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BILINGUAL LITERACY TRAJECTORIES IN THE EARLY GRADES: AN EXPLORATION OF THE INTERFACE BETWEEN PEDAGOGY, TEXTS, AND CLASSROOM PRINT ENVIRONMENT

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by

NKHENSANI MALULEKE

THESIS

Submitted to the Wits School of Education, Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand in fulfilment of the requirements of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Languages and Literacy Education.

Johannesburg, 2019

Abstract

In South Africa, the bilingual education program currently being implemented implicitly suggests that learners of African descent are to be taught to read in their first languages (L1) for the first 4 years of schooling (grades R-3); as these grades are meant to build strong reading literacy foundations for reading to learn beyond Grade 3. However, a second language (L2) is introduced in Grade 1 as a subject for learning to read, side by side with the first language; thus creating a biliteracy context. This L2 is to be used for teaching and learning in grades 4 and beyond. This gives learners a total of three years (Grade 1-3) to master the L2 to competency levels before it can be used for teaching and learning (Pretorius, 2000). Because of this sequencing of languages and their uses, the foundation phase becomes a critical phase through which learners should be competent bi-literate readers for academic success beyond Grade 3. This study contributes to what is known about biliteracy reading development in a rural biliteracy foundation phase classroom. Mainly, how the classroom interfaces between two languages, texts, and teacher pedagogy and the learners play a role in biliteracy reading development. Using mixed-methods research methodology; the study is informed by a two dimensional theoretical framework comprising of the Cognitive efficiency mechanism frameworks which includes the simple view of reading Hoover and Gough (1990), Linguistic interdependence (Cummins, 1979) ; and the Socio-cultural frameworks which include the continua of biliteracy (Hornberger, 1989), and translanguaging (Garcia, 2009). The investigation involved the surveying of Grades 1-3 environmental print and classroom libraries with a focus on the text-types and their quality in both Xitsonga (L1) and English (L2). This was followed by reiterative lesson observations and reflective teacher interviews; finally, an inventory of biliteracy reading comprehension with the learners. The key and interesting finding from the study is that teachers in the foundation phase do not prioritise the separation of languages, that is, Xitsonga for teaching and learning, and English during the English time slot. Instead, teachers use a language they believe learners will access the content through, in different situations. This finding shows that what Probyn (2009) calls the ‘smuggle of the vernacular’ into the English classroom is not vernacular sided (one-sided), but that the ‘smuggle’ can take place for any language.

Keywords: Teacher beliefs, classroom practice, text types, environmental print; expository texts, narrative texts, biliteracy, foundation phase.

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. It is being submitted for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of the Witwatersrand, Faculty of Humanities, and School of Education. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at this University or at any other University.



Nkhensani Maluleke

20 May, in the year 2019

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my parents, Tsakani Catherine Makhubele (my mother) and Mdun'wazi John Maluleke (my father, who passed away on December 13th 2018), and to my children Kathleen and Dzunisani. Also to the entire Msapa family, particularly to all my siblings, Boti Mzamani, Sesi Dorries, Lucky, and Miehleketo for their endless support. Thank you for keeping the hopes up, and for reassuring me all the time, all the way.

All the people of my village (Mavalani Village) in Giyani, Limpopo Province, whom I am because they are. *Vumunhu bya n'wina byi ndzi endla munhu na mina*.

Parents, school, teachers, and learners who participated in this study; I am because you are.

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Abbreviations and Acronyms

LoLT- Language of Learning and Teaching

CAPS- Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement

ANA- Annual National Assessment

L1- First/Home language

L2- Second language

OECD- Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development

DoE- Department of Education

SLA- Second Language Acquisition

FAL- First Additional Language

HL- Home Language

SPSS- Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

NSTA- National Sciences Teachers Association

SVR: Simple View of Reading

BICS- Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills

CALP- Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

HLE- Home Literacy Experiences

BRCT- Biliteracy Reading Comprehension Test

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction and Background

The policy on Language in Education in the South African context advocates for the use of all official languages in education (Department of Basic Education, 1997). This perhaps stems from the country's constitution that recognises all previously marginalised languages in South Africa. On the other hand, the South African education curriculum document, referred to as Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement, Department of Basic Education (2011a) for the foundation phase is packaged in the following manner:

- In Grade R, which is the first formal year of schooling, all teaching and learning activities are expected to take place in what is considered the home language of the learner (L1).
- In Grade 1, a second language (L2), which is usually English for the majority of learners, is introduced as a subject while the L1 is still used as a language for teaching and learning.
- Once learners exit the foundation phase at Grade 3, a switch is done where the L1 becomes a subject, and the L2 becomes the language for teaching and learning.

Research on literacy development and language acquisition, particularly from the North Americas, notes that children would have acquired enough language for learning to read by age 5 (Hoff, 2009); hence many schooling programmes around the world allow children to start schooling by this age (King & King, 2006). This is generally applicable in cases where another language is used, for example, in Canada, where English and French are the major languages of the community. English speakers are immersed in a French curriculum for six years before English can be used for teaching and learning. In a country such as the United States of America where English is the language of teaching and learning, and where all other languages belong the minority and the migrant, bilingual programmes are meant to help immigrant learners to acquire enough literacy skills in English so that they can be successful in the English programme.

From this North American notion of bilingual education, the South African Department of Basic Education (1997) Language in Education Policy notes in its preamble that some opinions exist as what can be considered a viable approach to the envisaged multilingual education. These opinions range from arguments that favour the cognitive benefits and cost-effectiveness of teaching through one medium, preferably of a L1, while learning L2's as subjects, and to those that are considered comparative international experience, where under some conditions most learners benefit cognitively and emotionally from structured bilingual education found in dual-medium and or immersion programmes. Whichever option is followed, it is said that the underlying principle is to maintain home languages while providing acquisition of other languages.

Some realities exist about the reading literacy development in general, and in the South African context in particular. To point out these realities, the South African multilingual realities are compared to those of other countries who follow any form of the bilingual education system.

In the United States, the majority of people speak English at home. Their policies and systems are set to be English monolingual. Any person who may not have acquired native-like English competence is in most likelihood an immigrant. As a result, the American bilingual and immersion programmes are meant to assist immigrant learners with English language acquisition so that they can be successful in the American English education system and become contributing members of the American English speaking communities (Cummins, 2009).

In Canada, two dominant languages (French and English) are spoken by the majority of the people at home. Bilingual and immersion programmes are meant to assist learners who are native English speakers but will use French as a language of teaching and learning at a particular point in their schooling. They also assist native French-speaking learners who will use English as a language of teaching and learning at some point in their schooling (Behiels, 2006).

Finland, a country that is considered to have one of the best education systems in the world, consist of Finish and Swedish speaking majority population. The Finland

education system is set up such that a home language is used for the purposes of learning to read and general teaching and learning until university level. The second national language and a foreign language are introduced in Grade 3 and learned as subjects until the end of high school (OECD Directorate for Education and Skills, 2013).

In South Africa, the majority of people speak languages (mostly African languages) other than English or Afrikaans at home. The country hopes to be a multilingual nation and envisages multilingual education. Interestingly, bilingual education is meant for teaching and learning in English from Grade 4 and beyond. South Africa has adopted North America's bilingualism programme for reading literacy development, where the aim is for learners to learn monolingually in English or Afrikaans from Grade 4 and beyond. This is not aligned with the South African goal towards multilingualism and multilingual education as envisaged in the Language in Education Policy of 1997. Like in North American countries, South Africa is experiencing poor performance in reading in both home languages and English or Afrikaans (second languages). Just like in North American countries, large numbers of learners in the bilingual programmes struggle and perform poorly throughout their schooling lives. In the United States, a significant number of these learners never get reclassified as 'English competent' (Umansky & Reardon, 2014).

For many years the South African school system has seen reading comprehension of the English language, a language used for teaching and learning in many public schools, as a contributing factor to the low academic performance of the South African school children in many content areas (Klapwijk, 2012). English is currently the largest second language used for learning and teaching in South African public schools, with Afrikaans still being used in other parts of the country as a second language and a language of learning and teaching.

Starting in Grade 4, English is used for the first time as a language of learning and teaching in most public schools, and it is also used to teach the new content subjects that learners are taught for the first time in Grade 4 such as Natural sciences and Technology, and Social Sciences. The table below shows the distribution of time allocated to all subjects in the last year of the foundation phase (Grade 3) and the first

year of the intermediate phase (Grade 4). This is a critical period of transition from learning to read to reading to learn. The table also shows the addition of Natural sciences, Technology and Social Sciences subjects in Grade 4.

Table 1: The distribution of time allocated for all subjects in Grades 3 and 4, and languages used

	LoLT (Home Language)	**LoLT (English/Afrikaans)**
Learning area	**Last year of Foundation phase**	**First year Intermediate phase**
	Grade 3	**Grade 4**
Home Language	7-8h/w	6hrs/w
First Additional Language	3-4h/w	5hrs/w
Mathematics	7hrs/w	6hrs/w
Life Skills	7hrs/w	4hrs/w
Natural Sciences and Technology		3.5hrs/w
Social Sciences		3hrs/w

Table 1 above shows the number of hours allocated for Grade 3 and 4 for different learning areas as drawn from the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (Department of Basic Education, 2011b). As seen in the last column, Natural Sciences and Technology, and Social Sciences are introduced at Grade 4.

Many learners in the Foundation Phase (Grades 1-3) already struggle with reading texts that are read at the foundation phase. The struggle with reading texts is evident in the 2013 Annual National Assessment (ANA) results for the foundation phase. In these results, learners in Grade 3 obtained an average of between 43.1% and 54.5% in their home languages as languages of learning and teaching (LOLT). It is not surprising to see in the same ANA results that right at the beginning of the Intermediate Phase (Grade 4), where the language of learning and teaching suddenly changes to either English or Afrikaans as second languages. The results indicate that learners

struggle even more as the average percentages are at 47.1% for English as LOLT, 52% for Afrikaans (Department of Basic Education, 2013b).

Some studies have been conducted to investigate the underlying factors to low academic performance amongst English as second language learners, who also use English for the purposes of learning in South Africa (Pretorius, 2000; Singh, 2010). Many of these research findings show that the factors range from the child's exposure to texts and the culture of reading in the home. These factors have been found by many studies to be determined by family income, educational background of parents or guardian of the child and the literacy cultures of the families and communities in which the child is raised (Davis-Kean, 2005).

In the South African context, the issue of exposure to print could be critical to learning to read for many children, particularly in rural areas and this could significantly improve their literacy experiences once they start school (Taylor, Fleisch, & Shindler, 2007). Even though the family and the community play a more prominent role in the early literacy development of the child (Spedding, Harkins, Makin, & Whiteman, 2007), the school and its teachers are generally given the responsibility to find creative ways to intervene in closing literacy gaps in cases where there was no print exposure (Gorski, 2017).

Countries such as the United States and Canada have made great strides in exploring literacy development in the early years of schooling. They have established literacy programmes to work in their contexts of lingualisms. They have established what counts as literacy-rich environments, adequate classroom library, a competent reader for grade levels, and they have created databases of what works in their literacy classrooms (Bean & Kern, 2018). In the South African context, there is still a great need to create a research database to inform future classroom practices towards the improvement of reading literacy development in the early grades.

This study investigated how bilingual reading development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in the foundation phase from a rural bilingual context in South Africa. This will include the exploration of biliteracy development in Grade 1 to 3 through the interface between the teaching pedagogy,

the classroom environments, texts, and the learners in the foundation phase. This study contributes to a literature base towards what is known about literacy development in rural bilingual contexts.

1.2. Problem Statement

Many studies on early childhood literacy development have consistently found that the exposure or the lack thereof to print at home impacts on the literacy development of the child (Burgess, Hecht, & Lonigan, 2002; Reese, Sparks, & Leyva, 2010; Snow, Barnes, Goodman, & Hemphill, 1991). Parents and guardians responsible for the upbringing of a child become the first teachers of the child by default. The language of the home and the literacy practices of the home become the very first experiences a child has. This language of the home is mostly characterised by narrations as this is the nature of everyday language for many families from many cultural backgrounds in different parts of the world.

The language of the home allows all members to participate in the discourse relevant to the context of the home (Duke, 2000). For many South African children, this narrative language of the home is the only language they are exposed to until they start formal schooling. For the early grades, narrative texts are mostly used in teaching children to read, with many of them accompanied by illustrations and pictures. By age 9/10 (Grade 4), this narrative language of the home becomes less used as learners transition to the Intermediate Phase. At this stage, not only is a new purpose for reading introduced to the learners, but also a new genre (expository) of texts to be read is introduced, and a new LoLT (English) is also introduced. This is implied by the CAPS as shown in table 1 above.

To develop interest and motivation for reading, the school curricula are designed in a manner that does not suddenly take away the narrative nature of the ability to communicate in one's language (Yopp & Yopp, 2012). This is seen as a way to maintain the young readers' ability to communicate in their languages, and it is believed that it aids the kindling of motivation for learning to read in young children.

Because of this notion; there is a general scarcity of expository texts in the early grades, an issue which has been of concern to some scholars in reading and literacy research (Hines, Wible, & McCartney, 2010; Marzban & Seifi, 2013; McCown & Thomason, 2009). Calo (2011), for example, found that there is a scarcity of expository texts in the early grades. This is considered a contributing factor to challenges faced by Grade 4 learners as they begin to read expository texts for learning. In the case of South African children; beginning to read informational texts in the 4th grade is not the only challenge. Another challenge is that they start reading expository texts in a language (English) they have only been introduced to in Grade 1 (Pretorius, 2000; Singh, 2010), allowing them only three years to acquire enough English Language skills to be used for reading to learn. They are also introduced to a new purpose for reading which they have not experienced even in their home languages. From a South African context, more still needs to be explored and studied about literacy development in the early grades; particularly the interactions in the bilingual, biliteracy, and mostly multilingual classrooms found in schools.

It is for this reason that this study investigated how bilingual reading development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in Grades 1-3 of the foundation phase. From a Xitsonga speaking community, and within a Xitsonga/English bilingual education programme, this study contributes to what is known about the interactions that take place between texts, the environment, the learner and the teacher pedagogical practices.

1.3. Research Aim, questions and objectives

This research aimed to investigate how bilingual reading literacy development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in Grades 1-3. This study answered the following research questions:

- What is the prevalence rate of expository and narrative early grade texts?
- What is the status quo of text prototypes in the Grade 1-3 classroom print environment?

- How do Xitsonga and English texts compare and contrast in terms of prevalence?
- What are the teacher pedagogical practices on reading literacy in relation to text types?
- What are teacher beliefs on correlations between reading development and text selection?
- What is the status quo of reading comprehension levels of narrative and expository texts in Xitsonga and English in Grades 1-3?

1.4. Study objectives

- Determine prevalence rates of expository and narrative early grade texts.
- Develop an inventory of text prototypes in Grade 1-3 classroom print environment.
- Compare and contrast Xitsonga and English text prevalence.
- Assess pedagogical practices on reading literacy in relation to text types.
- Evaluate teacher beliefs on correlations between reading development and text selection.
- Develop a reading comprehension levels inventory of narrative and expository texts in Xitsonga and English in Grades 1-3.

In relation to the last study objective, that is, to develop a reading comprehension levels inventory of narrative and expository texts in Xitsonga and English in Grades 1-3, the following hypotheses were formulated:

- The mean scores of the foundation phase learners for Xitsonga will be different in comparison to English.
- The mean scores of foundation phase learners of narrative texts for both English and Xitsonga will be different in comparison to expository texts.
- The mean scores of lower grade learners in both English and Xitsonga, for both narrative and expository texts will be different in comparison to learners in a higher grade.

- There will be a significant statistical association between a text type (narrative and expository) and a grade, particularly for comprehension test for higher order thinking such as 'evaluation.' Learners in higher grades are more likely to score higher than learners in lower grades.

1.5. Rationale and significance of the research

Curriculum programmes in many countries around the world have always been designed from a view that children should be exposed to narrative texts in the early grades first, and then be introduced to expository texts later in their schooling lives (Akhondi, Malayeri, & Samad, 2011). Within these curriculum programmes, research has continuously shown that young readers who have not had the privilege of exposure to print at home and in their early lives, start school already behind in literacy development in comparison to their peers who were exposed to print (Davis-Kean, 2005). Children from print impoverished environments in bilingual, and or immersion programs struggle with reading in the target language than their monolingual peers (Umansky & Reardon, 2014), and they struggle with reading in both home and first additional languages in Grade 3 (Department of Basic Education, 2013b), and they are most likely to struggle academically throughout their schooling lives.

The researcher, having been born in the Xitsonga speaking community, and attended a Xitsonga/English/Afrikaans multilingual school from the early grades until first year of University, has first-hand experiences of epistemic access limitations that may come with being in a bilingual programme with an end goal of using a second language for learning purposes. The researcher's experience of teaching learners who were also in a bilingual programme exposed her to their struggle with reading expository texts for learning.

The researcher's experiences as both a bilingual learner and a teacher in bilingual classrooms led to an interest in the importance of the interfaces between the languages, between the teacher and learners, between the texts in both languages and the learners, and between the teacher, the texts and the learners. Most

significantly, how these interfaces may enhance reading comprehension in young bilingual readers.

1.6. The context of the study

The study was set in the rural Limpopo province of South Africa, outside the small Malamulele town. The people of Malamulele are Xitsonga speaking. Specifically, the study is placed in the predominantly Xitsonga speaking communities found in the Malamulele town and surrounding villages of the northernmost part of South Africa. It is about 65 km away from the Mozambican border and about 210 kilometres to the Zimbabwean Beitbridge border gate.

Like all communities, the Xitsonga (the language) speaking communities in question, generally referred to as Vatsonga (Xitsonga speaking people) can usually be described to have a unique culture but similar to some degree to that of the Tshivenda and Tshivenda speaking people. Muthivhi (2014) described the Vavenda (Tshivenda speaking) people in a study that examined literacy practices within a Tshivenda-speaking Grade 1 classroom. In his description, Muthivi emphasised the literacy practices of the Vavenda people as 'oral in nature'. The Vatsonga people have similar characteristics as the Vavenda people as described in Muthivi (2014). This suggests that their literacy practices are narrative and spoken in nature. Naturally, children who attend schools in and from these communities live their daily lives in environments that foster narration in spoken word; reading and writing are generally considered the activities of the school, not of the home.

The case in this research is a school located in the township of Malamulele, an area that can be regarded as semi-urban. As seen from the school records provided by the school principal, the school has admitted over 1000 learners in the past five years (2015, 2014, 2013, 2012, and 2011). The School records further indicated that in 2017, one thousand two hundred and twenty- eight (1228) learners in Grades R-7 from 10 different villages (Xitlhelani, Madonsi, Mchipisi, Xigalo, Mavambe, JimJones, Jerome, Gandlanani, Rodhuis, and Gijamhandini) were enrolled.

Despite the school being in a semi-urban township, its Socio-economic statuses of enrolled learners have qualified it as a quintile one school that receives full financing from the state. Also, given that the villages are rural areas surrounding the Malamulele town and sometimes far away from the school, parents organise private transport to reach the school. The school enrolment is unique in that unlike other primary schools which are characterised by the enrolment of learners who reside in the village or township where the school is found; it has accepted learners from ten different villages - some far away from the school.

The school records on parental demographics indicate that 90% of the parents who send their children to the school are unemployed and depend on child support grants to survive, while they do informal businesses such as selling fruits and vegetables at their respective villages or Malamulele town's taxi rank. Some work as casual employees such as cleaners, laundry washers, baby sitters, and or painters. Of the 90%, a significant number of the parents are single parents and have had to seek casual employment as far as Johannesburg leaving their children in the care of their old parents. About 5% of the children are orphans and living in child-headed families where the head of the family is a brother or a sister who is just a few years older than the child who goes to the school. The parents in the area and surrounding villages consider the school as a good school and believe that their children should be enrolled so that they can receive a quality education. They intentionally do not enrol their children in primary schools that are near their homes in their respective villages in search of quality education for their children.

1.7. Operational definitions/terms

Bilingual (ism)- Has various definitions such as 'those who use two or more languages or dialects in their everyday lives, and 'those who learn to master two languages in early childhood, and who can move back and forth between the languages effortlessly' (Grosjean, 2010). In this study, it refers to learners who attend a school which implements a bilingual education program.

Biliteracy- The term has been defined in various ways over the years. According to García, Bartlett and Kleifgen (2006), several scholars have defined biliteracy along the lines of acquiring literacy skills such as speaking, reading, writing in two languages within a bilingual education program. These scholars have also tried to define biliteracy learning contexts as either sequential or simultaneous. In this study, the term is used to refer to learners who are in a bilingual education program with biliteracy as an envisaged outcome.

Expository/informational texts- According to Gillam, Fargo and Robertson (2009), expository texts communicate scientifically factual information. In this study, it will be used with this meaning, but also to refer to books that are meant to teach content subjects such as Mathematics for early grades.

Foundation phase- In the South African context, it refers to the first four grades of schooling, Grade R-3 (Department of Basic Education, 2011a). In this study, it interchangeably refers to Grade R-3, and Grades 1-3 as grades which participated in the study.

Multilingual (ism)- is understood to mean the ability to use more than two languages for either speaking, reading and writing. According to (Garcia, 2009), the term is defined as an intertwined translingual use of two languages or more for learning. In this study, it is used interchangeably to refer to both the ability to either speak, read or write in more than two languages, and the translingual use of two or more languages for teaching and learning.

Narrative texts- texts that tell a story which is characterised by actions, emotions, events in circumstances as experienced by people in a particular setting, or cultural background, including narrative informational texts (Hall, Sabey & McClellan, 2005).

Print environment/environmental print- According to Neumann, Acosta, and Neumann (2014) Environmental print refers to written texts, images, and signs which are found in everyday environments. In the case of this study, it includes written texts and images in everyday life environment, including the classroom environment.

Text types/genres- refers to ways in which texts are structured for different purposes and audiences (Maloch & Bomer, 2013). In this study, it refers to narrative texts, expository texts, and narrative, informational texts as genres found in the foundation phase.

1.8. Thesis Overview

This thesis is made up of seven chapters as follows:

- **Chapter 1** introduces the study and shares background on reading literacy development in the early grades for bilingual and multilingual contexts regarding texts, curriculum set-up, the environment, and pedagogical practices;
- **Chapter 2** discusses the theoretical and conceptual frameworks that framed the study, including the literature review on books and the environmental print, text types, links between teacher pedagogy and literacy development, reading comprehension assessment, and the transition from learning to read to reading to learn in the early grade classrooms;
- **Chapter 3** describes the methods used for selecting the population, sampling the participants, instruments used, and data collection and analysis procedures used;
- **Chapter 4** presents findings from the print and environmental print survey;
- **Chapter 5** presents findings from classroom observations and teacher reflective interviews;
- **Chapter 6** presents findings from the biliteracy reading comprehension; and
- **Chapter 7** concludes and chants way forwards for future research and makes recommendations for curriculum planning for reading literacy development in the early grades, teacher training, and teacher pedagogy.

CHAPTER TWO: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This research aimed to investigate how bilingual reading development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in Grades 1-3. Interfaces between the teachers, learners, the languages, and the texts were the focus of exploration in the study.

The previous chapter introduced the study and its purpose and gave a background to the research problem. This chapter outlines a two-dimensional theoretical framework which underpinned the research. Because several issues are at play (such as the learner, the classroom print environment, and teacher beliefs and pedagogy), the two-dimensional theoretical bases of 'cognitive efficiency mechanisms', and 'Socio-cultural frameworks' underpinned the study.

The chapter also outlines a review of literature which focuses on the study aim stated above. Specifically, the literature review focuses on literature on classroom print environment, the interactions that take the place of reading development in the early grades, teachers' experiences and views about teaching and assessing reading comprehension, monolingual and multilingual reading literacy contexts. The chapter also shares a review of the literature about the relationship between teacher beliefs and teaching practices. The chapter concludes by identifying literature gaps.

Theoretical Frameworks

A two-dimensional theoretical framework, namely the Cognitive efficiency mechanism, which includes the simple view of reading, and linguistic interdependence; and Socio-cultural frameworks, which include the continua of biliteracy and translanguaging, framed the study.

2.2. Cognitive Efficiency Mechanism Frameworks

Cognitive efficiency mechanism frameworks are those theories that posit that the brain is self-sufficient and can reach its optimal use in learning (B. Hoffman, Schraw, & McCrudden, 2012). Different parts of the world have developed language education systems from the basis set by theories that posit how children acquire a language and develop literacy. The main theories that have underpinned educational programmes have followed the patterns that emanate from cognitive efficiency view of learning, where instruction is structured to start from simple to complex. First, the cognitive efficiency mechanism from language learning perspectives is described as Atkinson (2010) purports:

Cognitivist cognition

Second language acquisition (even language acquisition) was not only seen in monolingual lenses; it was, for lengthy periods, only viewed as 'cognitive science (Atkinson, 2010), suggesting that the mind and the brain are self-sufficient for cognition. For second language acquisition, this suggests that second language learners engage in the process of learning the systems and rules of the target language separate from contextual aspects.

The notion of the brain being self-sufficient comes from a long history of psychology and psycholinguistics studies. Sinha (2007, p. 3) notes:

> The role of psycholinguistics was firstly to explore human performance limitations, and secondly to quarry data to be yielded up for formal modelling. In both roles, psychology was cast as an under-labourer to super-program of artificial intelligence.

Here, Sinha describes clearly that to try and break-down in simple ways how the human brain works were so to imitate human thought in creating machinery and technology to use it. Interestingly, other fields of study such as language acquisition and reading literacy followed the same patterns from psycholinguistics to understand how learners learn a language or to read, and then how the two can be taught. In reading literacy, Goodman (1967) has since refuted such conceptualisations that

reading is a sequential process, from simple to complex; instead, the author calls reading a 'psycholinguistic guessing game.'

Cognition has historically and generally been viewed as a linear process; this led to the study of language acquisition through psycholinguistics to be viewed in similar ways for lengthy periods. Recent studies, as noted in Sinha (2007) above, have come to find and acknowledge that the cognitivist's cognition is not a linear process and that the mind cannot only be viewed as self-sufficient. Atkinson (2010) analysed two alternatives in which cognition can be perceived in Second Language Acquisition (SLA); the first one is 'extended cognition,' which according to Atkinson details the following:

> Cognition is environmental, making the environment in which language acquisition occurs a part of cognition; cognition is adaptive, suggesting that adaptation of cognitive activity occurs for an uncertain environment; environment is highly structured for cognitive activity, suggesting that the environments are designed to support cognitive-for- action in each instance and that cognition is shared and distributed through socio-cognitive anticipation and synchrony of everyday life activities. (p.600-601)

An inference can be drawn here that the environment has been designed to assist the mind in using its functions optimally with less effort. The second one is embodied cognition' which suggests that cognitive activity is grounded in the state of the body and actions. This suggests that cognitive processes and actions are also biological; the state of biological systems may determine the degree to which a person can use the brain to perform functions.

Even though Atkinson (2010) and Sinha (2007), and many others have shed light that cognition can no longer be viewed in linear lenses and separation from the social contexts, teaching and learning are still approached using the 'simple to complex' methods. Reading literacy, in particular, has also been conceptualised through automaticity and working memory – as discussed below.

Automaticity and working memory

Reading literacy has, to some degree, been studied as an acquisition process that takes place in the short term memory (Harrington & Sawyer, 1992; Perry & Malaia, 2013; Smith, Sáez, & Doabler, 2016). Instruction and intervention programmes for reading comprehension have also taken a linear form, usually from following an approach that is from the simple to the complex. There has also been a great emphasis on reading research to use explicit and systematic instruction. Smith et al. (2016) note that:

> In reading, for example, past and recent research have shown that students with reading difficulties draw significant benefits from instruction that is systematically designed and explicitly delivered (p. 276).

Interestingly, the emphasis on explicit and linear systematic delivery of instruction for learners with reading difficulties has also been emphasised for second language learners (Al-Ghazo, 2016; Ali Al-Qahtani, 2015; Yang & Wang, 2015). Yang and Wang (2015) conducted a study to investigate whether language self-efficacy, language learning strategies, and explicit strategy instruction are correlated in language learning. In their study, the explicit strategy involved five successive steps such as awareness, strategy instruction, hands-on activities, evaluation and diagnosis. They conducted a pre-test post-test experiment which included 78 college English Foreign Language learners in Taiwan. They concluded that learners' affective factors are not easily influenced by only one environmental factor such as the explicit strategy instruction. Learners' affective factors were combinations of motivations, self-efficacy, attitudes, and anxieties. Evidently, emphasis on linearity in language and reading instruction has been influenced by the linearity of the cognitive efficiency mechanisms as described above.

This overview on cognitivist's view of cognition further shed light on the nature of education systems, and it is for this reason that two conceptual frameworks are at the centre of discourses around reading development and reading research in general. They are the 'simple view of reading and linguistic interdependence'; they underpinned

the study to understand reading instruction in the foundation phase. Before the two frameworks are outlined, below is a background on monolingualism in education.

2.2.1. The Simple View of Reading (SVR)

The simple view of reading (SVR) was first coined by Gough and Tunmer in 1986 where they aimed to clarify the role of decoding in reading comprehension, particularly with readers with a reading disability (Gough & Tunmer, 1986). The simple view of reading claims that reading consists of two components: decoding and linguistic comprehension. It acknowledges that reading comprehension is complex, but further argues that the complexities can still be divided into the two components of decoding and linguistic comprehension (Hoover & Gough, 1990). Decoding is defined as the ability to quickly plot a representation from printed input that allows access to the proper entry in the mental wordlist, what they call a 'lexicon.' Linguistic comprehension is defined as the ability to take the etymological information and plot a sentence and some discourse interpretations. It is claimed that the two (decoding and linguistic comprehension) should have a relationship of dependence, where they must have been achieved to certain levels for reading comprehension to take place. In the simple view of reading, it is predicted that poor reading can only be a result of a lack in either decoding or linguistic comprehension, or lack in both.

To reaffirm the simple view of reading, Hoover and Gough (1990) conducted a study with the aim to assess the predictions of the simple view of reading, using a longitudinal sample of 254 Spanish-English Grade 1-4 children in the United States of America, Texas. They used secondary data from a study called 'teaching reading to bilingual children' which they accessed through the Southern Educational Development Laboratory SEDL, collected in 1978 up to 1985. They tracked 210 of the learners in Grade 1, 206 while at Grade 2, 86 while at Grade 3, and 55 who reached Grade 4. Interestingly, the sample consisted of two kinds of Spanish-English bilinguals; one which is said to be of low English oral skills as learners came from a curriculum where Spanish was exclusively used first for learning to read, and English introduced later; and the second one where both English and Spanish were used simultaneously for learning to read (Hoover & Tunmer 1990 p.135). Both programmes had one thing in

common that English would at some point be solely used for instruction. The data included a record of tracked learners yearly on development with focus on cognition, language, and reading in both languages; it also included a record of observations on how the learners were taught as well as teacher interviews. Since the end goal of both programmes was English only instruction, English indices were used in the study.

The public debate on whether reading instruction should follow the phonics or the whole language approach was based on the argument of how children process information in monolingual settings in learning to read. The well-known simple view of reading (SVR) in Hoover and Gough (1990) has described the need for phonics in learning to read in English. They also note that other languages may not need the same kind of instruction as it is easier to recognise individual phonemes in languages such as Spanish; this has been found to be difficult in the English language. Evidently, the SVR model does not account for multilingual settings or learners who are learning English with an already developed reading comprehension ability in a different language.

Unfortunately, even though the phonics instruction is not applicable in the African languages in the South African context, curriculum development for reading to learn in the early grades has followed the phonics approach used for early reading development in the English language.

2.2.2. Linguistic interdependence

Cummins's (1979) work on “Linguistic Interdependence and the Educational Development of Bilingual Children” can be seen to reflect the Canadian context where two dominant languages (English and French) are learned and used for teaching and learning purposes. Cummins’s threshold hypothesis posits that ‘additive bilingualism’ where a bilingual learner has achieved high levels in the first language (L1) and second language (L2) result in positive cognitive effects allowing learners to be academically successful in L2 instruction. ‘Dominant bilingualism’ is where a learner has achieved ‘native-like’ level in one of the languages, and this will neither have positive nor negative cognitive effects on academic success. ‘Semilingualism’ is where a bilingual

learner has achieved low levels in both languages and results in adverse cognitive effects, thus making it a certainty that a leaner will not succeed academically.

The developmental interdependence hypothesis posits that L1 development is a prerequisite for L2 development as skills mastered in L1 can be transferred to L2, without relearning these skills in L2. It is hypothesised that there is an interaction between the language of instruction and the type of competence the child has developed in L1 before school. At least up to 10 years of L1 before L2 can be used as the language of instruction (Cummins, 1979).

For the Canadian context where only two languages of two separate cultures are predominately used, it is reasonably logical that theorisation for bilingual education should first consider how children learn the L2 for instructional purposes; and secondly how the L1 and L2 interact with one another. It is not surprising that thinking about languages as separate entities that only meet at a desired, and planned points could go on for decades without being questioned since French and English communities in Canada live in separate locations, and this disallows natural interactions between the people of the two languages and cultures (Behiels, 2006).

Similarly, in the American context, where English is the language of the Americans, and all the other languages belong to immigrants and minority groups, bilingual education has never been the goal. Immersion and bilingual programmes are meant to initiate the immigrant minority learners into the American language (English) and culture such that the immigrant minority child can be successful in the American English monolingual education system (Cummins, 2009). The Canadian and the American contexts serve to explain contextual theorising for bilingual interdependence with two or more languages treated as parallels for some time within their education systems.

The South African contexts, on the other hand, has its unique perks utterly different from the Canadian and American contexts. South Africa has contexts which are monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual in nature. Multilingualism is also a value which is enshrined in the preamble of the Language in Education Policy for Public schools

(Department of Basic Education, 1997). The current implementation of the language curriculum in schools has the following characteristics:

- Learners in the foundation phase learn to read in a home language (L1) for four years (Grade R-3);
- The home language is used as a language of teaching and learning for four years (Grades R-3);
- First Additional Language (L2/English) is introduced as a subject in Grade 1-3;
- L2 (English) changes to become a language of reading to learn in Grades 4-12; and
- L1 becomes a subject from Grades 4-12.

The value of multilingualism appears far-fetched as this approach does not meet the theoretical conditions for success in transitional bilingual education. First, Cummins (1979) linguistic interdependence, and research on second language acquisition, as cited in Mackey (2006), suggest that a maximum of 10 years is required for an L2 learner to master a second language to proficiency levels adequate to use a language of instruction (Cummins, 1979). In the South African context, learners only have three years to have acquired English, which they start using as a language of instruction in Grade 4. Second, Cummins's (1979) Linguistic interdependence threshold hypothesis posits that 'Additive bilingualism,' where a bilingual learner has achieved high levels in the First language (L1) and Second Language (L2), results in positive cognitive effects allowing learners to be academically successful in L2 instruction. Again, in the South African context, National Annual Assessments show that learners are progressed to Grade 4 without having mastered literacy skills in L1 (Department of Basic Education, 2013b), thus leaving them with no literacy skills to transfer into learning L2. Lastly, the L1 and L2 are treated as monolinguals learned in parallel, with no interaction between them; the use of L2 in Grade 4 and beyond gives the L2 privilege over the L1 (Escobar & Dillard-Paltrineri, 2015). All the points stated above render the plan for the education system in South African to achieve multilingual education, as perceived from the Cummins' notion of bilingualism, hopeless.

Threshold hypothesis

Cummins (1980) posited the threshold hypothesis, which postulates that for a child to benefit from bilingualism, both the levels of L1 and L2 must have developed to a degree where a learner will have adequate cognitive skills to carry out the primary functions of reading. This suggests that for a learner to benefit from both the L1 and the L2 the levels of reading proficiency must have developed to a level where cognitive academic proficiency is reached. (Cummins, 1980) Theorises a distinction between proficiency in everyday language which he referred to as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). He argues that proficiency in everyday language does not translate to proficiency in the academic language. This suggests that a learner who is fluent in L1 will not automatically be fluent in academic discourses of content subjects taught in L1. The same applies to L2, as the ability to converse fluently in L2 does not automatically translate to fluency in academic discourses.

Findings in research on the literacy development of L2 have supported Cummins's developmental interdependence hypothesis (August et al., 2006; Figueredo, 2006; Goodrich, Lonigan, & Farver, 2013). A study conducted by Goodrich et al. (2013) found that even though some skills could not be transferred from one language to another, some central skills could be transferred. These skills included vocabulary knowledge and phonological awareness. Children with high vocabulary knowledge in L1 were able to benefit from the instruction of vocabulary in L2, and the same goes for phonological awareness. The intriguing finding from this study is that the transfer of skills was not a one-way process, that is, it was not a transfer of skills from L1 to L2, but also from L2 to L1. The consideration of developmental interdependence by Goodrich contributes to a notion that even though interdependence cannot be an exact science, but its hypotheses remain valid. It is through the concept of bi-lingual interdependence that this study will assess the levels of comprehension of narrative and expository, in both L1 and L2.

It is also imperative that the culture and the language in which these text types and text structures are understood is taken into consideration. This is to consider the context in which many South African learners go to school, and with most of them

learning to read narratively first in their home languages in the Foundation Phase, and then transitioning to reading expository texts in L2 in the intermediate phase (Pretorius, 2000; Singh, 2010). This consideration will assist in understanding how the language and the culture of the learners, and the school (as they interact with their school environments) contribute to reading comprehension.

Also, what (Cummins, 1979) refers to as the gains of bilingualism in cases where the English as a second language (ESL) learners have acquired necessary language skills in their home languages to be transferred into learning L2 needs to be understood. This will perhaps be better understood in relation to the learners' home languages, and the culture of those languages as indicated earlier.

To conclude on the cognitive efficiency mechanism frameworks, I have elaborated on the cognitivist cognition notion that the brain is self-sufficient for language and literacy acquisition; this notion that has led to complete neglect of the role of socio-cultural context as part of cognition, and as part of language and literacy acquisition.

The studies of neuroscience on the left and right hemispheres of the brain have led to the advocacy for education programmes, including literacy learning and instruction, to be viewed as processes that require linearity and sequence, to move from simple to complex. This is evident in frameworks for biliteracy development such as the L1-L2 developmental interdependence and the Threshold hypotheses where the development of L2 is dependent first, on the development of L1. This linearity is more evident in the nature of education programmes that are bilingual, such as the additive and or subtractive bilingual programmes, with an end goal to produce a monolingual. It is not surprising that the early grades would first be bombarded with narrative texts which are considered simple to learn and to read, and later the expository texts would be introduced (from simple to complex notion). Secondly, the assessment activities of the early grades are structured not to require abstract/complex cognitive ability such as reasoning, but only need them to remember words and their sounds.

2.3. Socio-cultural frameworks

The frameworks of cognitive efficiency mechanisms described above which have wittingly, or unwittingly advocated for monolingual and epistemic access bias have received a fair share of criticism from language acquisition and literacy frameworks that lean towards socio-cultural frames of thought. The theoretical frameworks for the cognitive efficiency mechanisms (in their current form) in reading literacy, and the empirical research that was conducted under it clearly show that the one language at a time and one language for the classroom ideology which has underpinned curriculum development over the years may no longer have space in current global contexts. This is because very few learners, if any, are monolingual (Creese & Blackledge, 2010a).

Socio-cultural frameworks within language studies and reading literacy have come to contest the space of reading literacy research and offer promising alternatives to reading instruction for multi-lingual learners in multilingual contexts, with suggestions to move away from current curriculum design and practices which focus on literacy as an independent cognitive function (Hornberger, 1989). Socio-cultural frameworks acknowledge that literacy also includes the contextual factors of the multilingual learner and how they interact in and with literacy experiences (Atkinson, 2010).

Socio-cultural frameworks purport that cognition is extended and that the brain is not self-sufficient but environmental and embodied; this suggests that the context where learning takes place and the physical state of the learner plays a role in the functions of the mind (Atkinson, 2010). Such theories include the continua of biliteracy (Hornberger, 1989) and translanguaging (Garcia, 2009).

2.3.1. The continua of biliteracy

Biliteracy appears to have been, or still is a fascinating phenomenon for the western world, and in the process of acknowledging that a more sociocultural approach to literacy instruction can yield better literacy acquisition results; the continua of biliteracy became an acceptable model for understanding biliteracy. Hornberger's (1989) model suggests that there are several biliteracy instances that are situated on the same

series of continua. It is said that the understanding of these instances and how they relate to each other; and how bilingual learners can draw from the different continuums will improve their biliteracy development.

The continua of biliteracy as conceptualised herein theorised bilingualism and biliteracy to have continuums that are interrelated; it also suggests that to fully understand biliteracy one should understand its complexity through each continuum and how they relate to one another.

Even though the continua of biliteracy acknowledges the importance of context, to a significant degree it has succumbed to the linearity; that is, one language as a separate entity in one's mind, and the simple to a complex ideology which is embraced in the cognitive mechanisms ideology on literacy/language acquisition.

Researchers on bilingualism, biliteracy, and second language acquisition generally conceptualise the classroom contexts where literacy is said to be taught and learned as a 'neutral' space designed for all learners to naturally synchronise with it. Failure to synchronise renders the multilingual learner a phenomenon to be studied from a defective point of view. Also, the continua of biliteracy acknowledge the importance of social and language contexts that learners bring to the classroom literacy experience. Hornberger (2007) also analysed essays of adult teenage and adult transnational students from the Dominican Republic, Columbia, Bengali, Chabad, and Mexico. The descriptions of the participants' identity and self-narration are said to use a multiplicity of their literacy experiences; in Hornberger's words:

> The youth and adults we meet in these accounts deploy their multilingual, multimodal (bi) literacy practices towards the construction and transformation of their transnational identities and social relations." Hornberger (2007 p. 4)

Even with the increase of diverse classrooms, the practice of teaching and learning remains to be viewed as 'diversity proof,' with no consideration to who is in the classroom. The classroom remains monolingual in nature, and sequential in practice even with the acknowledgement that the real-life human experiences are complex and non-sequential (Murphy & Evangelou p. 268, 2016).

The continua of biliteracy has been a framework used to understand biliteracy since the late 1980s and early 1990s. Hornberger (1989) notes that instead of having L1 versus L2, or monolingual versus multilingual, these can be understood as continuums. She further outlines nine continuums which are said to be three dimensions of contexts of biliteracy, the development of individual's biliteracy, and the media of biliteracy. Hornberger notes that the biliteracy continua partially answers the question on whether the level of literacy knowledge and skills in one language aids or impedes the learning of literacy knowledge and skills in the other language; and whether there will be a transfer of literacy skills and knowledge from one language to another (Hornberger, 1989 p.288).

2.3.2. Translanguaging

Studies in the fields of psychology and linguistics have now found repeatedly, that bilingualism or multilingualism has more gains and should be seen as an essential repertoire that bilinguals and multilinguals can draw from(García et al., 2006; Makalela, 2012). Garcia's et al. (2006) review of existing literature on what has been or is called bi-literacy and the central concepts and theoretical approaches that have been used to study it, showed that there was no theoretical basis for keeping education systems in a transitional bilingualism approach. Garcia et al. (2006) further argued for a 'pluriliteracies' approach in education systems which advocates and emphasises an amalgam of 'plurilingual literacy practices' (p. 12 &13).

Translanguaging purports that more than one language can be used for teaching and learning, where a specific language is used for input, and another for output in a planned, systematic manner. Linguistic and socio-cultural repertoires are seen as core to epistemic access. This suggests that more than one language can be used for teaching and learning simultaneously. It is said that the brain does not have boxes where each language is stored to avoid linguistic cross-contamination; rather the languages co-exist in our minds with fluidity, what Bakhtinians refer to as heteroglossia (Busch, 2014).

There mere existence of translanguaging as a theory instantly dismisses the relevance of linearity of languages in the brain (in the mind). The conceptualisation that

languages are not in separate spaces in the mind, but that the languages are fluid, unquestionably suggests that dominance between languages cannot and or does not exist. Makalela (2015) brings forth the notion of Ubuntu translanguaging, which is defined as a complex interdependence of languages to interrogate current linear approaches to reading literacy instruction in multilingual contexts. Particularly how multilingual readers are expected to participate in learning activities which are cognitively sequenced in a linear manner, from simple to complex. Makalela (2015) argues that simultaneous multiple modes of reading literacy instruction would be more cognitively aligned to the multilingual reader.

Figure 1 below shows how the two-dimensional theoretical framework links to the components under investigation in this study.

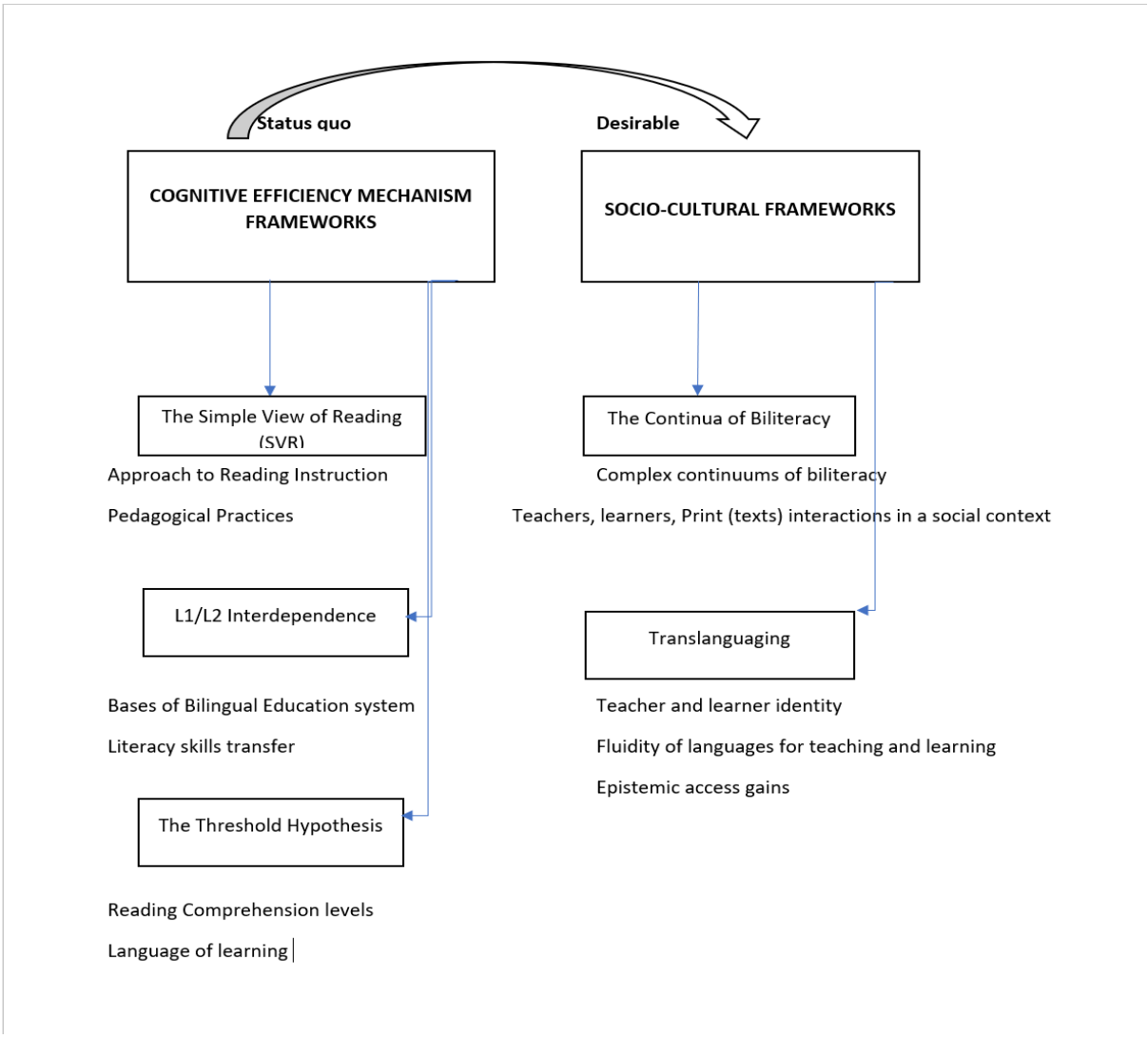


Figure 1: The Two Dimensional Theoretical Framework

As can be seen in figure 1 above, the cognitive efficiency mechanism frameworks can be viewed to underpin the current bilingual education programs and reading instruction. Collectively, the three cognitive efficiency based theories aided the understanding of teacher classroom pedagogy, the transition from learning to read to reading to learn, and the transition from Xitsonga as a language of learning and teaching in the foundation phase, to English as a language of learning and teaching in grade 4 and beyond. While the sociocultural based frameworks aided the understanding of the classroom interfaces between teachers, learners, languages, and texts. At the same time, sociocultural based frameworks supported the understanding of teachers and learners as socio-cultural beings possessing a linguistic repertoire which when tapped upon, grants maximum epistemic access.

