an oral language development lesson.

Chapter 7 focused on phonological and phonemic awareness. This chapter differentiated the two terms and identified phonemic awareness as the most advanced form of phonological awareness. You learnt about how important phonemic awareness is for the development of the alphabetic principle and later reading fluency skills. Methods for teaching phonological and phonemic awareness in Zambian languages and English were included, along with strategies for providing MTB-MLE accommodations for second language learners and assessing basic phonological and phonemic awareness skills. You were provided with the opportunity to develop and deliver phonological awareness lessons.

Chapter 8 addressed the component skill of concepts of print (COP). Here you learnt that the three main areas of COP are understanding how books work, understanding that print carries meaning, and understanding how print works. Specific strategies and lesson scripts were provided for how to teach these concepts to young learners, as well as MTB-MLE strategies that can be used with second language learners. You also learnt how to assess COP and were provided with an opportunity to develop and deliver a lesson in COP.

Chapter 9 was the final chapter in this module, and it focused on the alphabetic principle and decoding skills. You learnt how important it is for emergent readers to develop a strong understanding of how letters and sounds are connected in predictable ways. You read about methods for teaching both alphabetic principle and decoding strategies to young learners, as well as MTB-MLE strategies that can be implemented in the classroom. The chapter presented information about assessment techniques that can be used, and you were afforded the opportunity to develop and deliver decoding lessons.

While this module must come to an end, there are several more components of literacy that remain to be addressed in your programme. As you continue to learn about teaching literacy, return to these foundational chapters. These are the basic skills that the youngest learners must master in order to move on to the more advanced levels of reading skill.

Wishing you all the best in your studies. The future of Zambia lies in your hands as you educate the boys and girls that will become the nation's leaders. Thank you for choosing to become a primary school teacher.

Appendices

APPENDIX 1A

Journal assessment directions and rubric/guide

Directions:

You will prepare three notebooks for this activity. Directions for each is outlined below.

1: Skills reflection

One book should be used as a journal where you will record your experiences weekly, regarding your use of specific study skills listed. This journal is to be divided into two parts. In part A, record whether you have used any of the specific skills in the inventory by making a tick mark. In part B, make general comments regarding your weekly progress with the skills you have been using.

2: Note-taking and note-making journal

Take notes from all lectures in the language and literacy subject area using the skills required. Notes should be properly arranged by topic and date and be written legibly.

3: Intensive reading and research journal

In this journal, you will record notes from your readings and research for the summative assessment that is outlined in chapter 2. Each entry should include the title of the resource used, where you accessed the information (e.g. website, book), and the assignment question.

Rubric/guide for evaluation

Journal elements		Score		
		2	1	0
Book 1	**Skill chart**	There is ample evidence that the student teacher actively attempted to use the study skills.	There is moderate evidence that the student teacher actively attempted to use the study skills.	There is minimal to no evidence that the student teacher actively attempted to use the study skills.
	General comments	Comments show ample evidence of thoughtful reflection. Sentences are complete and legible.	Comments show moderate evidence of thoughtful reflection. Sentences are mostly complete and legible	Comments show minimal to no evidence of thoughtful reflection. Some sentences are incomplete or illegible.
Book 2	**Content of notes**	Sufficient notes are included from all lectures.	Sufficient notes are included from most of the lectures.	Minimal notes are included from the lectures or notes are sparse.
	Organisation of notes	All notes are organised by topic and date.	Most of the notes are organised by topic and date.	There is minimal evidence of organisation.
	Legibility of notes	Notes are legible to both the lecturer and the student teacher.	Most of the notes are legible to both the lecturer and the student teacher.	There is minimal evidence of legibility. The notes are hard to read.
Book 3	**Title of resource**	A title is included for each entry.	Most of the titles are included for each entry.	Many titles are missing for entries included.
	Content of notes	There is ample evidence that notes were written thoughtfully and with purpose.	There is moderate evidence that notes were written thoughtfully and with purpose.	There is minimal to no evidence that notes were written thoughtfully and with purpose.
	Location of resource	Information is provided regarding where the information was accessed for all entries.	Some entries are missing information regarding where the information was accessed.	Most entries are missing information regarding where the information was accessed.
	Legibility of notes	Notes are legible to both the lecturer and the student teacher.	Most of the notes are legible to both the lecturer and the student teacher.	There is minimal evidence of legibility. The notes are hard to read.