Literature Review

This section presents literature reviewed on aspects of reading literacy development. The section starts by presenting a review of the literature on the relationship between teacher beliefs and teacher classroom practices. It first presents a review of literature on the role of the environmental print in literacy development, the role of books and other texts, text types for the early grade classroom, teaching and assessing reading in the early grades, literature review on the learning to read in the early grades and reading to learn in later grades and the historic pathway of separatism of languages in education.

2.4. Teacher beliefs about teaching practice

Studies which related teacher intentions and teacher classroom practices follow the trends of what Argyris and Schon (1978) called ‘The theory of action.’ The theory of action was coined in the field of psychology where they studied organisational structures and management in organisations. Since the theory of actions was based on human behaviour in relation to thought and actions, it has since been applied in educational contexts. The theory of action is not a reading literacy theory, but studies conducted through its basis shed light on the understanding of the relationship between what teachers say they do, and what they do.

The theory of action posits that beliefs in action can only be understood in social acts of particular moments, as there can be a mismatch between belief and action (Agryris & Schon, 1978). In simple terms, what one believes as the principles that guide their actions may differ from the action itself. The acts are seen to derive from a judgement made in a particular circumstance; which may differ from the perceived principles. Argryris and Schon (1978) argue that the distinction should then be made between 'two theories of action' rather than between theory and action. In the context of this study, this suggests that the values and principles which teachers believe their instruction is based on and what they practice in class may not reflect on one another; hence classroom practice should be understood in context rather than the beliefs the teacher holds about their classroom practice.

The theory of action also suggests models for understanding theories in use. The models are single and double-loop learning (Anderson, 1997). These models suggest that what Anderson (1997) refers to as 'governing variable' guides action, and leads to consequences (desirable or undesirable, for self or others), a single-loop will be the suppression of thoughts to take a required action which leads to a consequence. While a double loop would suggest questioning the thoughts, which impacts on the action and consequently impacts on the consequences. Figure 2 below describes the single and double loop regarding the relationship between beliefs and action.

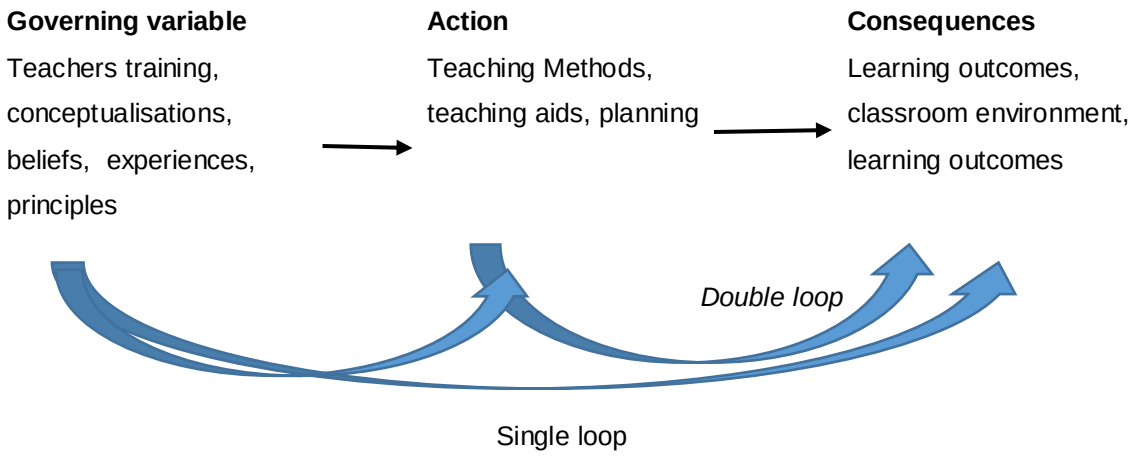


Figure 2: Explaining the model of belief and action

Adapted from (Anderson, 1997): http://www.aral.com.au/resources/argyris.html

The single loop learning approach would suggest that the teacher suppresses his/her governing variables and action teaching methods (usually prescribed) to come to envisaged learning outcomes. On the other hand, the double loop approach would mean that the teacher continually revisits the governing variables, which adapts the teaching approaches, and consequently impacts on the learning outcomes.

Other studies on the links between teacher belief and classroom practice, however, found that teacher beliefs are usually in accordance with theoretical beliefs (Basturkmen, 2012; Kuzborska, 2011; Xu, 2012). Kuzborska (2011) observed 4 English for academic purpose teachers for first-year university students in the teaching of reading. The findings revealed that teachers believe that first-year university students did not need to be taught reading skills as they assumed that at their advanced stage, they should be able to read. Instead of teaching reading skills, teachers gave students reading tasks like homework, and then checked for answers in class. The study concluded that there was a strong relationship between teacher beliefs and classroom practices. Xu (2012) further elaborated that teacher beliefs are in following three folds: the beliefs about learners, about learning, and self, and that when there are discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and classroom practice, learners may receive incoherent information. Xu (2012) differs in perspective with Kuzborska (2011) Xu argues that beliefs can only match practice when teachers commit to a constant critical reflective practice, where they compare what they say they do, and what they do.

Teacher beliefs about pedagogy

There is a direct relationship between the way children organise the classroom and learning materials, and how the teachers think about literacy and its purpose; this, in turn, may constrain children from exploring or asserting their cultural agency as cultural agents amongst their peers (Daniels, 2016).

In the South African context, despite the reality that universities have over the years ignored the need to prepare foundation phase teachers for reading instruction explicitly, there is little or no literature on how teachers perceive literacy and its purpose (Nel, 2012). This has, in turn, resulted in poor reading skills depicted in the Annual

National Assessment (ANA). The 2013 ANA results for the foundation phase, for example, show that learners in Grade 3 obtained an average of between 43.1% and 54.5% in their home languages as used for teaching and learning (Department of Basic Education, 2014).

Even though research has indicated a lack of well-trained teachers to teach reading in the foundation phase and beyond, the Department of Basic Education has included in its Curriculum and Assessment policy statement (CAPS) that the teaching of reading should be intended and explicit in the early grades. The CAPS also suggests approaches to be used for introducing and building on the home and first additional languages from Grades R-3. The number of targeted language skills to be developed in the Foundation Phase has been identified as listening and speaking, reading and phonics (amused by the separation of phonics from the teaching of reading), writing and handwriting, thinking and reasoning; and language structure and use must be integrated into all the other language skills (Department of Basic Education, 2011a). Such an emphasis alone on the instruction of these language skills by the Department of Basic Education does not do justice to the teaching of reading in the early grades as research. As presented in this chapter, it has found that there is a neglect of training teachers for explicit teaching of reading in South African Universities. It is therefore unexpected that teachers will explicitly teach reading comprehension skills, and let alone be fully aware of their assumptions of what reading literacy is, and its purpose.

2.5. Environmental print

Research findings from reading literacy studies have over many years found that the environment is essential for literacy development of children (Kuby & Aldridge, 2004; Prior, 2009; Wolfersberger, Reutzel, Sudweeks, & Fawson, 2004). Reading literacy research on the importance of print literacy environments gained popularity in the early 1980s (Prior, 2009). As cited in Prior (2009), Masonheimer, Drum and Ehri, (1984) first assumed that environmental print does not have benefits as children cannot recognise the units of the words when they are removed from context, for example, they cannot recognise a KFC label as alphabet units when the colours and the pictures of the brand have been removed. Even though learners cannot recognise environmental print text

when removed from context, studies found that the ability to interact with environmental print at home serves as a foundation from which teachers can build word reading upon. Prior (2009, p.10) states that:

> Children construct their knowledge of print through interaction with familiar logos and product labels. At the same time, teachers can use these kinds of materials in an instructional manner to create a transition from reading logos to reading words" .

An earlier study by Kuby and Aldridge (2004) investigated the impact of environmental print instruction on early reading ability. The study was aimed at ascertaining if the ability of kindergarten children to read logos in the environment improved and if they were able to make the transition from reading logos to the reading of a manuscript. They did a quasi-experiment of pre-test and post-test design in six kindergarten classes. Classes were randomly assigned as Control (no instruction using environmental print); treatment (direct instruction using environmental print); and treatment (indirect instruction using constructivist approach). They found that learners who received indirect instruction were able to transition from reading logos to the reading of a manuscript. A similar study was conducted using different methods by Neumann, Acosta and Neumann (2014). They examined the extent to which pre-reading children fixate on words in environmental print. One of the critical questions their study sought to answer was whether visual fixations on environmental print words associated with the letter and word knowledge amongst 39 pre-schoolers. Using the eye tracker measures of attention; they found that the children's fixation was high on words found in environmental print and that there was no relationship between a fixation on the words and word knowledge. They concluded that it is logical that pre-schoolers would not be able to 'know the words' since they were not readers yet. Even with the finding that differs from Kuby and Aldridge (2004) above, Neumann et al. (2014) maintains that;

> The suggestion that children attend to words more in environmental print than in storybooks has important practical implications and encourages the use of environmental print for supporting early print knowledge (p. 164).

Bhuvaneswari and Padakannaya (2017) also conducted a study on environmental print awareness in English and Tamil in Indian Children. The study focused on the bilingual nature of the environmental print where Tamil children were enrolled in an English class. The study findings showed that learners recognised English environmental print than Tamil. The authors asserted that this finding could be because learners were more exposed to English logos on TV than those in Tamil.
From the studies reviewed here, it can be argued that learners are more likely to pay attention to, or recognise environmental print in the classroom when they have been exposed to that print outside of the classroom. It is also evident that even in text salient print environment, learners will be able to recognise words or alphabets which are associated with the ones they were exposed to in their everyday life.

Environmental print plays a vital role in the early reading development of children. With the knowledge that the print environment is essential for reading literacy development, one may question the criteria that can be used to determine the richness or impoverished nature of the classroom environmental print. Wolfersberger et al. (2004) conducted a study with a twofold purpose; first to describe what a print-rich environment entails, and secondly to develop a tool that can be used to assess the classroom environment profile, what they called [CLEP]. They used techniques which included literature review; classroom observations based on an in-depth examination of salient elements identified from a literature review; teacher focused groups on validating classroom observations; and audit trail view. The sample included 13 randomly selected schools in a suburban district in K-6 classrooms. Four school sites were purposefully selected for observations, and 34 teachers were randomly selected for focus groups. Wolfersberger and colleagues found in the literature review that “the four dimensions of print-rich classroom environments include: (a) provisioning the classroom with literacy tools or props, (b) positioning or arranging literacy tools within the classroom, (c) participating in literacy events using literacy tools or props, (d) promoting literate interactions in the classroom using literacy tools and props. The ‘classroom environment profile’ (CLEP) assessment tool was developed to assess the four dimensions of the print-rich environment as described above.

Considering the importance of the classroom environmental print, one may wonder what bearing the environmental print for reading development research have on this

study. This is because one of the objectives of this study was to trial the efficacy of exposure to the texts in enhancing deeper comprehension levels in both Xitsonga and English, and in both narrative and expository texts. This study objective would not be achievable without considering the print environment of grade 1-3 classrooms learners in the participating classrooms are exposed to, and how teachers integrate the print environment directly or indirectly in their reading instruction.

What can be taken from the studies reviewed herein in relation to this study is that children will pay attention to print in a form and language they have interacted with more before. That is, even if the print is in their language and they can read, they still would not automatically pay attention to that print. Consequently, the bilingual nature of environmental print in the case of bilingual classrooms may not suggest that learners identify the print in Xitsonga more than English. In the same light, older children are more likely to have a longer attention span on any reading task, including on print environment than younger children (Van Den Boer, Van Bergen, & de Jong, 2015). Other studies have emphasized the importance of balancing locally created texts and imported texts on the classroom walls (Hoffman & Schallert, 2004). Hoffman and Schallert however emphasize that locally created texts are more meaningful for literacy learning experiences because they represent the langauge, culture, and lived experiences of the learners.

Home literacy experiences

Similar to environmental print, home print and literacy experiences have, to some degree, been found to contribute towards literacy development in young children (Boyle, 2014; Burgess et al., 2002; Manolitsis, Georgiou, & Tziraki, 2013; Sénéchal & Lefevre, 2014). According to Burgess, Hecht and Lonigan (2002), Home Literacy Experience (HLE) is viewed as social status measures or shared reading experiences.

In simple terms, home literacy experiences are those experiences that a child has in interacting with the written word through family socialisation. The main questions to ask in relation to home literacy environment are; how do children with varied home literacy experience benefit from formal instruction once they start with formal

schooling? What counts as 'home reading experience'? To answer these questions, I first share descriptions of the conceptualisations of HLE as seen in Burgess, Hetch, and Lonigan (2002) which were coined to form the following:

- "Limiting environment"- Home literacy experience is conceptualised as the parents' socio-economic status, level of education and reading ability. This suggests that the children's preschool home literacy experience can be seen to be dependent on these factors which could limit the experience.
- "Literacy Interface"- here Home literacy experiences are conceptualised as the parent's participation in literacy activities with the child, such as shared reading and the parents' view on the importance of reading.
- "Passive HLE"- home literacy experience is conceptualised to mean that children indirectly learn from their parents by observing the activities such as reading a book or a new paper, and watching informal television programmes. Even though not designed to teach through these activities, parents model to their children that such activities are desirable.
- "Active HLE"- home literacy experience involves intentional efforts by parents to initiate and to participate in literacy activities with specific and expected outcomes. These activities could include board games and shared reading activities.

The above conceptualisations of home literacy experience describe what counts as literacy experiences in studies that examined the effectiveness of home literacy experiences. Unfortunately, this impact can only be measured to some level of reliable accuracy in cases of "active HLE." This is because children who grow up in homes where "passive HLE" is taking place or not, their success or lack thereof in literacy development cannot be linked to the home literacy experiences since they are unknown. Regarding what is known about the impact of literacy experiences in the literacy development of children, Manolitsis et al. (2013) conducted a study to examine how home literacy and numeracy environment in kindergarten can influence reading and math acquisition in Grade 1. In their one-year longitudinal study, they asked parents/families of 82 Home Language Greek children to fill a 'home literacy' questionnaire; and tested the 4-5 years old children three times: at the beginning of

kindergarten, at the end of kindergarten, and the beginning of Grade 1. They found that in children whose parents reported formal or active home literacy experiences, reading fluency could be predicted in grade 1 through the effects of letter knowledge and phonological awareness. They also reported that children whose parents reported informal or passive HLE, reading fluency could be predicted in Grade 1 through the effects of vocabulary and phonological awareness. On a note in their study finding is that in both cases (Formal & inform HLE) phonological awareness could not be directly predicted in Grade 1.

Home literacy experiences play a significant role in how learners benefit from formal instruction ones they start formal schooling in Grade R (Kindergarten). I must note that this study does not intend to examine the effects of home literacy experiences; but intends to consider the community literacy experiences in a rural South African context to predict how learners in Grades 1-3 in the Xitsonga Bi-lingual education context may benefit or not benefit from formal instruction for reading literacy development in Grades 1-3. The analysis of the community literacy practices will give insight into the general narrative literacy practices experienced by children in the case of this study.

Even though socio-cultural frameworks such as the continua of biliteracy and translanguaging offer a promising alternative in creating an environment for optimum literacy development for the multilingual learner, little has been done to explore the possibilities of a sociocultural approach for the reading literacy curriculum for the early grades in a rural bilingual South African context. Hence, this study aimed to determine the status quo of the literacy experiences on Grades 1-3 Xitsonga/English bilingual learners in terms of exposure to print through teachers' pedagogical practices and their reflections on such practices.

Literacy development, culture, and identity

Literacy skills are critical to the realisation of academic, economic, and social achievements for all citizens of any country (Unesco, 2015). In South Africa, for example, a direct correlation can be drawn between Grade 12 results and the reading literacy skills that students bring along from previous grades; this also translates to the

students' academic experiences once they enrol at institutions of higher learning (Bharuthram, 2012).

In the English speaking countries like the United States, the reading activity is, to some degree, never viewed as a conception from particular cultural perspectives, but as a neutral process of decoding words and conceiving their meaning (Hall, 1980). This, according to Hall, cannot be true as the meaning of words is influenced by one's experiences of the world and in the world. As Hall puts it:

> Simple visual signs appear to have achieved a 'near-universality' in the sense: though evidence remains that even apparently 'natural' visual codes are culture specific (p. 95).

Even though links have been made between non-English speakers and poor academic performance in the reading of English and content subjects taught in English, the efforts to assist the non-English speakers in leaning towards neutrality of the reading experience (Tedick & Wesely, 2015). This is evident in the design of education systems in the English speaking countries, which do not affirm the linguistic and cultural repertoires of non-speakers of English but make a great effort to teach or train them to 'know' like monolinguals or native English speakers. Doing this, wittingly or otherwise, renders the non-native English speakers' ways of knowing as irrelevant (Flores, 2013). This is characterised by the pretence that the non-English speaker's experience of knowledge construction is flawed and is not recognisable by the assessment of meaning-making (supposed neutral) systems of the school (Choi, 2015).

This has over the years led to suppressed identities by non-speakers of English to be able to survive within the schooling system and in the world of work. This suppression of identities is, in fact, a cumbersome daily activity of self-psyching, getting oneself into character to function within an education system and world of work which only accepts a particular character coined from a set of one cultural background (Ryan & Viete, 2009).

What then does culture and identity mean in the context of reading bi-literacy development amongst young readers in a rural context; in which context the young readers, as non-speakers of English, are to learn English to proficiency levels such that it can be used for purposes of teaching and learning? Daniels (2016) conducted a study to explore ways in which children's yearning to express cultural agency (as cultural agents) drives them to draw upon the classroom and learning (or teaching) materials in order to make meaning and examine how the classroom and the learning materials mediate the experiences. After observing children aged 4 to 5 as they interacted with learning materials without adult supervision for one year, the researcher found that how the children organised the classroom and the learning materials related significantly to how the teachers conceived literacy and its purpose (since they select learning materials for their class).

The situation described above either constrains or enables the children's opportunity to explore or assert their cultural agency. In relation to the children, Daniels (2016) found that the children acted as socially skilled with the ability to fluidly collaborate and integrate the classroom space, the learning materials, and the texts into their play. They did so by using their experiences, interests, and knowledge to move in and out of the rules of the games they were playing, clearly displaying that they understood that the rules of the game are negotiable, open to question and are fluid. The children in this study were observed in the North England context where English is the only language (with some dialects), and where teaching and learning take place in English. Even in the aforesaid monolingual context, the issue of cultural agency and cultural experiences played a role in how the children fluidly negotiated the rules of the game. At least the children in this study had a language through which they could negotiate in, with peers who could understand what was being negotiated without difficulty.

The issues of language ownership, culture and identity always come to the fore when matters relating to using one's 'own language' for learning to read and reading to learn are being discussed (Norton, 1997). In her earlier studies, Norton noted that the issue of language and identity is a complex and a multifaceted one. Duff and Uchida (1997) maintain that language and culture are to some degree inseparable. The logical question is: what is culture? Duff and Uchida (1997) describe it as a 'dynamic negotiation site' and thus cannot be defined or described as just a set of rules or

conceptions. In this understanding, where language and culture are not separable, two people cannot have the same identity simply because they speak the same language, or come from the same neighbourhood. Rather, they all negotiate their identities in a given space and time.

The negotiation of identity can be seen in Seilhamer's (2015) study who examined different ways in which six Taiwanese female college students identified with the level of the ownership of the English language. The researcher analysed the levels of ownership based on three areas: prevalent use (extent of English language use), affective belonging (emotional attachment to the English language), and legitimate knowledge (proficiency in the English language). After observing and interviewing these students, it was found that four of the students identified with English in all the three areas, while two of the students could not claim full ownership of English because they believed they lacked legitimate knowledge of the language. Although the study was conducted with college students, what is key here is the role one's identity with a language plays in the learning of a language, and learning in a language; as Duff and Uchida (1997) put it, how does one dynamically negotiate on-site in a language they do not claim ownership of? Moje and Luke (2009) reviewed five metaphors (Identity as difference, subjectivity, mind, narrative, and position) in literacy and identity research. One of their concluding remarks was that the relationship between identity and learning literacy (and or learning in literacy) is unavoidable.

Taking the bilingual context of the school within the South African context described earlier in this thesis, and in this chapter; a lot of assumptions are made about how bilingual readers who are non-native speakers of English are to negotiate any rules in the learning of content subjects after only three years (Grades 1-3) of learning English. Supposedly, they must have learnt English to proficiency levels such that it can be solely used for teaching and learning.

2.6. Books in the early grade classrooms

It has become generally accepted that the availability of books and their quality is essential in the reading literacy development experiences for early grade readers

(Christensen & Valadez, 2017). This being the case, it is observable from literature that the reading literacy development discourse has shifted in developed countries from the number of books in the classroom to issues such as the quality of the books; the quality of the interactions with the books (McBride-Chang, 2013; Snow & Matthews, 2016); language variations of the books and in the books (Busch, 2014); the text genres of the books (Yopp & Yopp, 2012), and the general quality of the literacy environment for the early grade classrooms (Feng, Gai, & Chen, 2014).

Notwithstanding that the discourse in relation to books has shifted, developing countries such as South Africa are still grappling with issues of scarcity of resources in the classrooms, mainly books. Thus, the issue of the quantity of books available in the classroom library is still relevant in the South African context. There is no uniformity regarding what counts as an adequate number of books per learner and or per grade. According to Wolfersberger, Reutzel, Sudweeks and Fawson (2004), an adequate number of books will have a ratio of 10 books to 1 learner, and not less than 100 books in the classroom. Other scholars such as Allington and Cunningham (2002) suggest that primary classrooms should have between 700 and 750 books.

In the same light, Paton-Ash & Wilmot (2015) conducted a study to understand some of the challenges faced by ten schools and their libraries and how these schools respond to them in the Gauteng province of South Africa. They found that schools in townships had poorly stocked libraries from donated books, with many of the books being age-inappropriate, and not informed by language complexity. Fee-paying schools, on the other hand, had enough funds to purchase books to stock the libraries with age appropriate and language related books. Already, links have been made between the availability of books or the classroom literacy environment and reading literacy development in the South African context (Pretorius & Lephalala, 2011). While provinces such as Gauteng and the Western Cape are considered to be urban and more developed than provinces such as Limpopo and the Eastern Cape, which are considered to be rural and underdeveloped; the report of the 2011 National Education Infrastructure Management Systems report (NEIMS) indicates that the entire Limpopo province recorded 293 schools with libraries out of 3923 schools at the time (Hindle, 2008). Out of the 293 schools, only 95 schools had stocked libraries, suggesting that about 198 of the libraries did not have adequate reading materials (Department of

Basic Education, 2011c). Consequently, the quality of literacy development experiences for children in the schools without libraries or stocked libraries is assumed to be inadequate to prepare them for the academic journey.

Nassimbeni and Desmond (2011) conducted a study to learn the impact of the availability of books on primary school children who grew up in print impoverished environments. Their study revealed that children's frequency of voluntary reading and participation in classroom activities increased. They emphasised, though, that the availability of books in the classroom was not adequate to solve the South African challenge of poor reading skills, but that proper training of teachers in using the available books to teach reading would be more beneficial.

2.7. Text types in the early grades

Many curriculum programmes in many countries have been designed from a view that children should be exposed to narrative texts in the early grades, and to introduce expository texts later in their schooling lives (Akhondi, Malayeri, & Samad, 2011). Deliberations on the text types that the different early grades reading curricular require to achieve high cognitive reading development for success in schooling in different countries have been going on since, or even before the 1980s. Englert and Hiebert's (1984) work can serve as an example of early works on the importance of text selection for early reading instruction. Englert and Hiebert (1984) investigated the effects of four major types of expository texts on the comprehension performance of third and six graders. They found that knowledge of text structure was significantly related to reading ability. After some studies were conducted on whether to have narrative texts only in the early grades or have a balance of both narrative and expository texts it has since become apparent that a balance between narrative and expository texts is necessary for the early grades (Hall, Sabey, & McClellan, 2005).

Despite the disquiet on the use of large quantities of narrative texts in the early grades, and the importance of including expository texts, Yopp and Yopp (2012) attest that this is not without acknowledgement that narrative texts have been found to kindle interest

in young children to read. Dreher and Kletzien (2015), for example, analysed lists of recommended books to determine whether they include a higher percentage of expository texts in 10 years from 2001/2002 to 2011/2012 in K through 3 (grade R-3 in South African context) classrooms in the United States. They identified all recommended books from the National Sciences Teachers Association (NSTA), National Curriculum Standards for Social Studies (NCSS), including the teachers' choice lists for 2001, 2002, 2011, and 2012. These books were categorised as fiction (realistic fiction, myths, fables, and poetry) and non-fiction (expository, narrative-informational, and poetry). They found that recommended expository textbooks had increased from 25.7% in 2001-2002 to 31.3% in 2011-2012. They noted that this finding indicates that even with the increase of expository texts by 5.6% over ten years, there were still a few recommended expository texts for grades K-3.

The general scarcity of expository texts in the early grades is notably of concern in reading and literacy research, and suggestions have been made over the years to include more expository texts into the early grade classrooms (Diakidoy, 2014; Duke, 2000; Englert & Hiebert, 1984; Hall et al., 2005; Hines et al., 2010; Marzban & Seifi, 2013; McCown & Thomason, 2009; Montelongo & Berber-Jimenez, 2006). There has been a level of silence on text genres selection for reading in the early grades in the South African context. Having noted such a concern in the scarcity of expository texts in the early grades, this study examined the text types or genres that are available for reading in the foundation phase (Grades 1-3) in Xitsonga (L1) and English (L2). This study shares a rather unique insight into what is known about the use of expository and narrative texts in the early grades from a bilingual perspective in a South African context. It also trialled the efficacy of exposing early readers to expository texts in two languages.

The many studies that focused on genres of texts in the early grades, as seen in the literature above, have mainly focused on monolingual settings. The American context in which Dreher and Kletzien (2015) conducted their study, for example, was monolingual in nature. One would wonder as to why the context matters when trialling efficacy of exposure to expository texts in the early grades. I consider the roles of literacy skills, monolingualism, and bilingualism to explain this importance. In a South African context, for example, where the curriculum is implemented in practice indicates

that grade R (first year of formal schooling for most children), the home language is the only language used to teach learners to read. In grade 1, English is introduced as a subject. In grade 2 to 3, English must have been acquired to adequate proficiency level by the end of Grade 3 to be used as a language of teaching and learning at the beginning of Grade 4.

Ideally, learners are supposed to be able to transfer the literacy skills learned in the home language into using English to read to learn; these literacy skills were taught using narrative texts in their home languages. In most South African contexts, these narrative texts in African home languages are scarce (Nassimbeni & Desmond, 2011). In grade 4, English is used for reading to learn, and home language is taught and learned as a subject.

In essence, the well-known *4th-grade slump* in a South African context described has the potential to be what I will call a 'multiple slump.' First, a period of four years (Grade R-3) of learning to read in a home language is not adequate to master literacy skills. Second, the three years (grades 1-3) for English acquisition are not adequate. Third, the inadequate home language literacy skills are just 'very inadequate' to be transferred into English; and lastly, it is logical to assume that the lack of literacy skills to discern expository texts and their structures in a home language leaves the learners with 'absent' literacy skills to transfer to discerning expository texts in English in Grade 4 and beyond.

The scarcity of expository texts in the early grades is considered a contributing factor to the challenges faced by Grade 4 learners as they begin to require reading skills for expository texts for the purpose of learning (Calo, 2011). In countries where the issues of text selection have been and are being deliberated upon, the deliberations mostly question the availability and use of large quantities of narrative texts and the scarcity of expository texts in early grade classrooms, particularly the benefits or lack thereof of using narrative and expository texts for reading instruction (Dreher & Kletzien, 2015; Jeong, Gaffney, & Choi, 2010; Ness, 2011).

Studies that investigated the nature of exposure to text types in monolingual settings, and how such exposure or lack impacts on comprehension, have often found that even

in monolingual settings learners struggle to comprehend the types of texts that they were not exposed to in the early reading development stages. Ness (2011) investigated teachers' attitudes toward informational texts and the frequency with which K-5 teachers use informational texts in their routine classroom instruction. An open-ended questionnaire was used among 318 K-5 teachers over eight months from 6 states. The findings revealed that the number of minutes spent on informational texts during daily classroom instruction in Grades K-5 ranged from a minimum of 0 minutes to a maximum of 100 minutes, with a mean of 31.55 minutes per day across Grades K-5. The availability of informational texts was in the average of 32.77% across Grades K-5. Teachers had a positive attitude towards informational texts; however, they indicated their perceived challenges about informational texts included the following: instructional time constraints, lack of quality resources, curricular limitations, and disengaged learners. Of note is the anecdotal comment made by a few of the teachers who participated in Ness's (2011) study stating ' informational text didn't lend itself to the opportunity to curl up with a favourite book in the way that narrative text does."' For many teachers, this anecdote may serve as an example of why and how they select text genres for their classrooms with an effort to 'engage' their learners as it is assumed that learners will find narrative texts more appealing than expository texts. According to Ness (2011), one of the challenges that teachers experienced in relation to using expository texts is 'curricular limitations.' Teachers expressed that the curricular limitations played a role in their choice to use, or not to use expository texts in their reading instruction. This finding relates to Yopp and Yopp's (2012) attestation that the school curriculum is designed in a manner that does not suddenly take away the narrative nature of the ability to communicate in one's language in an effort to develop interest and motivation for reading.

When reviewing a set of previously published articles on the effects of explicitly teaching text structure from early grades, Namjoo and Marzban (2014) found that many of the studies agreed on the positive effects of two cognitive domains related to the instruction of critical thinking and text structures of the expository texts. Transitioning from narrative texts to expository texts is not the only challenge faced by learners in the intermediate phase, but there are a few more other challenges that have been revealed by some studies. The most relevant for this study is 'the South African context where many South African children attend schools which teach in L2

(at least expected to teach in L2) while the children's language is an indigenous language (Pretorius, 2000; Singh, 2010). This, in essence, means that not only are the learners expected to transition from narrative texts to more expository texts, but they are also expected to have acquired enough second language skills to be able to use them for learning in the intermediate phase and beyond. Considering the research findings that have shown that many South African children do not acquire adequate literacy skills (in their home languages, which is said to hamper the transfer of the skills into learning a second language), it is logical that these learners will experience difficulty when faced with expository texts as they progress to the intermediate phase. This becomes a critical transition as they do not only transition into a new phase but also into an academic level that requires the use of a different set of language skills and for a different purpose.

To better conceptualise the transition from one text type to another, we must first understand the difference between these text types. A definition of narrative and expository text by Hall, Sabey and McClellan (2005) will be used in this study as follows:

> Narrative texts are those texts that tell a story which is characterised by actions, emotions, events in circumstances as experienced by people in a particular setting, or cultural background; expository texts, on the other hand, are those texts that communicate factual information.

2.8. Teaching and assessment of reading comprehension in the early grades

In South Africa, few studies have been conducted to understand the literacy development crisis which has been evident through national and international assessments (Murris, 2016; Zimmerman, 2014). So far, the Annual National Assessment (ANA) and the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) have been the only sources of information about the literacy levels of learners in a few grades. Specifically, research on the classroom practices which keep the literacy development at alarmingly low levels is not available to help fully understand literacy development issues in South Africa. Even so, very few studies have attempted to look into literacy development issues but with not much depth and continuity, particularly

from rural contexts. Emanating from the 2006 PIRLS, Zimmerman (2014) observed six Grade 4 reading classrooms to explore in-depth the strategies used by teachers to teach reading literacy and reading comprehension. Amongst the classrooms observed, three were rated as high performing in the 2006 PIRLS international benchmark, while the other three ranked low as per the PIRLS international benchmarks (see table 2 below). They found that there is a relationship between the rate of performance and teaching strategies employed by teachers in the teaching of reading comprehension. For example, they found that low performing schools selected poor quality texts, poorly presented lessons, and poor teacher-learner interactions. An important finding in this study was that teachers in Grade 4 did not focus enough on high order comprehension development which may emanate from a lack of understanding of its importance. Zimmerman (2014) notes that teachers appear to lack knowledge and skills for teaching and to assess reading literacy which may emanate from their initial training, exacerbated by the new curriculum statement known as CAPS which was introduced in 2011. CAPS is described by Zimmerman to be prescriptive in the use of workbooks which takes away the teacher's choice for text for reading comprehension lessons.

The 2006 and 2011 PIRLS results rated South African Grade 4 literacy results as the lowest in all participating education systems. Unfortunately, the 2016 PIRLS is no different (Howie, Combrink & Roux, 2017). For 2016, Grade 4 PIRLS is reported to have been offered in 11 official languages. Despite this, the South African mean compared to the international mean were still alarmingly low (see table below).

Table 2: South African Grade 4 learners at PIRLS 2016 International Benchmarks

PIRLS 2016 international benchmarks	Benchmark descriptions		International Median	RSA Grade 4 Median
	Literary texts	**Informational texts**		
Advanced(625)	**Interpret** story events and character actions to describe reasons, motivations, feelings, and character development with full text-based support **Begin to evaluate the effect** on the reader of the author's language and style choices	**Differentiate and deduce** complex information from different parts of the text, and **offer full text-based support** **Incorporate** information across a text to **explain relationships** and **sequence of activities** **Begin to evaluate visual and textual elements** to consider the author's point of view	**10%**	**0.2%**
High (550)	**Locate and distinguish** significant actions and details embedded across the text **Make inferences** to explain relationships between intentions, actions, events, and feelings, and give text-based support **Interpret and integrate** story events and character actions, traits, and feelings as they develop across the text **Recognize the use of some language features** (e.g., metaphor, tone, imagery)	**Locate and distinguish** relevant information within a dense text or a complex table **Make inferences** about logical connections to provide explanations and reasons Integrate textual and visual information to interpret the relationship between ideas **Evaluate and make generalizations** about content and textual elements	**37%**	**15%**
Intermediate (475)	**Independently locate, recognize, and reproduce** explicitly stated actions, events, and feelings **Make straightforward inferences** about the attributes, feelings, and motivations of main characters **Interpret obvious reasons and causes**, recognize evidence, and give examples **Begin to recognize language choices**	**Locate and reproduce two or three pieces of information** from text **Make straightforward inferences** to provide factual explanations **Begin to interpret and integrate** information to order events	**35%**	**6%**
Low (400)	**Locate and retrieve** explicitly stated information, actions, or ideas **Make straightforward inferences** about events and reasons for actions **Begin to interpret story events** and central ideas	**Locate and reproduce explicitly** stated information from the text and other formats (e.g., charts, diagrams) **Begin to make straightforward inferences** about explanations, actions, and descriptions	**14%**	**15%**

Source: (http://timssandpirls.bc.edu/; (Howie et al., 2017)

As reported in Howie et al. (2017), about 78% of Grade 4 South African children did not reach the lowest achievement level (400) as compared to the 4% internationally; with only 0.2% reaching the advanced level (625). Amid poor reading literacy in the foundation and intermediate phases, Murris (2016) stresses that there is a mismatch between the identified literacy problems and their solutions. The phonics approach implied in CAPS and implemented in various ways in classrooms cannot be the solution to the literacy development crisis in South Africa. Murris suggests that classroom literacy experiences through quality texts and activities that foster high order thinking will at least attempt to solve the literacy development crisis.

In developed countries like the United States, some assessment tools have been developed to assess reading comprehension. The Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) and the Test of Reading Comprehension (TORC) are examples of tools that have been developed to assess reading. The International Reading Association (IRA), now called the International Literacy Association (ILA) has also developed what they call Informal Reading Inventories which are used as diagnostic tools to assess reading comprehension and other aspects of reading, and for many other purposes (Provost, Lambert, & Babkie, 2010). This is different from a developing country such as South Africa, where the source of information on reading literacy development has been from national and international assessments such as ANA, PIRLS, and NEEDU. Teachers are not able to assess the reading literacy development of their learners so as to devise ways and means to improve classroom practice towards better reading literacy development experiences.

2.9. From learning to read to reading to learn

Studies have repeatedly found that it can take English language learners (ELL) between five to seven years to achieve proficiency in English for academic purposes (August, Mccardle, & Shanahan, 2014; Jim Cummins, 1980). For many South African children, beginning to read expository texts in the 4th grade is not the only challenge, as they are expected to make this change using a second language which is generally English or Afrikaans (Department of Basic Education & Republic of South Africa, 1997). At this stage, many South African children are introduced to a new way of

thinking about reading, and a new purpose for reading which they have not experienced in the Foundation Phase even in their home languages. This is because of the nature of the curriculum in South Africa where the purpose for the Foundation Phase (Grades R-3) is to learn to read, and the purpose of the Intermediate Phase (Grades 4-6) is to read to learn. This curriculum design is not only a South African issue but has been a norm in other countries around the world. In the United States, a phenomenon where young readers have not reached the desired reading level by the end of Grade 3 which leads to challenges in reading texts for learning purposes in grades beyond Grade 3 has been reported.

Several studies have attributed the challenges in reading for learning to a lack of balance in exposure between narrative and expository texts (Best, Floyd, & Mcnamara, 2008; Duke, 2000; Jeong, Gaffney, & Choi, 2010). Jeong et al. (2010), for example, conducted a study where they examined differences in the proportion of informational texts across second, third, and fourth grades in order to determine if there could be a perpetual explanation for the fourth-grade slump's support. They coded available print materials in 15 classrooms with five classrooms per grade, and they analysed time spent with texts in written language activities by text type. They found that less experienced teachers displayed more informational texts than their experienced colleagues. Sixty percent of the displayed print were informational in grade 2. The ratio of informational to narrative texts did not increase with grade level. Time spent with expository texts was less than 3.6 minutes a day in 2nd grade and 16 minutes a day at 3rd and 4th grades. Teachers did not have a balance of narrative and informational texts in their classrooms across grade levels, and there was a comparatively low level of informational texts in fourth-grade classrooms even though time spent with informational texts had improved. Consequently, learners will be more familiar with the text type they are mostly exposed to. The limited exposure to expository texts which are most prevalent in grades beyond grade 3 consequently does a disservice to the readers as they are more likely to struggle with the comprehension of such texts.

2.10. Monolingualism in education

One language at a time and one language for the school has been a principle for the education system in the United States and many parts of the world; to a high degree, this has been viewed as a standard norm (King & King, 2006, p. 22). Within language acquisition studies, monolingualism is normalised and promoted. King and King (2006) noted that even though bilingualism and multilingualism have been perceived for many decades to lead to low intelligence and adverse effects on cognitive abilities, a shift had to be made to accommodate bilingualism and multilingualism in language acquisition. The shift came after a study by Peal and Lambert (1962), where they examined the effects of bilingualism on intellectual functioning of children and explored the relationships between bilingualism, school achievement, and student attitudes towards the second language community. They compared results of 10-year English-French bilinguals and English or French monolinguals from 6 French Schools. They reported that the bilinguals had a more significant number of separate or independent abilities on which to draw from in completing the tests as compared to their monolingual peers who had fewer (Peal & Lambert, 1962, p16). Most significant is the finding that in all the tests taken, the monolinguals did not outperform the bilinguals. This study has since been a turning point from notions that bilingualism causes 'linguistic handicap' or mental confusion as earlier studies had suggested.

South Africa, like many other countries in the world, has adopted an additive and transitional bilingual education system. The Language in Education Policy of the Department of Basic Education, 1997) does not prescribe that English be used as a language of teaching and learning, but suggests that all learners will take at least one approved language as a subject starting from Grade 1 onwards. Singh (2010) has noted that in practice, schools are expected to use the language which is categorised as the learners' 'Home Language' [HL] as a language for learning to read and for all teaching and learning purposes from Grade R-3 (Foundation Phase). English (which is categorised as a First Additional Language [FAL]) is then offered as a subject from Grade 1-3, in cases where it is not a 'Home language' for learners. In Grade 4, the FAL becomes the language for reading to learn, as more content subjects like Technology and Social Sciences are introduced; the HL becomes a subject.

The transitional bilingual education system described above is supported by theories in linguistic studies that suggest that learners must first acquire reading literacy skills in the home language which can be transferred into learning reading literacy skills in a second language to be used as a language of teaching and learning. The Language in Education Policy notes in its preamble that there are several opinions that exist as what can be considered a locally viable approach towards 'multilingual education'. These range from arguments that favour the cognitive benefits and cost-effectiveness of teaching through one medium, preferably of a home language, and learning additional languages as subjects; and to those that draw on comparative international experience which demonstrates that, under appropriate conditions most learners benefit cognitively and emotionally from 'structured bilingual education' found in dual-medium and/or immersion programmes. It is said that the underlying principle is to maintain home languages while providing access to the acquisition of additional languages.

The South African education in language policy does not strictly prescribe that home language be replaced by English as a language of teaching and learning from Grade 4 and beyond. The question that remains is: why then do mainstream formal education invariably replace the use of home languages for instruction with English? Several studies have been conducted to understand why this is so. Many of these studies have focused on parental preferences to language(s) that they want their children to learn and to be instructed in (Kamwangamalu & Tovares, 2016).

The cognitive efficiency mechanism theories reviewed in the theoretical framework section also follow the principles of cognitive efficiency mechanisms in that reading in the 'Simple view of reading (SVR) was conceptualised from a monolingual lens, while the L1-L2 linguistic interdependence is conceptualised from simple to complex lenses.

2.11. Chapter summary

This chapter presented theoretical bases which underpinned this study. It first presented the cognitive efficiency mechanism framework which was discussed

through two conceptual frames, where the simple view of reading underpinned the understanding of reading comprehension in biliteracy contexts from cognitive stances, while the linguistic interdependence aided the conceptualisation of the relationship between L1 and L2 towards literacy development.

The chapter further presented socio-cultural frameworks through two conceptual frames; that is, the continua of biliteracy and translanguaging which underpinned the conceptualisation of reading comprehension as more than just a cognitive process, but also as a social process within a specific context. The last section of this chapter describes the contrasting views of the co-existence of the languages in the brain or mind, and how the conceptualisation of this co-existence has served as the basis for education systems and classroom practices around the world.

The chapter also outlined a review of the literature on teacher beliefs about their teaching practice. It further outlined literature on the literacy and biliteracy reading development, with focus on the literacy environment which included books in the classrooms, environmental print, print genres, teacher beliefs about pedagogy and experiences of pedagogy, and reading challenges from different contexts.

A common literature gap identified in this chapter is that there is little known in the literature about biliteracy reading development from rural contexts and how the biliteracy reading experiences in the foundation phase may consequently impact reading comprehension beyond the foundation phase.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The study sought to investigate how bilingual reading development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in the foundation phase. The previous chapter outlined the conceptual frameworks which have governed the curriculum design for second language instruction and reading instruction in particular in countries around the world. It also outlined the literature reviewed concerning research findings for reading instruction for young readers from bilingual and or multilingual contexts.

This chapter describes the research paradigm and methods which were used for data collection and data analysis procedures. It outlines the research design, describes the population in a case under study, it spells out the sampling technique used, the validity and reliability of data collection tool and processes, and shares limitations in the study. It also outlines the ethical matters which were considered in interacting with the population and sample before, during and after data collection. It details all the steps taken in the data collection and analysis processes and in ensuring that data collected answered the research questions. It is hoped that at the end of this chapter, a clear picture of internal validity, external validity, and reliability will be painted.

3.2. Research Paradigm

This study followed a mixed-methods paradigm. A definition of mixed methods as defined in (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, & Turner, 2007) suggests that Mixed-methods research is not only limited to “mixing the methods”; but also to suggest a broad interpretation which considers how data can be interpreted from both qualitative and quantitative research paradigms.

To achieve the main purpose of the study which was to investigate how bilingual reading development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in the foundation phase, both quantitative and qualitative approaches were

used to collect, analyse and interpret the data. Qualitative methods allowed the researcher to observe teacher pedagogical practice in natural settings, and to allow conversations where teachers reflect on the choices they made for their lessons. Quantitative data, on the other hand, allowed the researcher to measure the status quo of biliteracy reading comprehension of learners, and to survey the print exposure of learners and the interactions with print as facilitated by the teacher.

3.3. Research design

A case study design was used in this study. Case study designs are known to be appropriate in studying a particular phenomenon which could be a person, a group of people, a community, an instance, an episode, an event, a subgroup of a population, a town or a city (Kumar, 2011 p.155). The case in this study can be described as an institutional phenomenon as it is located in a primary school which experiences unique circumstances in terms of its location, the community of learners it serves, and the diversity of family backgrounds of the learners it serves. Case studies are generally used in purely qualitative studies; the use of a case study design for this study was based on the need to use reiterative techniques to dig deeper into the teacher reflective pedagogy as they select texts for their biliteracy classrooms. On the other hand, there was a need to establish the status quo of biliteracy reading comprehension levels of learners so as to intensively analyse their interactions with the texts in their biliteracy classrooms.

As already indicated above, the adoption of mixed methods would traditionally mean that the design should be representative of the 'mixing'. The use of quantitative data analysis in this case study was necessary for the study aims and objectives to determine the interfaces between texts, the learner, and the classroom environment would not be complete without determining the biliteracy comprehension levels of the learners. The researcher wanted to understand if there is any statically significant difference in reading literacy comprehension between languages, text types, and grade levels. In instances like this, as Korzilius (2012, p.3) puts it, there is a need to justify the use of the label 'case' when the study does not completely follow the traditional 'qualitative' norms of case study research. This study uses the 'case' label to indicate that it studies the biliteracy classroom interfaces mentioned here as a

phenomenon in one school context. Quantitative analysis was, therefore, necessary to fully explore the phenomenon of biliteracy reading interfaces in a rural school in Limpopo province of South Africa (Kitchenham, 2012).

3.4. Population

The population of this study included 3924 primary schools in the Limpopo province which offers a bilingual education programme (Department of Basic Education, 2013a). All primary schools from Xitsonga communities out of 474 in Mopani district and out of 740 in Vhembe district, particularly in rural areas could have met the criteria to be selected for this study. The context of the school selected to participate in this study has been described in detail in chapter one (1.6).

3.5. Sampling

A multi-level sampling technique was used to sample for both qualitative and quantitative data collection. A **non-probability purposive sampling** technique was used to purposefully select a primary school in the Malamulele area because of its unique demographics of accommodating learners from 10 different villages in a township - with all these learners speaking Xitsonga in their homes and communities and English being introduced at school as a second language. According to Li, Liping, and Khan (2018), a non-probability sample is selected using a researcher's subjective judgement, with exclusions which are predetermined.

The foundation phase was also specially selected to be a phase that participates in this study, as it is during this phase that the foundations of reading are built for reading to learn immediately a learner reaches the intermediate phase and beyond. The selection was purposive because the study aimed to investigate how bilingual reading development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in the foundation phase. Grade 1-3 became the grades of focus in this phase because of the curriculum structure in the South African context where English is only introduced as a subject in Grade 1. It was appropriate to purposefully select Grades 1-3 as the focus of the study since bilingual literacy is a curriculum norm in learning to read.

The school had three Grade 1 classes, two Grade 2 classes, and three Grade 3 classes. Only three foundation phase classes of Grade 1, 2 and 3 were needed as a sample for classroom observations and teacher reflections on their pedagogical choices. The researcher had to use a volunteer sampling technique to have only one teacher to participate in the study per grade. Teachers were individually approached to request their participation in the study. The first teacher to agree to participate in a particular grade was selected as the teacher to be observed and interviewed in that grade.

The three classes where the teachers taught automatically became selected for the environmental print and print surveys as convenient samples. This is because the teachers who already consented to participate in the study continently granted access to the surveying of the classroom print environment. All texts (including classroom environmental print) from the three classrooms were included as a sample for prevalence analysis and quality.

For the quantitative aspect of the study which included the classroom print environment survey, and the biliteracy reading comprehension inventory, classes were selected as intact groups. Intact groups are pre-formed and are selected to participate in a study as a whole (Schoonenboom, 2014). This was done to collect data for the environmental print survey. A systematic simple random sampling technique is a probability sampling technique, where the members of a population have an equal chance to be sampled for a study (Kumar, 2014). This technique was used to select 12 learners per grade from the three classes to participate in taking the biliteracy reading comprehension inventory test.

In summary, the sampling procedure was multi-level as described above. According to Li et al. (2018), multi-level sampling involves selecting the sample in several steps, with each step following a specific technique. This is done to pin-down a specific sample necessary to answer the research questions. Below is a summary of the multi-level sampling.

- Selection of phase (Grades 1-3): Purposive Sampling
- Selection of the School: purposive sampling
- Selection of teachers: Volunteer sampling technique

- Selection of each class for Grade 1,2 and 3: Convenient sample (Intact groups)
- Selection of 12 learners per grade for Biliteracy reading comprehension Test: Systematic simple random sampling

The total sample comprised of 1 School, 3 teachers, 3 classrooms, 36 leaners, 112 books (28 in Grade 1, 36 in Grade 2 and 48 in Grade 3), and 24 class wall images.

3.6. Data collection instruments

Data collection instruments in this study included the following:

- Print inventory survey
- Semi-structured Lesson observation schedule
- Semi-structured reflective interview schedule for teachers
- Foundation phase biliteracy assessment

3.6.1. Print inventory survey

The print inventory survey tool was developed and designed to determine the availability of narrative and expository texts in Xitsonga and English in the classrooms (see Appendix C).

The tool has four sections: **survey details** in which the researcher captures the grade and time at which the print survey was conducted. A box where a data collector must draw a **diagram of the classroom** to show the location of the texts on the walls of the classroom, also noting where the board, bookshelves and student desks are located. The tool also has a section where the data collector should paste eight **pictures of the classroom** walls with four taken from the centre of the classroom, and the other four taken from each corner of the classroom. The fourth and last section of the tool is a survey/inventory of books found in a class **(Inventory of Xitsonga/English texts in the classroom).** The section allows the data collector to evaluate each book and notes the following:

- Whether it is an English or Xitsonga text
- Whether it is considered a narrative, narrative informational, or expository.
- Whether its quality is very low, low, average, high or very high.

The tool provides space for the data collector to record the overall survey of the texts per grade in categories of:

- Quantity of Xitsonga/ English texts
- Quantity of Xitsonga/English narrative and expository texts
- Quality of Xitsonga/English texts

3.6.2. Classroom observation schedule

The Observation Schedule (see Appendix E) was designed to observe one-hour lessons in 30-minute intervals in Grades 1, 2 and 3. The structured sections of the tool include the following:

- First 30 minutes of the lesson, where the observer records the number of learners who have eyes on print and hands-on books every 3 minutes.
- A 10-minute reflection where the observer records primary focus of instruction, the language being used the most or the least (in this case between Xitsonga and English), the teacher's role during the lesson, the mode of text (s) included on the 'eyes on print', and whether the text on 'eyes on print' can be considered narrative or informational.
- An active teaching rubric with a Likert scale of Strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strongly agree was used for aspects of how the teacher conducted the lesson such as goal orientation, teacher enthusiasm, engaging content, challenging tasks, clarity and accuracy, modelling, variety of methodologies, lesson flow, favorable climate, questioning, discussion, assessment, use of instructional aids, connections to real life, and authoring of texts. An overall rating of active teaching would be recorded at the end of the Likert scale.

The unstructured parts of the schedule required the observer to do the following:

- Record the conditions of the observation. This would include the state in which the observer is in, the state of the classroom and other aspects that may help understand the context in which the observation was conducted.

- In the first and second 30 minutes of the observation the observer would record the text titles (and their modes) being used; the questions the teacher asks the learners or the ones the learners ask the teacher including the responses given. This would include questions or instructions for class activities before, during and after the lesson.
- A diary was also kept. Diary entries were made for all 'instruction activities' in all the lessons.

3.6.3. Semi-structured reflective interview schedule

To tap into the teachers' meta-cognitive reflections on the choices they made during the lesson, the semi-structured interview schedule (see Appendix E) was designed such that teachers reflect on their choices through the lesson. The semi-structured interview had the following guiding questions, usually followed by many other questions depending on the lesson being discussed with the teacher:

- What did you like or dislike about the lesson you just taught?
- Which part of your lesson do you think was effective in teaching the learners how to read?
- Why do you believe that this is the case? (Follow-up to a section of a lesson which the teacher thinks were effective in teaching learners how to read).
- Where did or how did you acquire the technique used in the teaching of the lesson?

3.6.4. Biliteracy Reading Comprehension Inventory (BRCI)

As the name denotes the tool (see Appendix F) was designed to test reading comprehension in two languages in Grades 1, 2, and 3. Each grade read texts which were selected from a pool of texts found during the print inventory survey for that particular grade. In this particular study, the BRCI was designed to test reading compression in Xitsonga and English. The test has four sections, comprised as follows:

- Reading Listening comprehension, which includes a list of one or two syllabic words in both Xitsonga and English to test if learners with recognise a corresponding image when the word is read aloud to them.

- Word meaning, which includes a combination of nonsense words and real words in both Xitsonga and English to test if learners will recognise real words.
- English Narrative and expository comprehension, which included reading a narrative and an expository text aloud and the learners verbally respond to question categories to test their ability to reorganise, evaluate, and show appreciation.
- Xitsonga Narrative and expository comprehension; which also included reading a narrative and an expository text aloud and the learners verbally respond to question categories to test their ability to reorganise, evaluate, and show appreciation.

The test was accompanied by a score-card which was designed to record the score of each learner who took the test. The scorecard had all the sections similar to those on the test, with a coding system of Correct answer=2; Wrong answer=1; and No answer=0.

3.7. Pilot Study

The data collection instruments were first piloted in a different school that has similar characteristics to the school under study. The data collection tools as presented above are in their final stage as they were used for data collection. Before they were in their final stage, they were piloted to check for their validity. Other aspects surfaced during the pilot such as the characteristics of the sample and data collection procedures. The researcher followed all processes as would in a full study which includes observing all ethical codes of ensuring participants of confidentiality and voluntary participation with informed consent. Below are the issues that emerged with each data collection tool during the pilot study, which led to the modification of tools and approaches to data collection.

Print inventory survey

In its initial design, the tool had excluded the surveying of environmental print on classroom walls and other surfaces. During the pilot it appeared that to fully determine the kind of texts that learners are exposed to, and interact with, it would be necessary to include the survey of the classroom print environment.

Adjustments had to be made for the tool such that its use could capture the true reflection of the kind of texts available in the classroom and the classroom environment. The final tool can be seen in Appendix C.

The observation schedule was created to observe lessons in order to determine teachers' practice in reading classes; particularly to observe the kind of questions they ask before, during, and after reading. The observation schedule was created to observe the lessons using Barrett's taxonomy in 10 minutes' intervals; that is to observe for the kind of questions the teachers asks in the first 10 minutes of the lesson, in the middle 10 minutes of the lesson and the last 10 minutes of the lesson (see Appendix E). This was done with the assumption that lessons would not take more than 50 minutes.

During the pilot, it appeared that the realities of the foundation phase classroom would not allow the data collected to answer the research question on the interface between the texts and learners as facilitated by the teacher. This was because:

- The Barrett's taxonomy was not always possible because the order of events was never as linear as the taxonomy suggests.
- Lessons for planned literacy activities were not uniform every day and followed a schedule as per the guidance of the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS).

It was then thought best to amend the tool such that the natural classroom environment is observed as is since the purpose of the foundation phase is after all; to teach learners how to read. The final tool (see Appendix F) allowed the observer to observe lessons for an hour and record aspects in 30-minutes intervals.

The semi-structured reflective interview schedule was created to ask questions guided by what was observed during lesson observation. In its creation, it was assumed that all teachers would be able to have a conversation in English; however, the teachers in the pilot school indicated that they would not be able to converse in English fully and would appreciate having the interview in Xitsonga. There was no need to adjust the tool, but a need to translate questions into Xitsonga as well to facilitate smooth interviews with teachers who preferred Xitsonga over English.

Biliteracy Reading Comprehension Inventory tool was created to trial the efficacy of exposure to texts. In its initial creation, it was hoped that the researcher would create expository texts as it was assumed that such texts would not be available in the foundation phase. During the pilot of the print inventory tool described above, it was realised that limited texts found in the classrooms were expository. It was then realised that there would be no need to recreate expository texts but to use the texts that are already available. Even so, it was further noted that the production process of new reading material would take longer than the time available to complete the study, and more expensive than the budget available for the study. The tool was then adjusted to only focus on the texts already available in the classrooms.

The researcher had also assumed that foundation phase learners would be able to read independently with the help of images and few words under the pictures. During the pilot, it was noted that the majority of the learners could not read full sentences as yet. This required that the administering of the test be changed to include reading aloud of the test.

3.8. Data Collection Procedures

Data collection took place in the first term and the second term of the academic year. A total of 13 days were used to collect data, with five days in term one and eight days in term two. The first term of the year (for five days) was used to conduct the environmental print Survey, while the second term was used to conduct observations, interviews, and to administer the Biliteracy Reading comprehension test. Below I describe in detail the procedures followed during data collection for each tool.

The **Print inventory survey** tool was used to survey the print environment in the foundation phase classrooms in grades 1, 2 and 3. The first part included surveying the classroom print environment. The researcher stood at the centre of each participating class and took pictures of all the four walls of the classroom; and stood at each corner and took pictures of each corner of the class. This amounted to 8 pictures per class, and a total of 24 pictures for the three classes of Grade 1, 2 and 3.

The Print/text inventory also included that the researcher records whether all the books/print available in the participating classroom libraries were narrative or expository in English and Xitsonga, whether they are of a very low, low, average, high, or very high quality. The researcher spent three days recording the text titles in the three classes and two days recording the classroom print environments.

The semi-structured observations were meant to delve into the teachers' practises in a natural context during their reading classes in the foundation phase. The researcher sat in each class as a non-participant observer. Observations were scheduled to be reiterative to deepen the interpretations of the interactions between learners and their texts in the classroom environment as facilitated by the teacher. The observations were conducted in 5 days. Five lessons (one hour each) were observed per grade where each observation included that the observer:

- Recorded the general conditions in which the observations were made.
- In the first 30 minutes, the observer recorded the eyes on print and hands-on books in 3-minute intervals. Also recorded the major focus of the lesson, degree to which a Xitsonga and English were used in the lesson, the role of the teacher in the lesson, the mode of the text included on 'eyes on print', and the genre of the texts included on 'eyes on print'. This would be repeated in the last 30 minutes of the lesson.
- The last part of the observation included completing an 'active teaching rubric' of the teacher. The rubric used a Likert scale of the level of agreement and disagreement.

Semi-structured interviews

The interviews were conducted right after each observation session. This meant that the teachers had to be interviewed in the class while learners are engaged in an

activity. All interview recordings will have learners chattering in the background. The interviews lasted between 3 and 4 minutes. To be precise, a total of 15 interviews were conducted which accumulated to a total of 45 minutes and 5 seconds. Four structured questions were asked for teachers to reflect on what they liked or disliked about the lesson, which part of the lesson they thought was effective in teaching learners how to read; why they believe a particular part of a lesson was effective in teaching learners how to read; and where and how they have acquired the skill to teach the lesson the way they did.

The biliteracy reading comprehension inventory

The 12 learners selected in grades 1, 2 and 3 to take the biliteracy reading comprehension test were called individually to take it. Each learner and the researcher sat in a table together with the test materials placed in front of the learner for easy reading. The researcher had a scorecard for the recording of the responses after each reading comprehension session. The biliteracy reading comprehension test was comprised of 4 sections. Because of the grade level differences, the administration of the test was also administered differently. Below I describe how each test was administered per grade in each section of the test.

Grade 1, 2 and 3

For Section A

This section was designed to test the learners' ability to associate what they hear with what they see; indicating listening comprehension essential for read-aloud activities. As already mentioned under the pilot study, learners in the foundation phase can hardly read independently hence reading aloud to them was more appropriate.

- After handing over the test, the researcher displays the test in front of the learner.
- Tell the learner that the test in front of them is similar to the one in your hands.
- Take the learner filling out the names, grade, school
- Tell the learner 'I will read several English words to you, these words represent an image in the order of the words said. When I say the word, please point at the picture that you associate with the word'. This was repeated for Xitsonga

words, and the researcher said ‘I will read several Xitsonga words to you, these words represent an image in the order of the words said. When I say the word, please point at the picture that you associate with the word’.

All the instructions were given in Xitsonga as it is the language the learners are able to access better. On average, section A took about 7 minutes.

For section B

The section was designed to test the learners’ ability to distinguish real words from nonsense words in both Xitsonga and English. Five words per language were displayed with only two real words. The researcher did the following in administering this section:

- Told each learner that the list of words in front of them was a combination of nonsense words and real words.
- The researcher asked them to say ‘No’ when she points at a nonsense word and to say ‘Yes’ when she points at a real word.
- On average this section took about 8 minutes.

For section C and D

Section C was designed to test learners’ ability to do three things: to reorganise in their own words what was read to them, to evaluate the events as found in the reading, and to show appreciation within the events as found in the reading. All these were tested using both narrative and expository texts in English and Xitsonga. The texts read per grade in this section can be seen in table 3 below:

Table 3: English and Xitsonga texts used to test comprehension

	English Texts Used	
Grade	**Narrative Texts**	**Expository Texts**
1	Dzunisani loved the horns of his two white cattle.	Fruit for the class
2	Dzunisani loved the horns of his two white cattle.	Plants
3	Dzunisani loved the horns of his two white cattle.	From sky o the see
	Xitsonga Texts used	
Grade		
1	Matimba a rhandza ku tlakula ximbutana xa yena xo basa	Swiharhi leswi hanyaka ematini
2	Matimba a rhandza ku tlakula ximbutana xa yena xo basa	Swiharhi leswi hanyaka ematini
3	Matimba a rhandza ku tlakula ximbutana xa yena xo basa	Swiharhi leswi hanyaka ematini

As can be seen in the second column, grades 1, 2 and three used the same text for the narrative section of the test. Column three shows that each grade used a different text selected from the class library for English, and also a prescribed reading for that grade. Unfortunately, only one text was found to be expository in Xitsonga during the print inventory survey, hence it was used for the three grades.

To administer the test for this section in grades 1 and 2 the researcher did the following:

- Told each learner to listen to what the researcher is reading while they look at the words and pictures.
- The researcher asked the learners to carefully listen as they would have to remember what they have read, such that they can answer questions after reading.
- The researcher reads while pointing at the text and pictures.
- The researcher asks the three questions to test for reorganisation, evaluation and appreciation. For the narrative section, these questions appeared such as: Please tell me what we have just read in your own words; it is a good idea for

the character to do/say this? If you were the character in this situation what would you do? For the expository texts, the questions appeared such as tell me what we just read in your words. When A and B come together they make …. (Learner to fill in missing words). What outside of the text, but related to the text do you know and how do you know it?

The administration of the test in Grade 3 included a different dimension as learners were found able to write some words and to read simple sentences. During the reading, Grade 3 learners were expected to read while the researcher read aloud silently. In response to the questions, Grade 3 learners were expected first to say the response aloud, and then write it on the test material to the best of their ability.

3.9. Data analysis

Data analysis procedures are described below per data collection instrument.

Print inventory survey

Frequency counts of narrative and expository texts in both Xitsonga and English were recorded from each classroom library and analysed to be able to understand the status quo of text availability in general, and the availability or lack or expository and narrative texts in particular. The wall (environmental print) images taken in each class were analysed to include their genre nature and physical accessibility to learners.

Observations

Parts of the observations were spread out on a table for easy reading. Observations recorded of the five days per grade were read across days and across grades to deduce themes until a saturation point was reached. These parts included the following:

- Conditions surrounding the observation
- *Interval one: 30 minutes*
  - ✓ Eyes on print
  - ✓ Hands-on Books

- ✓ 10 minutes' reflection
- ✓ A major focus of instruction
- ✓ Teachers role
- ✓ How much talk in English/Xitsonga?

- *Interval two: 30 minutes*
  - ✓ Eyes on print
  - ✓ Hands-on Books
  - ✓ 10 minutes' reflection
  - ✓ A major focus of instruction
  - ✓ Teacher's role
  - ✓ How much talk in English/Xitsonga?

Field notes taken during observations were also incorporated into interpreting the themes that emerged for the data.

Semi-structured reflective interviews were transcribed and translated from Xitsonga to English. The transcripts were read over and over until a saturation point was reached to find themes that emerged from the data.

The biliteracy reading comprehension inventory

The learners' tests were graded, and scores were entered on the Reading Inventory score card. A scoring system was used in coding learner responses as '0' to denote 'No Answer'; '1' to denote 'Wrong Answer' and 2 to denote correct answer. Thirty-four learners in total took the test. A test of significance of independent samples T-Test was done using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) at a 95% confidence interval. This was done to determine learner comprehension levels in both English and Xitsonga, first in Isolation for the entire phase starting at grades 1 up to Grade 3, and then between Xitsonga and English to determine the significance in levels of comprehension in the biliteracy test. A thematic approach was adopted to present the findings. From the reading inventory scorecard, the data was entered into the SPSS. The following tests were run:

- Descriptive statistics (frequencies and percentages) - general performance in both Xitsonga and English.
- Independent samples test (t-test for Equality of Means). English and Xitsonga, narrative and expository texts.
- Chi-square tests- association between grade and level of achievement, the association between language and achievement, the association between text type/genre and achievement.
- The statistical association and significance were pitched at 0.05.

3.10. Ethical considerations

The school that was purposefully selected to participate in the study fall within the jurisdiction of the Limpopo Department of Education. Consent was first sought from the Limpopo Department of Education (see Appendix B) to ensure that the schools to participate in the study's identity would not be revealed in all writing and publications emanating from the research project. To gain access to the school, permission had to be sought from the school principal and school governing body. An information letter and request were sent to the principal of the school and permission was granted before data collection could commence.

The learners who participated in the study were children between the ages of 6-11 from the classes selected to participate in the study. Parental consent for all children to participate in the study was sought. Texts which were prescribed for use in the foundation phase were used; thus no threat is posed on creating gaps between learners who took part in the biliteracy reading inventory. Research has already shown that using a different text type does not take away the content knowledge from any lesson (Englert & Hiebert, 1984). Even so, parents and all participants were made aware of their choice to participate or not to participate in the study.

Teachers whose classes were purposefully selected became participants on voluntary bases. An information letter and a consent form were presented to teachers and consent forms were signed before data collection could commence. After careful

considerations, the University has also granted ethical clearance for data collection to commence (see Appendix A).

3.11. Internal and external validity

The Hawthorne Effect, sometimes called the observer effect, refers to the change in behaviour by the participants in a study due to the presence of the researcher (Barnes, 2010). The teachers may have altered their behaviour due to their awareness of being observed or by the researcher s presence in the classroom. They may have prepared lessons in more detailed ways as they were aware before the observation that they would be observed while teaching. This may have led to them asking or not asking particular questions to learners before, during and after reading. The learners may have behaved differently during the reading inventory as it was administered by the researcher who was a stranger to them. As a countermeasure, the researcher had stayed in each class for five days during observations and print inventory survey with the hope that the learners and the teachers will get used to the researcher s presence.

3.12. Limitations

This study adopted a mixed methods approach to study a case of biliteracy reading development in a single school. It must be noted that even though the biliteracy reading inventory in the study may be quantitative; the findings of this study can only be generalizable to schools that have similar characteristics as the school purposefully sampled for this study.

3.13. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented a description of the context of the study, the methodology and research design selected for the study. It further described the data collection tools employed and processes followed before and during data collection and data analysis. Finally, it shared the external and internal validity issues concerning the selection of data collections tools and data collection procedures.

CHAPTER FOUR: DATA ANALYSIS PART I- PRINT AND ENVIRONMENTAL PRINT SURVEY

4.1. Introduction

This study aimed to investigate how bilingual reading development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in grades 1-3. This chapter presents findings on three of the study objectives which were to:

- Determine prevalence rates of expository and narrative early grade texts.
- Develop an inventory of text prototypes in Grade 1-3 classrooms print environment.
- Compare and contrast Xitsonga and English text prevalence.

Specifically, this chapter presents findings on the status quo of Grade 1-3 classroom libraries in terms of prevalence of Xitsonga and English texts, narrative and expository texts, including the cognitive demand of the texts and the cultural relevance of the texts. The chapter further presents findings on the classroom environmental print in terms on age relevance, accessibility, and whether the print was local or imported, that is whether they were created in the classroom or brought from outside the classroom.

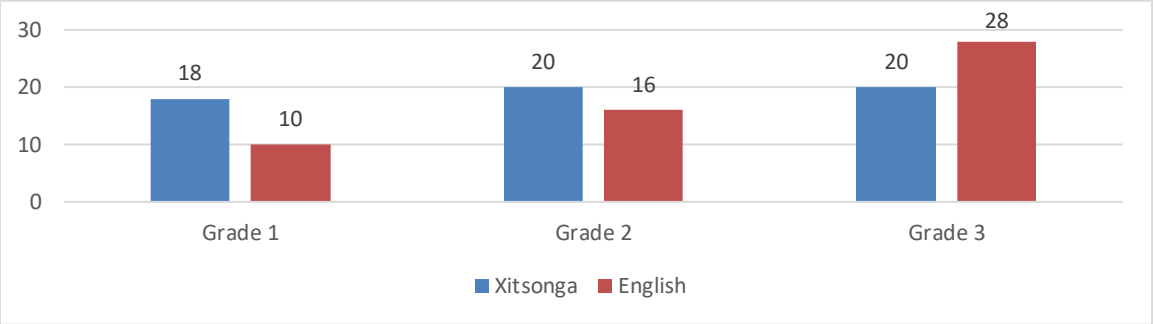
4.2. Classroom Libraries

This section presents findings on the status quo of Grade 1-3 classroom libraries in terms of prevalence of Xitsonga and English texts, narrative and expository texts. The section specifically focuses on the text distribution balance in terms of Xitsonga and English and, expository and narrative texts.

4.2.1. The general scarcity of books

In order to determine prevalence rates of narrative and expository texts, and to compare the prevalence of Xitsonga and English texts in grades 1-3 frequency counts of all books in the three participating classroom libraries were done. Findings indicate

that there is a general scarcity of books in the grades 1-3 classrooms that participated in the study.

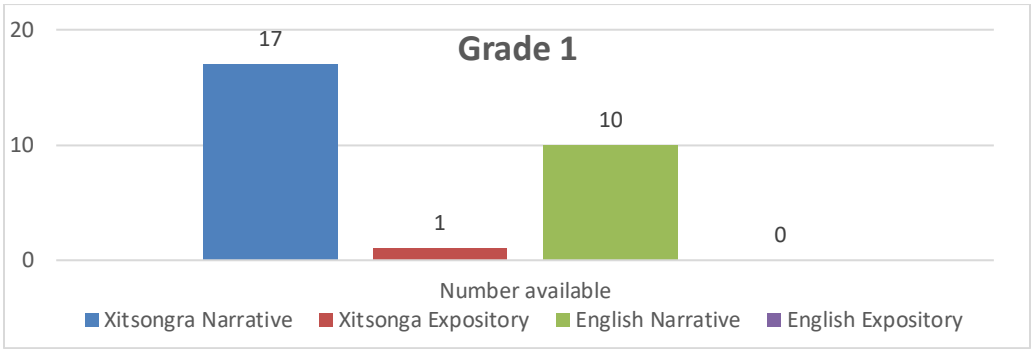


Graph 1: Comparison of frequency counts between Xitsonga and English

As it can be seen on graph 1 above, the frequency counts of book titles found in the classrooms indicate that for all the three classrooms, 112(100%) titles were counted (including 'Big Books') to be read by a total of 196 learners across the grades. Of these book titles, 28 (25%) were found in Grade 1, 36 (32%) in Grade 2 and 48(43%) in Grade 3. What is evident from this finding is that first, there is an incremental growth of text count from a lower grade to a higher grade. Despite this incremental growth, the number of texts per grade is limited in terms of learner/book ratio. The grades 1-3 classes each had more than 50 learners, suggesting that at no point would all the learners have a separate book title at the same time. This finding corroborates that of Nassimbeni and Desmond (2011) where they found that even in schools where some books were displayed in the classrooms, learners could not have adequate access to the books.

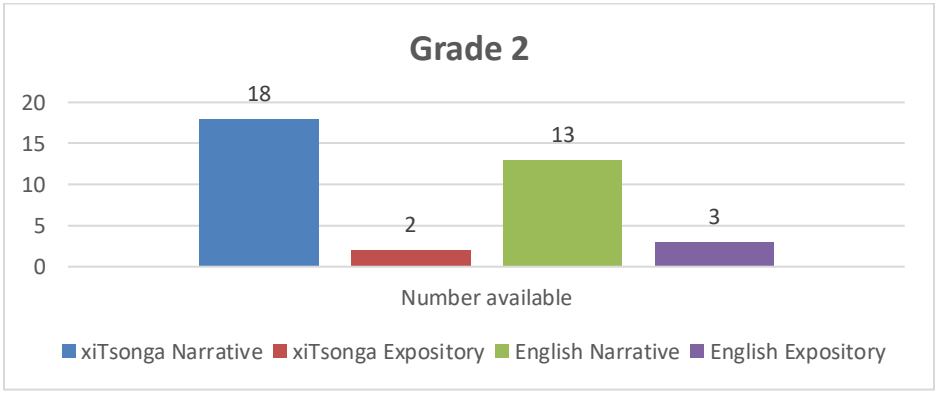
4.2.2. The dominance of narrative texts

In determining the prevalence rate of narrative and expository texts in the classroom libraries of the grades 1-3 classrooms that participated in this study, frequency counts of narrative and expository texts found in the classroom libraries were done. The results indicate that even with the few book titles found in the three classrooms, preference has been given to narrative texts for both Xitsonga and English. Graphs 2 to 4 below depicts the overall frequency counts of Xitsonga and English expository and narrative texts in the three grades.



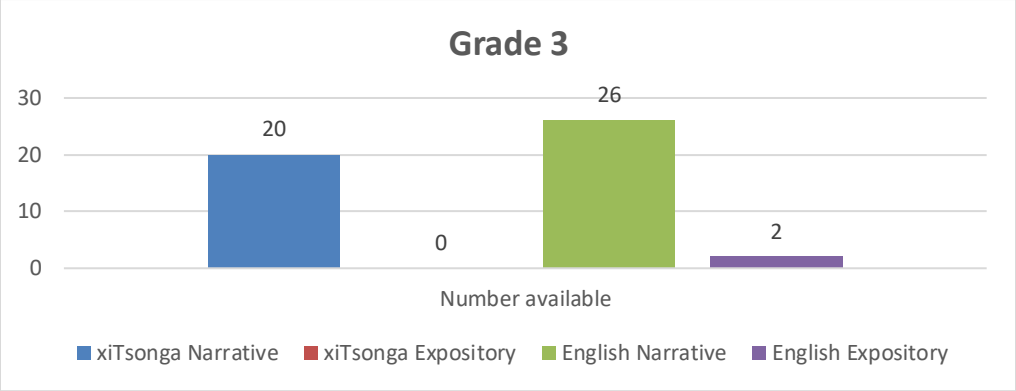
Graph 2: Frequency counts of Xitsonga and English narrative and expository texts in the Grade 1 classroom.

Graph 2 above shows that of the 18 (100%) titles collected for Xitsonga in Grade 1, only 1 (5.6%) text was expository and 17 (94.4%) were narrative texts. Of the 10 (100%) text titles of English texts were all narrative texts; it is evident that wittingly or unwittingly preference has been given to narrative texts in both Xitsonga and English in Grade 1. This bias towards narrative texts inevitably prevents learners from familiarisation to expository texts even in Xitsonga, a language they use in Grade 1 for learning.



Graph 3: Text distribution in the Grade 2 classroom

Graph 3 above shows a distribution of texts in the Grade 2 classroom. As can be seen, of 20 (100%) Xitsonga titles collected, only 2 (10%) texts were expository, and 18 (90%) texts were narrative. With regards to English texts in the same grade, of the 16 (100%) texts collected only 3 (19%) were in English expository, and 13 (81%) were English narrative. The narrative bias is evident again in Grade 2 as both English and Xitsonga expository texts are in very small numbers. Once more, learners are deprive of an opportunity to interact with expository texts.



Graph 4: Grade 3 text distribution

As seen in graph 4 above, of the 20 (100%) Xitsonga titles collected, all texts were narrative, with no Xitsonga expository texts altogether. With regards to English texts in the same grade, of the 28 (100%) texts collected only 2 (7%) were expository, and 26 (93%) were narrative. Evidently, even in Grade 3, which is the last grade of the foundation phase, a last year before learners' progress to the intermediate phase where more content subjects such as Natural Science, Social science, and technology are introduces; learners are still deprived of an opportunity to interact with expository texts, even in Xitsonga. Ideally, text type distribution should increase from a lower grade to a higher grade to reflect the cognitive development of learners. Grade 3, in particular, should have more expository texts than Grade 2 and 1 as learners will transition into reading to learn expository texts in the content subjects.

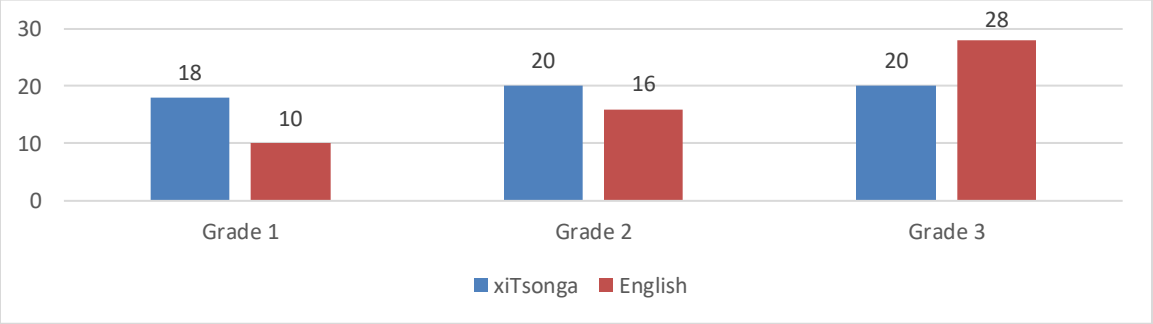
The findings shown in graphs 2, 3 and 4 taken together suggest that the frequency of narrative texts is higher than expository texts in both languages from Grade 1 through to Grade 2. Therefore, the finding on the dominance of the narrative texts in the foundation phase, particularly in Grade 3 suggests an inevitable negative impact on the foundation phase on the intermediate phase. Without familiarity with the expository texts by learners, they inevitably transition to reading expository texts in L2 (English) which they were equally unfamiliar within L1 (Xitsonga). Inevitably, the intermediate phase will be characterised by poor performance in content subjects.

These findings further give glimpses of the foundation phase curriculum planning to move from the simple to complex (Atkinson, 2010). But in this case, suggest that book allocation for classroom libraries are not well planned for the young readers'

incremental cognitive development, but that book allocation is haphazard and have no link to cognitive development.

4.2.3. Bilingual equivalence

In this section, the aim was to determine the prevalence of texts in the classroom libraries in terms of the availability of texts in both Xitsonga and English. This is because of the bilingual nature of the foundation phase curriculum where in the case of this study Xitsonga is used for learning, while English is introduced as a subject from Grade 1. The results indicate that there is a bilingual imbalance between English and Xitsonga texts across grades 1-3. Graph 5 below shows the frequency counts of Xitsonga and English texts available in grades 1 to 3.

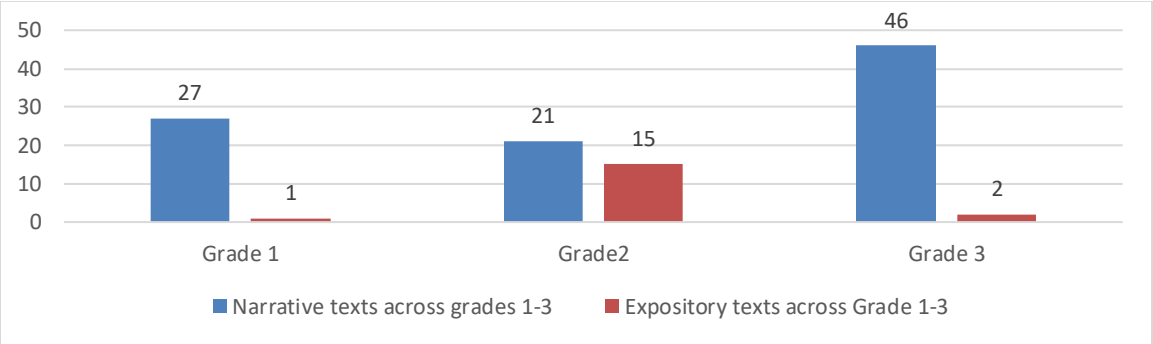


Graph 5: Comparison of frequency counts between Xitsonga and English

Graph 5 above shows that from a total of 112 (100%) texts collected in grades 1 to 3 in both Xitsonga and English, 58 (52%) of them were Xitsonga texts and 54(48%) were English texts. Evidently, there is a bilingual equivalence between English and Xitsonga across the three grades. It is also evident from these counts that there is no significant difference in Xitsonga and English text counts per grade. Grade 1, for example, has 18 Xitsonga text titles and 10 English text titles. Grade 2 with 20 Xitsonga text titles and 16 English text titles, while Grade 3 has 20 Xitsonga text titles and 28 English text titles. Notably, there is an incremental growth of English text title counts from Grade 1-3 with 10 in Grade 1, 16 in Grade 2, and 28 in Grade 3. However, it appears that there is no incremental growth of Xitsonga text title count from Grade 1-3; Grade 1 with 18, Grade 2 with 20, and Grade 3 with 20.

4.2.4. Text type difference

In the previous two sections, the results indicated that there is a dominance of narrative texts in the classroom libraries and that there is a bilingual equivalence across the three grades. For this section, the aim was to further delve into the issue of text type distribution across grades 1 to 3 in terms of the general text type difference irrespective of the language of the texts. The results indicate that there are inconsistencies and imbalances in the distribution of both narrative and expository texts in both Xitsonga and English. Graph 6 below depicts frequency counts of the text genres (both narrative and expository texts) across grades 1-3.



Graph 6: Narrative and expository texts across grades 1-3.

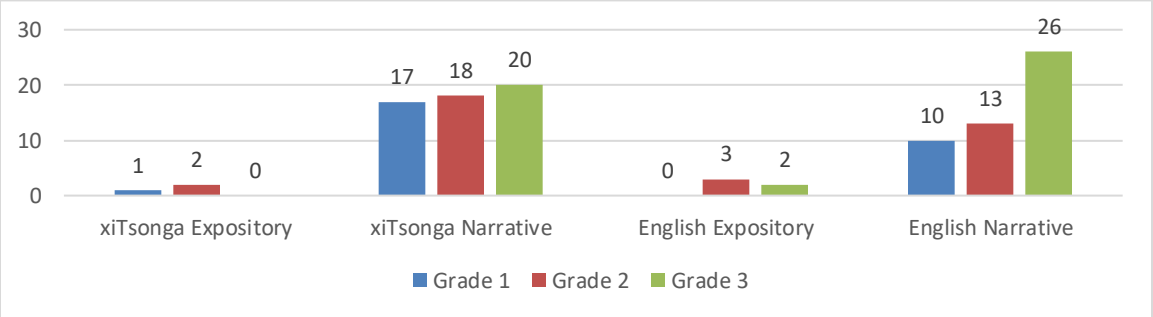
Graph 6 above shows that of the 112 (100%) texts collected across grades 1-3, 94 were narrative and only 18 (16%) were expository. The graph also shows that of the 94 (100%) narrative texts collected in grades 1 to 3, only 27 (29%) are in Grade 1, 21(22%) in Grade 2, and 46 (49%) in Grade 3. Noticeably, the distribution of the narrative texts in Grade 1 to 3 is not consistent as Grade 1 has more narrative texts than Grade 2, and Grade 3 has more than twice the count of narrative texts found in Grade 2. Furthermore, the graph indicates that of the 18 (100%) expository texts found across grades 1-3 only 1(6%) is found in Grade 1, 15 (83%) in Grade 2, and 2(11%) in Grade 3. Ideally, there should be a balance and consistency in the distribution of texts in terms of the languages and text genres so that learners can holistically develop reading literacy skills.

Evidently, the imbalance in expository texts calls for concern as more expository texts would be expected in Grade 3 since it is the last year of the foundation phase, after which learners will start reading more expository texts for learning in grade 4 and

beyond. In this case, Grade 2 has more expository texts that Grade 3. These findings suggest once again that text genres are not considered when planning for curriculum implementation in the foundation phase. This lack of consideration for text genres further suggests that reading instruction in the foundation phase is not thought of as a cognitive development process where incremental growth should be at the centre of curriculum planning and implementation. Without intentional curriculum planning towards cognitive development of learners from one grade to another, learners in the case of this study with only two expository texts in Grade 3 will exit the foundation phase into the intermediate phase without requisite reading literacy skills to realise academic success throughout their lives.

4.2.5. Unbalanced text distribution

In this section, the purpose of the analysis was to determine the frequency counts of texts in terms of genres in Xitsonga compared to English, vice versa. Results indicate that there is no consistency and balance between text distribution for both English and Xitsonga in both narrative and expository texts from grades 1 to 3 as seen in graph 6 above and graph 7 below. With regard to Xitsonga and English distribution from Grade 1 to 3 as seen on graph 6, of the 18 (100%) expository texts collected only 1(6%) is found in Grade 1, 15 (83%) are found in Grade 2, and 2 (11%) are found in Grade 3. Similarly, the distribution of the narrative texts in Grade 1 to 3 is not consistent. On graph 6 again, Grade 3 has the highest total of narrative texts at 46 (49%), with 27 (29%) in Grade 1 and 21 (22%) in Grade 2. Graph 7 below depicts an overall picture of text distribution for Xitsonga and English narrative and expository texts in Grade 1 to 3.



Graph 7: Distribution for Xitsonga and English narrative and expository texts in Grade 1 to 3.

Graph 7 above further shows the overall picture of text distribution for Xitsonga and English narrative and expository texts in Grade 1 to 3. Notable from this graph is that there is complete unavailability of Xitsonga expository texts in Grade 3, complete absence of English expository texts in Grade 1, and inconsistent distribution of English narrative texts in Grade 1 to 3. This graph further depicts the scarcity of expository texts in Xitsonga and English in Grades 1 through 3. Most concerning is the absence of English expository texts in Grade 1, and the absence of Xitsonga expository texts in Grade 3.

The issue of imbalance between narrative and expository, and of lack of incremental counts of the genres from grade to grade calls for concern. This is because it suggests that the envisaged sequential development from simple to complex, that is, from narrative to expository by the nature of the education system is inevitably unattainable. Arguably from the lenses of linguistic development interdependence, there should be a level of interdependence between narrative and expository texts, just as it is hypothesised that there is a level of linguistic interdependence between languages. In essence, the additive bilingual framework of the South African education system as it stands, does not follow the L1/L2 interdependence from which it was based upon. It also has not put in place systems to ascertain that its envisaged additive bilingualism is attainable (Cummins, 1979); by ascertain that there is equivalence, and incremental growth in book/text counts for the two languages, and the two text genres.

4.3. Book content

This section and subsections present findings on the analysis of the content of the texts found in the three classrooms of Grade 1-3. Special focus has been given to the cognitive demand of the texts and the cultural relevance of the texts.

4.3.1. Personal observation on the co-existence of English and Xitsonga

The report on personal observations emanates from the realisation that the classroom contexts of the three classes that participated in this study are bilingual. However, it was observed that all the texts available in the classroom libraries were either in English or Xitsonga, that is, there were no texts which were written with both languages

at the same time. Figures 1 and 2 below display how languages are always separated per book even when the message of the story is the same.

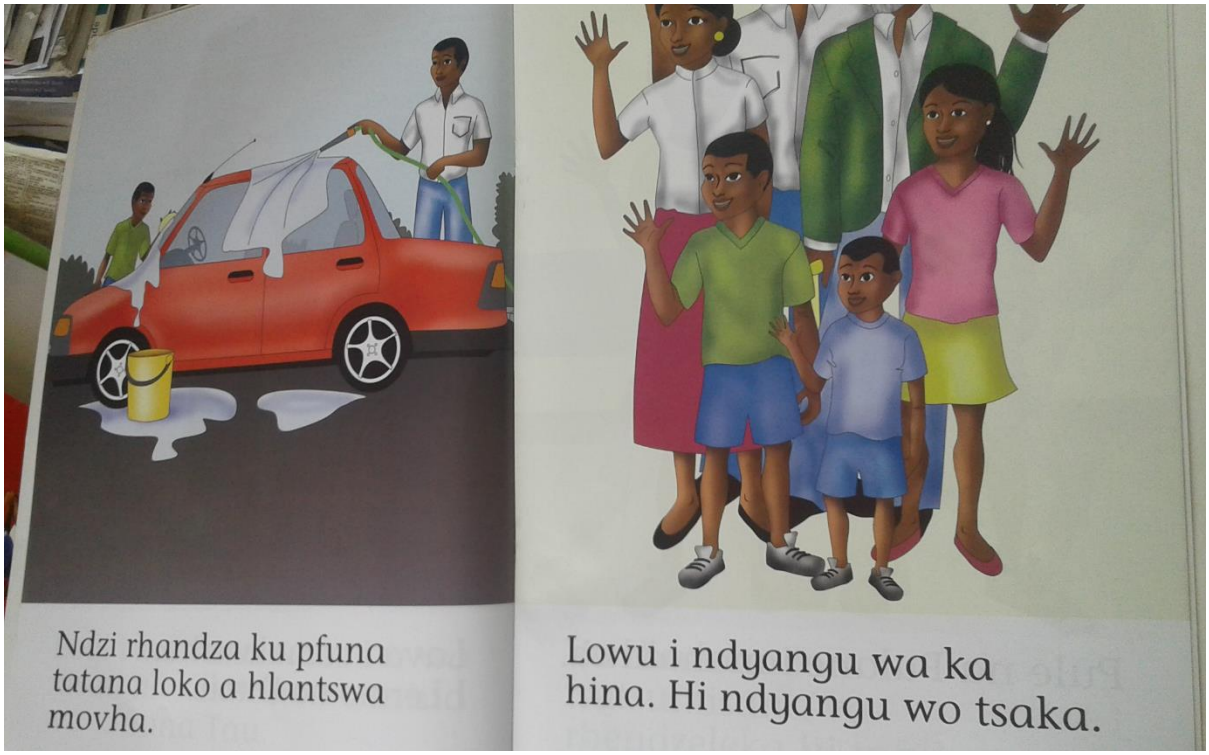


Figure 3: Extract from a Grade 1 Xitsonga book titled ‘Kaya ra mina’; Buku le yi kulu ya 5 (Big Book 5)



Figure 4: Extract from a Grade 1 English book titled ‘My Family’

Figure 2 is an extract from a Xitsonga Grade 1 text which is titled '*Kaya ra mina'*, which means 'my home'. Figure 4 is an extract from a Grade 1 English text titled 'My family'. Both the texts are about a young person who is introducing his/her family. The extracts both show a section where the young person says 'this is my family'. Noticeable is that none of the texts observed had both languages combined. Therefore, it appears that multilingual texts in the foundation phase means treatment of the languages as sealed entities with boundaries. The sequential and one-ness ideology of production and selection is the predominant underpinning for text availability and construction of bilingual children as separate monolinguals as commonly conceptualised with cognitive mechanism frameworks such as the Linguistic and developmental interdependence of Cummins (1979) which posit that L1 literacy development is a determent of L2 literacy development. Suggesting that the bilingual learners in the context of this study are constrained to 'one language at a time' ideology which has been found to disadvantage multilingual learners with regard to epistemic access (Creese & Blackledge, 2010b).