APPENDIX 2A

Rubric/guide for an academic paper

Criteria	Exemplary (3)	Good (2)	Acceptable (1)	Unacceptable (0)
Purpose	The writer's purpose or argument is readily apparent to the reader.	The writing has a clear purpose or argument but may sometimes digress from it.	The purpose or argument is not consistently clear throughout the paper.	The purpose or argument is generally unclear.
Content	Balanced presentation of relevant information that clearly supports the purpose or argument and shows a thoughtful, in-depth analysis of a significant topic. Reader gains important insights.	Information provides reasonable support for the purpose or argument and displays evidence of a basic analysis of the topic. Reader gains some insights.	Information supports the purpose or argument at times. Analysis is basic or general. Reader gains few insights.	The purpose or argument is not clear. Analysis is vague or not evident. Reader is confused or may be misinformed.
Organisation	Ideas are arranged logically (introduction, body, conclusion) and support the purpose or argument. They flow smoothly from one to another and are clearly linked to each other. The reader can follow the line of reasoning.	Ideas are arranged logically to support the purpose or argument and are usually clearly linked to each other. For the most part, the reader can follow the line of reasoning.	In general, the writing is arranged logically, although occasionally ideas fail to make sense together. The reader is fairly clear about what the writer intends.	The writing is not logically organised. Frequently, ideas fail to make sense together. The reader cannot identify a line of reasoning and loses interest.
Tone	The tone is consistently professional and appropriate for an academic paper.	The tone is generally professional. For the most part, it is appropriate for an academic paper.	The tone is not consistently professional or appropriate for an academic paper.	The tone is unprofessional. It is not appropriate for an academic paper.
Sentence structure	Sentences are well-phrased and varied in length and structure. They flow smoothly from one to another.	Sentences are well-phrased, and there is some variety in length and structure. The flow from sentence to sentence is generally smooth.	Some sentences are awkwardly constructed so that the reader is occasionally distracted.	Errors in sentence structure are frequent enough to be a major distraction to the reader.
Word choice	Word choice is consistently precise and accurate.	Word choice is generally good. The writer often goes beyond the generic word to find one more precise and effective.	Word choice is merely adequate, and the range of words is limited. Some words are used inappropriately.	Many words are used inappropriately, confusing the reader.

Rubric/guide for an academic paper *(continued)*

Criteria	Exemplary (3)	Good (2)	Acceptable (1)	Unacceptable (0)
Word choice	Word choice is consistently precise and accurate.	Word choice is generally good. The writer often goes beyond the generic word to find one more precise and effective.	Word choice is merely adequate, and the range of words is limited. Some words are used inappropriately.	Many words are used inappropriately, confusing the reader.
Grammar, spelling, writing mechanics (punctuation, capitalisation, etc.)	The writing is free or almost free of errors.	There are occasional errors, but they do not represent a major distraction or obscure meaning.	The writing has many errors, and the reader is distracted by them.	There are so many errors that the meaning is obscured. The reader is confused and may stop reading.
Length	Paper is the number of pages specified in the assignment.			Paper has more or fewer pages than specified in the assignment.
Use of references	Compelling evidence from professional sources is given to support claims. Attribution is clearly represented.	Professional sources that support claims are generally present and attribution is, for the most part clearly represented.	Although attributions are occasionally given, many statements seem unsupported. The reader is confused about the source of information and ideas.	References are seldom cited to support statements.
Quality of references	References are primarily peer-reviewed professional journals or other approved sources. The reader is confident that the information and ideas can be trusted.	Although most of the references are professional, a few are questionable. The reader is uncertain of the reliability of some of the sources.	Most of the references are from sources that are not peer-reviewed and have uncertain reliability. The reader doubts the accuracy of much of the material presented.	There are virtually no sources that are professionally reliable. The reader seriously doubts the value of the material.
Use of the American Psychological Association (APA) format	APA format is used accurately and consistently in the paper and on the 'References' page.	APA format is used with minor errors.	There are frequent errors in APA format.	Format of the document is not recognisable as APA.