4.3.2. The low cognitive demand texts

It is expected that texts' cognitive demand should be constantly increased as learner's progress from Grade 1, 2 and 3. In most of the texts sampled for this study, the questions asked at the end of the reading were pitched a level two of Barret's comprehension Taxonomy. The Barrett's comprehension taxonomy as in Masland (1978) has five levels as Literal Comprehension, Reorganization, Inferential Comprehension, Evaluation, and Appreciation. Figure 5 below is an example of a Grade 3 English narrative text questions to be answered after reading.

But Dad wants to sleep.
'Out you get!' he says.
'All of you! I want to sleep!'

'Please can I stay?' asks Sam.
'Please can I stay?' asks Tim.
'Please can I stay?' asks Anna.
'Please can the baby and the dog and the cat stay?' ask the children.



But Dad wants to sleep.
'Out you get!' he says.
'All of you! I want to sleep!'

'Please can I stay?' asks Sam.
'Please can I stay?' asks Tim.
'Please can I stay?' asks Anna.
'Please can the baby and the dog and the cat stay?' ask the children.



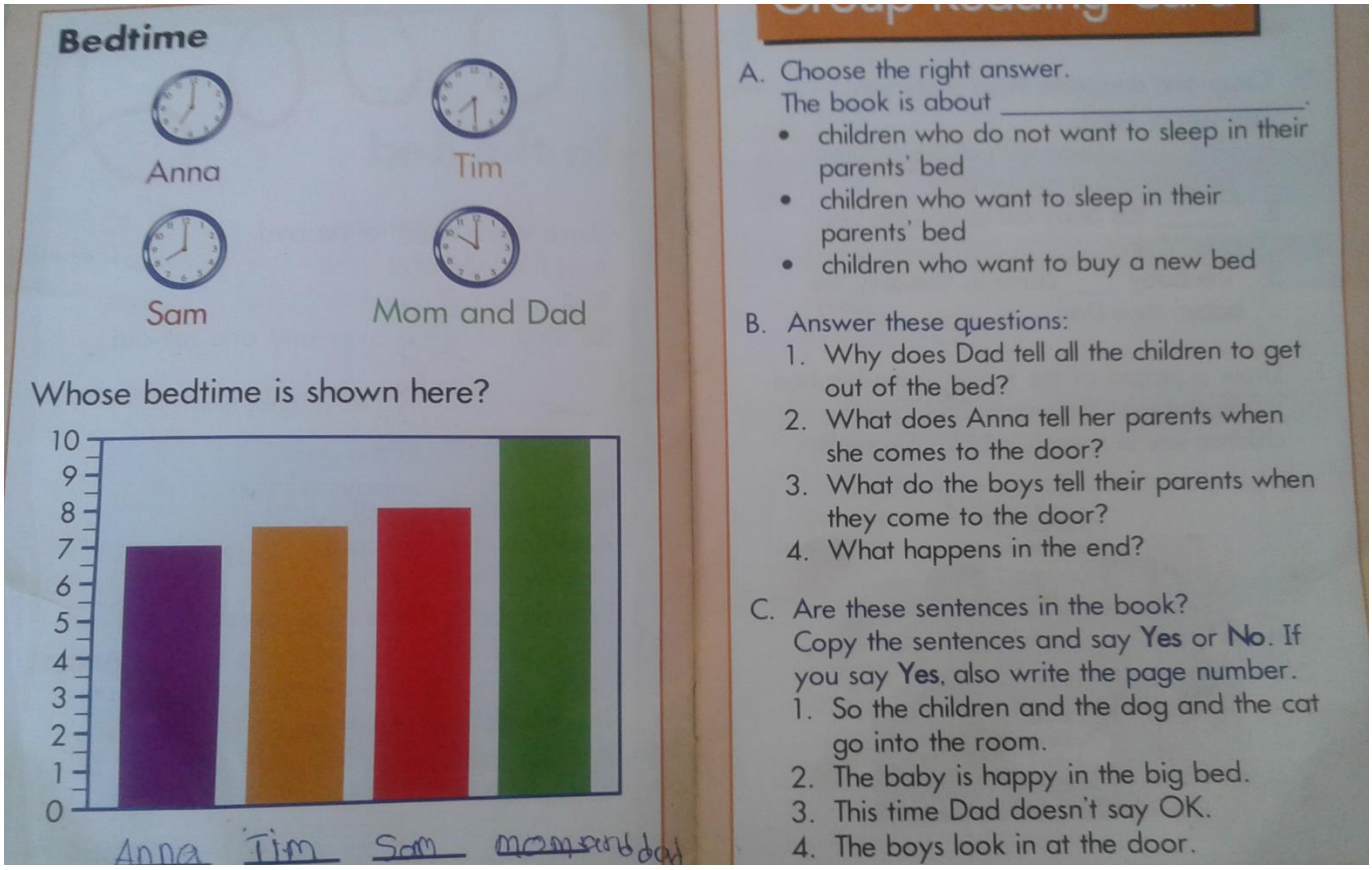


Figure 5: Grade 3 narrative English text extract (Cowley, 1979) 'The Big Bed'.

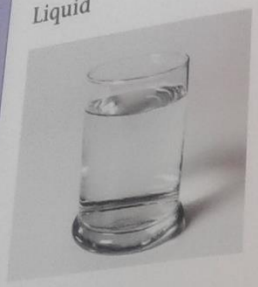
Figure 5 above shows an example of a Grade 3 English narrative text. The text is about children 'who' wanted to sleep in their parents' bed despite their father's desire to sleep peacefully without their constant chit-chatting and jumping around the bed. It also outlines why the children wanted to get back onto the big bed, including the sequence in which they went back onto the bed. Evidently, the possible questions to arise from this text will revolve around 'who', 'when' and 'why'.

The last page of figure 5 above shows the questions embedded to be answered after reading the story. Questions in 'A' and 'B' require learners to remember what the text said. Question in 'C' required learners to reorganise sentences to find the one which was mentioned in the text. There are no questions that attempt inferential comprehension, appreciation and evaluation. Evidently, children are not only exposed to narrative monolingual texts. They are also curtailed by the expected response which leaves them thinking at literal and reorganisation levels. Similarly, the few expository texts which were found in classroom libraries did not probe inferential comprehension or evaluation skills. Figure 6 below is an example of a Grade 3 English expository text.

Water changes

Water can change into a solid or a vapour.

Liquid



Water vapour



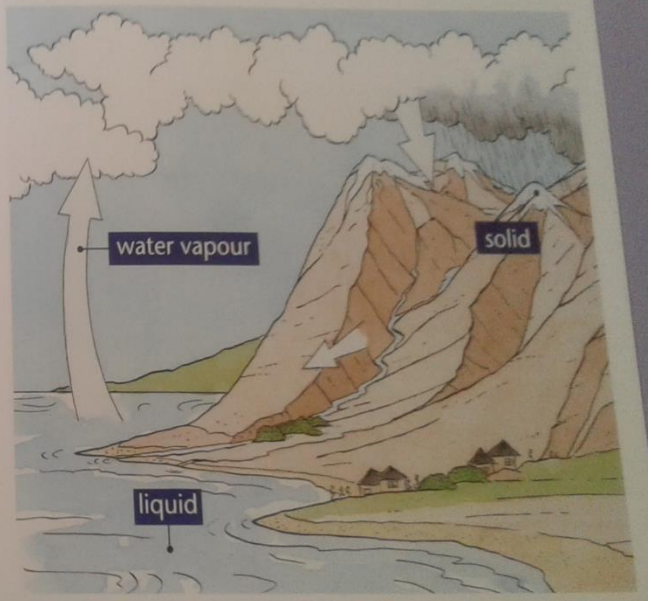
Solid





The water cycle

Water changes all the time in nature. This is called the water cycle.



Make an ice shape

You will need:

- plasticine or modelling clay
- water.

Step 1 Roll some modelling clay into a ball.

Step 2 Press a shape into the clay. (Take care not to make any holes in the clay.) Carefully peel off the clay.

Step 3 Pour water into the shape you have made. Put your water-filled shape into the freezer overnight.

Step 4 Take it out of the freezer the next morning. Leave it for a minute. Tip out your shape.



Step 1



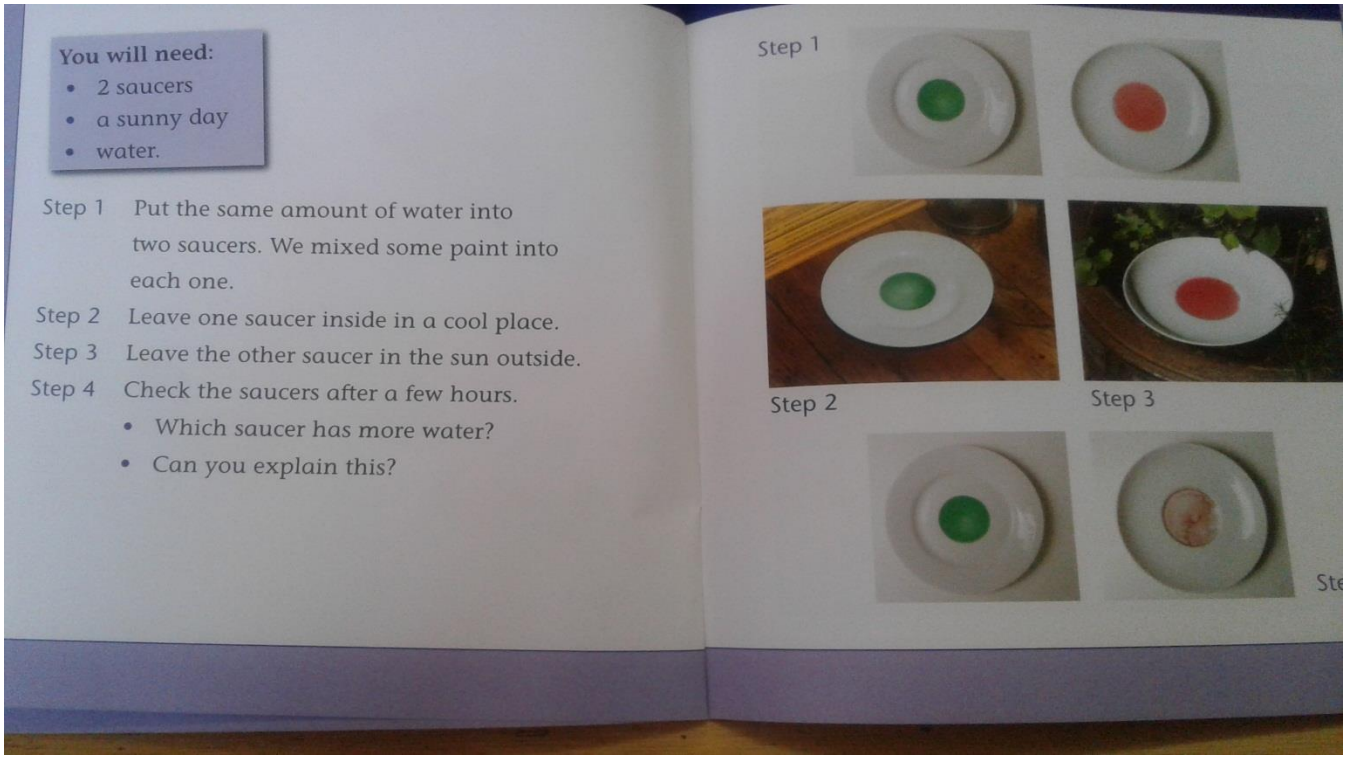
Step 2



Step 3



Step 4



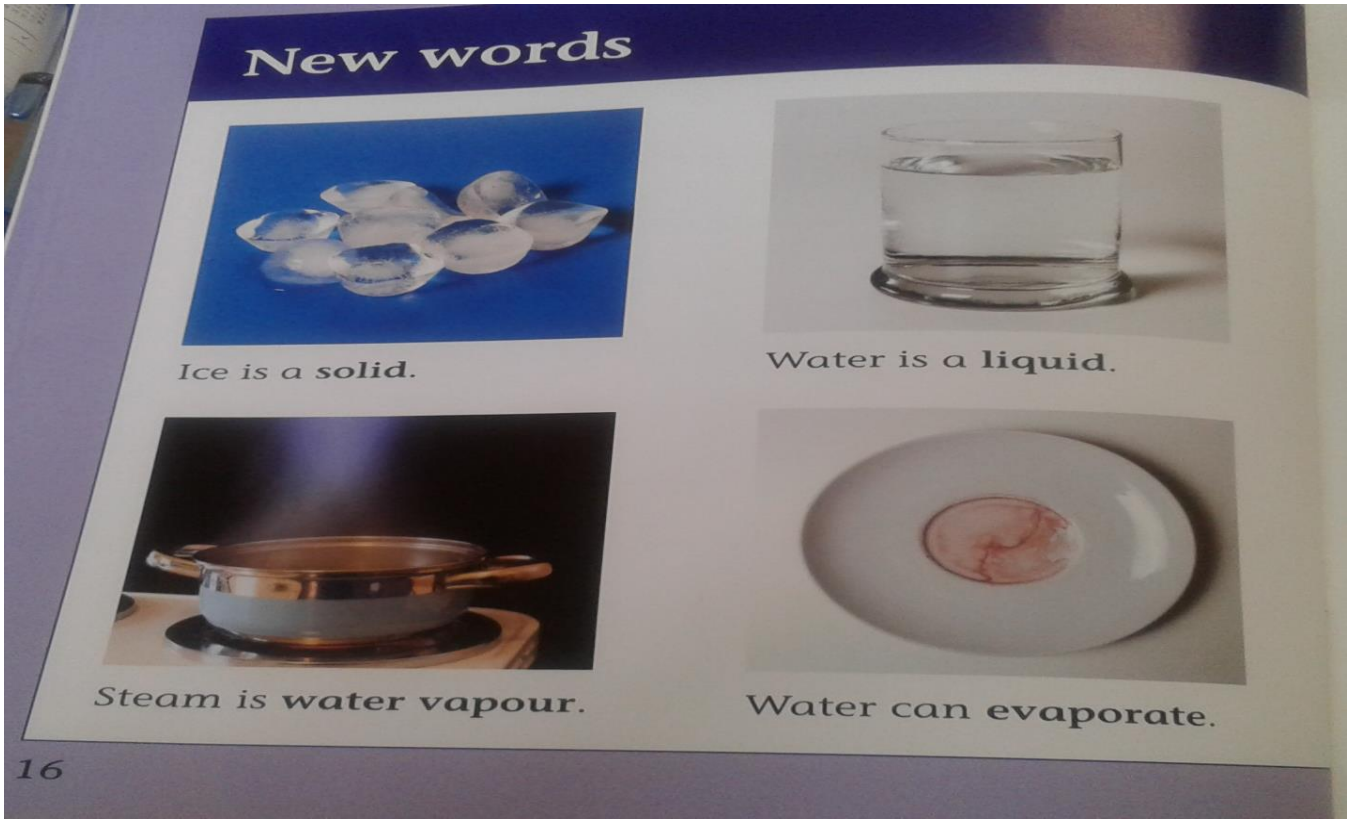


Figure 6: Example of a Grade 3 English expository text extract (Sinclair, 2009) 'Water changes'

Figure 6 above is an example of the few expository texts found in the Grade 3 classroom library. As it can be seen on figure 6 above, the text simply describes what water is and all the forms it takes in different temperatures. The concluding page shows that the aim of the text was simply to introduce 'new words' such as solid, liquid, water vapour, and evaporate. The text does not seek to probe learners' thinking about the chemical formation of water which allows it to take different forms at different temperatures. Notably, the purpose of the text seen through the aim to learn new words is not expositorily oriented as the book does not probe learners to think expositorily. These two Grade 3 texts sampled (narrative and expository) here depicts the low cognitive demand of texts which are found in the classroom libraries. In essence, learners are being short-circuited to engage with texts at a shallow level; rendering them to cognitive development short of automaticity to deeply engage with texts. Inevitably, exposure to this kind of texts initiates learners into a cognitive pattern which is inadequate for reading comprehension success beyond Grade 3.

4.3.3. The cultural relevance of texts

The cultural relevance of texts was also evaluated using the researcher cultural intuition as a member of the Vatsonga people who speak Xitsonga which is the culture and language of learners found in the classrooms that participated in the study. The cultural relevance of texts relates to the learners' ability to identify with the characters or circumstances in the text. Taking figure 5 above as an example, two sets of logic are observable within the story, first is on the power of female coaxing of a male to get them to do what the female wants. This is visible when the father immediately allowed the kids, dog, and the cat to come back onto the big bed because the mother persuaded him to in their presence. Second, are issues of respect for privacy; this is displayed when the boys looked in through the door into their parents' bedroom (p.7). Cultural intuition here dictates that even though coaxing of the father by the mother in the interest of the children is deeply rooted in the Vatsonga tradition; the children never witness it happen.

Coaxing is viewed as an intimate and private matter between husband and wife, which is never discussed nor displayed in the presence of others, particularly children. On

the second logic of respect to privacy, cultural intuition dictates that children will have no freedom to enter their parents' room for any reason.

The family culture depicted in the story and images is entirely different from a typical Vatsonga family as described here. This consequently, suggests that learners will not be able to identify with the characters and the circumstances in the story as the logic behind the story does not relate to their logic about family tradition.

4.4. Environmental print

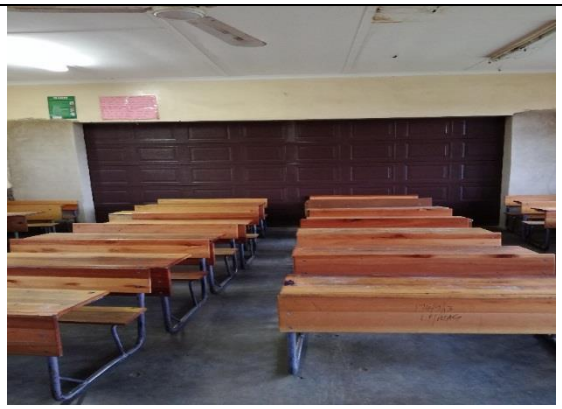
This section presents findings on classroom environmental print in terms of availability, age relevance, accessibility, and whether the prints were local or imports, discussing whether the print on the classroom walls were created in the classroom or brought from outside the classroom.

4.4.1. Print on Classroom Walls

The theme of lack of adequate classroom print emerged because all the items which were posted on the classroom walls in Grade 1 to 3 classes that participated in the study appeared to be almost bare.



Front



Back



Left



Right



Back left corner



Back right corner



Front right corner

Figure 7: Image of a Grade 3 classroom walls

As can be seen in figure 7 above, the Grade 3 classroom is almost print bare. An entire wall at the back of a Grade 3 class only has two items pasted; one of which is a ‘children’s prayer’ and the other an imported poster on ‘10 hints’ of abuse. The front of the class has the most locally created print with two green posters with words written in a cursive style, and the labels of the cupboard, maths kit, and life skills kit. The left and the right side have one locally created print each written a few English words. All the images are so high up the walls such that a Grade 3 learner would need to climb up the desk to be able to read them.

This analysis focuses on Grade 3 as it is the last grade of the foundation phase, after which learners will start to read to learn in grade 4 and beyond. The poor environmental print depicted in figure 7 above suggests that learners also have no exposure to print for accidental reading. This finding suggests that children have little to pay attention to, whether it be words in an environmental print or in books which has important implications and inspires the use of environmental print for supporting early print knowledge (Neumann et al., 2014).

4.4.2. Types of wall print

The purpose of this section was to analysis the print environment to learn about the type of print found on the classroom walls. The types of print which were found included images and hand-drawn artefacts. An image of different kinds of weather patterns was typical in the classrooms. The image appeared in different colours, shapes and sizes, but all would depict a rainy day; a windy day; a cloudy day; and a sunny day. A story which was being told in pictures showed images of items found in a home titled ‘my home’ in Xitsonga. See Figure 8 below.



Front



Back



Left



Right



Back left corner



Back right corner



Left front corner



Right front corner

Figure 8: Images of the Grade 1 classroom walls

Figure 8 above depicts the Grade 1 classroom walls. The back wall of a Grade 1 class has two notice boards. The notice board on the left has two items posted on it; with

the one at the far left showing a hand-drawn artefact of different weather patterns. This is just an example of a 'weather' image common in the three classrooms (grades 1-3). Another kind of print found on the classroom walls were different kinds of lists. These included lists of numbers, lists of the alphabet followed by syllables and words that can be formed from the syllables and lists of sentences that can be formed from the words, lists of vocabulary words, class rules and class prayers.



Front



Back



Left



Right



Back left corner



Back right corner



Front left corner

Figure 9: Images of the Grade 2 classroom walls

Figure 9 above shows the Grade 2 classroom walls. The back of the class also has two notice boards. A total of 6 posters are visible. From left to right the first poster depicts numbers, with the second to the sixth posters depicting Xitsonga Alphabet, syllables, words and sentences.

4.4.3. Imported or locally created print

As can be seen in figures 7 and 8 above, the available print is created in the classroom by the teachers. This to a great degree, suggest that the majority of the texts on the classroom walls are created in the classroom. Locally created texts generally present learners with opportunities to the author, and or be part of the text creation process. What is notable in the case of the locally created print in figures 7 and 8 is that writings are those of alphabets, single words, and numbers. These have been written in no context, only exposing learners to reading single words without an intention to deduce meaning. This also deprives learners an opportunity to read full sentences and statements. This defeats the purpose of locally creating texts with learners because literature indicates that the meaningfulness of locally creating texts lies in bringing the learners' language, culture, and lived experiences to the literacy learning experiences (Hoffman & Schallert, 2004). Without writing complete words, complete statements and complete images, whatever else is created in class cannot count as text creation.

4.4.4. Syllabus and age relevance of texts

All the print is age relevant as it comprises of alphabet, numbers, and sight words. The print s relevance to age here is as prescribed by the foundation phase curriculum, where the focus of instruction is more on phonemic awareness than reading for meaning. Thus, the limiting nature of the wall print is a result of the curriculum prescript more than teacher choice. Furthermore, these wall prints are high on the walls for Grade 1 and 2 learners to reach for reading. Figure 9, front image of the Grade 2 classroom depicts some of the print right above the chalkboard, where even the teacher cannot read without climbing on to something. This finding suggests that the wall print is more teacher-oriented than learner oriented. Inevitably, the nature and the location of the classroom environmental print renders the age relevance of the print irrelevant to the young readers.

4.4.5. Bilingual imbalance on the wall print

Since the context of the classroom in this study is bilingual, this section focused on the bilingual nature of the classroom print environment. The findings reveal that almost all of the print found on the classroom walls are in Xitsonga; excluding two posters found in Grade 3 (the time-table and the child' prayer) which are written in English. Refer to figures 7, 8 and 9 above, which clearly shows how almost all the wall prints at the back of the Grade 1-3 classes are in Xitsonga. There is certainly an L1 bias as the texts were created locally. Evidently, the wall print environment is monolingual in orientation and does not depict the bilingual nature of the foundation phase curriculum. A case in point is the Grade 1 classroom print at the back right corner, and one poster in Grade 3 at the back, which depicts only one imported wall print in English, while all the others are Xitsonga.

4.5. Chapter summary

This chapter presented findings of examined text types chosen for early grade readers and assessed their fitness for purpose in terms of the bilingual nature of the learners, cultural relevance and cognitive engagement. The chapter sought to answer the following research questions:

- What is the prevalence rates of expository and narrative early grade texts?
- What is the status quo of text prototypes in Grade 1-3 classroom print environment?
- How do Xitsonga and English text Compare and contrast in terms of prevalence?

The first finding shows that there is a general scarcity of texts across the grades and that there is a high prevalence of narrative texts across the grades with very few instances of expository texts. This text-bias exposure assumes that children cannot comprehend complex texts,particularly expository texts. This linear way of organising cognitive processing of information and mental development may in part be a cause for cognitive delay and resultant grade 4 slump where readers would not be cognitively ready to digest expository texts. This finding corroborates (Ness, 2011) finding that

even though teachers' attitudes towards informational texts were positive, some teachers preferred to use narrative texts for their disengaged students.

Generally, across studies on the availability of expository texts in the early grades, previous studies indicated that even in cases where expository texts have increased over time they were still in smaller quantities as compared to narrative texts (Goodrich et al., 2013). It is in this context that the notion of complex interdependence derived from Ubuntu translanguaging (Makalela, 2015) becomes relevant to interrogate the linear and sequential ordering of cognitive processes as a mode of thinking. Ubuntu translanguaging offers options for using multiple modes at the same time and in this case, simultaneous use of expository and narrative texts in the same grade category.

The second important finding presented in this chapter is the level to which the learners' cognitive demand is pitched. The findings showed that the cognitive demand of texts was pitched at literal comprehension and text reorganisation. In other words, the questions limit the readers to focus attention on what is in the text without any connections to real life experience. As stated above, a reading to learn approach expected of the learners is short-circuited when readers are not able to draw inferences, connect with the stories to appreciate and evaluate them. It is fair to conclude that the '4th-grade slump' becomes highly predictable mainly when the cognitive demand of text is pitched at a lower cognitive level.

Another major finding presented in this chapter is that there is inconsistent grade level distribution of the text types where it appears that there was no formula for distribution. Whereas this may be an administrative flaw, it does indicate the lack of theoretical guidance on how children become exposed to a variety of texts and reasons for the exposure. This finding is also consistent with results elsewhere that decisions about text distribution is based on convenience for teaching rather than learning (Dreher & Kletzien, 2015; Jeong, Gaffney, & Choi, 2010; Ness, 2011). Related to this finding is the absence of multilingual texts where more than one language is used in a text and culturally appropriate texts. It appears therefore that text production and selection processes are imposed onto the system of education without diligence appraisal of the cultural and linguistic realities of early grade readers. As shown throughout the analyses above, monolingual and non-cultural biases seem to be the dominant drivers

for text distribution. In this connection, the study questions the validity of claims made about the efficacy of texts in building linguistic and literacy repertoires in multilingual environments. In other words, once there is a shift from what texts look like to what the texts do to the child' overall development as a cognitive and socio-cultural being, there will be opportunities for trans-textual and trans-lingual texts development.

CHAPTER FIVE: DATA ANALYSIS PART II- LESSON OBSERVATIONS AND REFLECTIVE INTERVIEWS OF FOUNDATION PHASE TEACHERS

5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter presented findings on the book classroom libraries and environmental print in three foundation phase classrooms (grades 1-3). This chapter presents findings from lesson observations and teacher reflective interviews on the lessons in grades 1-3. The lesson observations addressed the study objective which sought to assess pedagogical practices on reading literacy in relation to text types, while the reflective interviews addressed the study objective which sought to evaluate teacher beliefs on correlations between reading development and text selection. These two study objectives also contribute to the achievement on of the study aim which was to investigate how bilingual reading development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in the foundation phase (grades 1-3). The findings are presented here thematically in three sections, where section 5.1 present findings from the lesson observations, 5.2 present findings from the reflective interviews and 5.3 presents a synergy between 5.1 and 5.2.

5.2. Lesson observation

This section presents findings from classroom observations in grades 1-3. Observations are presented in two intervals used during the observation. These intervals lasted 30 minutes each. Each part presented ends with a discussion of trends and implications across the three grades.

5.2.1. Eyes on print

For all the learners present in the classrooms during the five observed lessons in grades 1 to 3, learners would have their eyes fixated on print for a few minutes in the first 30 minutes of the lesson, and have no eyes affixed on print as the lesson progresses. In all instances, leaners fixated eyes on print when the teacher directed them to do so. In the middle of the lesson, learners would remove their eyes on print

as they were directed to listen. They would fixate their eyes on print towards the end of the lesson when the teacher directed them to do so, usually requiring them to complete a writing activity. Below are tables as extracted from the lesson observation schedules in grades 1 to 3.

Table 4: Grade 1 observation extract for learner eye fixation on print

Grade 1**: Eyes on print**						
Time intervals	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	**Total time observed in minutes in five days**
Interval 1= 30 minutes	All 58 learners had eyes on print for the first 3 minutes, by minute 21 only 11 learners had eyes on print and 20 on the 30th minute.	Only about eight learners do not have eyes on print from the 9th minute to the 30th minute. All learners have no eyes on print for 3rd and 6th minute.	No eyes on print the entire time.	All 56 head counted learners have eyes on print	All 56 learners have eyes on print, on book in the teacher s hands	84
Interval 2=30 minutes	Eyes on print for all learners started at minute 21 to minute 30.	Only 46 learners have eyes on print at the 3rd minute and only 40 at the 9th minute. No learner with eyes on print for the entire interval after that.	No eyes on print	Eyes on print for the entire 30 minutes	All eyes on print for the entire 30 minutes	75
Total minutes per day	12 Minutes	27	0	60	60	**159**

As it can be seen on table 4 above, Grade 1 learners had eyes on print mostly between the 1st and the 9th minute. On day 1, interval 1 for example, it can be seen that learners affixed their eyes on print from the first 3 minutes with numbers dwindling to 11 learners by the 21st minute; while day 2 interval 1, shows that learners had their eyes affixed on print from the 9th to the 30th minute, with 8 learners without eyes on print for the entire interval. Days four and five, interval 1 shows that learners affixed their eyes on print throughout the interval.

As can be noted on interval 2, learners did not affix their eyes on print on day three while they had their eyes affixed on print for the entire interval on day 4 and 5. Day 1 and 2, however, indicate that the Grade 1 learners began to affix their eyes on print on the 21st minute up to the 30th minute. Forty-six learners had eyes on print starting from

the 3rd minute, and 40 at the 9th minute. No learner had affixed eyes on print from the 10th minute until the end of the interval.

It is notable here that the first 30-minute interval is characterised by more learners affixing their eyes on print, and the number dwindles towards the middle of the lesson. The second 30-minute interval is characterised by more eyes on print as this part involves filling out of worksheets from workbooks. On average, learners had eyes affixed on print for 84 minutes from day 1 to 5 out of 180 minutes. The second interval records an average of 75 minutes from day 1 to 5 out of 180 minutes. This suggests that for five days of the week, in each hour of lessons observed in Grade 1 (total of 5 hours), out of 5 hours, learners only affixed their eyes on print for 2 hours and 39 minutes (159 minutes) in total.

Table 5: Grade 2 observation extract for learner eye fixation on print

Grade 2: **Eyes on print**						
Time Intervals	Day 1	Day 2	Day 2	Day 4	Day 5	**Total time observed in minutes in five days**
Interval 1= 30 minutes	No eyes on print for the First 6 minutes. The 9th, 12th and 15th minutes have all learners on print. (the teacher was writing on the board)	Min one, 0 learners; min two, 80 learners; Min three, 80 learners; Min four,76 learners; Min five,75 leaners; Min six, 76 learners; Min seven,74 learners; Min eight, 73 learners; Min nine, 75 learners; Min ten, 60 learners. All learners have no eyes on print for the entire interval.	All 80 learners have eyes on print for the first 4 minutes. Seventy-six have eyes on print between the 5th and the 10th minute. No eyes on print in the 11th and 30th minutes.	No eyes on print for the First 3 minutes. All learners have eyes on print for minute 4-15. All learners have no eyes on print by the 15th to 30th minutes.	No eyes on print for the First 2 minutes. Learners have eyes on print for the 3rd to 15th minutes. No eyes on print from the 16th to the 30th minutes.	49
Interval 2= 30 minutes	No eyes on print for all learners until minute 20 to minute 30.	No eyes on print for all learners until minute 19 to minute 30.	No eyes on print	All learners have eyes on print.	all learners have eyes on print	81
Total minutes per day	16 Minutes	21	10	41	42	**130**

As it can be seen on table 5 above; the Grade 2 learners had their eyes affixed on print for six minutes in total on day one of the first 30-minute interval and a total of 10 minutes in the second interval. Day two shows that the learners had their eyes affixed on print for 10 minutes on the first interval and 11 minutes on the second interval. Day three shows that learners hand their eyes on print for 10 minutes on the first interval and that learners did not affix their eyes on print on the second interval. Day four shows that learners had their eyes affixed on print for 11 minutes on the first interval, and then had eyes on print for the entire second interval. On Day five, learners had eyes affixed on print for 12 minutes and then affixed their eyes on print for the entire second interval.

Noticeably on the last column, learners affixed their eyes on print for a total of 49 minutes in the first interval for all the five days observed. The second interval records a total of 81 minutes for the five days observed. This suggests that in a total of five hours (300 minutes) the Grade 2 learners had their eyes affixed on print for a total of 130 minutes.

Table 6: Grade 3 observation extract for learner eye fixation on print

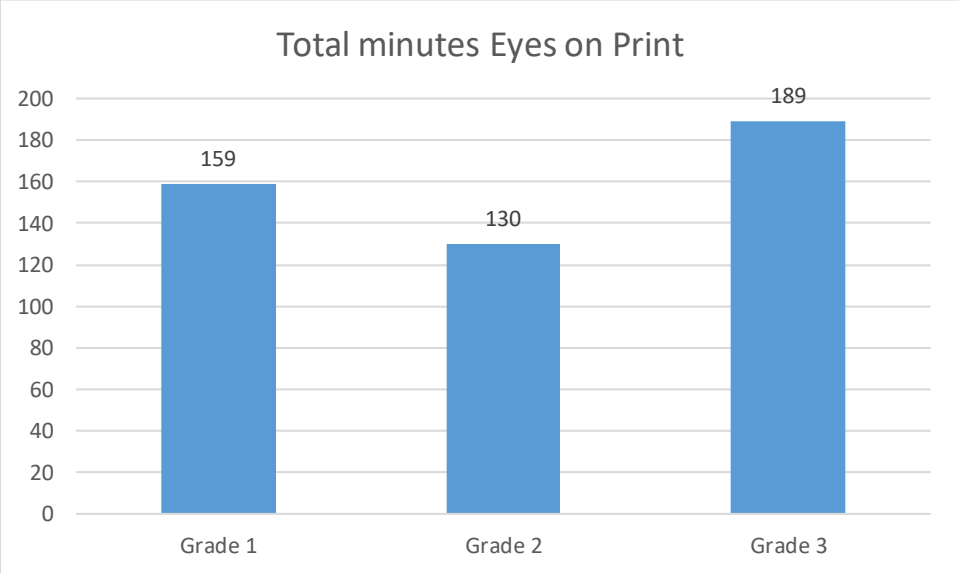
	Grade 3: **Eyes on print**					Total time observed in minutes in five days
Time Intervals	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	
Interval 1=30 minutes	56, minutes 1-3 56, minute 4-7 49, minute 8-15. No learner had eyes on print for the remainder of the interval.	A few learners are playing, 6 of them to be precise. One constantly Join in. total of about between 49 and 50 one of the learners have a book and some read throughout the first 30 minutes	54 learners have eyes on print for the first 3 minutes; it goes down to 50 and 48 after that to the end of the first interval. Only between 13 and 15 learners have eyes on print.	All 56 learners are present as per headcount. All 56 learners have eyes on print for the first 9 minutes and that changes after the 15 minute and none of them have eyes on print.	Only 55 learners present today as per headcount. In the first 3 minutes all learners have eyes on print but by the end of the minute 6 and minute 9 none of the learners have eyes on print; they move their attention from the print.	99
Interval 2=30 minutes	No eyes on print for all the other learners excluding the 7 learners sitting with the teacher	No eyes on print for the entire 30 minutes	No eyes on print for the entire 30 minutes	All learners have eyes on print for the entire 30 minutes	All learners have eyes on print for the entire 30 minutes.	90
Total minutes per day	45	30	30	45	39	**189**

As can be seen on table 6, day one shows that the Grade 3 learners had their eyes on print for 15 minutes in the first interval, and only selected seven learners had their eyes affixed on print for the entire second interval. Day two shows that learners had their eyes om print for the entire first interval, but did not affix their eyes on print for the entire second interval. Day three also shows that learners affixed their eyes on print for the first interval and had no eyes on print for the entire second interval. Day four shows that learners had eyes affixed on print for 15 minutes of the first interval, and

then affixed their eyes on print for the entire second interval. Day five shows that learners had their eyes affixed on print for 9 minutes in the first interval, and then affixed their eyes on print for the entire second interval.

Noticeably, Grade 3 learners affixed their eyes on print for similar significant periods between the first and second intervals. The last column shows that learners affixed their eyes on print for 99 minutes, while they affixed their eyes on print for 90 minutes in the second interval. For all the five hours (300 minutes) observed in Grade 3, learners affixed their eyes on print for 189 minutes.

Trends on 'Eyes on print.'



Graph 8: Trends on 'Eyes on print' in grades 1, 2 and 3

Arguably it can be expected that eye fixation periods on print should increase from the lowest to the highest grade, aligning with the gradual development of their attention span as learners grow. Graph 8 above shows that the Grade 1 learners affixed their eyes on print for a total of 159 minutes, Grade 2 for 130 minutes, and Grade 3 for 189 minutes. Noticeably, there was a decline in the number of minutes in eye fixation on print in Grade 2 from 159 to 139, with a difference of 20 minutes. However, there is a significant incline of 189 minutes in Grade 3, suggesting that eye fixation is significantly higher in Grade 3 than in both grades 1 and 2.

It can also be expected that learners should affix their eyes longer in the first part of the lesson, and gradually remove their eyes as their attention span becomes exhausted in the last parts of the lesson. Noticeable, Grade 2 learners recorded a different trend where they affixed their eyes longer during the second interval than the first interval, with 49 and 81 respectively. Grade 3 learners recorded an expected trend (even though not significantly different) where they affixed their eyes longer in the first interval than in the second interval, with 99 minutes and 90 minutes respectively. These findings confirm earlier findings elsewhere that older readers have a much higher attention span on text than younger readers (Van Den Boer et al., 2015).

In this study, these findings have implications on the role of the teacher to direct learners 'attention to print. In this case, there was no intentionality by the teacher to maximise the amount of time learners spend fixating their eyes on print. Consequently, learners would have been less exposed to print throughout the foundation phase, decreasing their chances to acquire adequate reading skills necessary for academic success beyond the foundation phase.

5.2.2. Hands on Books

The findings presented below indicate instances where learners interacted with books. In all instances, learners interacted with books when the teachers handed them books. Teachers read aloud to learners more than learners in most instances.

Table 7: Grade 1 learners' instances of 'hands on books' in five observed lessons

	Grade 1: Hands on Books					Total time observed in minutes in five days
Time interval	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	
Interval 1= 30 minutes	No hands on books for the first 30 minutes	No hands on books for the entire 30 minutes	No hands on books the entire time.	All learners have a hand on the worksheets	No hands on books	30
Interval 2= 30 minutes	No hands on books the entire 30 minutes	No hands on books for the whole 30 minutes	No hands on books	Hands on books for the entire 30 minutes.	Hands on books to complete a task for the entire 30 mints	60
Total minutes per day	**0**	**0**	**0**	**60**	**30**	**90**

As can be seen in table 7 above, the Grade 1 learners had no hands on books on day one, two and three. Noticeably, on day four and five the learners had a hand on books for 60 and 30 minutes respectively. The last column shows that learners had books in their hands longer (60 minutes) in the second interval than in the first interval (30 minutes); with a total of 90 minutes in which learners handled books in five hours observed across five days. This indicates that the second interval was characterised by activities which included learners handling and or using books.

Table 8: Grade 2 learners' instances of 'hands on books' in five observed lessons

Grade 2: Hands on Books						Total **time observed in minutes in five days**
Time interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1= 30 minutes	No hands on books for the first 30 minutes.	No hands on books	No learners have hands on books.	No learners have hands-on books.	No learners have hands on books.	0
Interval 2= 30 minutes	Hands on books for all learners starting at minute 20 to minute 30.	No hands on books for the entire 30 minutes.	No hands on books for the entire 30 minutes	All learners have hands on books for the entire 30 minutes	all learners have hands-on books	70
Total Minutes per day	**10**	**0**	**0**	**30**	**30**	**70**

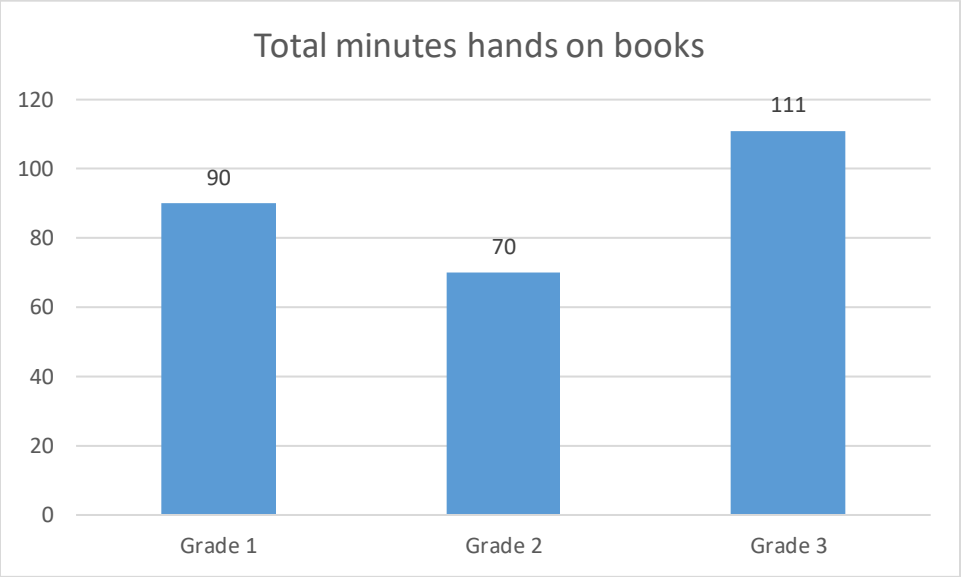
As it can be seen on the table above, the Grade 2 learners had no books in their hands for the first interval in all the five lessons observed over five days. Columns three and four also show that the learners did not have books in their hands on day two and three. In total, learners had books in their hands for 70 minutes, with ten minutes on day one, 30 minutes on day four, and 30 minutes on day 5. Evidently, the second interval is characterised by learners handling books than in the first interval.

Table 9: Grade 3 learners' instances of 'hands on books' in five observed lessons

Grade 3: Hands on Books						Total time observed in minutes in five days
Time interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1= 30 minutes	All the children have their hands on books for the entire 30 minutes.	All the learners have hands on books only on the last 9 minutes of the 30 minute.	No learners have hands on books for the entire 30 minutes.	No learners have hands-on books for the entire 30 minutes.	One of the girls is reading or looking at a book which may be unrelated to the lesson I also since Monday that the teacher only gives workbooks after the lesson	**51**
Interval 2=30 minutes	No hands on books for all the learners	No hands on books	No hands on books	All learners have hands on books	all learners have hands-on books	**60**
Total Minutes per day	**30**	**21**	**0**	**30**	**30**	**111**

As can be seen on the table above, the Grade 3 learners hand no hands on books on day three for the lesson observed. Learners had hands on books for 30 minutes on day one, all 30 minutes on the first interval. Column three shows that learners had their hand on books for 21 minutes on day 2, with all 21 minutes on the first interval of day two. Column five shows that learners had their hands on books for 30 minutes on the first interval of day four. Column six shows that learners also had their hands on books for 30 minutes on the first interval of day five. In total, the Grade 3 learners hand hands on books for 111 minutes of the 300 minutes of lesson observation. It is evident in the last column that learners had their hands on books longer on the second interval (60 minutes) than in the first interval (51 minutes).

Trends on 'hands on books' in grades 1, 2 and 3



Graph 9: Total minutes with hands on books in Grade 1, 2 and 3

As seen on graph 9 above which present the period Grade 1, 2 and 3 learners handled books in 5 hours across five days; there is a trend which is evident across the three grades in terms of the number of minutes the learners handled books in both the first and the second intervals. An observable trend is the total amount of time learners had books on their hands from the lowest to the highest grade. Grade 1 learners had hands on books for a total of 90 minutes, Grade 2 with a total of 70 minutes, and Grade 3 with a total of 111 minutes. It is also evident that the number of minutes spent with hands on books are less than half of the time of the lesson. With all the five lessons observed across five days, and each lasting 60 minutes (300 minutes across five days per grade), Grade 1 learners spent 90 minutes out of 300, Grade 2 learners spent 70 minutes out of 300, and Grade 3 learners spent 111 minutes out of 300. Arguably, there should be a constant growth in the amount of time learners handle books as they progress from the lower to the higher grade. In this case, there is a decline from Grade 1 to Grade 2, and significant inconstant growth from 70 minutes in Grade 2 to 111 minutes in Grade 3.

The above trends taken together suggest that first, there are no intentional curriculum efforts to expose learners to books in the foundation phase. Second, that there are no

intentional curriculum efforts to gradually increase the amount of time learners spend handling and or in contact with books as they progress from one grade to another. Consequently, Learners will exit the foundation phase with little experience in independent reading of books, thereby decreasing their chances of mastering the skill of independent reading necessary for successful reading to learn beyond the foundation phase.

5.2.3. Major focus of instruction

This section presents findings in terms of the focus of instruction across grades one through three. The three tables below present the number of counts where the focus of instruction was on Language (L), Mathematics (M) and Life-skills (LS) in two 30-minute intervals. The count for the focus of instruction was done to determine the amount of time spent on language (narrative) separate from content (expository), and vice versa.

Table 10: Grade 1 major focus of instruction

Grade 1: Major focus of instruction						**Focus of instruction per interval**
1 hour	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	Mathematics (M)	Language(L)	Life-skills (LS)	Mathematics	Life-skills ; language	M=2 L=2 LS=2
Interval 2=30 minutes	Language	Language	Life-skills	Mathematics	Life-skills ; language	M=1 L= 3 LS=2
			Totals→			**M=5 L=5 LS=4**

As it can be seen on table 10 above, the focus of instruction in Grade 1 was on Mathematics on day 1, Language on day 2, Life-skills on day 3, Mathematics on day 4, and Life-skills/Language on day 5. The last column shows that the first 30-minute interval records that Mathematics, Language and Life-skills were the focus of instruction for equal instances at two counts each. The second interval records that Mathematics recorded one count as a focus of instruction, with language having recorded three counts and Life-skills recorded two counts. Overall, Mathematics

recorded five counts as a focus of instruction over the 5 hours of observation across five days. The language also recorded five counts as a focus on instruction, and Life-skills recorded four counts as a focus of instruction.

Table 11: Grade 2 major focus of instruction

	Grade 2: Major focus of instruction					**Focus of instruction per interval**
1 hour	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	
Interval 1=30 minutes	Life-skills	Language	Mathematics	Language	Mathematics	**M=2 L=2 LS=1**
Interval 2=30 minutes	Life-skills	Mathematics	Life-skills	Language	Life-skills	**M=1 L=1 LS=3**
			Totals→			**M=3 L=3 LS=4**

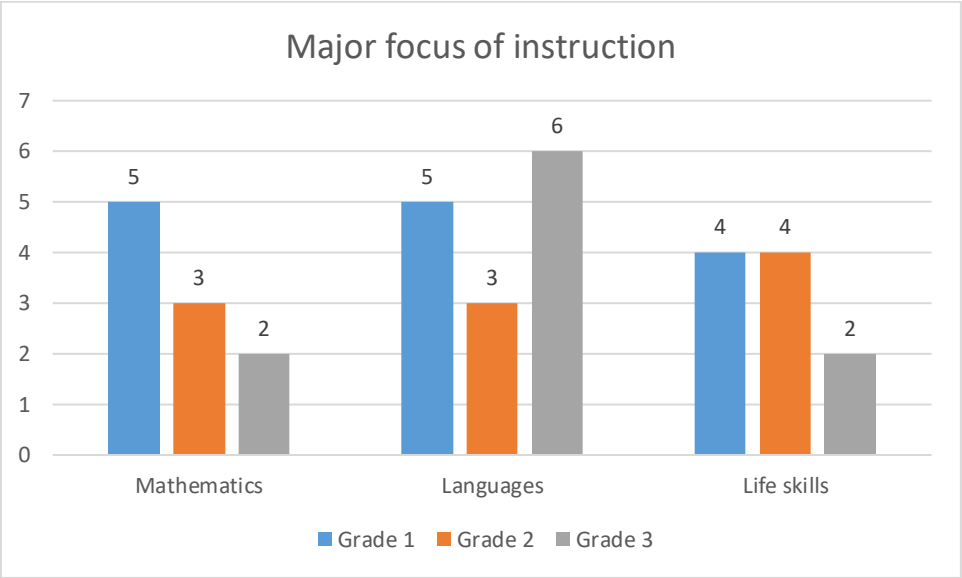
As it can be seen on table 11 above, the focus of instruction in Grade 2 was on Life-skills on day 1, Language and Mathematics on day 2, Mathematics and Life-skills on day 3, Language on day 4, Mathematics and Life-skills on day 5. The last column shows that the first 30-minute interval records that Mathematics and Language were the focus of instruction for equal instances at two counts each, while Life-skills recorded one count. The second 30-minute interval records that Mathematics recorded one count as a focus of instruction, with language also recording 1 count, and Life-skills recording 2 counts. Overall, Mathematics recorded 3 counts as a focus of instruction over the 5 hours of observation across 5 days. Language also recorded 3 counts as a focus of instruction, and Life-skills recorded 4 counts as a focus of instruction.

Table 12: Grade 3 major focus of instruction

Grade 3: Major focus of instruction						Focus of instruction per interval
1 hour	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	Language	Language	Mathematics	Language	Life skill	**M=1 L=3 LS=1**
Interval 2=30 minutes	Language	Language	Mathematics	Language	Life-skills	**M=1 L=3 LS=1**
			Totals→			**M=2 L=6 LS=2**

As it can be seen on table 12 above, the focus of instruction in Grade 3 was on Language on day 1, Language on day 2, Mathematics on day 3, Language on day 4, and Life-skills on day 5. The last column shows that the first 30-minute interval records that Mathematics and Life-skills were the focus of instruction for equal instances at one counts each, while Language recorded three counts. The second 30-minute interval records that Mathematics recorded one count as a focus of instruction, with language having recorded three counts, and Life-skills recorded one count. Overall, Mathematics recorded two counts as a focus of instruction over the 5 hours of observation across 5 days. Language recorded 6 counts as a focus of instruction, and Life-skills recorded 2 counts as a focus of instruction.

Trends on major focus of instruction



Graph 10: Overall counts on the focus of instruction

As can be seen from the graph above, two trends are evident. First, it is evident that there is not intentional curriculum effort within a subject from the lower to the higher grade to increase the amount of time spent for instruction. For example, the graph shows that Life-skills was equally a focus of instruction at four counts for both Grade 1 and 2, with it even lower at Grade 3 at the count of two. Similarly, Mathematics had fewer counts as a focus of instruction in Grade 3 (2 counts) than in both Grade 1 (5 counts) and two (3 counts). Interestingly, Language had the highest counts as a focus of instruction in Grade 3 than in both Grade 1 and 2, with a record of 6 counts, and Grade 1 and 2 with 5 and 3 counts respectively.

The second major trend can be seen in the above graph where there is no intentional curriculum effort to maintain equality across the subjects as a focus of instruction within a single grade. For example, Grade 1 recorded a constant in mathematics and language as the focus of instruction, both at the count of three and increased by one count in Life-skills to four counts. Similarly, Grade 3 has a constant low of two counts in both mathematics and life skills, while Grade 2 has a constant of 3 counts on both Mathematics and Language with an increase to four counts in Life-skills.

The above trends taken together have implications on the degree of exposure to a set of knowledge structures as expressed in each subject. It can be expected that more exposure to knowledge structures in language learning is more likely to lead to familiarity and academic success in that subject. It can also be expected that there should be an effort to increase the focus of instruction in content subjects such as Mathematics and Life-skills, as learners' progress from Grade 1 to Grade 2 and Grade 3. This is because learners will most likely need to be more familiar with content subject knowledge structures to succeed academically beyond the foundation phase.

5.2.4. Teacher's role

This section presents findings from observations on the role played by the teacher in facilitating learning. The findings on the three tables below show the frequency counts of teacher's role in Guiding practice (GP), circulating to oversee instruction (Circ) and Telling or Lecturing (T-Lec), Questioning (Q).

Table 13: Teacher's role in Grade 1

Grade 1: Teacher's role						**Teacher's role (counts)**
Time intervals	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1: 30 minutes	Guiding practice (GP); circulating to oversee instruction (Circ).	Telling and lecturing (T-Lec); questioning(Q)	Telling or lecturing	Telling or lecturing; guiding practice; circulating or overseeing instruction.	Telling or lecturing; circulating or overseeing instruction	**GP=2 T-Lec=4 Circ=3 Q=1**
Interval 2: 30 minutes	Telling and lecturing; guiding practice; questioning.	Telling or lecturing; questioning	Telling or lecturing; questioning	Telling or lecturing; questioning	Telling or lecturing; guiding practice; circulating or overseeing instruction	**GP=2 T-Lec=5 Circ=1 Q=4**
		Totals→				**GP=4 T-Lec=9 Circ=4 Q=5**

As it can be seen on table 13 above, the Grade 1 teacher's role in the first interval across day 1-5 recorded that telling and lecturing method was used four times. Circulating and overseeing instruction recorded three counts, while guiding practice and questioning recorded 2 and 1 counts respectively. As indicated earlier when presenting findings on the focus of instruction above, it can be seen on table 10 that the focus of instruction in Grade 1 was on Mathematics on day 1, Language on day 2, Life-skills on day 3, Mathematics on day 4, and Life-skills/Language on day 5. The finding taken together indicates that the teacher uses the telling and lecturing more than the other methods to teach both language and content subjects.

The second interval shows that telling and lecturing also recorded a higher count of 5, with questioning at four counts, guiding practice at two counts, and circulating to oversee instruction with one count. Overall, both the intervals recorded that telling and lecturing had the highest count of nine, followed by questioning at five counts, with guiding practice and circulating to oversee instruction at four counts each. It is evident therefore that the teacher's role in Grade 1 is largely on telling and lecturing. This finding further indicates that both language and content subjects are taught using the telling and lecturing method. A similar trend is evident in findings for both grade 2 and grade 3 below.

Table 14: Teacher's role in Grade 2

	Grade 2: Teacher's role					**Teacher's role (counts)**
Time intervals	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1= 30 minutes	Telling or lecturing, questioning.	Telling or lecturing, questioning.	Telling or lecturing	Telling or lecturing, questioning	Telling or lecturing, questioning	**GP=0 T-Lec=5 Circ=0 Q=4**
Interval 2= 30 minutes	Telling or lecturing, questioning	Guiding practice, circulating or overseeing instruction	Telling or lecturing	Guiding practice, circulating or overseeing instruction	Telling or lecturing, Guiding practice, circulating or overseeing instruction, Questioning	**GP= 3 T-Lec=3 Circ=3 Q=2**
			Totals→			**GP=3 T-Lec=8 Circ=3 Q=6**

As it can be seen on table 14 above, the Grade 2 teacher's role in the first interval across day 1-5 recorded that telling and lecturing method was used 5 times. Circulating and overseeing instruction recorded zero counts, while guiding practice also recorded zero times, and questioning recorded four counts.

The second interval shows that telling and lecturing recorded three counts, with questioning at two counts, guiding practice at three counts, and circulating to oversee instruction with three counts. Overall, both the intervals recorded that telling and lecturing had the highest count of eight, followed by questioning at six counts, with guiding practice at three counts and circulating to oversee instruction at three counts each as well. It is evident therefore that the teacher's role in Grade 2 is largely on telling and lecturing.

Table 15: Teacher's role in Grade 3

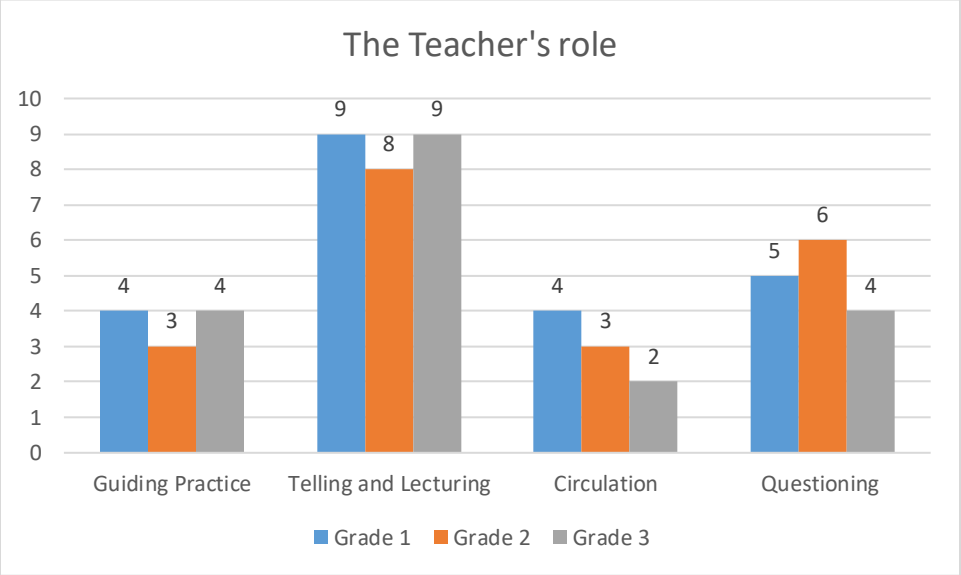
Grade 3: Teacher's role						**Teacher's role (counts)**
Time intervals	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	Telling or lecturing	Telling or lecturing, guiding practice	Telling or lecturing	Telling or lecturing, questioning	Telling or lecturing, questioning	**GP=1 T-Lec=5 Circ=0 Q=2**
Interval 2=30 minutes	Telling or lecturing, questioning	Telling or lecturing, guiding practice	Telling or lecturing	Guiding practice, circulating or overseeing instruction	Telling or lecturing, Guiding practice, circulating or overseeing instruction, questioning	**GP=3 T-Lec=4 Circ=2 Q=2**
			Totals→			**GP=4 T-Lec=9 Circ=2 Q=4**

As it can be seen on table 15 above, the Grade 3 teacher's role in the first interval across day one to five recorded that telling and lecturing method was used 5 times. Circulating and overseeing instruction recorded zero counts, while guiding practice recorded one count, and questioning recorded two counts.

The second interval shows that telling and lecturing recorded four counts, with questioning at two counts, guiding practice at three counts, and circulating to oversee

instruction with two counts. Overall, both the intervals recorded that telling and lecturing had the highest count of nine, followed by guiding practice at four counts, with questioning also at four counts, and circulating to oversee instruction at two counts each. It is evident therefore that the teacher's role in Grade 2 is largely on telling and lecturing.

Trends on the teachers' role



Graph 11: Trends on the teachers' role

As it can be seen on the graph above, telling and lecturing as the teacher's role in the classroom has recorded the highest overall; with eight to nine counts across grades 1-3. Interesting to note is that the Grade 1 and Grade 3 classes have recorded an equal count on telling and lecturing as the teacher's role. Arguably, Grade 1 learners would need less lecturing as compared to Grade 3 learners. Circulation to oversee instruction as the teacher's role has recorded the lowest count across the three grades, while questioning has recorded between four to six across the grades. Guiding practice recorded between three and four across the grades.

The role of the teacher plays a major role in the degree of the meaningfulness of the classroom interaction, particularly in young learners. The telling and lecturing method is by far one of the teaching methods which cannot be suitable for use with young learners. This finding has implications on the meaningfulness of the learners'

interaction with the print environment. Consequently, the predominant use of this method will lead to shallow interactions thereby lead to poor literacy experiences.

5.2.5. Talk in English/Xitsonga

In this section, findings from the observations on the language used for teaching and learning by both teachers and learners in two 30-minute intervals are presented in percentiles.

Table 16: Talk in English and Xitsonga in Grade 1

Grade 1: Talk in English/Xitsonga						Talk in English/Xitsonga in percentages
Time Interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	75% Xitsonga 25% English	90% Xitsonga 10% English	**93% Xitsonga 7% English**
Interval 2=30 minutes	75% Xitsonga 25% English	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	90% Xitsonga 10% English	**93% Xitsonga 7% English**
			Totals→			**93% Xitsonga 7% English**

As it can be seen on table 16 above, the first interval shows that Xitsonga was the language used for classroom interactions in Grade 1 at 93%, with English at 7%. The second interval shows that Xitsonga was again the language mostly used for interactions in Grade 1 at 93%, and English at 7%. This suggests that the overall use of both Xitsonga and English was at 93% and 7% respectively.

Table 17: Talk in English and Xitsonga in Grade 2

Grade 2: Talk in English/Xitsonga						Talk in English/Xitsonga in percentages
Time intervals	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	100% in Xitsonga	**100% Xitsonga**
Interval 2=30 minutes	100% Xitsonga	80% Xitsonga, 20% English for naming numbers.	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	**96 % Xitsonga 4% English**
		Totals→				**98% Xitsonga 2% English**

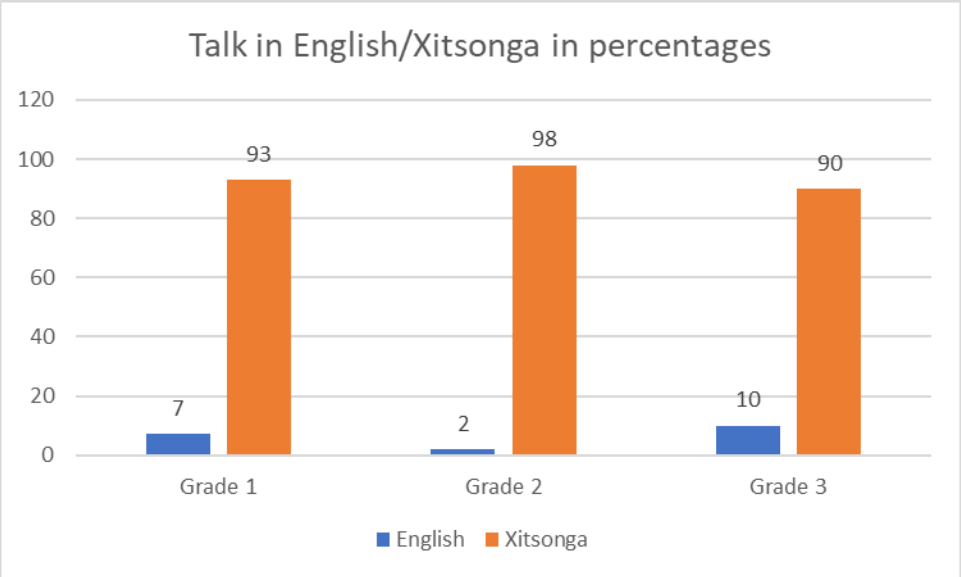
As it can be seen on table 17 above, the first interval shows that Xitsonga was the language used for classroom interactions in Grade 2 at 100%, with no use of English for interactions. The second interval shows that Xitsonga was again the language mostly used for interactions in Grade 2 at 96%, and English at 4%. This suggests that the overall use of both Xitsonga and English was at 98% and 2% respectively.

Table 18: Talk in English and Xitsonga in Grade 3

Grade 3: Talk in English/Xitsonga						Talk in English/Xitsonga in percentages
Time intervals	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	100% Xitsonga	50% Xitsonga 50% English	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	**90% Xitsonga 10% English**
Interval 2=30 minutes	100% Xitsonga	50% Xitsonga 50% English	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	100% Xitsonga	**90% Xitsonga 10% English**
		Totals→				**90% Xitsonga 10% English**

As it can be seen on table 18 above, the first interval shows that Xitsonga was the language used for classroom interactions in Grade 3 at 90%, with English at 10%. The second interval also shows that Xitsonga was again the language mostly used for interactions in Grade 3 at 90%, and English at 10%. This suggest that the overall use of both Xitsonga and English was at 90% and 10% respectively.

Trends on talk in English/Xitsonga



Graph 12: Talk in English/Xitsonga in percentages

As it can be seen on the graph above, talk across grades 1-3 was predominantly in Xitsonga, where Grade 1 recorded 93%, Grade 2 recorded 98%, and Grade 3 recorded 90%. This finding suggests that classroom interactions across the three grades are predominately in Xitsonga even in the teaching of English as a subject.

While studies have shown that the use of a more familiar language is more beneficial to epistemic access (Creese & Blackledge, 2010), the South African curriculum requires that instruction is in English for all content subjects in grade 4 and beyond. In this case, the recorded instances of English being used for interaction in the five hours (100%) observed indicates that interactions in English were 7% in Grade 1, 2% in Grade 2, and 10% in Grade 3. It can be expected that in this case, learners will progress to grade 4 with little skills to interact in a language (English) they are to read and learn in.

5.2.6. Mode of text (s) included in 'eyes on print.'

This section presents findings from the observations concerning the mode of texts which learners fixated their eyes on. The findings are presented here include modes of print such as worksheets (WS), Chalkboard (CH), Book in the hands of the teacher (BT) and books in the hands of the learners (BL).

Table 19: Mode of texts included in 'eyes on print' in Grade 1

Grade 1: Mode of text included in 'eyes on print'						Counts of modes of text
Time Interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	Worksheets	Chalkboard	Book in the hands of the teacher	Chalkboard; worksheets	Chalkboard; book in the hands of the teacher	**WS-02 CH-03 BT-02 BL-0**
Interval 2=30 minutes	Chalkboard; other visual aids	Chalkboard	Chalkboard; book in the hands of the teacher	Chalkboard, workbook,	Books in the hands of students; chalkboard; Books in the hands of the teacher.	**WS-01 CH-05 BT-02 BL-01**
			Total →			**WS-03 CH-08 BT-04 BL- 01**

As it can be seen on table 19 above, the first interval shows that the text on the chalkboard was the print mode which learners affixed their eyes most with a count of three across the five hours observed in five different days. Learners affixed their eyes on print in worksheets and on books in the hands of the teacher for two counts each; while they did not affix their eyes on print in books in their hands.

The second interval shows that the chalkboard remained the mode of print which learners affixed their eyes on the most, with a count of 5 across the five days observed. They affixed their eyes on print in books in the hands of teacher for two counts, while worksheets and books in their hands have one count each of eye fixation. Overall, the chalkboard as a mode of print recorded the highest counts of eight, followed by the books in the hands of the teacher at four counts, worksheets recorded three counts, and books in the hands of the learners recorded three counts.

Table 20: Mode of texts included in eyes on print in Grade 2

Grade 2: Mode of text included in 'eyes on print.'						Counts of modes of text
Time intervals	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	Chalkboard	Chalkboard	Chalkboard, worksheet pamphlets in the hands of the teacher.	Chalkboard, worksheets in the hands of the teacher.	Chalkboard, books in the hands of the teacher, books in the hands of the learners.	**WS-2 CH-5 BT-3 BL- 1**
Interval 2=30 minutes	Chalkboard	Worksheets	Chalkboard worksheets	Chalkboard, books in the hands of students; books in the hands of the teacher	Books in the hands of the teacher	**WS-2 CH-3 BT-2 BL-1**
		Totals →				**WS-4 CH-8 BT-5 BL-2**

As it can be seen on table 20 above, the first interval shows that the text on the chalkboard was the print mode which Grade 2 learners affixed their eyes most with a count of five across the five hours observed in five different days. Grade 2 learners affixed their eyes on print in worksheets for two counts, and on books in the hands of the teacher for three counts; while they affixed their eyes on print in books in their hands for one count.

The second interval shows that the chalkboard remained the mode of print which learners affixed their eyes on the most, with a count of three across the five days observed. They affixed their eyes on print in books in the hands of teacher for two counts, while worksheets and books in their hands have two and one counts respectively. Overall, the chalkboard as a mode of print recorded the highest counts of eight, followed by the books in the hands of the teacher at five counts, worksheets recorded four counts, and books in the hands of the learners recorded two counts.

The findings on classroom libraries in chapter 4 already indicated that classrooms have inadequate books and wall print. Earlier studies have also found that schools in Limpopo province do not have libraries, and the few that have libraries have

inadequate books (Department of Basic Education, 2011c). Logically, when there are not enough books, teachers inevitably use the chalkboard for teaching to read, hence it recorded a high score as a mode of text.

Table 21: Mode of texts included in eyes on print in Grade 3

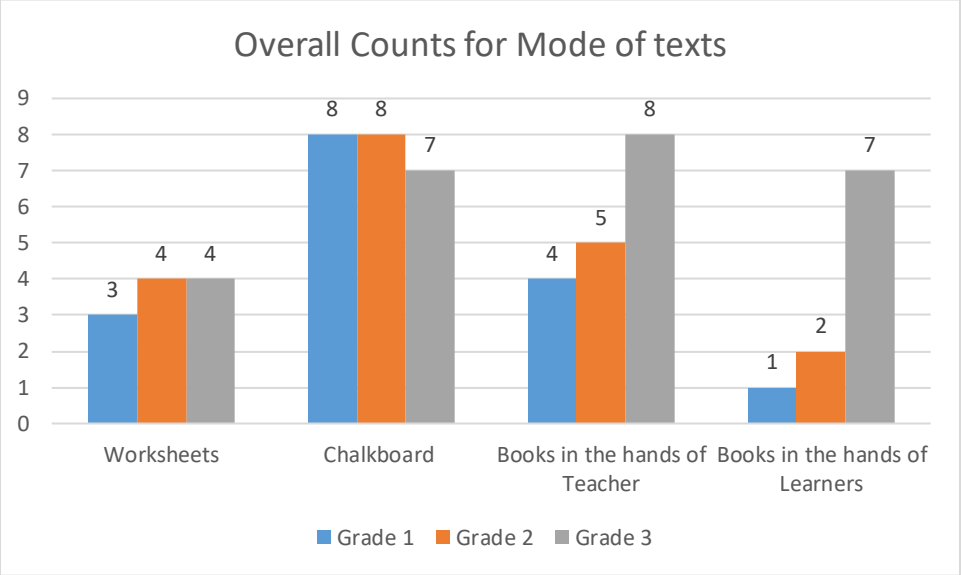
Grade 3: Mode of text included in 'eyes on print'						Counts of modes of text
Time interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	Chalkboard, Worksheets, books in the hands of learners, books in the hands of the teacher	Chalkboard, books in the hands of the teacher	Chalkboard, worksheet pamphlets in the hands of the teacher	Chalkboard, worksheets in the hands of the teacher, books in the hands of the learners	Chalkboard, books in the hands of the teacher, books in the hands of the learners	**WS-3 CH-5 BT-4 BL-3**
Interval 2=30 minutes	Books in the hands of 7 students, and book in the hand of the teacher	Books in the hands of Learners, books in the hands of the teacher	Chalkboard, worksheets	Chalkboard; books in the hands of students; books in the hands of the teacher	Books in the hands of students, books in the hands of the teacher	**WS-1 CH-2 BT-4 BL-4**
			Totals →			**WS-4 CH-7 BT-8 BL-7**

As it can be seen on table 21 above, the first interval shows that the text on the chalkboard was the print mode which Grade 3 learners affixed their eyes most with a count of five across the five hours observed in five different days. Grade 3 learners affixed their eyes on print in worksheets for three counts, and on books in the hands of the teacher for four counts; while they affixed their eyes on print in books in their hands for three counts.

The second interval shows that the chalkboard did not remain the mode of print which learners affixed their eyes on the most, with a count of two across the five days observed. They affixed their eyes on print in books in the hands of teacher for four counts, while worksheets and books in their hands have one and four counts

respectively. Overall, the chalkboard as a mode of print recorded seven counts, the books in the hands of the teacher recorded the highest counts at eight, worksheets recorded four counts, and books in the hands of the learners recorded seven counts.

Trends on Mode of texts



Graph 13: Overall counts for 'mode of texts'

As it can be seen on graph 13 above, the chalkboard was the mode of print which learners across the grades 1-3 affixed their eyes the most. In the one hand, learners across the grades affixed their eyes the least on books in their hands, excluding Grade 3 learners who recorded seven counts in this regard. Grade 3 learners also affixed their eyes the most on print in books in the hands of the teacher.

These findings imply that learners were not prompted or encouraged to read books on their own, which inevitably limits their interaction with books, thereby limiting their chances to learn how to read independently; a skill they will need the most beyond the foundation phase.

5.2.7. The genre of texts (limited texts)

This section presents findings from the observations with regard to the genre of texts which learners fixated their eyes on. The findings presented here include two genres

of texts, Narrative (N) and Expository (E). It should be noted from the onset that they were no extended texts observed, hence these findings are based on limited texts.

Table 22: Genre of texts on 'eyes on print' in Grade 1

	Grade 1: Genre of texts					Count of the genre of texts
Time interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	Expository	Expository	Expository	Expository	Narrative; vocabulary lists.	**E-04 N- 01**
Interval 2=30 minutes	Expository	Expository	Expository	Expository	Narrative	**E-04 N- 01**
			Totals→			**E- 08 N- 02**

As it can be seen on table 22 above, the first interval indicates that the genre of texts grade 1 learners fixated their eyes on were mostly expository, at a count of four across the five days observed. Narrative texts recorded a single count only on day 5. The second interval also indicates that Grade 1 learners fixated their eyes on expository texts for four counts and one count for narrative texts. Overall, expository texts recorded eight counts of learner eye fixation, while narrative texts recorded two counts.

Table 23: Genre of texts on 'eyes on print' in Grade 2

	Grade 2: Genre of texts					Count of the genre of texts
Time interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	Expository	Narrative	Expository	Narrative	Expository	**E-3 N-2**
Interval 2=30 minutes	Expository	Expository	Narrative	Narrative	Narrative	**E-2 N-3**
			Totals→			**E-5 N-5**

As it can be seen on table 23 above, the first interval indicates that the genre of texts Grade 2 learners fixated their eyes on were mostly expository, at a count of three across the five days observed. Narrative texts recorded two counts. The second interval indicates that Grade 2 learners fixated their eyes on expository texts for two

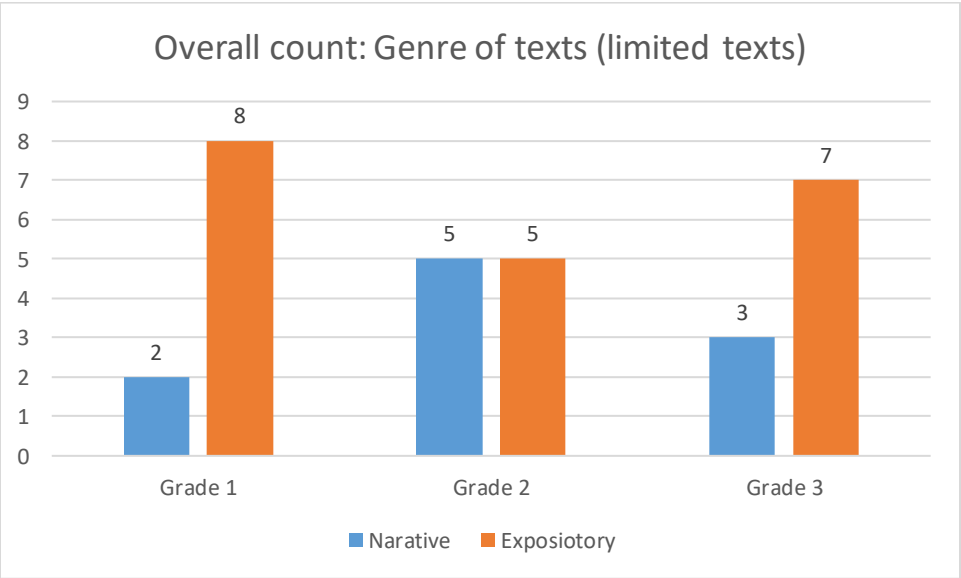
counts, and three counts for narrative texts. Overall, expository texts recorded five counts of learner eye fixation, while narrative texts also recorded five counts.

Table 24: Genre of texts on 'eyes on print' in Grade 3

	Grade 3: Genre of texts					Count of the genre of texts
Time interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**	
Interval 1=30 minutes	Expository	Expository	Expository	Narrative	Expository	**E-4 N-1**
Interval 2=30 minutes	Narrative	Expository	Expository	Narrative	Expository	**E-3 N-2**
			Totals →			**E-7 N-3**

As it can be seen on table 24 above, the first interval indicates that the genre of texts Grade 3 learners fixated their eyes on were mostly expository, at a count of four across the five days observed. Narrative texts recorded one count. The second interval indicates that Grade 3 learners fixated their eyes on expository texts for three counts, and two counts for narrative texts. Overall, expository texts recorded seven counts of learner eye fixation, while narrative texts recorded three counts.

Trends on Genre of texts



Graph 14: Overall count of genres of texts

As it can be seen on graph 14 above, expository texts were predominately the kind of texts that learners affixed their eyes the most. Grade 1 had the most expository texts at eight counts, followed by Grade 3 at seven counts. Grade 2 in the other hand recorded a balance between narrative and expository counts with both at five counts.

These findings can be understood, or interpreted together with those on 'the mode of texts included in eyes on print' above. Findings on the mode of texts show that the mode of texts which learners predominately affixed their eyes on was the chalkboard. This is because chalkboard work does not qualify as a narrative or expository text in the context of this study. As indicated in the introductory chapter, texts in the case of this study refer to extended texts. In this case, chalkboard work was used to record main points in a lesson, and the lesson itself can be considered informational, and not the limited texts written on the board.

This finding, however, confirms the earlier findings in chapter 4, that even though books, other than workbooks were present in the classroom libraries, teachers did not make an intentional effort to use them for teaching. These findings have implications on the learners' ability to read extended texts, a skill they will need to read to learn beyond the foundation.

5.2.8. Created texts/artefacts in the lesson

This section presents findings on the observation regarding the creation of texts and or artefacts across Grade 1-3.

Table 25: created texts/artefacts in Grade 1

Grade 1: Created texts/artefacts					
Time interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**
1 Hour	Drawings of shapes on the board by the teacher	The teacher wrote some words on the board.	None	Filled answers on a workbook.	Tracing by learners on a workbook

As it can be seen on table 26 above, no texts or artefacts were created in Grade 1 across the five days observed. There was some writing on day one, two, four and five;

these instances of writing were on the board by the teacher as can be seen on day one and two. Learners' writing too, which occurred on day 4 and 5 cannot be considered creations as they were tracing, and not creating their own words and meaning.

Table 26: created texts/artefacts in Grade 2

Grade 2: Created texts/artefacts					
Time interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**
1 hour	None	None	Learners completed an activity in a workbook	Learners completed an activity in a workbook	None

As it can be seen on table 26 above, no texts or artefacts were created in Grade 2 across the five days observed. There was some writing on day three and four; these instances of writing were learners filling worksheets in the workbooks. All these instances of writing cannot be considered creations as they were tracing, and not creating their own words and or meaning.

Table 27: created texts/artefacts in Grade 3

Grade 3: Created texts/artefacts					
Time interval	**Day 1**	**Day 2**	**Day 3**	**Day 4**	**Day 5**
1 hour	Learners write on their workbooks	None	None	Learners write on their workbooks	None

As it can be seen on table 27 above, no texts or artefacts were created in Grade 3 across the five days observed. There was some writing on day one and four; these instances of writing were learners filling worksheets in the workbooks. All these instances of writing cannot be considered creations as they were tracing, and not creating their own words and or meaning

Trends on the creation of texts/artefacts

The three tables above clearly show that learners across grades 1-3 did not create any texts or artefacts in the five hours of observation across five days. This is because the kind of writing done involved one word or filling of workbooks. Any writing that took place involved filling of worksheets or the teacher writing on the chalkboard. According to Hoffman and Schallert (2004), creating texts should include texts that represent the learners' language use in lived experiences. These findings have implications on the learners' interactions with texts, and text creation, suggesting that learners have no, or have limited opportunities to create their texts, thereby having fewer opportunities to learn the skill to make meaning, and to participate in the meaning-making activity. This finding further implies that learners will have inadequate skills in demonstrate knowledge gain in a written form, a skill they will need beyond the foundation phase.

5.2.9. Overseeing class activities

This section presents findings from the observation of active teaching. The table below shows the findings from the active teaching rubric.

Table 28: Active teaching rubric scores

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
	0	1	2	3
	%	%	%	%
Goal Oriented	0	13	87	0
Enthusiasm	0	20	80	0
engaging Content	0	27	67	6
Challenging Tasks	0	40	60	0
Modelling	0	13	87	0
Clarity/ Accuracy	0	20	80	0
Variability	0	80	20	0
Organises Space	0	13	87	0
Movement	0	73	27	0
Positive Climate	0	20	80	0
Questions/ Listening	0	20	73	7
Discussion	0	40	60	0
Assessment/ Lesson adaption	0	20	80	0
LTSM	0	73	27	0
Connection to Outside	0	27	73	0
Author texts	0	80	20	0

The actual observation on the role of the teacher shows that there is a balance between ‘lecturer methods’ and ‘guiding practices’ as teaching strategies. The results of the active teaching rubric on table 28 above indicate that the observer agreed that for 60% of the 15 observations the teacher was using the discussion methods, and 73% for the question and answer methods. Even though the general picture on the role of the teacher is that they were reasonably active, it was also observed that the interaction with print on the walls (environmental print) was inexistent. Also, the mode of text that learners were directed to fixate their eyes on was predominantly on the chalkboard. This suggests that the teachers do not see the classroom environment as a tool they can use for incidental learning, and sometimes for intended learning, but they focus on the board and the workbooks.

Section Summary

The findings presented in this section show that learners across Grade 1-3 spend less time fixating their eyes on print, and less time with books in their hands. It further presented findings that there were no intentional efforts to increase the focus of instruction on the content subject as learners progress from the 1st to the 3rd grade. The findings on the teachers 'role found that teachers used the lecture and telling method. Classroom interactions were in Xitsonga, limiting the exposure to the target language to be used for teaching and learning beyond the foundation phase. The mode of texts which learners were exposed to was 'limited texts', with no exposure to extended texts. Learners did not create any texts, limiting their exposure to writing and expressing their thoughts in a written form. All the findings in this section indicate that learners had limited exposure to all the literacy experiences necessary for the acquisition of adequate literacy skills.

5.3. Teacher reflective interviews

This section presents findings from teacher reflective interviews in grades 1-3. Interviews were conducted immediately after each lesson observation. The interviews sought to address the study objective which aimed to evaluate teacher beliefs on correlations between reading development and text selection. The semi-structured questions focused on four main questions on what teachers liked and or disliked about the lesson, the techniques which teachers thought were effective in teaching learners how to read, the reasons teachers gave to support their choice of techniques which they believe are effective, and where and how had teachers acquired the teaching techniques. The following main themes and sub-themes emerged.

5.3.1. What teachers liked and or disliked about the lessons

Teachers were asked to reflect on the parts of the lesson they liked and or disliked. Teachers echoed that what they liked was when learners could remember what they were taught.

Extract 1

Grade 1 Teacher: Okay, the part I liked is that learners were participating, they still remember the sounds of 'a-e-i-o-u', because if they can remember the sounds of 'a-e-i-o-u', it helps us… mmm… to formulate syllables, because all syllables take the sound of the vowel. No matter what consonant it is, it takes the sound of the vowel.

The above extract is the response by the Grade 1 teacher on day two of the interviews. The teacher indicated that what she liked was when learners could remember how consonants and vowels are written together to make syllables. The teacher metacognitive reflection here reflects the application of the 'ba be bi bo bu' methodology adopted from the teaching of phonological awareness in the English language which is detailed in the SVR by Hoover & Gough (1990). This way of teaching monosyllables differs from the Xitsonga syllable formation as it relies on morphological awareness.

The SVR continued to be evident in the teacher's meta-cognitive reflections in the teaching of prepositions out of context. Extract 2 below shows a reflection by the Grade 3 teacher. She stated:

Extract 2:

Grade 3 Teacher: What I liked… I liked that the children… the children understood the circumstances and places where 'in' can be used, and where 'on' can be used.

From this extract, the teacher indicates her efforts to teach learners how to use the preposition 'in'. The same 'ba be bi bo bu' methodology can be observed here, as learners are expected to know how to use 'in' in isolation from complete sentences that express a complete thought. Evidently, the above findings and extracts taken together show that the orthographies of the Xitsonga language were completely ignored in teaching learners how to read in favour of the English orthography.

5.3.2. Techniques which teachers think were effective in teaching learners how to read

Teachers were prompted to reflect on their lessons, specifically on whether they think the techniques they used in teaching the lesson were effective in teaching learners how to read, and how they think the used technique was effective. The teachers echoed that the activities they did with learners contributed towards teaching learners how to read. The Grade 1 teachers stated:

> **Extract 3**
>
> Grade 1 Teacher: yes, it surely does. Just as we wrote words there (she points at the words next to shapes drawn on the board), just as we wrote words there, when it's time to read, they are able to see that …yea 'X' it is the one we learnt on 'Xirhendzevutana (circle)'; 'Y' is the one we learnt on 'Yinhla Nharhu (Triangle)'.

Here, the Grade 1 teacher reflects on her teaching of the shapes in Xitsonga. She emphasises how focusing learners' attention on the first letter of the name of the shape such as 'X' for Xirhendzevutana (circle). She believes that learners will be able to recognise the 'X' in xirhendzevutana (circle) whenever they come across it when reading other texts.

The Grade 2 teacher believed that her technique contributed towards teaching learners how to read because after a reading exercise learners would be able to answer questions based on the reading. She stated:

> **Extract 4**
>
> Grade 2 Teacher: I can say, in that story you have them read after you, and then you ask them questions.

Noticeable from the Grade 1 teacher's reflection is also the value she placed on reading aloud to learners, and learners repeating what the teacher read out loud; and then the learners' ability to respond to questions after reading would indicate that they have comprehended the reading. The Grade 3 teachers shared a similar sentiment in that she also believes that learners should be able to recognise and use words in different contexts. She stated:

Extract 5

Grade 3 Teacher: it helps' let's say for an example it is a story...yes… as a child reads the story, it is most likely that 'in and 'on' will be there' 'on Saturday', 'on what-what', 'in July', and in… month… any month… mmm… and season.

Noticeably from this extract is the teacher's reflection on the importance of recognising 'in' and 'on' in different contexts. This would suggest that the learners have learnt how to read.

5.3.3. Reasons to support the choice of techniques teachers believe are effective in teaching learners how to read

Teachers were also asked to support their choice of technique, and why they believe that the techniques were effective. A common theme that emerged from their reflections is that they were taught and trained from their initial teacher qualification programmes to apply such an approach, as they are/were deemed effective. Also, some techniques and approaches are stipulated in the provided lessons plans. In support of this, the Grade 3 teacher stated:

Extract 6

Grade 3 Teacher: yes, In the lesson plans (as she points in her file); they write how you must teach the lesson step by step. I was just following the Wednesday program.

In the case of this Grade 3 teacher, she just followed the approach which the Wednesday programme had prescribed.

The Grade 1 teacher in the below extract describes what she considers an excellent technique to approach reading and the intentions in approaching teaching her reading lesson the way she did. She stated:

Extract 7

Grade 1Teacher: Yes, it was intentional. First of all, I must detect what it is they know before we get to the books. I must ask them what they know; this is what we call Pre-knowledge. So when I have determined what they know, I then show them what I have brought to them for the lesson of the day. In that way, they are also able to understand quicker that, what we were talking about with the teacher is related to real life; it is the

same thing were are learning about, so they are not surprised. So when I give them the books to write it is easier for them; understanding becomes easier.

Here she describes a step by step approach to her instruction. She describes it as first, finding out what learners already know (pre-knowledge). Second, introduce new knowledge. Third, relate new knowledge to learners' real-life experiences. The Grade 1 teacher further confirmed her firm believe in approaching her lessons in this way when she reflected on her choice of teaching technique. She stated:

Extract 8

Grade 1Teacher: (she laughs). This way of teaching in fact; we learnt them at the college. They said when you teach a child, you must first check what the child knows; yes. So that when you start with the lesson, you can start knowing the level of his/her knowledge. In that fashion. You must then show him/her pictures. If you show him/her something real, it will be hard for the child to forget. That is what we were taught.

In the above particular extract, the Grade 1 teacher is more explicit on that she chooses this technique because she was trained to use this technique in her initial teacher preparation programme at the college. The Grade 2 teacher shares a similar sentiment that she was also trained to teach the way she does in her initial teacher preparation programme and on in-service workshops. She stated:

Extract 9

Grade 2 Teacher: We learnt about it…at the college, we were taught… even in the workshops, and some experience. That is where I learned it.

Evident from teacher's reflections here is the significant influence of their initial teacher preparation programmes on the choice of teaching techniques. This suggests that teacher preparation programmes have a long term impact on how teachers approach teaching. Therefore, care should be taken in the teaching of teaching strategies in these programs.

5.3.4. Where and or how teachers acquired teaching techniques

When teachers were asked to reflect on the chosen teaching technique for each lesson they taught, they continued to indicate that their teaching is based on their training from education colleges and workshops they currently attend. The Grade 1 teacher stated:

> **Extract 10**
>
> Grade 1 Teacher: it's a combination of things. They have trained us for certain. Some of the things I just figure out as I go along, I just realise that if I add this or that it could be beneficial for the learner for easy understanding. Just like when I ask that (learner: Mam, Can I please go to the toilet) (teacher waves hand to indicate that she can't attend to the learner as she was busy), or the reason I show them; a child must be able to see what he/she is talking about and also be able to draw just like I had them drawing in the air. By the time they have to draw in their books, they will be able to draw. Even when they see the object, they will be able to remember that I have drawn this object in the air.

Here the Grade 1 further reflects on one of the techniques she was taught at her initial teacher preparation program. The Grade 2 teacher also stated again that she was also trained in her initial teacher preparation program and workshops. She stated:

> **Extract 11**
>
> Grade 2 Teacher: mmm in those…in those workshops… and where I was trained.

5.3.5. Choice of texts

Teachers reflected on their choice of texts which they used during their lessons. During the reflective interview, it became apparent that teachers believed that they could not find any other time to read outside of the workbooks. The Grade 3 teacher stated the following in different interview sessions:

> **Extract 12**
>
> Grade 3 Teacher: even at… even at the college, we learnt how to teach children, but in the lesson plans that we have… they show us that you must do it like this and that.

Extract 13

Grade 3 teacher: “In the lesson plans (as she points in her file); they write how you must teach the lesson step by step … I was just following the Wednesday program.”

Here the teacher indicates that all her classroom practice is guided by the lesson plans which are ready-made for her to implement. She also indicates that she has to follow a step by step procedure as provided in the lesson plans. This finding corroborates that of (Ness, 2011) where it was reported that teachers attributed their choice of text types to instructional time constraints and curricular activities prescriptions.

From the above finding, it can be expected that teachers will feel powerless to make choices for their classroom practice. With all teaching activities prescribed by work plans and lesson plans, teachers will have no power to select texts for teaching reading in their own classrooms. This finding has implications on the levels of accountability for the achievement of learning outcomes; without the power to choose instructional material, to choose instructional approaches, teachers cannot be accountable for the learning outcomes.

Earlier studies have reported that the choice of text genres has been based on the view that schools do not suddenly take away the narrative use of the language that resembles the home, but should build on the narrative language use of the home (Duke, 2000). In the same light, another earlier study reported that teachers too believed that narrative texts were more accessible to young readers than expository texts (Ness, 2011). However, these two early studies were done in contexts where both schools and teachers had the liberty to choose the kind of texts they found suitable for their contexts. This is different from the school, and the teachers who participated in this study, as all reading materials in the classrooms are selected and provided by the national, or provincial departments of education.

5.4. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented findings from two data sets, first from the lessons observations in Grade 1-3, and then from the semi-structured reflective interviews with teachers. The lesson observations addressed the study objective which aimed to assess

pedagogical practices on reading literacy in relation to text types, while the reflective interviews addressed the study objective which sought to evaluate teacher beliefs on correlations between reading development and text selection. The observations revealed that:

- Learners in Grade 1-3 spend less time fixating their eyes on print, and less time with books in their hands.
- There are no intentional efforts to increase the focus of instruction on content subjects as learners' progress from a lower to a higher grade.
- Teachers used the lecture and telling method, and that classroom interactions were in Xitsonga, which limits the exposure to the target language to be used for teaching and learning beyond Grade 3.
- The mode of texts which learners were exposed to was limited texts, with no exposure to extended texts and that learners did not create any texts, limiting their exposure to writing and expressing their thoughts in a written form.

Findings from the teacher meta-cognitive reflections through the semi-structured interviews revealed that teachers were inclined to the SVR as compared to the whole language approach. All the findings in these sections indicate that learners had limited exposure to all the literacy experiences necessary for the acquisition of adequate literacy skills to use beyond the foundation phase.

CHAPTER SIX: DATA ANALYSIS PART III- BILITERACY READING COMPREHENSION INVENTORY

6.1. Introduction

This chapter presents findings from the biliteracy reading inventory. It presents findings which addressed the study objective which sort of developing a reading comprehension levels inventory of narrative and expository text in Xitsonga and English in grades 1-3. The table below shows the variables of the biliteracy test presented in this chapter. The chapter starts by presenting overall findings from all the grades (1-3) and then presents findings between the grades.

Table 29: Variables for the biliteracy reading comprehension inventory

	English Narrative& Expository	**Xitsonga Narrative & expository**	**Reading Listening comprehension Xitsonga and English**	**Word meaning Xitsonga and English**
Aspects tested for	Reorganisation Evaluation Appreciation	Reorganisation Evaluation Appreciation	Rivanti; Homu (Xitsonga) and Door; Cow (English)	Yindlu; Moya (Xitsonga) and Bed; sun (English)

As can be seen in the second and third column of table 29 above; Xitsonga and English narrative and expository test included testing learners for their ability to reorganise, evaluate and appreciate. Columns 4 and 5 show the variables considered in the analysis of the results of the tests on reading listening comprehension and word meaning in both Xitsonga and English.