Score_____/33 points

APPENDIX 2B

Rubric/guide for a tutorial presentation

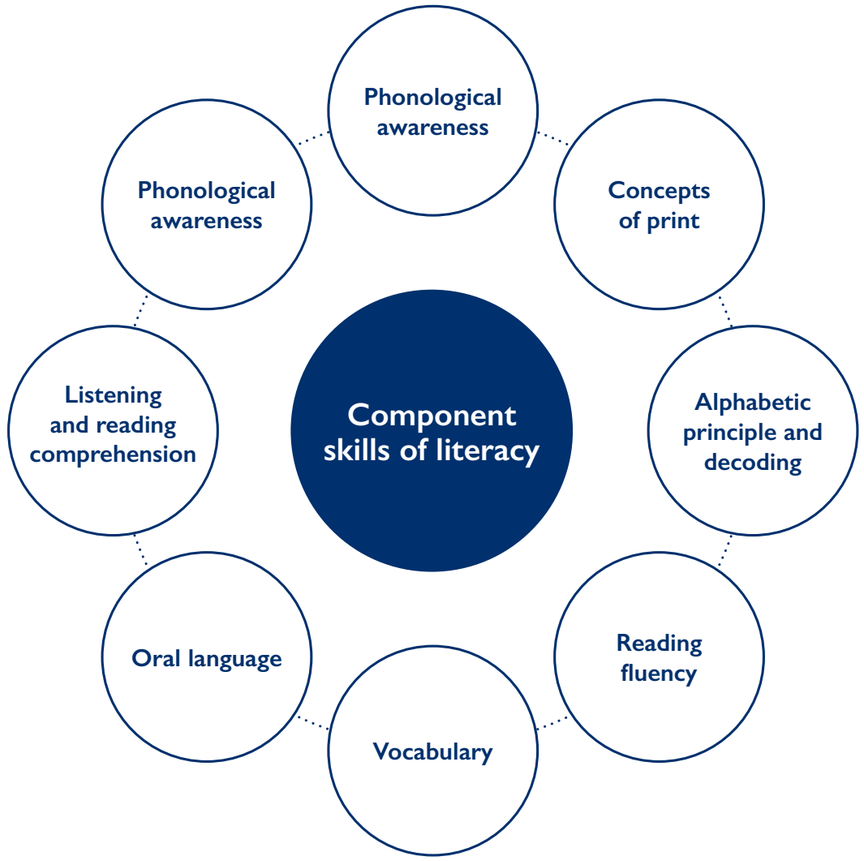
Your oral presentation will be scored according to the criteria below with (5) being excellent and (1) being poor.

Presence	5	4	3	2	1
body language and eye contact					
contact with the public					
poise					
physical organisation					
Language Skills	5	4	3	2	1
correct usage					
appropriate vocabulary and grammar					
understandable (rhythm, intonation, accent)					
spoken loud enough to hear easily					
Organisation	5	4	3	2	1
clear objectives					
logical structure					
signposting					
Mastery of the subject	5	4	3	2	1
pertinence					
depth of commentary					
spoken, not read					
able to answer questions					
Visual aids	5	4	3	2	1
slides					
handouts					
audio, video, etc.					
Overall impression	5	4	3	2	1
very interesting / very boring					
pleasant / unpleasant to listen to					
very good / poor communication					

Total score_____/30

APPENDIX 3A

Graphic organiser: Component skills of literacy



APPENDIX 4A

Tracing the history of literacy in Zambia (timeline)

Directions:

Record the most important dates and events on the timeline below.

APPENDIX 4B

Language and literacy activities

Talking and singing

Talking and singing with young learners helps them to develop listening and speaking skills. Parents can be taught to engage young children in these types of activities to get their brain ready to learn more complex structures of language and literacy.

Here are some sample activities to use with young learners:

- *Use rhyme whenever you can. Use phrases like 'snug as a bug in a rug' or make up rhymes about things you are doing—for example, 'putting fish on the dish'.*
- *Sing nursery rhymes with your learner. Nursery rhymes teach your learner language, rhyme, repetition, and rhythm. You could try 'Baa baa black sheep', 'Miss Polly had a dolly', or the 'Alphabet song'.*
- *Repeat sounds your learner makes or make up sounds and see whether your learner can copy them. For example, 'Cows say moo. Can you say moo?'*
- *At mealtimes, talk about the food you are preparing, what you are doing to it, how it tastes and what it looks like.*
- *Talk about objects outside the house or in the classroom—for example, the rustling of leaves, or the sounds of the birds or traffic. Ask your learner to make the sounds for wind, rain, water, animals, trains, and cars.*
- *Play games like 'I spy' using colours. This can be fun, especially for preschoolers. For example, 'I spy with my little eye, something that's green. What's something green I might be looking at?'*

Reading and book-based activities

Reading with learners develops their vocabulary, ability to listen and understand, and ability to connect sound and words. It also helps learners learn about the world around them.