6.2. Retelling a story in own words

The narrative and expository sections of the test for both Xitsonga and English required that learners retell the read text using their own words (Reorganisation). For the learner response to be coded as '2-correct' it had to reflect complete facts as found in text. The results indicate that a significant number of learners were able to retell what was read from the text in Xitsonga; while very few learners were able to retell in English.

Tables 30-33 below show the results for both Xitsonga and English narrative and Expository texts; for reorganisation.

Table 30: English Narrative for Reorganisation overall

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**No Answer**	10	29.4	29.4	29.4
	Wrong	21	61.8	61.8	91.2
	Correct	3	8.8	8.8	100.0
	Total	**34**	**100.0**	**100.0**	

As can be seen on table 30 above, for all the 34 learners who took the test; only 8.8% of the learners were able to 'correctly' retell the English narrative text and included all the facts found in the text on average. 8.8% of the learners were able to correctly retell the English expository text as can be seen in table 8 above.

Table 31: Xitsonga Narrative for Reorganisation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	**No Answer**	1	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Wrong	6	17.6	17.6	20.6
	Correct	27	79.4	79.4	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 31 above shows that for Xitsonga narrative texts, 79.4% of the learners were able to retell giving all the facts correctly; and 61.8% were able to retell from the Xitsonga expository text correctly.

Table 32: English Expository for Reorganisation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	7	20.6	20.6	20.6
	Wrong	24	70.6	70.6	91.2
	Correct	3	8.8	8.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 32 above shows that 8.8% of the learners were able to retell from English expository texts, with 70.6% incorrectly retelling, while 20.6% of the learners could not respond to the prompt to retell.

Table 33: Xitsonga Expository for Reorganisation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	2	5.9	5.9	5.9
	Wrong	11	32.4	32.4	38.2
	Correct	21	61.8	61.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 33 above shows that 61.6% of the learners were able to retell from the Xitsonga expository texts correctly, and 32.4% could not retell correctly, while 5.9% of the learners could not respond to the prompt to retell.

Findings from tables 30-33 taken together evidently reveal that more learners were able to retell correctly from the Xitsonga texts than English texts for the phase. Retelling skills are expected to have been mastered in the early years of pre-school (Pelatti, Piasta, Justice, & O 'connell, 2014). It is not surprising that learners are only able to retell in Xitsonga than in English since English is only introduced in Grade 1.

Learners were able to retell both narrative and expository texts in a language they knew well even before they began schooling.

6.3. Evaluating a scenario/case from a read text

The section for evaluation on the biliteracy reading comprehension test required learners to evaluate whether an action of a character in a story was the best or not given the circumstances they were in (for narrative texts), or evaluate a case (for expository texts. For example, after listening to a story read about a boy who was angry about his goat's refusal to be picked up; learners were asked to evaluate if the boy s anger was justifiable. A correct response would include a learner's ability to give a logical reason why or why not the boy's anger is justifiable or not justifiable.

The results indicate that a significantly low number of learners were able to correctly evaluate a scenario/case from English texts for both narrative and expository text genres when prompted to; while a much higher number of learners were able to evaluate scenarios and cases with similar kind of texts in Xitsonga. Tables 34-37 below present results for all sections of evaluation for narrative and expository texts in both Xitsonga and English.

Table 34: English Narrative for Evaluation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	22	64.7	64.7	64.7
	Wrong	10	29.4	29.4	94.1
	Correct	2	5.9	5.9	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 35: Xitsonga Narrative for Evaluation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	4	11.8	11.8	11.8
	Wrong	14	41.2	41.2	52.9
	Correct	16	47.1	47.1	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 36: English Expository for Evaluation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	16	47.1	47.1	47.1
	Wrong	11	32.4	32.4	79.4
	Correct	7	20.6	20.6	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 37: Xitsonga Expository for Evaluation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	1	2.9	2.9	2.9
	Wrong	12	35.3	35.3	38.2
	Correct	21	61.8	61.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Tables 34-37 above shows that on average; for the 34 learners who took the test for reading comprehension in both Xitsonga and English, only 5.9% were able to correctly answer the questions that required them to evaluate an issue from the English narrative, 47.1% for Xitsonga narrative, 20.6% for English expository, and 61.8% for Xitsonga expository correctly; respectively.

Evaluative skills require that learners make references and connections to knowledge outside of what they have read and can also serve as a demonstration of reading comprehension. Elbro and Buch-Iversen' s (2013) study to determine whether primary training in inference making lead to reading comprehension, found that students can be taught to spontaneously activate their prior knowledge in instances where inferences making is demanded. They also found that there is a non-significant effect of conditions of testing such as grade level at p<, 001. The finding in the current study shows that learners were able to make inferences and connections outside of what they read in Xitsonga than in English. Suggesting that bilingual or multilingual learners' ability to evaluate can better be judged when it can be accessed using all their linguistic repertoires. Elbro and Buch-Iversen (2013) like many others only refers to learners who are monolingual and or in monolingual settings. Unlike in this study, where literacy development is in Xitsonga and English.

6.4. A few learners can show appreciation from English texts

The test of biliteracy reading comprehension also included questions that would prompt learners to place themselves in opposing circumstances of different characters to be able to show appreciation of the circumstances at hand to make a decision which can be beneficial for all involved. An example of this kind of question is; after reading about a boy who was angry about his goat's refusal to be picked up; learners were asked what they would do if they were the goat, and what they would do if they were the boy. A correct response would include a learner's ability to look at both characters' positions and reach a compromise. The results indicate that a few learners can show appreciation from English texts, while a significant number of learners were able to show appreciation from Xitsonga texts.

Table 38: English Narrative for Appreciation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	24	70.6	70.6	70.6
	Wrong	8	23.5	23.5	94.1
	Correct	2	5.9	5.9	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 39: Xitsonga Narrative for Appreciation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	4	11.8	11.8	11.8
	Wrong	5	14.7	14.7	26.5
	Correct	25	73.5	73.5	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 40: English Expository for Appreciation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	18	52.9	52.9	52.9
	Wrong	13	38.2	38.2	91.2
	Correct	3	8.8	8.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Table 41: Xitsonga Expository for Appreciation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	No Answer	3	8.8	8.8	8.8
	Wrong	9	26.5	26.5	35.3
	Correct	22	64.7	64.7	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Tables 38-41 above show that of the 34 foundation phase learners (100%) who took the test of biliteracy reading comprehension; about 5.9% were able to correctly show appreciation from English narrative texts, 73.5% from Xitsonga narrative texts, 8.8% from English expository texts, and 64.7% from Xitsonga expository texts; respectively. To show appreciation requires that learners put themselves in the position where they are to feel or resolve a conflict just like a character in reading, particularly in more narrative texts. In expository texts, this may require learners to understand causal relationship even outside what the text read depicts or in connection to a different text (Howie, Van Staden, Tshele, Dowse, & Zimmerman, 2011).

Carlson (2014) investigated the differences between struggling, average, and good reading comprehension level 4th graders when engaging in a causal questioning activity during reading; particularly the varied effects on inference generation using narrative texts. The study found that there was no significant difference in terms of the number of inferences generated; but that there was a significant difference in the kind

of inferences they made. For example, the study found that there was a significant difference between text-based (reading generated) inferences and knowledge-based (link to background knowledge) inferences.

The foundation phase learners in this study were able to make knowledge-based inferences to be able to demonstrate appreciation in Xitsonga narrative texts at 73.5%, with an average of 64.7% for expository text. Evidently, learners only managed 5.9% on English narrative and 8.8% on English expository. This shows a significant difference between the languages and between the text genres.

6.5. Comprehension levels of expository texts between English and Xitsonga

Independent samples test was run to test the levels of significant difference between comprehension levels of narrative and expository texts for both Xitsonga and English for the phase (grades 1-3). The generic hypothesis is that the mean scores of the foundation phase learners (respondents) for narrative texts will be different in comparison to expository texts. The results indicate that there is a statistically significant difference in comprehension levels of expository texts between English and Xitsonga; while there is statistical insignificance in comprehension levels of narrative texts between the two languages. See tables 42 to 45 below.

Table 42: English narrative versus English expository

Group Statistics

	English Narrative and Expository	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
English Overall Scores	**Narrative**	34	1.5588	1.52139	.26092
	Expository	34	2.1765	1.58536	.27189

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper
English Overall Scores	**Equal variances assumed**	.322	.573	-1.639	66	.106	-.61765	.37683	-1.37001	.13471
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.639	65.888	.106	-.61765	-.37683	-1.37003	.13474

Hypothetically, the mean scores of the foundation phase learners (respondents) for English narrative texts should be different in comparison to English expository texts. Table 42 above shows that a ‘t’ of -1.639 with 66 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between English narrative and expository texts in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at the 0.106 level. The null hypothesis that the mean individual scores of learners for English narrative will not be different in comparison to English expository is then acceptable.

Table 43: Xitsonga narrative versus Xitsonga expository texts

Group Statistics									
		Xitsonga Narrative and Expository			**N**	**Mean**	**Std. Deviation**	**Std. Error Mean**	
Xitsonga Overall Scores		**Narrative**			34	4.7353	1.63871	.28104	
		Expository			34	4.7059	1.56727	.26878	
Independent Samples Test									
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		**t-test for Equality of Means**					
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
									Lower / Upper
Xitsonga Overall Scores	**Equal variances assumed**	.001	.972	.076	66	.940	.02941	.38888	-.74701 / .80583
	Equal variances not assumed			.076	65.869	.940	.02941	.38888	-.74704 / .80586

Hypothetically, the mean scores of the foundation phase learners (respondents) for Xitsonga narrative texts should be different in comparison to Xitsonga expository texts. Table 43 above shows that a ‘t’ of 0.076 with 66 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between Xitsonga narrative and expository texts in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at the 0.940 level. The null hypothesis that the mean individual scores of learners for Xitsonga narrative will not be different in comparison to Xitsonga expository is then acceptable.

Table 44: English narrative versus Xitsonga Narrative

Group Statistics									
		Language	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean			
Narrative Overall Score		English	34	1.5588	1.52139	.26092			
		Xitsonga	34	4.7353	1.63871	.28104			
Independent Samples Test									
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
									Lower / Upper
Narrative Overall Score	Equal variances assumed	.029	.866	-8.283	66	.000	-3.17647	.38348	-3.94212 / -2.41082
	Equal variances not assumed			-8.283	65.639	.000	-3.17647	.38348	-3.94220 / -2.41074

Hypothetically, the mean scores of the foundation phase learners (respondents) for English narrative texts should be different in comparison to Xitsonga narrative texts. Table 44 above shows that a 't' of -8.283 with 66 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between English narrative and Xitsonga narrative texts in their mean compatibility score is statistically significant at the 0.000 level. The null hypothesis that the mean individual scores of learners for English narrative will not be different in comparison to Xitsonga narrative texts is then rejected.

Table 45: English expository versus Xitsonga expository

Group Statistics

	Language	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Expository Overall Score	English	34	2.1765	1.58536	.27189
	Xitsonga	34	4.7059	1.56727	.26878

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Expository Overall Score	Equal variances assumed	.451	.504	-6.616	66	.000	-2.52941	.38232	-3.29274	-1.76609
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.616	65.991	.000	-2.52941	.38232	-3.29274	-1.76609

Hypothetically, the mean scores of the foundation phase learners (respondents) for English expository texts should be different in comparison to Xitsonga expository texts. Table 45 above shows that a 't' of -6.616 with 66 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between English expository and Xitsonga expository texts in their mean compatibility score is statistically significant at the 0.000 level. The null hypothesis that the mean individual scores of learners for English expository will not be different in comparison to Xitsonga expository texts is then rejected.

Regarding reading comprehension between English and Xitsonga expository texts; the results indicate that learners scored higher in Xitsonga than in English. This finding confirms McCown and Thomason's (2009) finding that collaborative strategic reading (CSR) significantly impact reading comprehension of informational (expository) texts amongst 5th graders. Pretorius's (2014) study findings in an intervention programmed which was turned into a catch-up programme for grade 4 learners in high poverty contexts is worth reflecting upon in relation to the findings here. She found that the biliteracy development of both IsiZulu and English was below grade levels; such that the grade 4 learners could not cope with the use of English for teaching and learning.

Even after the catch-up programme learners have not reached the English proficiency levels to comprehend expository texts at the 4th-grade level.

Most interesting in the current study was to compare the comprehension levels between Xitsonga and English. Even though there were no experiments in this study, this finding suggests that learners in the foundation phase are capable of comprehending expository texts in their home language. Interestingly, comprehension levels of narrative texts between the two languages are statistically insignificant; and an indication that narrative texts are equally accessible for both Xitsonga and English.

6.6. Difference between grades in comprehension levels for both Xitsonga/English and narrative/expository

An independent samples test was run to test the levels of significant difference between comprehension levels of narrative and expository texts for both Xitsonga and English between Grade 1 and 2, 2 and 3, and 1 and 3. The generic hypothesis is that the mean scores of higher grade learners (respondents) for English and Xitsonga in narrative and expository texts will be different in comparison to lower grade learners (respondents). The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between grades within both languages and text types. See tables 46-51 below.

Table 46: English narrative for Grade 1 versus Grade 2

Group Statistics									
		Grades	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean			
English Narrative		Grade 1	11	2.1818	1.99089	.60028			
		Grade 2	11	1.1818	1.32802	.40041			

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
English Narrative	Equal variances assumed	2.932	.102	1.386	20	.181	1.00000	.72157	-.50517	2.50517
	Equal variances not assumed			1.386	17.428	.183	1.00000	.72157	-.51953	2.51953

Hypothetically, the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in English narrative should be different in comparison to Grade 2 learners in English narrative. Table 46 above shows that a 't' of 1.386 with 20 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 0.183 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in English narrative will not be different in comparison to Grade 2 learners in English narrative is acceptable.

Table 47: English expository for Grade 1 versus Grade 2

Group Statistics

	Grades	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
English Expository	Grade 1	11	2.5455	1.21356	.36590
	Grade 2	11	2.0000	1.41421	.42640

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
English Expository	Equal variances assumed	.028	.869	.971	20	.343	.54545	.56187	-.62659	1.71750
	Equal variances not assumed			.971	19.549	.344	.54545	.56187	-.62833	1.71924

In hypothesis, the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in English expository should be different in comparison to Grade 2 learners in English expository. Table 47 above shows that a ‘t’ of 0.971 with 20 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 0.344 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in English expository will not be different in comparison to Grade 2 learners in English expository is then acceptable.

Table 48: Xitsonga narrative for Grade 1 versus Grade 2

Group Statistics									
		Grades	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean			
Xitsonga Narratives		Grade 1	11	4.5455	2.11488	.63766			
		Grade 2	11	4.4545	1.75292	.52853			
Independent Samples Test									
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference
									Lower / Upper
Xitsonga Narratives	Equal variances assumed	.093	.763	.110	20	.914	.09091	.82822	-1.63673 / 1.81855
	Equal variances not assumed			.110	19.334	.914	.09091	.82822	-1.64055 / 1.82237

In hypothesis, the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in Xitsonga narrative should be different in comparison to Grade 2 learners in Xitsonga narrative. Table 48 above shows that a ‘t’ of 0.110 with 20 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 0.914 level. The null hypothesis that the mean individual scores of Grade 1 learners in Xitsonga narrative will not be different in comparison to Grade 2 learners in Xitsonga narrative is then acceptable.

Table 49: Xitsonga expository for Grade 1 versus Grade 2

Group Statistics

	Grades	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Xitsonga Expository	Grade 1	11	4.3636	1.56670	.47238
	Grade 2	11	4.3636	2.01359	.60712

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Xitsonga Expository	Equal variances assumed	.731	.403	.000	20	1.000	.00000	.76924	-1.60461	1.60461
	Equal variances not assumed			.000	18.860	1.000	.00000	.76924	-1.61085	1.61085

In hypothesis, the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in Xitsonga expository should be different in comparison to Grade 2 learners in Xitsonga expository. Table 49 above shows that a ‘t’ of 0.000 with 20 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 1.000 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in Xitsonga expository will not be different in comparison to Grade 2 learners in Xitsonga expository is then acceptable.

Table 50: Narrative and expository texts for Grade 2 versus Grade 3 for Xitsonga and English

Group Statistics						
	Grades 2 and 3	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
English Narratives for Grades 2 and 3	Grade 2	11	1.1818	1.32802	.40041	
	Grade 3	12	1.3333	1.07309	.30977	
English Expository for Grades 2 and 3	Grade 2	11	2.0000	1.41421	.42640	
	Grade 3	12	2.0000	2.04495	.59033	
Xitsonga Narratives for Grades 2 and 3	Grade 2	11	4.4545	1.75292	.52853	
	Grade 3	12	5.1667	.93744	.27061	
Xitsonga Expository Grades 2 and 3	Grade 2	11	4.3636	2.01359	.60712	
	Grade 3	12	5.3333	.88763	.25624	

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									lower	upper
English Narratives for Grades 2 and 3	Equal variances assumed	.271	.608	-.302	21	.765	-.15152	.50143	-1.19430	.89127
	Equal variances not assumed			-.299	19.275	.768	-.15152	.50625	-1.21009	.90706
English Expository for Grades 2 and 3	Equal variances assumed	5.282	.032	.000	21	1.000	.00000	.74001	-1.53894	1.53894
	Equal variances not assumed			.000	19.603	1.000	.00000	.72822	-1.52101	1.52101
Xitsonga Narratives for Grades 2 and 3	Equal variances assumed	5.146	.034	-1.230	21	.232	-.71212	.57893	-1.91607	.49183
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.199	14.994	.249	-.71212	.59378	-1.97777	.55353
Xitsonga Expository Grades 2 and 3	Equal variances assumed	6.777	.017	-1.518	21	.144	-.96970	.63900	-2.29858	.35918
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.472	13.491	.164	-.96970	.65898	-2.38809	.44869

In hypothesis:

- the mean scores of Grade 2 learners in English narrative should be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in English narrative;

- the mean scores of Grade 2 learners in English expository should be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in English expository;
- the mean scores of Grade 2 learners in Xitsonga narrative should be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in Xitsonga narrative; and
- the mean scores of Grade 2 learners in Xitsonga expository should be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in Xitsonga expository.

Table 50 above respectively shows that:

- a ‘t’ of -0.302 with 21 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 0.768 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 2 learners in English narrative will not be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in English narrative is then acceptable.
- a ‘t’ of -0.000 with 21 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 1.000 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 2 learners in English expository will not be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in English expository is then acceptable.
- a ‘t’ of -1.230 with 21 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 0.249 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 2 learners in Xitsonga narrative will not be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in Xitsonga narrative is then acceptable.
- a ‘t’ of -1.518 with 21 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 0.164 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 2 learners in Xitsonga expository will not be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in Xitsonga expository is then acceptable.

Table 51: Narrative and expository texts for Grade 1 versus Grade 3 in Xitsonga and English

Group Statistics

	Grades 1 and 3	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
English Narratives for Grades 1 and 3	Grade 1	11	2.1818	1.99089	.60028
	Grade 3	12	1.3333	1.07309	.30977
English Expository for Grades 1 and 3	Grade 1	11	2.5455	1.21356	.36590
	Grade 3	12	2.0000	2.04495	.59033
Xitsonga Narratives for Grades 1 and 3	Grade 1	11	4.5455	2.11488	.63766
	Grade 3	12	5.1667	.93744	.27061
Xitsonga Expository Grades 1 and 3	Grade 1	11	4.3636	1.56670	.47238
	Grade 3	12	5.3333	.88763	.25624

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	upper
English Narratives for Grades 1 and 3	Equal variances assumed	5.817	.025	1.288	21	.212	.84848	.65877	-.52149	2.21846
	Equal variances not assumed			1.256	15.064	.228	.84848	.67549	-.59076	2.28773
English Expository for Grades 1 and 3	Equal variances assumed	8.930	.007	.768	21	.451	.54545	.70984	-.93073	2.02164
	Equal variances not assumed			.785	18.132	.442	.54545	.69453	-.91293	2.00384
Xitsonga Narratives for Grades 1 and 3	Equal variances assumed	4.303	.051	-.925	21	.366	-.62121	.67180	-2.01830	.77588
	Equal variances not assumed			-.897	13.528	.386	-.62121	.69271	-2.11181	.86938
Xitsonga Expository Grades 1 and 3	Equal variances assumed	3.606	.071	-1.847	21	.079	-.96970	.52495	-2.06138	.12199
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.804	15.528	.091	-.96970	.53740	-2.11175	.17236

In hypothesis:

- the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in English narrative should be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in English narrative;
- the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in English expository should be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in English expository;
- the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in Xitsonga narrative should be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in Xitsonga narrative; and
- the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in Xitsonga expository should be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in Xitsonga expository.

Table 51 above respectively shows that:

- a ‘t’ of 1.288 with 21 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 0.228 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in English narrative will not be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in English narrative is acceptable.
- a ‘t’ of 0.768 with 21 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 0.442 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in English expository will not be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in English expository is acceptable.
- a ‘t’ of -0.925 with 21 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 0.386 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in Xitsonga narrative will not be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in Xitsonga narrative is acceptable.
- a ‘t’ of -1.847 with 21 degrees of freedom indicates that the difference between the grades in their mean compatibility score is statistically insignificant at 0.091 level. The null hypothesis that the mean scores of Grade 1 learners in Xitsonga expository will not be different in comparison to Grade 3 learners in Xitsonga expository is acceptable.

Generally, there should be measurable difference in performance from a lower grade

to a higher grade to demonstrate growth and improvement throughout learning experiences. Most surprising is that there is no statistically significant difference between Grade 1 and Grade 3 for both narrative and expository text in both Xitsonga and English. Suggesting that Grade 3 learners are not any better than Grade 1 learners when taking the same biliteracy test. This finding is similar to that of Pretorius (2014) that learners in a grade 4 township school still read below the third-grade level at the end of the grade 4 academic year in English.

6.7. Association between Grade 1 and 2 comprehension levels in Xitsonga expository texts.

Chi-square tests were run to test if there is a statistical association between grades for the section of the biliteracy reading comprehension inventory that required that learners use their evaluation skills in responding to a prompt. A general hypothesised likelihood is that learners in a higher grade will score significantly higher than those in a grade below them. The results indicate that there is only a statistically significant association between grades 1 and 2 for the Xitsonga expository text on the section of evaluation, and between Grade 2 and 3 for the English expository for evaluation. The results also indicate that there is no statistically significant association between grades 1 and 2, for English narrative, English expository, and Xitsonga Narrative. There is also no statistically significant association between grades 2 and 3 for English narrative, Xitsonga Narrative and Xitsonga expository. See tables 27-34 below.

Table 52: English narrative for evaluation in Grade 1 versus Grade 2

Case Processing Summary

	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Grade * English Narratives Evaluation Grade 1 and 2	22	64.7%	12	35.3%	34	100.0 %

Grade * English Narratives Evaluation Grade 1 and 2 Cross tabulation

Count					
		English Narratives Evaluation Grade 1 and 2			Total
		No Answer	Wrong Answer	Correct Answer	
Grade	Grade 1	5	4	2	11
	Grade 2	8	3	0	11
Total		13	7	2	22

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.835[a]	2	.242
Likelihood Ratio	3.615	2	.164
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.512	1	.113
N of Valid Cases	22		

It was hypothesised that Grade 2 learners are more likely to score higher than Grade 1 on the English narrative text for evaluation. A chi-square test on table 52 above indicates that there is no association between a grade level and score on English narrative text for evaluation, X^2 (2, N=22) = 2.84, p= .24.

Table 53: English expository for evaluation Grade 1 versus Grade 2

Case Processing Summary						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Grade * English Expository Evaluation Grade 1 and 2	22	64.7%	12	35.3%	34	100.0%

Grade * English Expository Evaluation Grade 1 and 2 Cross tabulation					
Count					
		English Expository Evaluation Grade 1 and 2			Total
		No Answer	Wrong Answer	Correct Answer	
Grade	Grade 1	6	3	2	11
	Grade 2	3	7	1	11
Total		9	10	3	22

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.933[a]	2	.231
Likelihood Ratio	3.005	2	.223
Linear-by-Linear Association	.368	1	.544
N of Valid Cases	22		

It was hypothesised that Grade 2 learners are more likely to score higher than Grade 1 on the English expository text for evaluation. A chi-square test on table 53 above indicates that there is no association between a grade level and score on English expository text for evaluation, X^2 (2, N=22) = 2.09, p=.23.

Table 54: Xitsonga narrative for evaluation Grade 1 versus Grade 2

Case Processing Summary						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Grade * XITS Narratives Evaluation Grade 1 and 2	22	64.7%	12	35.3%	34	100.0%

Grade * XITS Narratives Evaluation Grade 1 and 2 Cross tabulation					
Count					
		XITS Narratives Evaluation Grade 1 and 2			Total
		No Answer	Wrong Answer	Correct Answer	
Grade	Grade 1	2	3	6	11
	Grade 2	2	4	5	11
Total		4	7	11	22

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.234[a]	2	.890
Likelihood Ratio	.234	2	.889
Linear-by-Linear Association	.075	1	.785
N of Valid Cases	22		

It was hypothesised that Grade 2 learners are more likely to score higher than Grade 1 on the Xitsonga narrative text for evaluation. A chi-square test on table 54 above indicates that there is no association between a grade level and score in Xitsonga narrative text for evaluation, X^2 (2, N= 22) = .23, p=.89.

Table 55: Xitsonga expository for evaluation Grade 1 versus Grade 2

Case Processing Summary						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Grade * XITS Expository Evaluation Grade 1 and 2	22	64.7%	12	35.3%	34	100.0%

Grade * XITS Expository Evaluation Grade 1 and 2 Cross tabulation					
Count					
		XITS Expository Evaluation Grade 1 and 2			Total
		No Answer	Wrong Answer	Correct Answer	
Grade	Grade 1	0	8	3	11
	Grade 2	1	2	8	11
Total		1	10	11	22

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.873[a]	2	.032
Likelihood Ratio	7.599	2	.022
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.049	1	.152
N of Valid Cases	22		

It was hypothesised that Grade 2 learners are more likely to score higher than Grade 1 on the Xitsonga expository text for evaluation. A chi-square test on table 55 above indicates that there is an association between a grade level and score on Xitsonga expository text for evaluation, X^2 (2, N=22) = 6.87, p = .03.

Table 56: English narrative for evaluation Grade 2 versus Grade 3

Case Processing Summary						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Grade 2 and 3 * English Narratives Evaluation Grade 2 and 3	23	67.6%	11	32.4%	34	100.0 %

Grade 2 and 3 * English Narratives Evaluation Grade 2 and 3 Cross tabulation				
Count				
		English Narratives Evaluation Grade 2 and 3		Total
		No Answer	Wrong Answer	
Grade 2 and 3	Grade 2	8	3	11
	Grade 3	9	3	12
Total		17	6	23

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.015[a]	1	.901		
Continuity Correction[b]	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.015	1	.901		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.635
Linear-by-Linear Association	.015	1	.903		
N of Valid Cases	23				

It was hypothesised that Grade 3 learners are more likely to score higher than Grade 2 on the English narrative text for evaluation. A chi-square test on table 56 above indicates that there is no association between a grade level and score on English narrative text for evaluation, X^2 (1, N=23) = .015, p= .90.

Table 57: English expository for evaluation Grade 2 versus Grade 3

Case Processing Summary						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Grade 2 and 3 * English Expository Evaluation Grade 2 and 3	23	67.6%	11	32.4%	34	100.0%

Grade 2 and 3 * English Expository Evaluation Grade 2 and 3 Cross tabulation					
Count					
		English Expository Evaluation Grade 2 and 3			Total
		No Answer	Wrong Answer	Correct Answer	
Grade 2 and 3	Grade 2	3	7	1	11
	Grade 3	7	1	4	12
Total		10	8	5	23

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.871[a]	2	.020
Likelihood Ratio	8.592	2	.014
Linear-by-Linear Association	.042	1	.837
N of Valid Cases	23		

It was hypothesised that Grade 3 learners are more likely to score higher than Grade 2 on the English expository text for evaluation. A chi-square test on table 57 above indicates that there is an association between a grade level and score on English expository text for evaluation, X^2 (2, N=23) = 7.87, p=.02.

Table 58: Xitsonga narrative for evaluation Grade 2 versus Grade 3

Case Processing Summary						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Grade 2 and 3 * XITS Narratives Evaluation Grade 2 and 3	23	67.6%	11	32.4%	34	100.0 %

Grade 2 and 3 * XITS Narratives Evaluation Grade 2 and 3 Cross tabulation					
Count					
		XITS Narratives Evaluation Grade 2 and 3			Total
		No Answer	Wrong Answer	Correct Answer	
Grade 2 and 3	Grade 2	2	4	5	11
	Grade 3	0	7	5	12
Total		2	11	10	23

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	Df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.780[a]	2	.249
Likelihood Ratio	3.558	2	.169
Linear-by-Linear Association	.284	1	.594
N of Valid Cases	23		

It was hypothesised that Grade 3 learners are more likely to score higher than Grade 2 on the Xitsonga narrative text for evaluation. A chi-square test on table 58 above indicates that there is no association between a grade level and score on Xitsonga narrative text for evaluation, X^2 (2, N=23) = 2.78, p= .25.

Table 59: Xitsonga expository for evaluation: Grade 2 versus Grade 3

Case Processing Summary						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Grade 2 and 3 * XITS Expository Evaluation Grade 2 and 3	23	67.6%	11	32.4%	34	100.0 %

Grade 2 and 3 * XITS Expository Evaluation Grade 2 and 3 Cross tabulation					
Count					
		XITS Expository Evaluation Grade 2 and 3			Total
		No Answer	Wrong Answer	Correct Answer	
Grade 2 and 3	Grade 2	1	2	8	11
	Grade 3	0	2	10	12
Total		1	4	18	23

Chi-Square Tests				
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)	
Pearson Chi-Square	1.181[a]	2	.554	
Likelihood Ratio	1.565	2	.457	
Linear-by-Linear Association	.761	1	.383	
N of Valid Cases	23			

It was hypothesised that Grade 3 learners are more likely to score higher than Grade 2 on the Xitsonga expository text for evaluation. A chi-square test on table 59 above indicates that there is no association between a grade level and score on Xitsonga expository text for evaluation, X^2 (2, N=23) =1.18, p= .55.

The findings in this section are interesting in that statistical association was only found between grades 1 and 2, and 2 and 3 expository texts where the test required learners to make reference to their prior knowledge and make connections with own knowledge outside of the text read to make an evaluative judgement of an issue at hand. This suggests that performance on the comprehension of expository texts for both languages varies from one grade to another. This finding confirms yet again that

learners in poverty-stricken contexts, biliteracy contexts exit the foundation phase reading below grade level (Pretorius, 2014).

6.8. Reading/Listening comprehension and word meaning

As seen in Table 3 above; the biliteracy reading comprehension inventory also included sections of reading/listening comprehension and word meaning. The reading/listening comprehension section required learners to associate a word being read to them with an image for both English and Xitsonga. The word meaning section required them to recognise whether a word was a 'real' word or a 'nonsense' word for both English and Xitsonga. Tests of Frequencies, percentages, chi-square were run. Findings are presented below for overall scores; and cross-tabulations between languages, text genre, and grades. See table 60 and 61 below.

Reading/listening comprehension

A frequency test was run to test for the overall performance of the foundation phase learners on reading/listening comprehension for both Xitsonga and English. The results indicate that learners all 34 learners could associate all the Xitsonga words with images. Only a maximum of 21 learners could associate English words with images.

Table 60: Scores for Foundation Phase Reading Listening Comprehension

Statistics			
		Cow Reading/Listening Comprehension	Door Reading/Listening Comprehension
N	Valid	34	34
	Missing	0	0

Frequency Table					
Door Reading/Listening Comprehension					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Wrong	14	41.2	41.2	41.2
	Correct	20	58.8	58.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	
Cow Reading/Listening Comprehension					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Wrong	13	38.2	38.2	38.2
	Correct	21	61.8	61.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Frequency Table					
Homu Reading/Listening Comprehension					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Correct	34	100.0	100.0	100.0
Rivanti Reading/Listening Comprehension					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Correct	34	100.0	100.0	100.0

As can be seen on table 60 above; of 34 (100%) learners who took the test of reading/listening comprehension were prompted to point at an image that could be

associated with ‘cow’ and ‘door’ for English; and ‘rivanti’ and ‘homu’ for Xitsonga. 20 (58%) of the learners associated the word ‘cow’ with the image and 21(61.8%) were able to associate ‘the word ‘door’ with the image. 34 (100%) of the learners were able to associate words ‘rivanti, homu’ with the images.

Word meaning

A frequency test was run to test for the overall performance of the foundation phase learners on word meaning for both Xitsonga and English. The results indicate that on average 65.35% of the learners could associate the words for both English and Xitsonga with meaning.

Table 61: Scores for foundation phase word meaning

Statistics (English)			
		Bed Word Meaning	Sun Word Meaning
N	Valid	34	34
	Missing	0	0

Frequency Table

'Bed' Word Meaning

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Wrong	14	41.2	41.2	41.2
	Correct	20	58.8	58.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

'Sun' Word Meaning

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Wrong	14	41.2	41.2	41.2
	Correct	20	58.8	58.8	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

(Xitsonga)

Frequency Table

Yindlu Word Meaning

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Wrong	7	20.6	20.6	20.6
	Correct	27	79.4	79.4	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

Moya Word Meaning

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Wrong	12	35.3	35.3	35.3
	Correct	22	64.7	64.7	100.0
	Total	34	100.0	100.0	

As can be seen on table 61 above; all the 34 (100%) learners who took the 'word meaning' test; 20 (58.8%) were able to associate both the words 'bed and sun' with meaning. 27 (79.4) learners were able to associate the word 'Yindlu' with meaning, while 22 (64.7%) could associate the word 'moya' with meaning.

Here, the results presented indicate that learners are more conversant in associating words with meaning for both English and Xitsonga, even though they are much better in Xitsonga than in English. The 'barking at the text' which Makalela and Fakude (2014) describe as the sounding out of words in a non-coherent manner, which is slow and eventually impedes comprehension may not have occurred here. In their study, learners read Sepedi texts, unlike in this study where learners silently read words out of context to determine whether they are nonsense or real words.

6.9. Reading listening comprehension and Word meaning between languages

It was hypothesised that foundation phase (respondents) learners are more likely to score higher in Xitsonga for reading listening comprehension and word meaning than in English. To test learner levels of reading/listening comprehension learners were prompted to listen to words being read out loud, and then point the image that they associate with the word. To test learner levels of word meaning; learners were prompted to read a set of words and say 'yes' when they think the word has meaning and they know the meaning of the word. This was done for both English and Xitsonga words. A chi-square test was run to test the levels of a statistical association between a language and the level of ability.

When a chi-square test was run between Cow (English) and Homu (Xitsonga); no measures of association could be computed for the cross-tabulation for Reading/Listening Comprehension section. The chi-square test reported that all responses for the variable 'Homu' were constant. This is because all 34 learners scored 'correctly', a label denoted by the value of '2' in the SPSS. Table 62 below presents the chi-square results for 'sun' (English) and 'moya' (Xitsonga) in the section of Word meaning.

Table 62: 'Sun' 'Moya' Word meaning

Case Processing Summary						
	Cases					
	Valid		Missing		Total	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
Sun Word Meaning * Moya Word Meaning	34	100.0%	0	0.0%	34	100.0%

Sun Word Meaning * Moya Word Meaning Cross tabulation				
Count				
		Moya Word Meaning		Total
		Wrong	Correct	
Sun Word Meaning	Wrong	8	6	14
	Correct	4	16	20
Total		12	22	34

Chi-Square Tests					
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	4.975[a]	1	.026		
Continuity Correction[b]	3.481	1	.062		
Likelihood Ratio	5.011	1	.025		
Fisher's Exact Test				.036	.031
Linear-by-Linear Association	4.829	1	.028		
N of Valid Cases	34				

As can be seen on table 62 above, the chi-square shows that there is a significant statistical association between language and the level of competence in 'word meaning', X^2 (1, N=34) = 4.98, p = .026.

Evidently, learners are more conversant with words in their home language than in English. This has been a trend throughout this chapter, where learners performed better in Xitsonga throughout the biliteracy test.

6.10. Chapter Summary

This chapter presented findings on the last study objective which sought to:

- Develop a reading comprehension levels inventory of narrative and expository texts in Xitsonga and English in grades 1-3.

In meeting this objective, the following hypotheses were made:

- The mean scores of the foundation phase learners for Xitsonga will be different in comparison to English.
- The mean scores of foundation phase learners of narrative text for both English and Xitsonga will be different in comparison to Expository text.
- The mean scores of lower grade learners in both English and Xitsonga, for both narrative and expository text will be different in comparison to learners in a higher grade.
- There will be a significant statistical association between a text type (narrative and expository) and a grade, particularly for comprehension test for higher order thinking such as ‘evaluation’. Learners in higher grades are more likely to score higher than learners in lower grades.

CHAPTER SEVEN: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Introduction

This study was founded on historical and current developments in South Africa and other parts of the world about biliteracy reading development for young readers. The historical and biliteracy reading development has been understood through the interfaces between text types, languages, learners, teachers and the environment. The study aimed to investigate how bilingual reading development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in grades 1-3. The study addressed this aim by meeting the following research objectives:

- Determine prevalence rates of expository and narrative early grade texts.
- Develop an inventory of text prototypes in Grade 1-3 classroom print environment.
- Compare and contrast Xitsonga and English text prevalence.
- Assess pedagogical practices on reading literacy in relation to text types.
- Evaluate teacher beliefs on correlations between reading development and text selection.
- Develop a reading comprehension levels inventory of narrative and expository texts in Xitsonga and English in grades 1-3.

This chapter presents a summary of findings for each objective stated above, and it further presents a summary of findings on the hypotheses derived from the last research objective which sought to develop reading comprehension levels of narrative and expository texts in Xitsonga and English in grades 1-3. The hypotheses were that:

- The mean scores of the foundation phase learners for Xitsonga will be different in comparison to English.
- The mean scores of foundation phase learners of narrative text for both English and Xitsonga will be different in comparison to Expository text.
- The mean scores of lower grade learners in both English and Xitsonga, for both narrative and expository text will be different in comparison to learners in a higher grade.

- There will be a significant statistical association between a text type (narrative and expository) and a grade, particularly for comprehension test for higher order thinking such as ‘evaluation’. Learners in higher grades are more likely to score higher than learners in lower grades.

The chapter further presents a discussion of the findings in relation to the theoretical underpinnings as presented in chapter 2.

7.2. Summary of key findings (conclusions)

This summary is presented in terms of the study objectives and hypotheses stipulated above. With regards to objective 1, 2 and 3 which sought to determine the prevalence rates of expository and narrative early grade texts, develop an inventory of text prototypes in Grade 1-3 classroom print environment, and to compare and contrast Xitsonga and English text prevalence; respectively. These three objectives were realised through first, creating an inventory of text prototypes in grades 1-3 classroom libraries. Second, frequency counts of narrative and expository texts were conducted in both Xitsonga and English. Finally, an analysis of the texts for cognitive demand was done. Comparisons were done between the text prototypes and the between Xitsonga and English.

The findings indicated that there is a general scarcity of books in the foundation phase. The few books which were found were predominately narrative in both Xitsonga and English. Even though the texts are predominately narrative, there is a bilingual imbalance between English and Xitsonga texts per grade from Grade 1 to 3. At the same time, there is no consistency and balance between text distribution for both English and Xitsonga, and both narrative and expository texts from one grade to another. The available texts also reveal a low cognitive demand, with no increment in cognitive demand from the lowest grade (grade 1) to the highest grade (grade 3). While the classroom walls are almost print bare, they also depict a bilingual imbalance between Xitsonga and English, downplaying the advantage that the majority of wall print has been created locally (in the classroom) by the teachers and the learners.

In relation to the fourth and fifth research objectives which sought to assess pedagogical practices on reading literacy in relation to text types, and to evaluate teacher beliefs on correlations between reading development and text selection; the findings indicated that the teachers believed that they could not find any other time to read outside of the workbooks. At the same time, teachers echoed that learners could not read independently. Hence they would not be able to complete the worksheets independently. Furthermore, teachers attributed their constant translation of what they read in English to Xitsonga to their view that learners could not hear them when they speak or read in English, hence the translation.

The teachers further attributed their choice of approached, and language to factors such as aspects of the lesson easier in one language than the other. For example, that numbers are much easier for learners to call out and understand in English than in Xitsonga, and language cross-contamination for different lessons was apparent.
They also chose repetition through song as they believe that learners will remember what they repeat. They attribute following a linear and simple to complex approach as they believe that they should build on learners' previous knowledge. Phonics were always at the centre of classroom activities, irrespective of the story, or content being read.

The teachers were also particular about how learners accessed and interacted with books and other print in the classroom.While the teachers echoed that learner engagement was what they liked, such as participation in classroom activities, the teachers restricted learners' access to books. For classroom interactions, teachers balanced the 'lecturer' and the 'guiding practice' teaching methods. All the choices and classroom practices they alluded to are attributed to their initial teacher training programmes and in-service professional development.

In relation to the 6th and final study objective which sought to develop a reading comprehension levels inventory of narrative and expository texts in Xitsonga and English in grades 1-3; the results indicate that:

- Few learners can show appreciation from English texts, while a significant number of learners were able to show appreciation from Xitsonga texts.

- There is a statistical significant difference in comprehension levels of expository texts between English and Xitsonga; while there is statistical insignificance in comprehension levels of narrative texts between the two languages. (If learners can do better in Xitsonga expo than in English expo; then we have no reason not to intentional and explicitly include more Xitsonga expository texts in the foundation phase.
- There is no statistical significant difference between grades within both (within English and Xitsonga) languages and within text types (within expository and within the narrative.
- There is an only statistical significant association between grades 1 and 2 for the Xitsonga expository text on the section of evaluation, and between Grade 2 and 3 for the English expository for evaluation. The results also indicate that there is no statistical significant association between grades 1 and 2, for English narrative, English expository, and Xitsonga Narrative. There is also no statistical significant association between grades 2 and 3 for English narrative, Xitsonga Narrative and Xitsonga expository.
- All 34 learners could associate all the Xitsonga words with images. Only a maximum of 21 learners could associate all English words with images when the words are read aloud to them.
- On average 65.35% of the learners could associate the words for both English and Xitsonga with meaning.
- There is a significant statistical association between language and the level of competence in 'word meaning'.

7.3. General discussion of findings

This section shares a discussion of the findings in relation to the theoretical frameworks discussed in chapter 2. The findings indicate that there is a general scarcity of books in the foundation phase classrooms. The results also indicate that there is an imbalance between narrative and expository text, where there is more narrative text than expository texts in both languages; at the same time, there is no

incremental consistency of text prevalence from one grade to another. The available texts also presented a low cognitive demand, while the print environment is also poor.

Within the context of the above findings, the biliteracy reading comprehension inventory which addressed the last objective also revealed several imbalances. Learners generally scored higher in Xitsonga expository test than in English. The findings also revealed that there is no incremental progress from one grade to another in both English and Xitsonga for both narrative and expository texts. Two exceptions emerged on the section of the expository test that required learners to use their evaluative skills, where there was incremental progress between grade 1 and 2 for Xitsonga expository, and incremental progress between grade 2 and 3 for English expository. Results on word meaning revealed a significant statistical association between language and the scores, where all the 34 learners associated all the Xitsonga words with meaning, and were able to recognise nonsense words.

COGNITIVE EFFICIENCY MECHANISM FRAMEWORKS

The Simple view of reading

Within the prescripts, or rather the principles of cognitivism, the brain (mind) is perceived as self-sufficient with frames such as the Simple View of Reading (SVR) conceptualised from notions of cognitivism. The SVR purports that decoding (D) and Linguistic Comprehension (LC) produce reading comprehension (RC=D*LC) (Hoover & Gough, 1990). From the findings in this study emerging from the last study objective, a case in point is the scores from the Reading/listening comprehension where both English and Xitsonga words were read aloud, and learners were asked to associate the word they hear with meaning by pointing at an image associated with the conceived meaning of the word. For example, for the English word ‘Cow’, 13 out of 34 learners could not point the image of a cow. When the same word was translated to Xitsonga (as ‘Homu’) in the next section of the test all the 34 learners were able to point at the Cow. In this task, the 13 learners had no ‘LC’ of the English word cow; they also did not have ‘D’ since the word was read aloud to them; suggesting that ‘RC’ (reading listening comprehension in this case) could not be produced. In the case of the

Xitsonga word; learners had ‘LC’ but also did not have ‘D’ since the word was read aloud to them, but RC was produced. Important to remember is that the SVR was developed to defend the importance of decoding in reading comprehension (Verhoeven & van Leeuwe, 2012).

Similar to the sample in Hoover and Gough (1990), English will eventually be the language of teaching and learning once learners exit the foundation phase and begin grade 4 (the intermediate phase). The results indicate that learners do not have LC in English through-out the foundation phase. This is a cause for concern since English will be solely used for teaching and learning. The simple view of reading’s view that RC= D*LC cannot be maintained either can it be refuted based on the findings in this study; but rather creates new questions about the role of decoding in biliteracy reading contexts, particularly in rural contexts where the target language and the learners have minimal contact outside of classrooms and outside of school.

SOCIO-CULTURAL FRAMEWORKS

The continua of Biliteracy

The three dimensions of the biliteracy continuum which are; the context of biliteracy, development of individual’s biliteracy, and the media of biliteracy as described in Hornberger (1989) to a great degree holds viable in the case of the findings in this study. A case in point is the description of how the SRV could not be maintained or refuted since the biliteracy reading comprehension inventory in this study did not include decoding as one of its measures of reading comprehension. The fact that learners could comprehend the Xitsonga words, speak a lot to the ‘context of biliteracy’ as one of the dimensions in the biliteracy continuum.

Translanguaging

The findings of the fourth and fifth study objectives on teacher beliefs and pedagogical practices reflect a translingual approach to teaching literacy development in the foundation phase. One of the key findings that reflects translingual practices such as a ‘language suitable for numeracy’ as perceived by some teachers in the case of this

study. Teachers believe that numbers are much easier to understand for learners in English than in Xitsonga, even though Xitsonga is a prescribed language for instruction, and for learning to read in the foundation phase. Even though the language in education policies does not support translanguaging, teachers do what Probyn (2009) calls the 'smuggle' of a language into a class of a prescribed different language.