The learners can practise these activities:

- *Try books with rhyme, rhythm, and repetition. Many young learners enjoy books.*
- *Encourage your learners to turn the pages and talk about what they see. Use your finger to guide your learner's eyes from left to right across the page, as you read and point out certain words or phrases.*
- *For babies and toddlers, include lift-the-flap books or touch-and-feel books. You could even make your own book with objects your learner likes to look at and touch.*
- *Encourage your learner to take the lead with reading—for example, 'Where do we start from?' Every so often, stop reading and ask your learner what they think will happen next.*
- *Link books with real-life experiences. For example, if you have read a book about playing in a park, you might like to take your learner to the local park and point out swings that look like the ones in the book.*
- *Encourage your learner to act out the story that you are reading. For example, you can ask your learner to hop like the kangaroo in the book.*

Follow your learner's lead with reading. Encourage your learner, but do not push them. Experiment with different books to see what your learner likes, and just have fun!

Drawing and writing literacy activities

Scribbling and drawing help young learners develop fine motor skills for writing with pencils and pens later in childhood. It also helps them to understand that writing and pictures have meanings and are used to communicate information.

Here are some sample activities to use with young learners:

- *Encourage your learner to add a scribble or drawing on cards or letters.*
- *Encourage your learner to try some letters or write their name on all their artwork. You can write out letters in one colour and ask your learner to trace them in another colour.*
- *Give your learner opportunities to use letters of the alphabet in different forms—written on bottle caps, small cardboard pieces, etc.*
- *Cut out or draw pictures of basic household items—chair, table, wall, door, cooking pot, and so on—and then write the items' names on separate pieces of paper. Ask your learner to match the name of the item to the picture.*
- *Encourage your learner to tell you about their drawings. Help your learner write down the words they use.*
- *Encourage your learner to write letters to their family and friends. For younger learners, these letters might look like scribbles. You can get your learner to tell you what it says so that you can write the words underneath. Encourage friends and family to write back.*

Talking activities

- *Play word games that encourage your learner to learn sounds. For example, 'I spy with my little eye something beginning with /fff/. What do you think I'm looking at that starts with that sound?'*
- *Ask your learner about words that rhyme. For example, 'What other words sound like car?'*
- *Ask your learner to make a sound or sound combination, and then think of words with that sound. For example, 'What's a funny sound? Mo? What sounds can you make with mo? Moan, mope, moat…'.*
- *Talk about the past. Ask your learner to tell you something they enjoyed doing at school that week.*
- *Talk about the future. Tell your learner what you are going to do on the next day or on the weekend, or ask your learner to tell you what they need to do before bed.*
- *Give your learner simple instructions to follow, and ask your learner to repeat the instructions back to you. Gradually increase the number of steps based on how many your learner can follow. For example, 'Go to your room. Get your hairbrush and a towel'.*