One other finding revealed that teachers also used Xitsonga in English lessons when they believed that learners would benefit from it, yet another 'smuggle' of one language into a lesson of a different language. Interesting about these two findings is that the smuggle is not one way, that is the smuggle of the vernacular into the English classroom as Probyn puts it, but the smuggle can happen either way as also found in Creese and Blackledge (2011).

In the same light, studies on 'theory and action' suggest that teachers are more productive when they use reflective approaches. That is when they constantly reflect on their practice to match the practice with beliefs about literacy (Daniels, 2016).

The findings from the fourth and fifth study objectives on teacher beliefs and pedagogical practices mentioned in the section above affirm the importance of conceptualising belief in relation to the action. Overtime teaching numeracy, teachers came to believe that learners understand numbers better in English than in Xitsonga. Hence the smuggling of English into the Xitsonga reading literacy classroom.

When teachers are forced to abandon their own beliefs; what Argyris and Schön (1978) call 'governing variables' about instruction, they are unable to reflect on own practice, and then feel the need to smuggle that which they believe will work for instruction, fearful that if they caught, there would be unpleasant consequences.

7.4. Conclusions

This study aimed to investigate how bilingual reading development is enhanced through text exposure and teacher pedagogical practices in grades 1-3. All the findings presented and discussed herein taken together indicate that by the end of Grade 3, reading comprehension competency in Xitsonga will not have developed enough for a transfer of reading skills into reading to learn in English in grade 4 and beyond as per

the bilingual education system in South Africa. It is evident that the impoverished classroom environmental print, coupled with monolingual bias pedagogical practices, three years of learning to read in English are not adequate to prepare learners for the sole use of English as a language of teaching and learning. Furthermore, the imbalance of text counts from one grade to another, and the imbalance of expository and narrative texts in both Xitsonga and English contribute negatively to cognitive development. This is further accebated by the low cognitive demand of the texts.

Part of the teachers' pedagogical practices, however, indicates that monolingualism no longer has space in bilingual or multilingual literacy reading comprehension contexts. Socio-cultural approaches, where all linguistic and cultural repertoires can be used for epistemological access are more desirable. Reading comprehension in English will not be equivalent to reading comprehension in Xitsonga. Reading comprehension scores in both Xitsonga and English indicate that learners do not acquire adequate literacy skills in Xitsonga at the end of grade 3, and as a result, they will struggle to read to learn in English as they begin grade 4 (intermediate phase).

7.5. Recommendations

7.5.1. A different approach for biliteracy/multi-literacy development in the foundation phase

Based on the findings outlined in this study, it is evident that learners will not have acquired literacy skills in both Xitsonga and English by the time they reach grade 4 (the intermediate phase) where they start to read to learn in English. Thus, the researcher makes the following recommendations:

7.5.1.1. Print rich environments

Many children who attend public schools, particularly in rural areas of South Africa come from impoverished print environments. As evident in the case studied here, changing the economic situation of the homes of the children will take longer. An

alternative for the Department of Basic Education is to invest in the professional development of foundation phase teachers such that they are able to create print-rich classroom environments for the foundation phase learners. In the creation of theseprint-rich environments, it is crucial that there are multilingual texts instead of monolingual texts. That is, to have more than one language in one book. There should be a balance between narrative and expository texts with an increase of expository texts from one grade to another, to reflect the reality of schooling beyond the foundation phase; where content subjects (reading to learn) receive more emphasis than narrative texts (stories) and or languages as subjects.

7.5.1.2. Officialising translingual practices

With the use of multilingual texts; there is a need to affirm teachers and learners of their already existing translingual practices. When teachers know that using more than one language for instruction is not forbidden, they are more likely to plan how these languages are used for bilingual or multilingual literacy development.

The officialising of translingual practices will also allow teachers and learners to use their linguistic and cultural repertoires in the creation of literacy environments, which in turn affirms their identities as cultural agents (Daniels, 2016). This will lead to both teachers and learners developing ownership of their linguistic and cultural repertoires in literacy development environments created by them, for them (Seilhamer, 2015).

7.5.1.3. The delayed transition from learning to read in Xitsonga, to reading to learn in English

Currently, after only three years of learning to read in English, learners transition to reading to learn in English by the time they start grade 4. It has long been found that it takes at least between 6-10 years to master a second language to be able to solely use it for instruction (Cummins, 1979; Goodrich, Lonigan, & Farver, 2013; King & King, 2006). Based on these, and the findings in this study, it is recommended that the foundation phase literacy curriculum take a different shape as suggested below.

Current	**Recommended**
Grade 1: • Home language for teaching and learning; English as a subject. • Separate bilingualism. • More narrative texts than expository texts.	Grade 1: • Bilingualism in a translingual approach. • All texts in home language and English. • Balance between narrative and expository texts.
Grade 2: • Home language for teaching and learning; English as a subject. • Separate bilingualism. • More narrative texts than expository texts. • No significant incremental difference of text count from Grade 1.	Grade 2: • Bilingualism in a translingual approach. • All texts in home language and English. • Increase of text counts than in Grade 1. • Significant increase of expository text count than narrative texts. • Increased cognitive demand of the texts and the interaction with the text.
Grade 3: • Home language for teaching and learning; English as a subject. • Separate bilingualism. • More narrative texts than expository texts. • No significant incremental difference of text count from Grade 2.	Grade 3: • Bilingualism in a translingual approach. • All texts in home language and English. • Increase of text counts than in Grade 2. • Significant increase of expository text count than in Grade 2. • Increased cognitive demand of the texts and the interaction with the texts than in Grade 2.
Grade 4 and beyond • L2 for teaching and learning	• Continue bilingualism in a translingual approach for teaching and learning, at least until grade 7. Possibilities to transition into using L2 for teaching and learning should be considered in grade 8.

With a continued increase of text counts, cognitive demand, translingual practices for at least 7 years (until grade 7); a switch to only using the second language/one language may be considered. Even so, a more multilingual approach to teaching and learning may be explored as research has found that multilingual learners have more cognitive resources than their monolingual peers since the 1960 s (Peal & Lambert, 1962).

7.5.2. Explicit teacher training for explicit teaching of reading comprehension

Evidently, from the findings on teacher beliefs and pedagogical practices, what the teacher believes literacy to be will be reflected in their teaching practices. When teacher preparation programs are designed to affirm socio-cultural approaches, teachers will be confident to plan and use these approaches for selecting texts and all other learning tools for their classrooms. It is therefore imperative that teacher training institutions explicitly train teachers to teach reading comprehension explicitly.

7.5.3. Future research

This research contributes to what is known in the literature about bilingual text prevalence in rural foundation phase classrooms, and teacher believes about text selection and pedagogical practices. More research on bilingual literacy and multilingual literacy classrooms in the South African context are imperative, particularly on the measures of bilingual and multilingual literacy reading comprehension. There is a need to define what constitutes a print-rich classroom environment in general and in bilingual and multilingual literacy classroom contexts. Best practices research conducted to explore the teachers' reflective practice in bilingual and multilingual literacy contexts in different settings has the potential to enrich instruction.

7.5.4. To the Department of basic education and all stakeholders

For the many South African children who go to school for the first time from impoverished communities and families, with no or limited print exposure to print; a print-rich classroom environment may contribute to closing the literacy development gaps in comparison to their peers who come from print-rich home environments. An investment in continuous in-service training for foundation phase teachers about creating literacy-rich environments will go a long way.

7.6. Chapter summary

This chapter presented a summary of findings per research objective. It also shared a discussion of the findings in relation to the two-dimensional framework presented in

chapter two. Conclusions were made, and literature gaps covered by the study are indicated. Finally, the chapter makes recommendations to stakeholders and makes recommendations for future research.

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9. LIST OF APPENDICES

9.1. APPENDIX A: University of the Witwatersrand Ethical clearance letter

Wits School of Education

27 St Andrews Road, Parktown, Johannesburg, 2193 Private Bag 3, Wits 2050, South Africa. Tel: +27 11 717-3064 Fax: +27 11 717-3100 E-mail: enquiries@educ.wits.ac.za Website: www.wits.ac.za

14 January 2016

Student Number: 757212

Protocol Number: 2015ECE018D

Dear Nkhensani Maluleke

Application for Ethics Clearance: Doctor of Philosophy

Thank you very much for your ethics application. The Ethics Committee in Education of the Faculty of Humanities, acting on behalf of the Senate, has considered your application for ethics clearance for your proposal entitled:

Bi-Literacy development in the foundation phase: an examination of reading comprehension levels of text types

The committee recently met and I am pleased to inform you that **clearance was granted.**

Please use the above protocol number in all correspondence to the relevant research parties (schools, parents, learners etc.) and include it in your research report or project on the title page.

The Protocol Number above should be submitted to the Graduate Studies in Education Committee upon submission of your final research report.

All the best with your research project.

Yours sincerely,

M Makgato

Wits School of Education

011 717-3416

cc Supervisor - Prof Leketi Makalela

9.2. APPENDIX B: University of the Witwatersrand proposal approval letter

Faculty of Humanities: Education Campus

Room 208/9, Administration Block, 27 St. Andrews Road, Parktown · Tel: +27 11 717-3018 · Fax: 0865532464
E-mail: Thabo.Makuru@wits.ac.za

PERSON NUMBER: 757212

04 May 2017

Ms Nkhensani Maluleke
Cc: Prof. Leketi Makalela

Dear Ms Maluleka

RESULTS FOR THE DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY EDUCATION

I am writing to inform you that the Graduate Studies Committee of the Faculty of Humanities, acting on behalf of the Senate has considered your proposal entitled *"Bi-Literacy development in the foundation phase: an examination of reading comprehension levels of text types."* and that you should be admitted to candidature subject to minor corrections suggested by the readers.

Corrections must be addressed to the satisfaction of the supervisor.

I confirm that **Prof. Leketi Makalela** has been appointed as your supervisor.

Your attention is drawn to the Senate's requirement that all higher degree candidates submit brief written reports on their progress to the Faculty Office once a year.

Please note that higher degree candidates are required to renew their registration in January each year.

Please keep us informed of any changes of address during the year.

Yours sincerely,

Thabo Makuru (Mr)
Faculty Officer
Faculty of Humanities Education
Parktown Campus
University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg

9.3. APPENDIX C: Limpopo Department of Education permission letter

LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION

Enquiries: MC Makola PhD, *Tel No: 015 290 9448 .E-mail:* MakolaMC@edu.limpopo.gov.za

P.O BOX 6106
GIYANI
0826

NKHENSANI MALULEKE

RE: Request for permission to Conduct Research

1. The above bears reference.

2. The Department wishes to inform you that your request to conduct research has been approved. Topic of the research proposal: **"TO INVESTIGATE COMPREHENSION LEVEL OF DESCRIPTIVE AND COMPARE/ CONTRAST STRUCTURES IN NARRATIVE AND EXPOSITORY TEXT STRUCTURE IN XITSONGA AND ENGLISH IN GRADE 1-3 OF THE FOUNDATION PHASE; AND TO TRIAL THE EFFICACY OF EXPOSURE TO THESE TEXTS IN ENHANCING DEEPER COMPREHENSION LEVELS."**.

3. The following conditions should be considered:
   3.1 The research should not have any financial implications for Limpopo Department of Education.
   3.2 Arrangements should be made with the Circuit Office and the schools concerned.
   3.3 The conduct of research should not anyhow disrupt the academic programs at the schools.
   3.4 The research should not be conducted during the time of Examinations especially the fourth term.
   3.5 During the study, applicable research ethics should be adhered to; in particular the principle of voluntary participation (the people involved should be respected).
   3.6 Upon completion of research study, the researcher shall share the final product of the research with the Department.

4 Furthermore, you are expected to produce this letter at Schools/ Offices where you intend conducting your research as an evidence that you are permitted to conduct the research.

Cnr. 113 Biccard & 24 Excelsior Street, POLOKWANE, 0700, Private Bag X9489, POLOKWANE, 0700
Tel: 015 290 7600, Fax: 015 297 6920/4220/4494

The heartland of southern Africa - development is about people!

5 The department appreciates the contribution that you wish to make and wishes you success in your investigation.

Best wishes.



09/07/2015

Mashaba KM **Date**

Acting Head of Department.

9.4. APPENDIX D: Print/text inventory tool

PRINT ENVIRONMENT SURVEY

1) OBSERVATION DETAILS:

Date: _____

Observer: _____

School: _____

Grade: _____

Starting Time: _____

2) DIAGRAM OF CLASSROOM

(Please draw a diagram of the room that shows the location of the texts in the classroom. You should also note where the blackboard, bookshelves, and student desks are located.)

3) PICTURES

Note: Please take pictures of the four classroom walls from the center of the room and one from each corner of the room. This is a total of eight pictures.

4) Inventory of XiTsonga texts in the classroom

(Please provide detailed descriptions of quantities, genre (Expository, Narrative), the organization (accessibility); and qualities of text (content, language(s) and design).

Expository texts

Quantity ☐

What is the overall quality of the Expository texts?

☐ Very low quality

☐ Low quality

☐ Average quality

☐ High quality

☐ Very high quality

Narrative texts

Quantity ☐

What is the overall quality of the Narrative texts?

☐ Very low quality

☐ Low quality

☐ Average quality

☐ High quality

☐ Very high quality

5) Inventory of English texts in the classroom

(Please provide detailed descriptions of quantities, genre (Expository, Narrative), the organization (accessibility); and qualities of text (content, language(s) and design).

Expository texts

What is the overall quality of the Expository texts?

Quantity

☐ Very low quality

☐ Low quality

☐ Average quality

☐ High quality

☐ Very high quality

Narrative texts

Quantity

What is the overall quality of the Narrative texts?

☐ Very low quality

☐ Low quality

☐ Average quality

☐ High quality

☐ Very high quality

9.5. APPENDIX E: Observation Schedule

Reading Lesson Observation schedule

School: _____

Teacher: _____

Observer: _____

Class: _____

Date: _____

Conditions Surrounding the Observation:

_____

_____

_____

_____

First 30 minutes (enter number of learners each 3 minutes)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Eyes on Print										
Hands on Books										

10 minutes Reflection

What was the major focus of instruction? (Select all that apply.)

☐ Mathematics

☐ Life Skills

☐ Language

☐ Other _____

About how much of the talk was in XiTsonga/ English?

☐ None

☐ 25%

☐ 50%

☐ 75%

☐ 100%

What was the teacher's role?

(Check all that apply.)

☐ Telling or lecturing

☐ Guiding practice

☐ Circulating or overseeing instruction

☐ Questioning

☐ No active involvement

What texts were included in the "eyes on print"? Put a 1 next to the texts viewed most often, a 2 next to the texts viewed next most often, a 3 (etc.)

☐ Chalkboard

☐ Visual Aids (other than chalkboard)

☐ Paper (notebooks, worksheets)

☐ Books (in the hands of students)

☐ Books (in the hands of teacher)

☐ Other _____

What genre were the texts in the 'eyes on print'?

☐ Narrative

☐ Narrative Informational

☐ Expository/ Informational

☐ Other _____

Notes on instruction

Texts used (enter titles, if applicable/ or a description)	Questions asked (record all questions asked by the teacher to learners, including those for written activities)	Comments on questions asked

Last 30 minutes (enter number of learners each 3 minutes)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Eyes on Print										
Hands on Books										

10 minutes Reflection

What was the major focus of instruction? (Select all that apply.)

☐ Mathematics

☐ Life Skills

☐ Language

☐ Other _____

About how much of the talk was is in XiTsonga/ English?

☐ None

☐ 25%

☐ 50%

☐ 75%

☐ 100%

What was the teacher's role?

(Check all that apply.)

☐ Telling or lecturing

☐ Guiding practice

☐ Circulating or overseeing instruction

☐ Questioning

☐ No active involvement

What texts were included in the "eyes on print"? Put a 1 next to the texts viewed most often, a 2 next to the texts viewed next most often, a 3 (etc.)

☐ Chalkboard

☐ Visual Aids (other than chalkboard)

☐ Paper (notebooks, worksheets)

☐ Books (in the hands of students)

☐ Books (in the hands of teacher)

☐ Other _____

What genre were the texts in the 'eyes on print'?

☐ Narrative

☐ Narrative Informational

☐ Expository/ Informational

☐ Other _____

Notes on instruction		
Texts used (enter titles, if applicable/ or a description)	Questions asked (record all questions asked by the teacher to learners, including those for written activities)	Comments on questions asked

Active Teaching Rubric	**Strongly Disagree**	**Disagree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
Teaching is goal oriented.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Teacher displays enthusiasm (passion for kids, content, learning)	☐	☐	☐	☐
There is engaging content (that relates to learner interests, experiences)	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tasks are challenging (but not overwhelming) in terms of demands on the learner;	☐	☐	☐	☐
Teacher presents content and instructs with clarity & accuracy.	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher models learning.	☐	☐	☐	☐

The teacher provides variability in methodologies (activity and participation patterns).	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher organizes space, time and movement to insure lesson "flow" (with minimum disruptions)	☐	☐	☐	☐
There is movement (by teachers to assess and support; by learners as in "total physical response" and hands on learning.)	☐	☐	☐	☐
There is a positive climate (physical, social and emotional). for risk-taking and learning	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher questions, listens carefully to responses and builds on learner's ideas;	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher promotes and participates in discussion;	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher assesses (checking or understanding) and adapts instruction DURING the lesson;	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher uses a variety of instructional aids (multi-modal support for learning)	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher insures that learners make connections of content to outside school learning;	☐	☐	☐	☐
The teacher and learners author texts around the content as a support to and record for learning.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Overall Active Teaching Rating				
None	Low	Moderate	High	Very High
1	2	3	4	5

Were there any teacher- or student-created products that were created during this lesson?

(Check all that apply.)

☐ Worksheets

☐ Student writing (more than individual words)

☐ Chart or poster

☐ An object or artifact

☐ Art

☐ Other _____

Other Observations:

9.6. APPENDIX F: **Reflective Interview schedule**

Semi-structured Reflective Interview schedule for teachers

Interviews will be audio recorded and transcribed.

School: _____

Grade: _____

Teacher: _____

Interviewer: _____

Date: _____

Start time: _____ End time: _____ total minutes: _____

Semi structured Questions	Field Notes around the interview
1. What did you like or dislike about the lesson you just taught?	
2. Which part of your lesson do you think was effective in teaching the learners how to read?	
3. Why do you believe this is the case?	
4. Where did or how did you acquire this technique?	

9.7. APPENDIX G: Biliteracy Reading Development inventory (Grade 1)

Data collector……..

Vito na Xivongo: ……

Xikolo: …….

Ntangha: …….……

Mudyondzisi: …….....

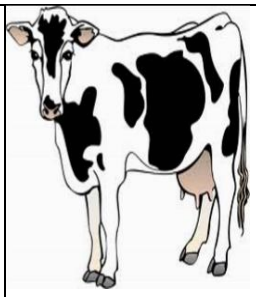
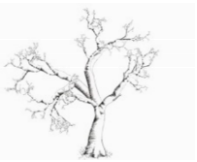
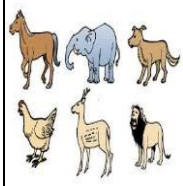
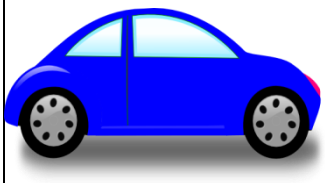
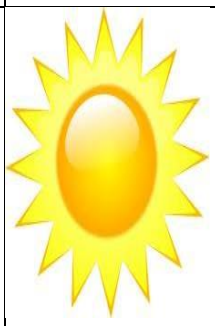
Siku: …….. ……

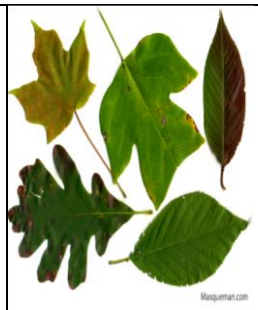
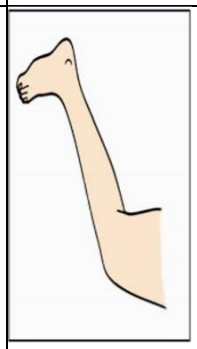
Rimbewu: …….

SECTION A:

English (Listening Comprehension)

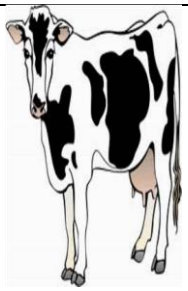
Instructions: Look at the pictures below. I want to find out if you can name some of the pictures.

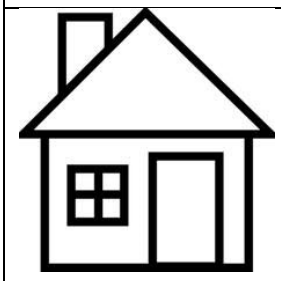
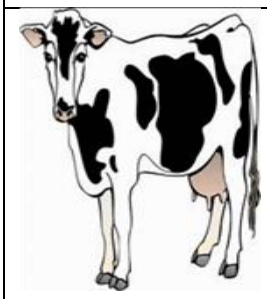
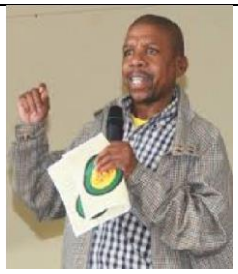
			
			
			

Xitsonga (Listening Comprehension)

Langutisa swifaniso leswi landzelaka; kombisa leswaku wa mativa mavito ya swin'wana swa swifaniso leswi.

SECTION B

English

Choose whether the following words are correct or not. Write *yes* or *no* next to the given word

	Yes	No
Rac		
Bed		
Pli		
Pma		
Sun		

XiTsonga

Marito lama landzelaka ma vulavula kume ama vulavuli kee? Tsala *Ina* kumbe *Ee* ekusuhii na rito.

	Ina	Ee
Yindlu		
Nknxs		
Mls		
ldhf		
Moya		

SECTION C

English

Listening Comprehension test (Narrative)

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Dzunisani loved the horns of his two white cattle</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Dzunisani is walking with his two white cattle.</td><td>One day when he came back from school, he found that his two white cattle lost their horns.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Dzunisani was very sad.</td><td>But the two white cattle were very happy without their horns.</td></tr>
</table>

Questions

Retell the story I just read to you in your own way, using your own words.

Is it a good idea for Dzunisani to be sad?

_____

Why?

_____

If you were the two white cattle, and you see that Dzunisani is very sad, what would you do?

_____
_____
_____
_____

English (Expository)

Read the book ‘Fruit for the Class’ and answer the questions that follow

Questions

Please tell me what I just read to you in your own way, you can use your own words if you want to.

_____
_____
_____

Which fruits starts with the letter ‘P’? Please name them

_____
_____

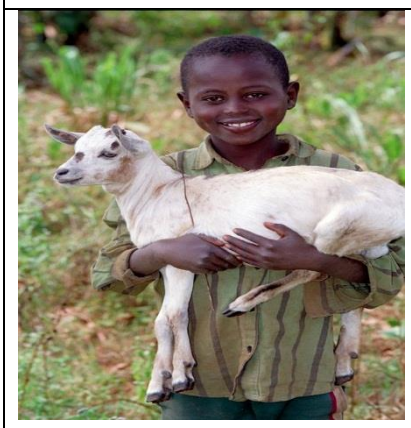
Which other fruits that start with the letter ‘P’ that are not in our reading that you know?

_____
_____

XiTsonga (narrative)

Xikambela-ntwisiso (listening Comprehension)

Ahi Hlayeni Xitori lexi Swin’we, ivi hi hlamula Swivutiso leswi landzelaka

Matimba a rhandza ku tlakula ximbutana xa yena xo basa	
	

Masiku hinkwawo ati tlakulela ximbutana xa yena hi ntsako.	Endzaku ka lembe, ximbutana xa matimba xo basa axi kurile swinene; xi humile na timhondzo.
	
Loko Matimba a lava ku tlakula mbuti; ayi tsutsuma hi rivilo leri kulu. Mbuti ayinga ha swilavi ku tlakuriwa.	Leswi swi endle leswaku Matimba a tsana swinene.

Swivutiso (questions)

Ndzi byeli xitori lexi ndzi hetaka kuku hlayela xona hi ma hlamuselelo ya wena.

_____
_____
_____
_____

Uvona swiri kahle kumbe swinga ri kahle leswaku Matimba a tsana loko mbuti yi ala ku tlakuriwa?

_____
_____

Hi kwalaho ka yini?

_____
_____

Loko akuri wena mbuti, ivi uvona leswaku Matimba anga tsaki loko u ala ku tlakuriwa; awuta endla yini?

_____

_____

Xitsonga (expository)

Hlaya hi Swiharhi leswi hanyaka ematini ivi u hlamula Swivutiso leswi landzelaka:

Xana laha hi hlayeke kona ku vulavuriwa hi yini? Ndzi byeli hikuya hi leswi uswi twiseke swona.

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Eka chela na Hlampfi, hi xihi lexi kotaka ku hanya ehandle ka mati nkarhi wo leha?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Hi xihi xin'wna xiharhi lexi tshamaka ematini lexi xi chavisaka ku fana na Ngwenya?

9.8. APPENDIX H: Biliteracy Reading Comprehension Inventory (Grade 2)

Data collector……..

Vito na Xivongo: ……

Xikolo: …….

Ntangha: …….……

Mudyondzisi: …….....

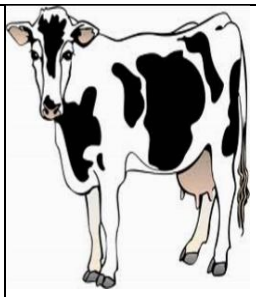
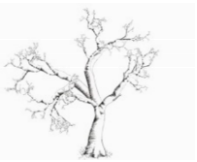
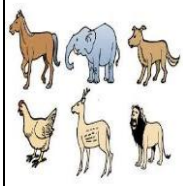
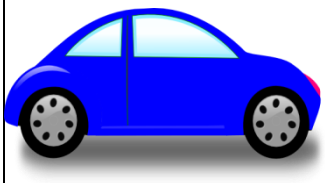
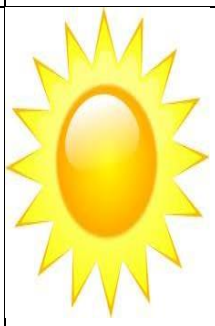
Siku: …….. ……

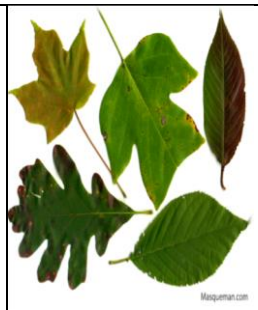
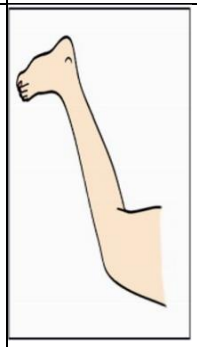
Rimbewu: …….

SECTION A:

English (Listening Comprehension)

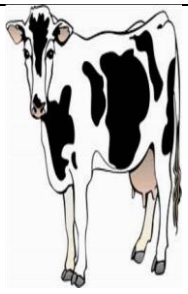
Instructions: Look at the pictures below. I want to find out if you can name some of the pictures.

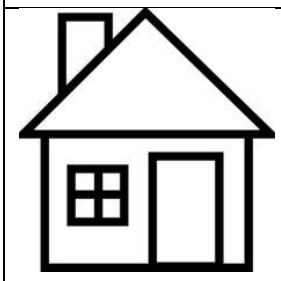
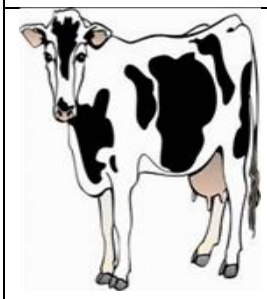
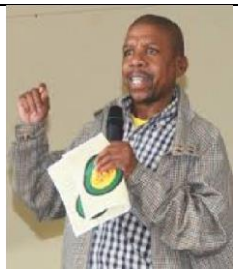
			
			
			

Xitsonga (Listening Comprehension)

Langutisa swifaniso leswi landzelaka; kombisa leswaku wa mativa mavito ya swin'wana swa swifaniso leswi.

SECTION B

English

Choose whether the following words are correct or not. Write *yes* or *no* next to the given word

	Yes	**No**
Rac		
Bed		
Pli		
Pma		
Sun		

XiTsonga

Marito lama landzelaka ma vulavula kume ama vulavuli kee? Tsala *Ina* kumbe *Ee* ekusuhii na rito.

	Ina	**Ee**
Yindlu		
Nknxs		
Mls		
ldhf		
Moya		

SECTION C

English

Listening Comprehension test (Narrative)

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Dzunisani loved the horns of his two white cattle</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Dzunisani is walking with his two white cattle.</td><td>One day when he came back from school, he found that his two white cattle lost their horns.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Dzunisani was very sad.</td><td>But the two white cattle were very happy without their horns.</td></tr>
</table>

Questions

Retell the story I just read to you in your own way, using your own words.

Is it a good idea for Dzunisani to be sad?

_____

Why?

_____

If you were the two white cattle, and you see that Dzunisani is very sad, what would you do?

_____
_____
_____

English (Expository)

Read about PLANTS and answer the questions that follow

Questions

Please tell me what I just read to you in your own way, you can use your own words if you want to.

_____
_____
_____

Which plants have roots, and which plants have fruit?

_____
_____

Which other plants that are not in our reading that you have eaten before?

_____
_____

XiTsonga (narrative)

Xikambela-ntwisiso (listening Comprehension)

Ahi Hlayeni Xitori lexi Swin'we, ivi hi hlamula Swivutiso leswi landzelaka

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Matimba a rhandza ku tlakula ximbutana xa yena xo basa</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Masiku hinkwawo ati tlakulela ximbutana xa yena hi ntsako.</td><td>Endzaku ka lembe, ximbutana xa matimba xo basa axi kurile swinene; xi humile na timhondzo.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Loko Matimba a lava ku tlakula mbuti; ayi tsutsuma hi rivilo leri kulu. Mbuti ayinga ha swilavi ku tlakuriwa.</td><td>Leswi swi endle leswaku Matimba a tsana swinene.</td></tr>
</table>

Swivutiso

Ndzi byeli xitori lexi ndzi hetaka kuku hlayela xona hi ma hlamuselelo ya wena.

_____

_____

_____

Uvona swiri kahle kumbe swinga ri kahle leswaku Matimba a tsana loko mbuti yi ala ku tlakuriwa?

_____
_____

Hi kwalaho ka yini?

_____
_____

Loko akuri wena mbuti, ivi uvona leswaku Matimba anga tsaki loko u ala ku tlakuriwa; awuta endla yini?

_____

_____

Xitsonga (expository)

Hlaya hi Swiharhi leswi hanyaka ematini ivi u hlamula Swivutiso leswi landzelaka:

Xana laha hi hlayeke kona ku vulavuriwa hi yini? Ndzi byeli hikuya hi leswi uswi twiseke swona.

_____
_____

Eka chela na Hlampfi, hi xihi lexi kotaka ku hanya ehandle ka mati nkarhi wo leha?

_____
_____
_____

Hi xihi xin'wna xiharhi lexi tshamaka ematini lexi xi chavisaka ku fana na Ngwenya?

_____
_____
_____

9.9. APPENDIX I: Biliteracy Reading Comprehension Inventory (Grade 3)

Data collector……..

Vito na Xivongo: ……

Xikolo: …….

Ntangha: …….……

Mudyondzisi: …….....

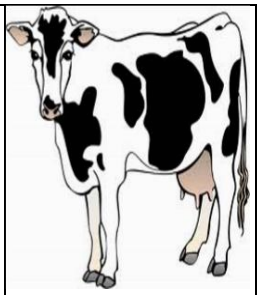
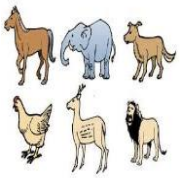
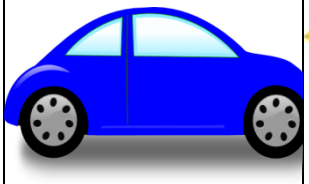
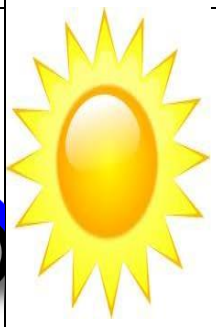
Siku: …….. ……

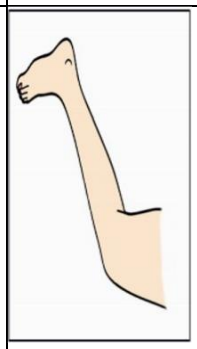
Rimbewu: …….

SECTION A

English (Reading Comprehension)

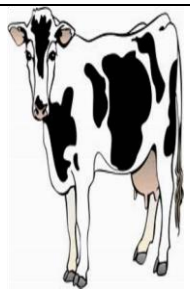
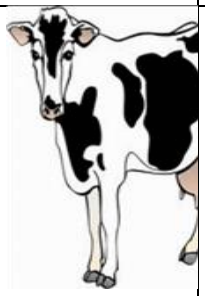
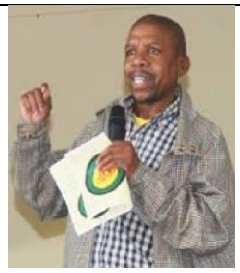
Instructions: Look at the pictures below. I want to find out if you can point some of the pictures after reading the word on the first column; indicate by a cross (X).

Cow				
Fire				
Car				

Door				
Chicken				

Xitsonga (Listening Comprehension)

Langutisa swifaniso leswi landzelaka; kombisa leswaku wa mativa mavito ya swin'wana swa swifaniso leswi.

Nomo				
Khekhe				
Rivanti				
Homu				

Bolo				

SECTION B

English

Choose whether the following words are correct or not. Put a cross (x) under *yes* or *no* next to the given word:

	Yes	**No**
Rac		
Bed		
Pli		
Pma		
Sun		

XiTsonga

Marito lama landzelaka ma vulavula kume ama vulavuli kee? Langha *Ina* kumbe *Ee* ekusuhii na rito, ivi u kombiza hi xihambano (X)

	Ina	**Ee**
Yindlu		
Nknxs		
Mls		
ldhf		
Moya		

SECTION C

English

Listening Comprehension test (Narrative)

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Dzunisani loved the horns of his two white cattle</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Dzunisani is walking with his two white cattle.</td><td>One day when he came back from school, he found that his two white cattle lost their horns.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Dzunisani was very sad.</td><td>But the two white cattle were very happy without their horns.</td></tr>
</table>

Questions

Retell the story I just read to you in your own way, using your own words.

_____

_____

Is it a good idea for Dzunisani to be sad?

_____

Why?

_____

If you were the two white cattle, and you see that Dzunisani is very sad, what would you do?

_____
_____
_____

English (Expository)

Read a passage called ‘From Sky to the See’ and answer the questions that follow.

Tell me what we just read in your own words. After telling me, please try to write what you can remember.

_____
_____
_____

The streams join together to make a _____

Where do all the rivers go in the end? Tell me, and then write your answer.

_____
_____
_____

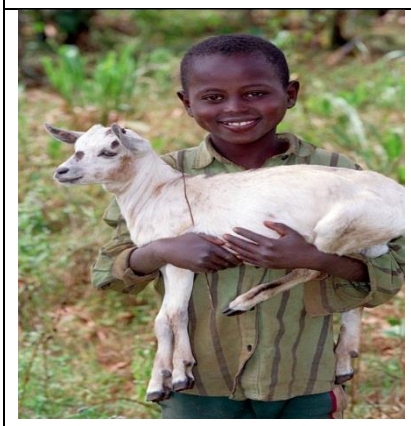
Which river do you know, and how did you get to know it? Tell me and then write the answer.

_____

XiTsonga (narrative)

Xikambela-ntwisiso (Comprehension Test)

Ahi Hlayeni Xitori lexi Swin'we, ivi hi hlamula Swivutiso leswi landzelaka

<table>
<tr><td colspan="2">Matimba a rhandza ku tlakula ximbutana xa yena xo basa</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Masiku hinkwawo ati tlakulela ximbutana xa yena hi ntsako.</td><td>Endzaku ka lembe, ximbutana xa matimba xo basa axi kurile swinene; xi humile na timhondzo.</td></tr>
<tr><td></td><td></td></tr>
<tr><td>Loko Matimba a lava ku tlakula mbuti; ayi tsutsuma hi rivilo leri kulu. Mbuti ayinga ha swilavi ku tlakuriwa.</td><td>Leswi swi endle leswaku Matimba a tsana swinene.</td></tr>
</table>

Swivutiso

Ndzi byeli xitori lexi ndzi hetaka kuku hlayela xona hi ma hlamuselelo ya wena.

_____
_____

Uvona swiri kahle kumbe swinga ri kahle leswaku Matimba a tsana loko mbuti yi ala ku tlakuriwa?

_____
_____

Hi kwalaho ka yini?

_____
_____

Loko akuri wena mbuti, ivi uvona leswaku Matimba anga tsaki loko u ala ku tlakuriwa; awuta endla yini?

_____

_____

Xitsonga (expository)

Hlaya hi Swiharhi leswi hanyaka ematini ivi u hlamula Swivutiso leswi landzelaka:

Xana laha hi hlayeke kona ku vulavuriwa hi yini? Ndzi byeli hikuya hi leswi uswi twiseke swona.

_____
_____

Eka chela na Hlampfi, hi xihi lexi kotaka ku hanya ehandle ka mati nkarhi wo leha?

_____
_____

Hi xihi xin'wna xiharhi lexi tshamaka ematini lexi xi chavisaka ku fana na Ngwenya?

_____
_____

9.10. APPENDIX J: Biliteracy Reading Comprehension Inventory Score card

Section A Reading/ Listening Comprehension

English		XiTsonga	
	Score		Score
Cow/cattle		Nomo	
Fire		Khekhe	
Car		Rivanti	
Door		Homu	
Chicken		Bolo	

Section B Meaning

English		XiTsonga	
	Score		Score
Rac		Yindlu	
Bed		nknxs	
Pli		Mls	
Pm		Idhf	
Sun		Moya	

Section C (Narrative and Expository text Comprehension)

English

Text Genre	Comprehension type	Score
Narrative	Reorganisation	
	Evaluation	
	Appreciation	
Expository	Reorganisation	
	Evaluation	
	Appreciation	

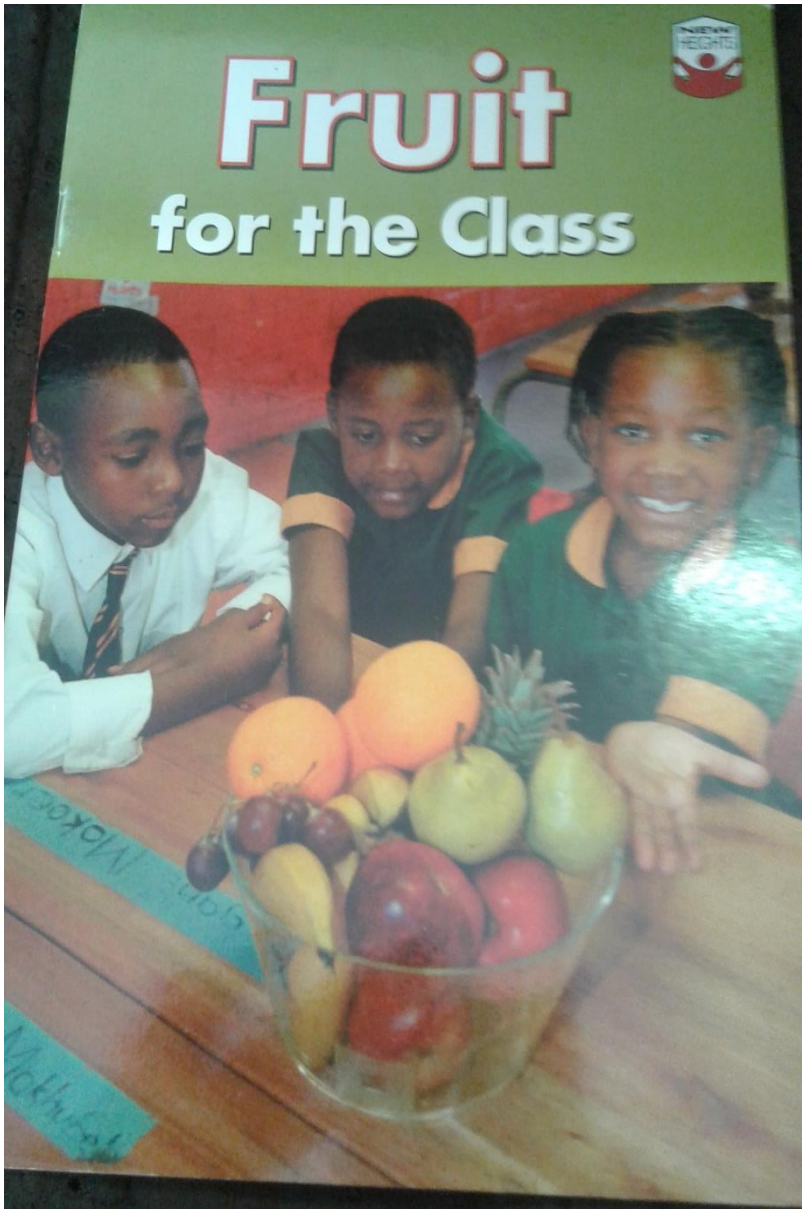
XiTsonga

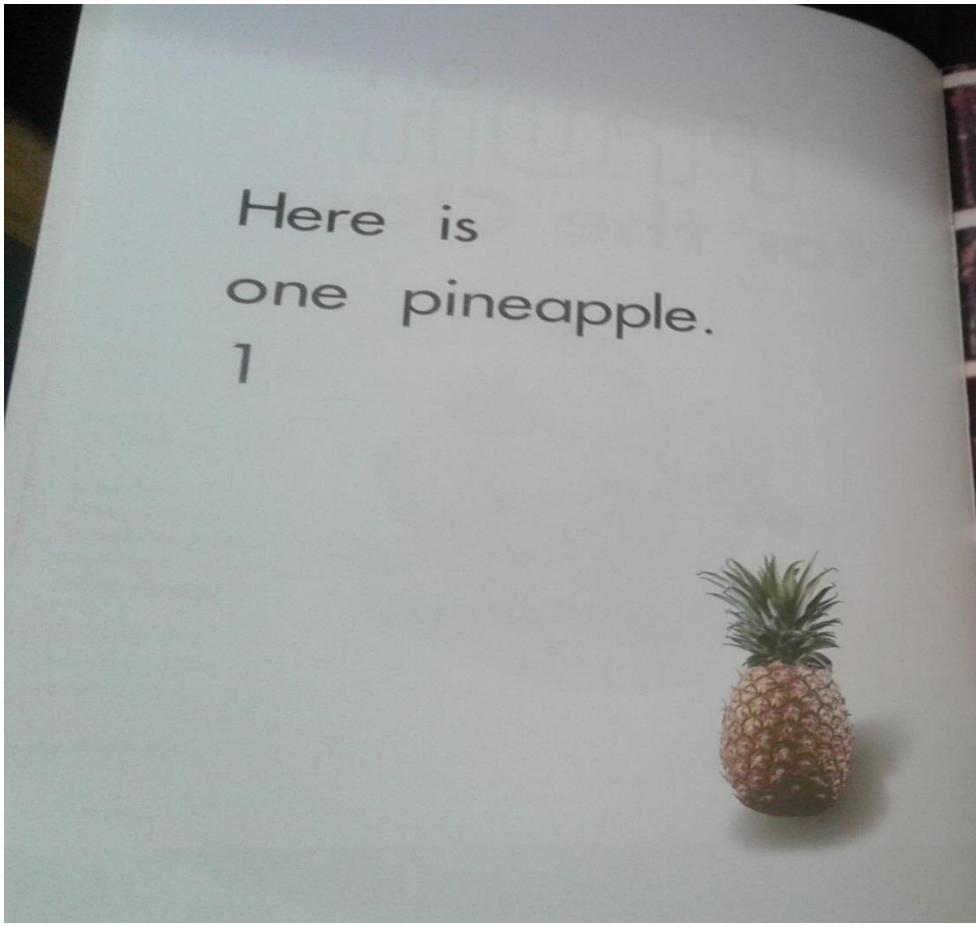
Text Genre	Comprehension type	Score
Narrative	Reorganisation	
	Evaluation	
	Appreciation	
Expository	Reorganisation	
	Evaluation	
	Appreciation	