Reading and book-based activities

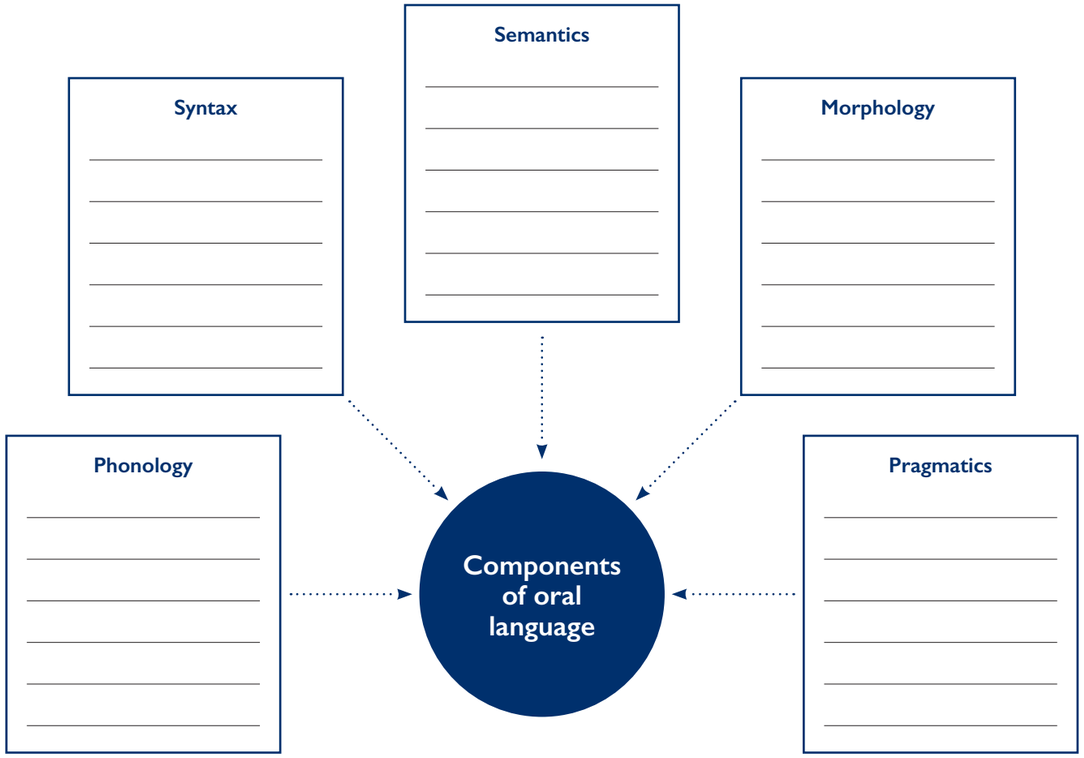
- *Read stories and then talk about them. Ask, 'What was your favourite part of the story?' or 'Who was your favourite character? Why?'*
- *Take turns reading. You could read half the page while your learner reads the other half. You could also point out single words here and there for your learner to sound out. Start with words that are easy to sound out—for example, two-letter and three-letter words like 'mat', 'on', or 'sip'.*
- *Try alphabet books with younger school-age learning. Ask your learner to tell you words that start with the same sound as the letter you are looking at.*
- *Ask your learner to make a storybook and have your learner draw the pictures. Help your learner write the words or at least some of the letters in the story.*
- *When you are out of the house, ask your learner to pick out or sound out letters or words on shop fronts, street signs, or items at the supermarket.*

Drawing and writing literacy activities

- *Select a few alphabet letters and move them around to make new sounds—/bat/, /tab/, /abt/—and see which of them are real words. Practise sounding them out letter by letter and then saying the word—for example, '/b/ /a/ /t/ makes the word* bat*'. Start with lower-case letters, so you do not confuse your learner with the two different letter shapes for each sound.*
- *Encourage your learner to write their name and the names of other family members in greeting cards or on pictures. Once your learner can use all the letters well, they'll be ready for upper case and lower case (capitals and small letters).*
- *Encourage your learner to write shopping lists or restaurant menus for pretend play.*
- *Point out different types of print when you are out of the house with your learner—for example, on shop signs or movie posters.*
- *Ask your learner to make you a book, with a word on one side of the page and a picture of that word on the other side.*

APPENDIX 6A

Components of oral language graphic organiser



APPENDIX 6B

Teacher responses that elaborate or extend the child's language

Below is a sample script of how a teacher can elicit more details from the learner and scaffold the child to produce more complex language.

Teacher: *[Showing a picture of a domestic animal]. Do you know this animal?*

Chibuye: *Yes.*

Teacher: *What do you know about it?*

Chibuye: *Cow.*

Teacher: *It is a cow. What else can you tell me about it?*

Source: https://www.farmersweekly.co.za/farm-basics/how-to-livestock/need-know-better-cow-management/

Chibuye, the learner, is expected to give more details than he has as the teacher continuously guides him. This will assist him to develop his language so that the next time he is shown the same picture, he will give a more detailed description.

The teachers' questions and comments lead to thinking, help construct knowledge, and expand and develop language skills. Teachers should understand the importance of encouraging learners to explore and express ideas in full to support the development of thinking and new concepts. The examples that follow provide other specific ways to support children as they develop oral language in English.

1. Ask for clarification, elaboration, or justification (e.g. 'What do you think will happen if you open the window?').
2. Challenge children's thinking with questions (e.g. 'How did you know ...?' 'Why did you decide...?').
3. Prompt children to retell in different ways (label, identify, describe, summarise) (e.g. 'Explain why you draw big windows.' 'Tell me why you did this.').
4. Guide children to make connections (compare, contrast, apply) (e.g. 'That's the same as... What does this make you think of'?).
5. Lead children to reflect on experiences (encourage questioning, further wonderings, and inference) (e.g. 'I wonder what would happen if ...?' 'I wonder why ...?' 'What else could you try?' 'I wonder what you could try next...?').

APPENDIX 6C

Teaching oral language

Directions:

1. Brainstorm strategies teachers could use to teach oral language skills as they relate to the five areas below.
2. Record answers from your peers, as needed.

Area	Answers
Listening and speaking skills	
Variety of texts	
Language-rich environment	
Teaching and extending vocabulary	
Promoting auditory memory	

Glossary

Alliteration — a series of words or syllables which begin with the same consonant sound

Alphabetic principle — the understanding that words are made of letters, and letters represent sounds in a predictable way

APA — American Psychological Association referencing style

Balanced literacy — reading instruction that balances whole-language and phonics-based approaches that is responsive to individual learners' needs

Bilingualism — the ability of an individual or the members of a community to use two languages effectively

Blending — combining sounds to form syllables or words

Citation — a mode of referencing a paraphrase or direct quotation by providing the author and publication year, which can be easily located in the reference list

Cognitive development — the construction of thinking processes from childhood through adolescence to adulthood

Colloquialism — an informal expression suitable for speech and not formal writing (e.g. well, you know, ok, sort of, etc.)

Common Underlying Proficiency (CUP) hypothesis — the interdependence of concepts, skills and linguistic knowledge found in a central processing system which, if present in an individual's L1, can be drawn upon and be advantageous to L2 acquisition

Communication skills — a set of skills that students need in order to listen, speak, read, and write properly in different contexts

Connectionist model — a simplified model that illustrates how the brain reads or recognises words

Concepts of print (COP) — the knowledge that print carries meaning and understanding of how print and books work

Decodable text — reading materials in which a high percentage of words are linked to phonics lessons using letter-sound correspondences children have been taught. Decodable text is an intermediate step between reading words in isolation and reading literature

Decoding — the process of using letter-sound correspondences to recognise and sound out words

Early childhood education — education that begins around 3 years of age until children enter primary school

Emergent reading — specific pre-reading skills observed in children in the early years of their lives, even before they start school

Explicit instruction — teaching in a direct, structured way so that learners understand exactly what is expected of them

Expressive language — the ability to communicate or express thoughts and feelings through words, gestures, signs, or symbols

Extensive reading — reading widely

Feedback — Aa response or reply given to a message or information that was received

First language (L1) — the first language a person acquires in early childhood, usually unconsciously, through interaction with their environment; also known as a native language or Mother Tongue (MT)

Foreign language — a language usually originating from another country other than a speaker's country of origin

Formal — serious; official; done according to prescribed rules or practice/done according to convention/methodical (in an organised manner)

Formative assessment — spot check or in-process assessment conducted by an educator to get feedback about the learning so that instructional approaches, teaching materials, and academic support can be modified

Functional literacy — basic literacy skills that every adult needs to be able to function within a society

Gradual release model — an instructional model where teachers scaffold learning by strategically transferring the responsibility in the learning process from the teacher to the learners ('I do', 'We do', 'You do')

Grapheme — the individual letter or sequence of written symbols (e.g. a, b, c) and the multi-letter units (e.g. ch, sh, th) that are used to represent a single phoneme (sound)

Initial literacy — the earliest stages of literacy in which children begin developing literacy skills

Intensive reading — reading with concentration for a deeper understanding of written information

Irregular word — a word that cannot be decoded because either (a) the sounds of the letters are unique to that word or a few words, or (b) the student has not yet learnt the letter-sound correspondences in the word

Language acquisition device (LAD) — a mechanism in our brains which provides us with the innate ability to learn languages

Language facilitation — the characteristics or features between the L1 and L2 that make it easier for learners to become proficient in L2

Language interference — the characteristics or features between the L1 and L2 that make it more difficult or challenging for learners to become proficient in L2

Language of instruction (LOI) — the language chosen for instruction in a subject area

Listening skills — Tthe ability to accurately receive and interpret what is expressed by another person

Literacy — the ability to read, write, speak and listen—as well as to interpret what has been read or heard in a particular language

Local language — a native language spoken in the area that a speaker resides in

Manipulating — deleting, adding, and substituting syllables and sounds

Medium — a means or mode through which information is packaged and transmitted

Monolingualism — the condition of being able to effectively use only a single language

Morphology — the study of word forms and parts (i.e. prefixes, suffixes)

Mother tongue — the language that children first learn to speak after they are born

Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) — the education system that helps learners of non-dominant language communities who do not understand or speak the language of instruction when they begin their formal education

Multilingualism — the ability of an individual speaker or a community of speakers to communicate effectively in three or more languages

National Literacy Framework (NLF) — the framework from which the PLP is based; includes five components of reading (phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, and oral reading fluency)

Non-verbal communication — a type of communication that does not use or rely on the speech sounds. Instead, it accompanies verbal communication as it involves the use of body movements, facial expressions, eye contact, gestures, or signs.

Oral language — receptive and expressive language that includes the domains of phonology, syntax, semantics, morphology, and pragmatics

Oral language proficiency — the ability to proficiently understand and produce oral language

Orthographic awareness — the understanding of the rules of the orthographic system of a language (i.e. how letters join to make new sounds or how the position of a letter changes its sound)

Orthography — the system of symbols used to represent language

Paraphrase — an expression of someone's spoken or written ideas that uses the writer's own words—used especially to summarise text and make what was said or written easier to understand

Phoneme — the smallest unit of sound in a word

Phonemic awareness — the ability to recognise and manipulate individual sounds in words

Phonological awareness — the ability to hear and manipulate sound structures of language

Phonology — the study of speech sounds in combination

Plagiarism — copying another person's ideas, words, or work while pretending that they are one's own. This is the most serious academic crime that a student can commit

Pragmatics — the study of language use in different contexts, the social rules of communication

Pre-assessment — an assessment that is administered before a learner begins a lesson, unit, course, or academic programme to establish the baseline against which educators measure academic readiness or learning progress over the duration of the course, programme, or instructional period

Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) — a reading programme used in Zambia today which was fully implemented in 2014; it uses a systematic phonics-based approach

Primary Reading Programme (PRP) — a reading programme used in Zambia from 1999 to 2013, which used an eclectic approach to reading instruction as well as aspects of a language experience approach and whole-language instruction

Print-rich environment — a classroom where learners see print everywhere: in books, on labels, on wall posters, etc.

Reading — the process of making meaning from written words or symbols

Receptive language — the understanding of information provided in a variety of ways such as sounds and words, movement and gestures, and signs and symbols

Regular word — a word in which all the letters represent their most common sound

Research — a field of study in which scholars investigate challenging issues facing society in order to find solutions, and in which they identify sources of information to organise and use accurately

Rhymes — words that sound the same at the end of a word

Scanning — reading rapidly to extract specific details or information

School readiness — a child's readiness for school that begins at home and is related to the emergent literacy skills of oral language and concepts of print (COP)

Second language (L2) — any language that an individual acquires after they have acquired the first language

Second language acquisition — the learning of a second language (L2) or other language(s) (Lx)

Segmenting — dividing words into phonemes or syllables

Semantics — the study of meaning

Shortenings (also known as contractions) — short forms of words: can't (cannot), don't (do not), needn't (need not)

Skimming — reading rapidly to extract the gist or main idea

Slang — informal or non-standard words or expressions usually used by a particular group of people

Speaking skills — the ability to communicate verbally and in a way that the listener can understand

Stop sound — a sound that cannot be prolonged (stretched out) without distortion; a short, plosive sound (e.g. p, t, k)

Study skills — a set of skills that help students process, understand, and retain new information and concepts

Summative assessment — used to evaluate learning over a longer period like after completing a unit or topic; a summation of what has been learnt

Syllable — a unit of pronunciation having one vowel sound, with or without surrounding consonants, that forms the whole or a part of a word

Syntax — the study of rules governing the grammatical structure of language

Time management — the ability to use time effectively, efficiently, and productively

Translanguaging — language strategies that are used to bridge learning from one's first language to a second language

Verbal communication — a type of communication that has to do with the production of human speech sounds

Visual communication — a type of communication that involves the use of drawings, maps, diagrams, colours, or graphic designs

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