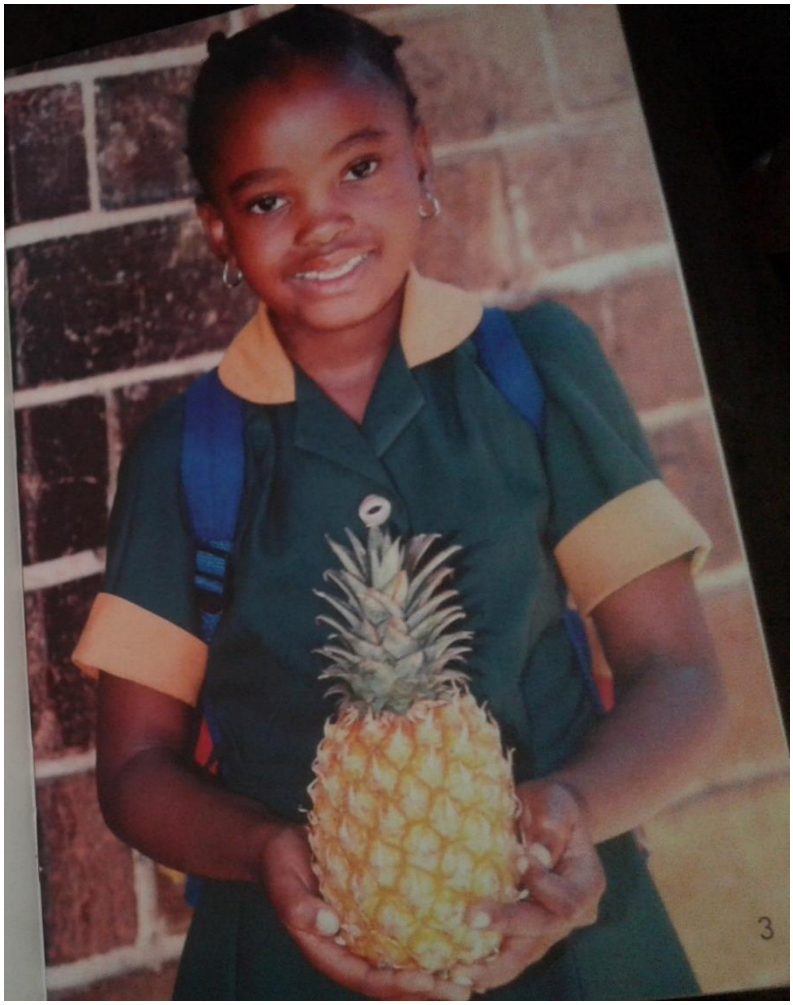
Codes

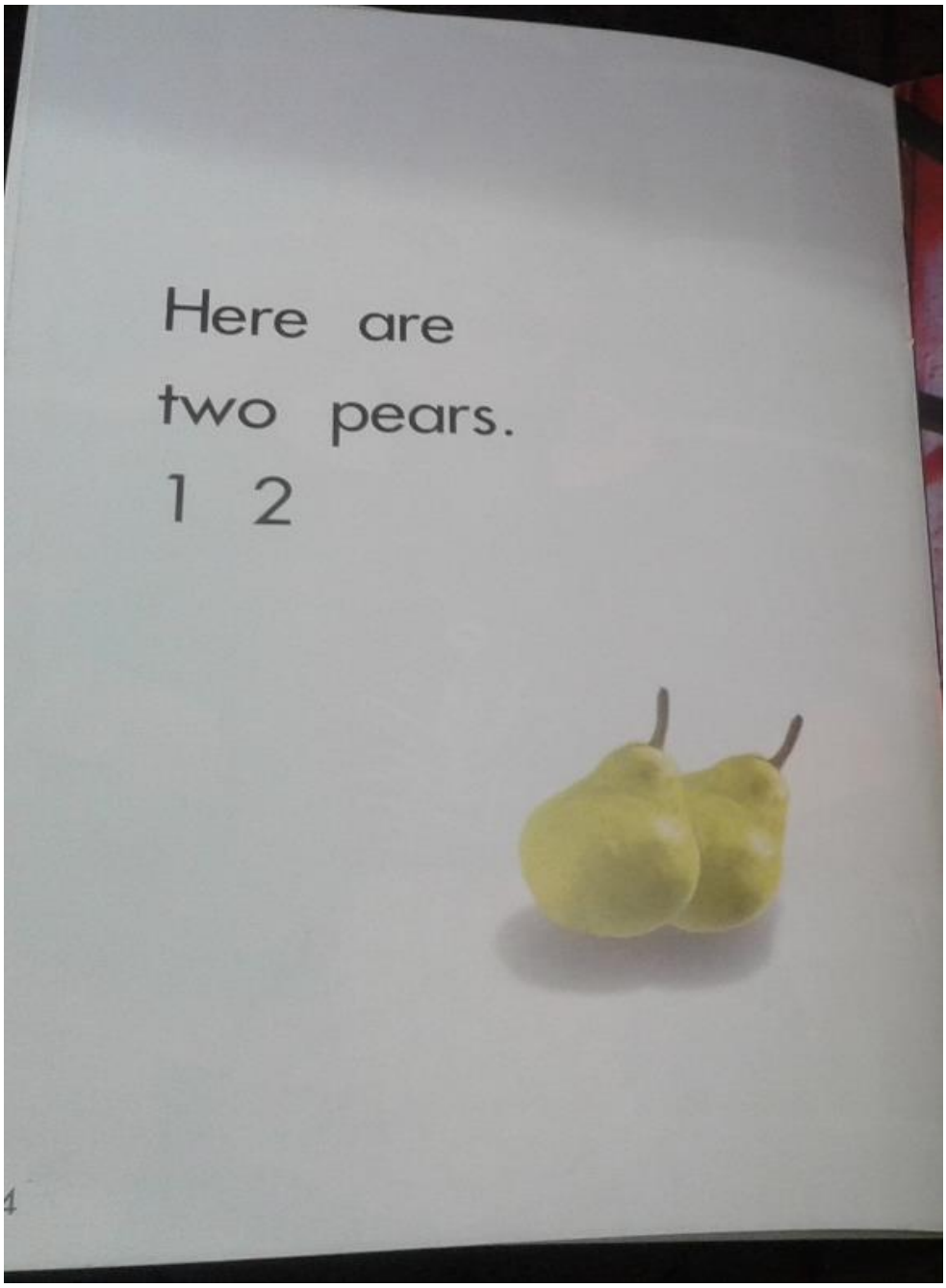
Correct answer	2
Wrong answer:	1
No answer:	0

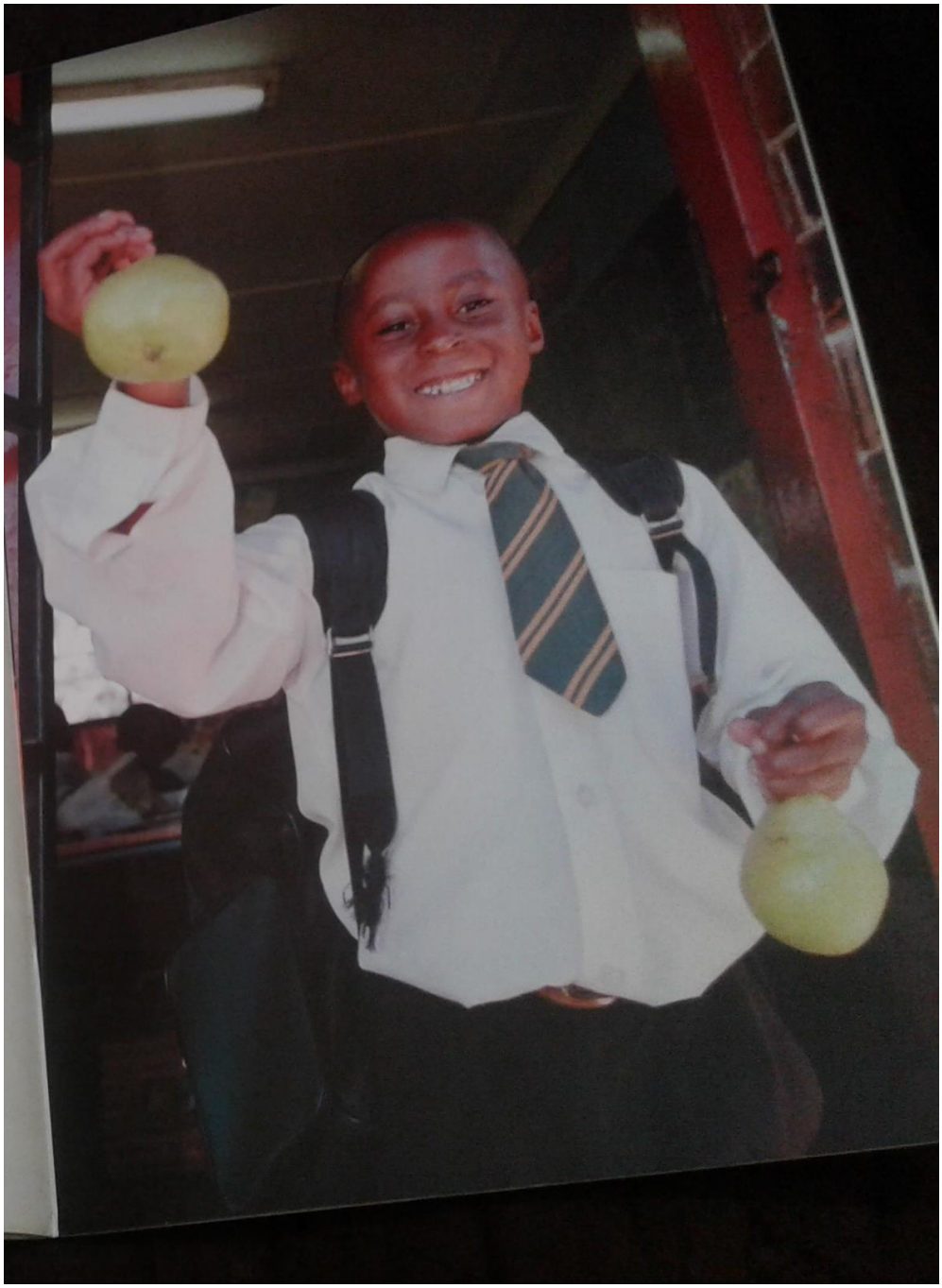
9.11. APPENDIX K: Grade 1 English Expository Reading (Fruit for the class)

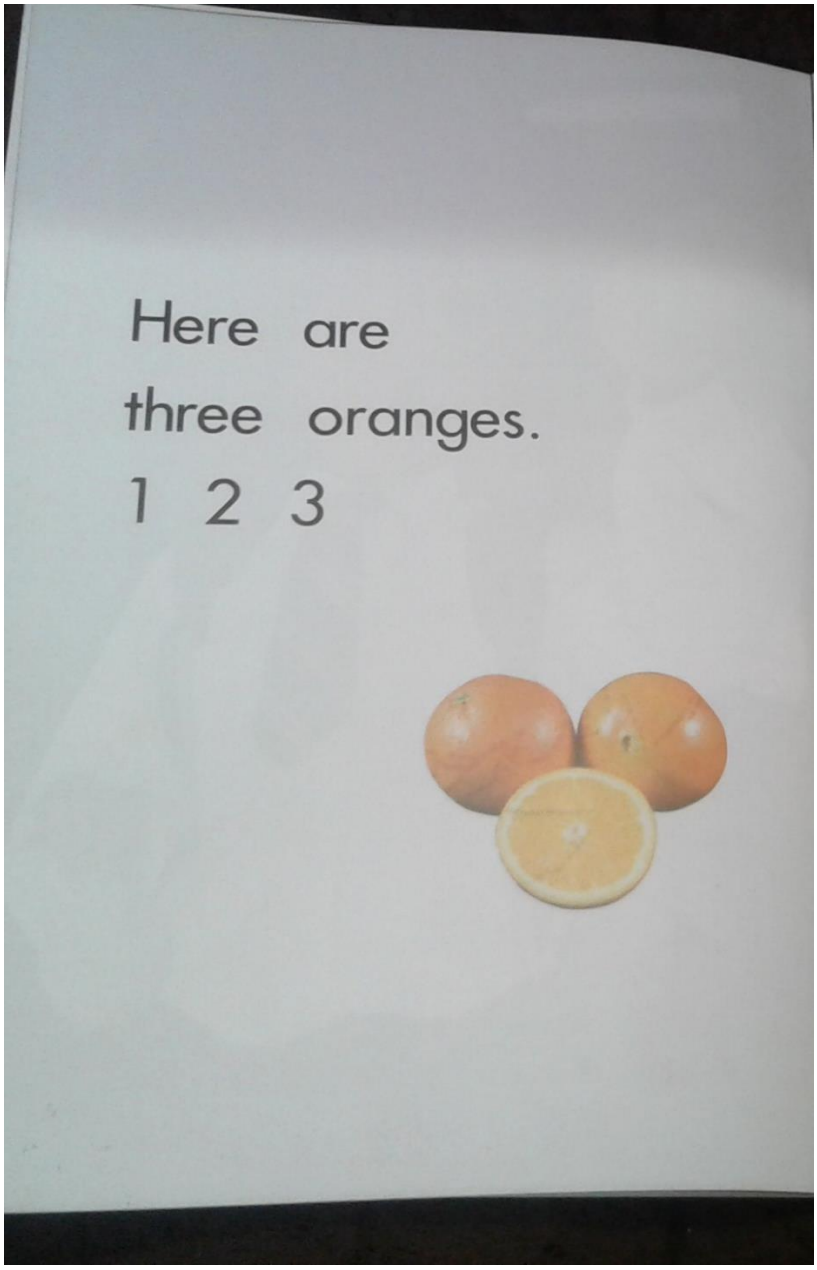


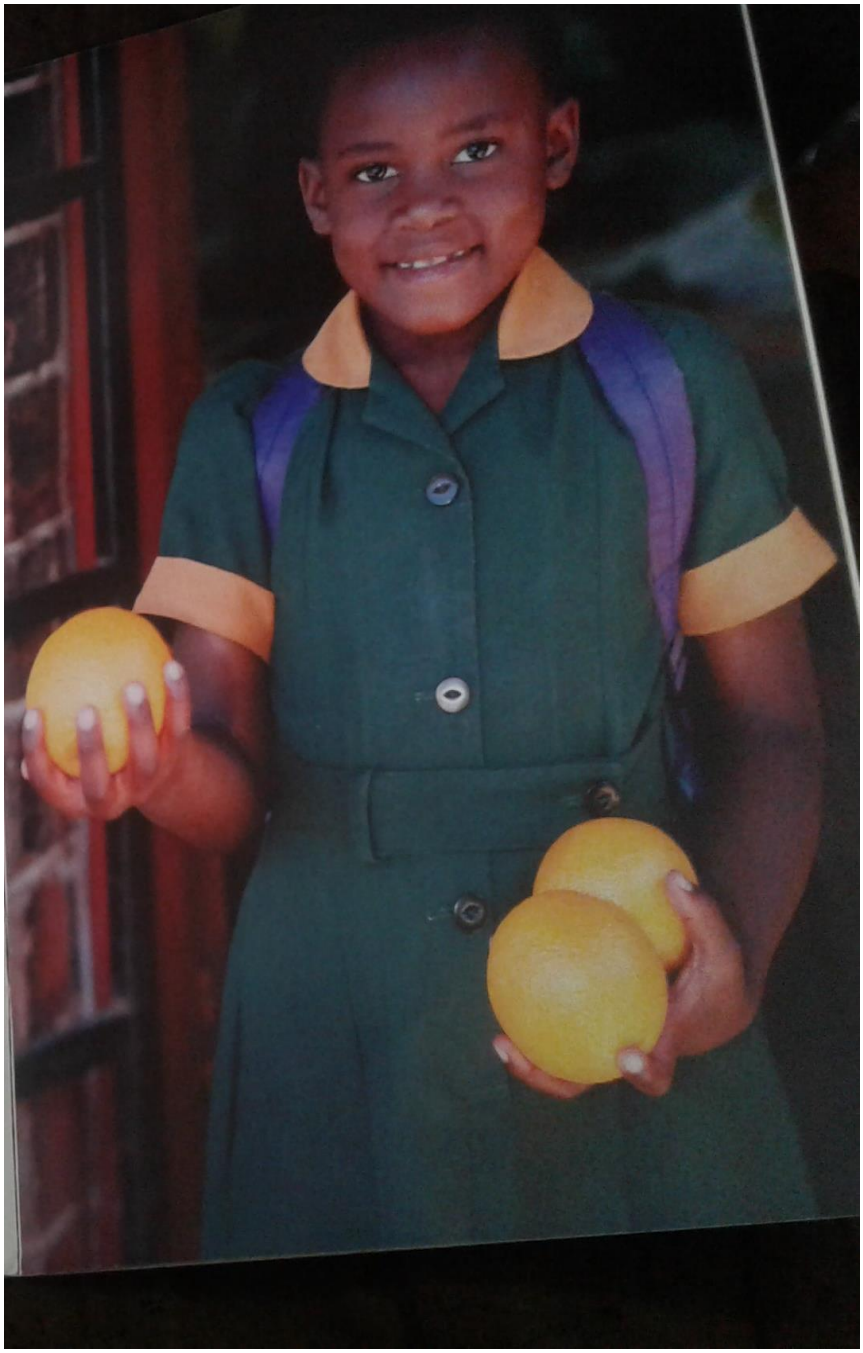

Here is
one pineapple.
1

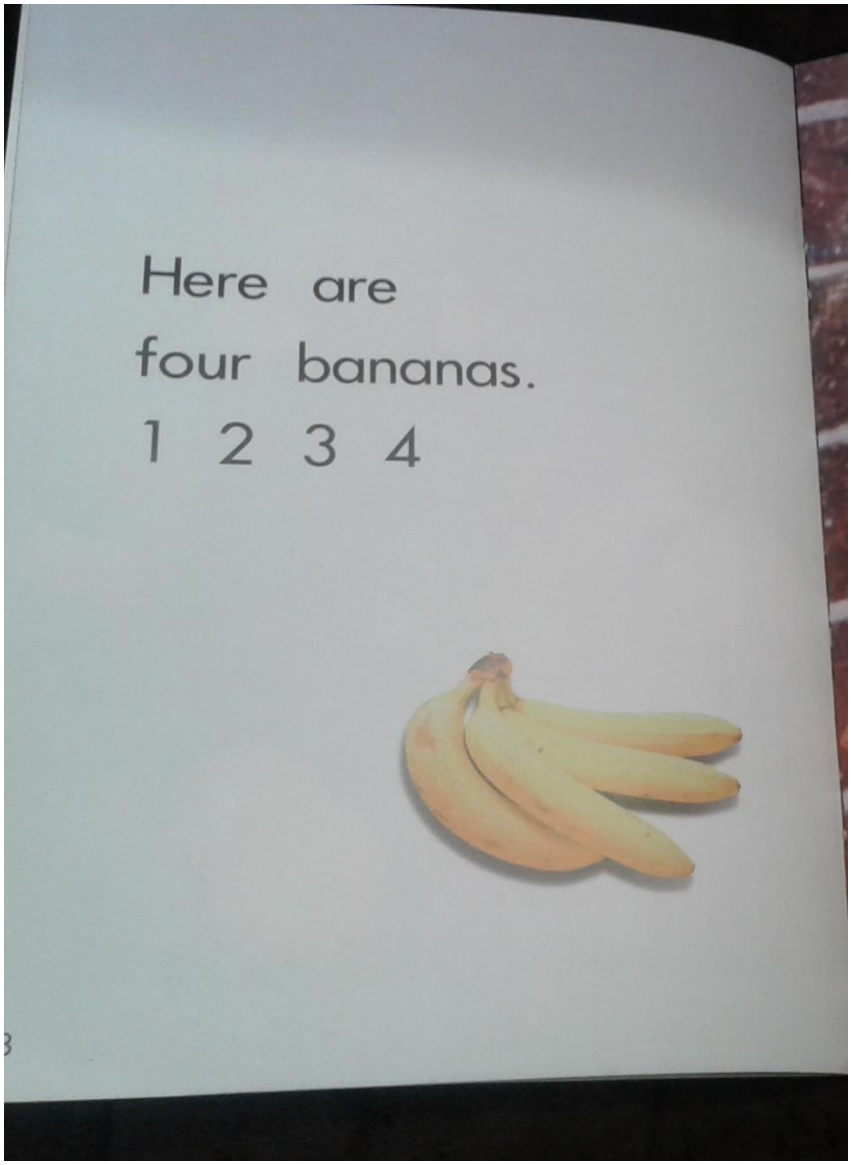

3

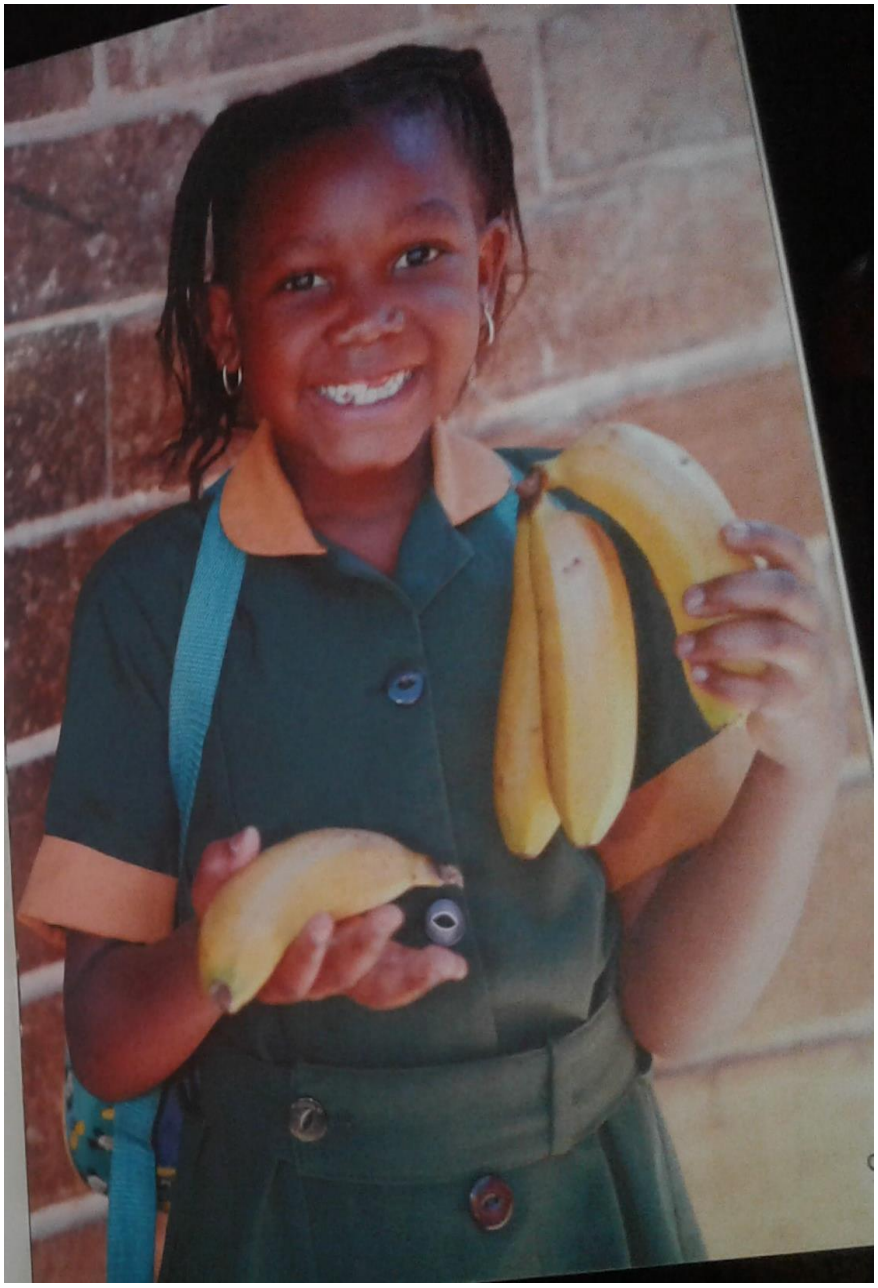

Here are
two pears.
1 2

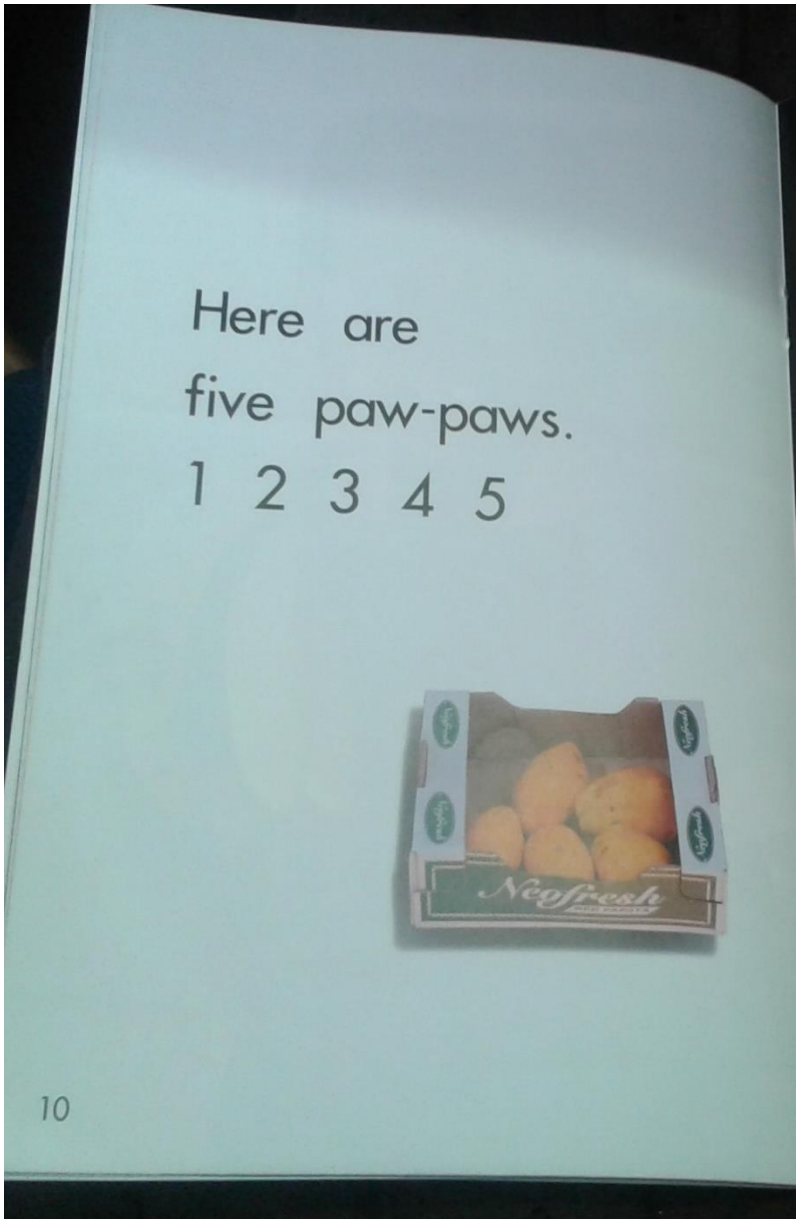


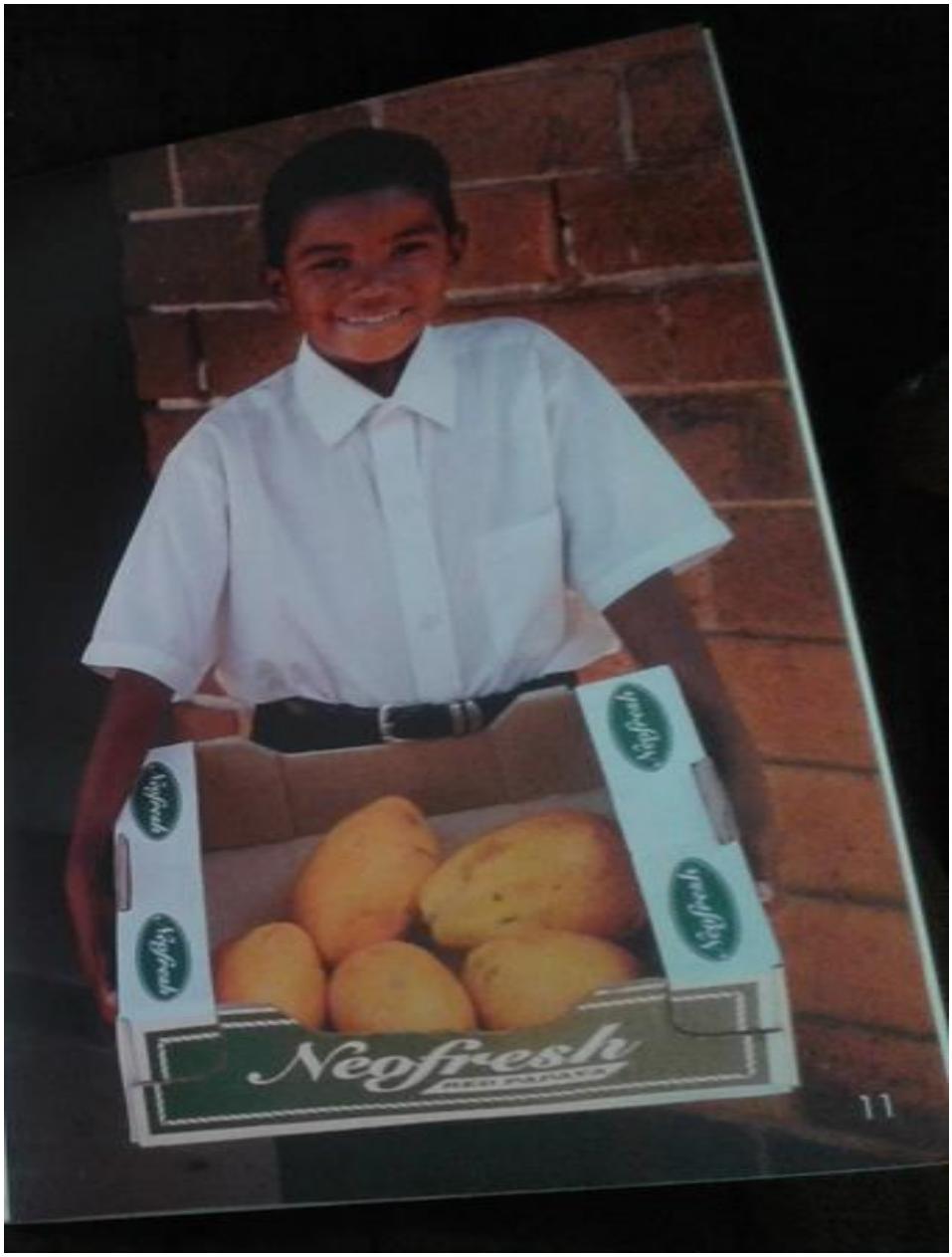

Here are
three oranges.
1 2 3

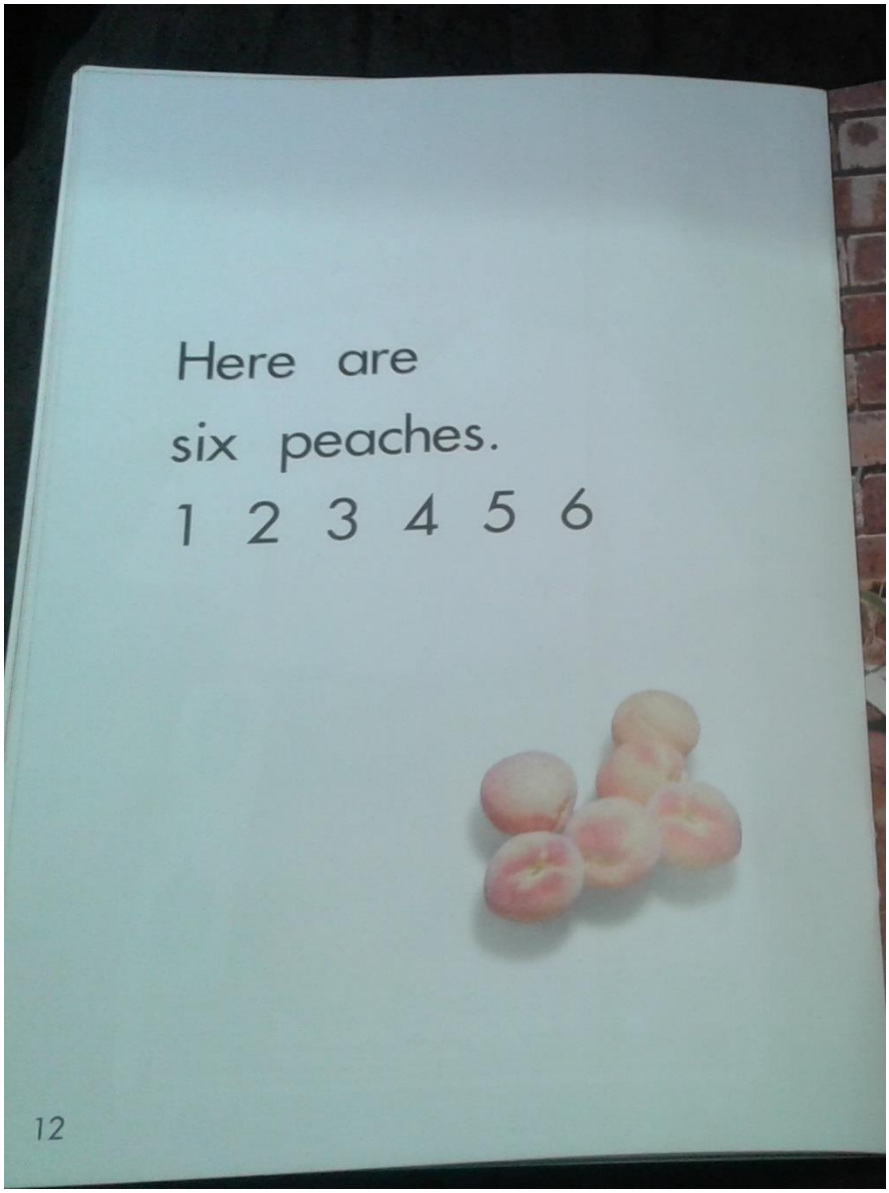


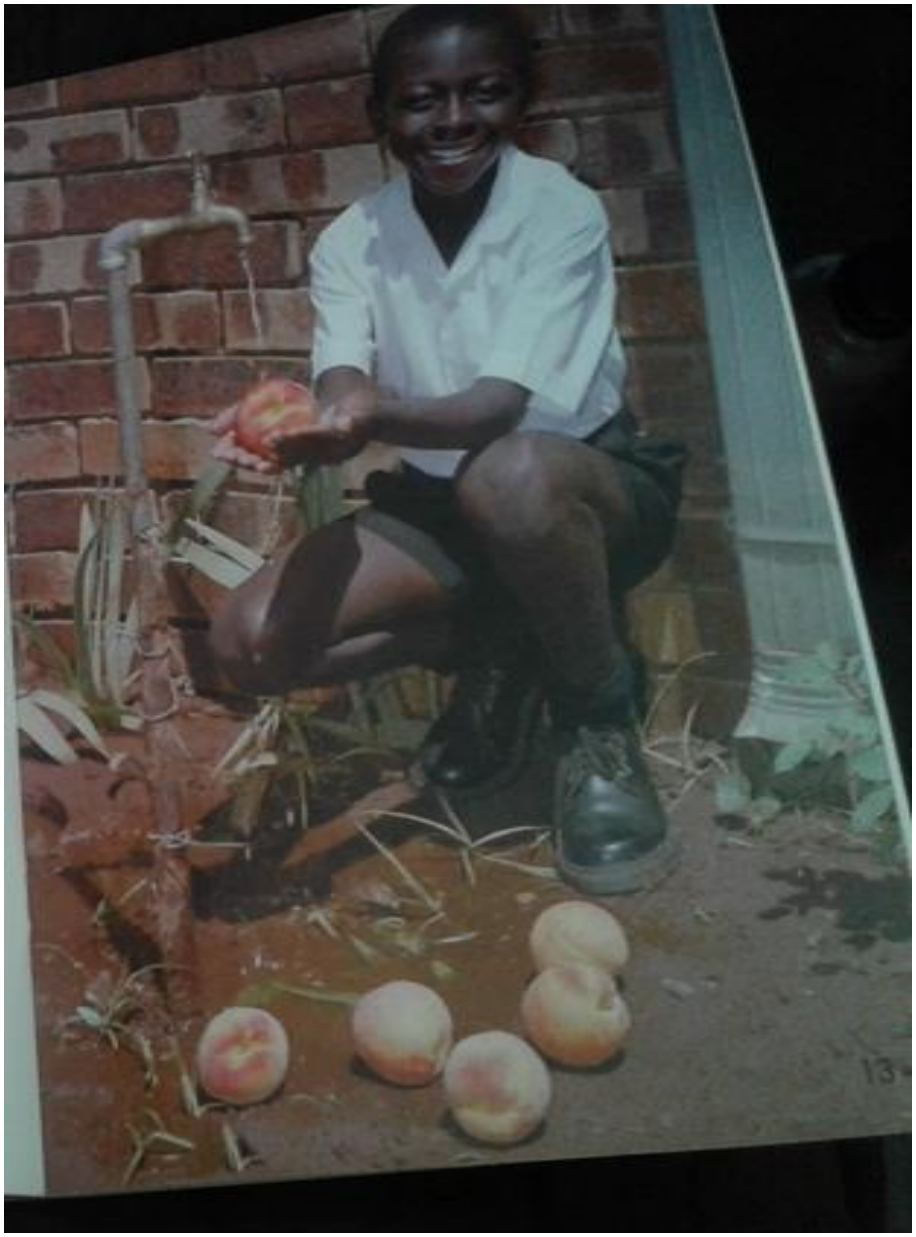

Here are
four bananas.
1 2 3 4

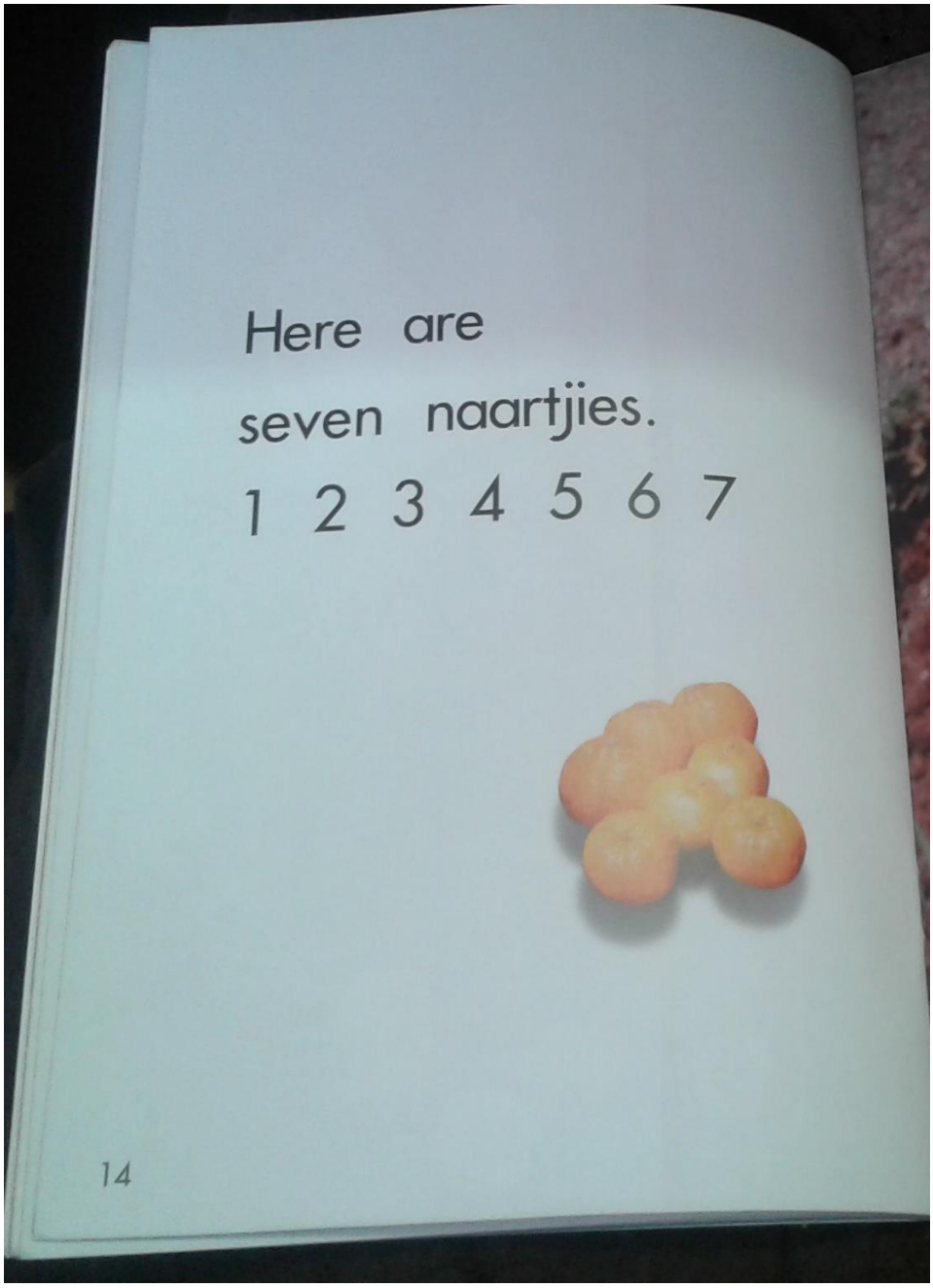


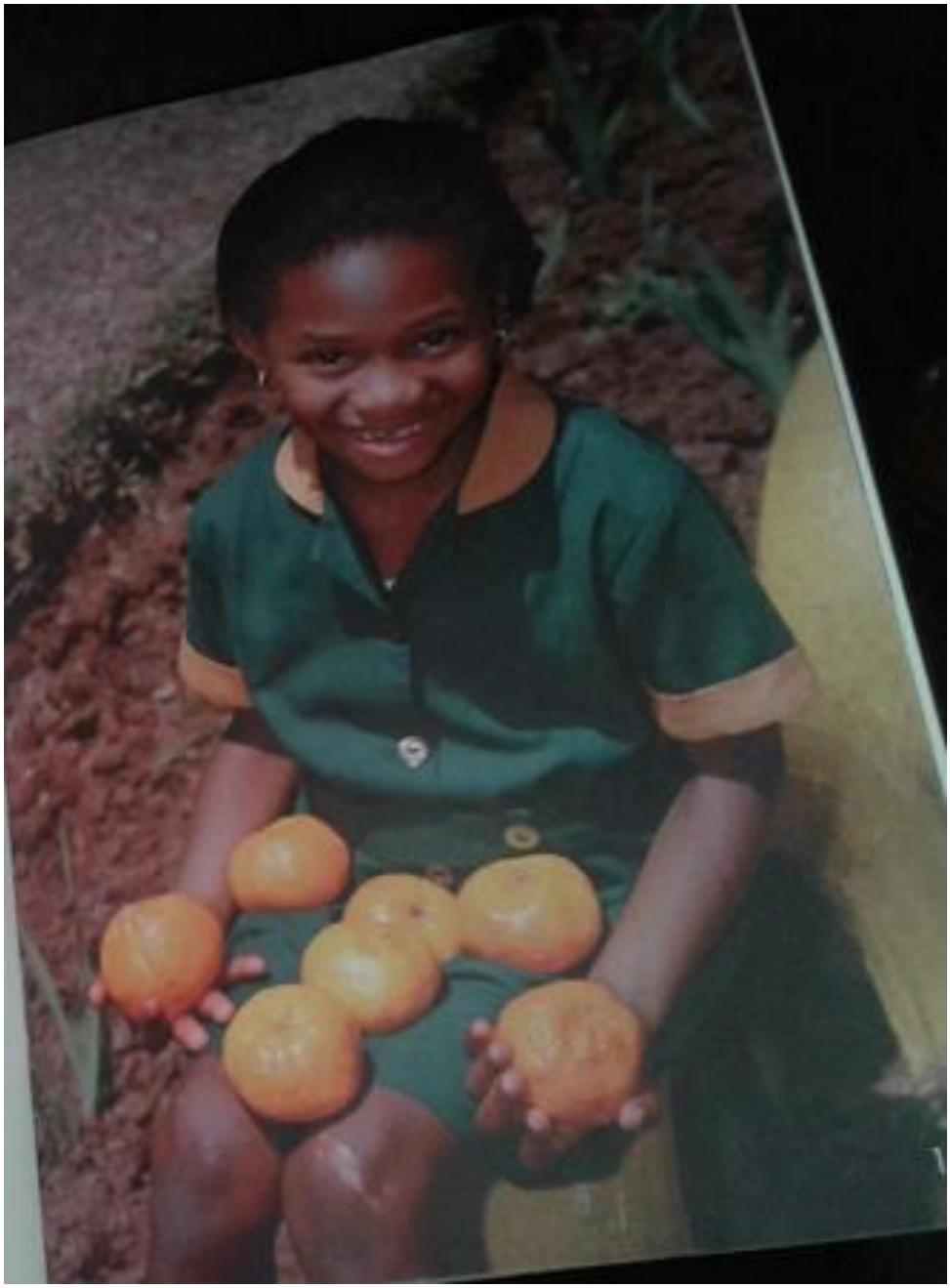

Here are
five paw-paws.
1 2 3 4 5
Neofresh
10

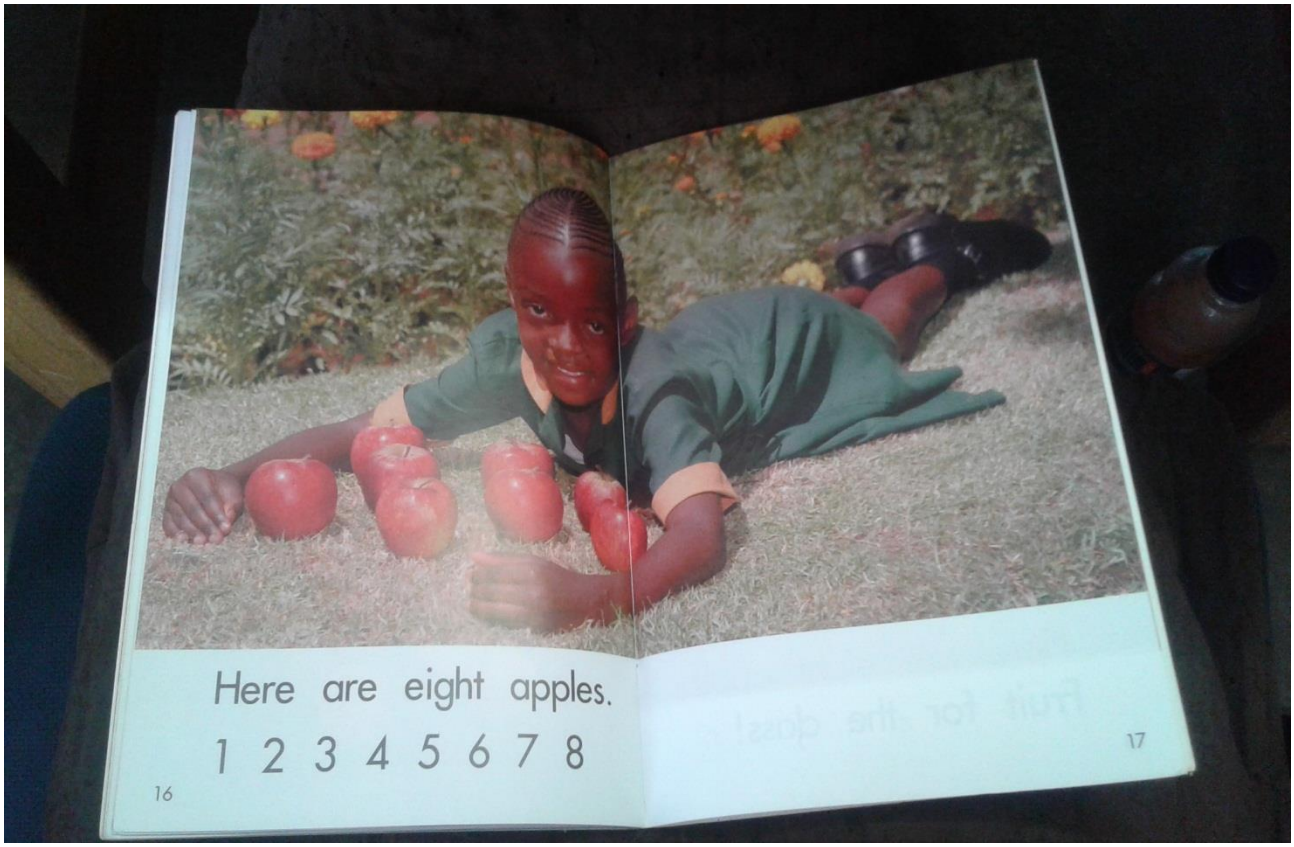

Neofresh
11


Here are
six peaches.
1 2 3 4 5 6
12

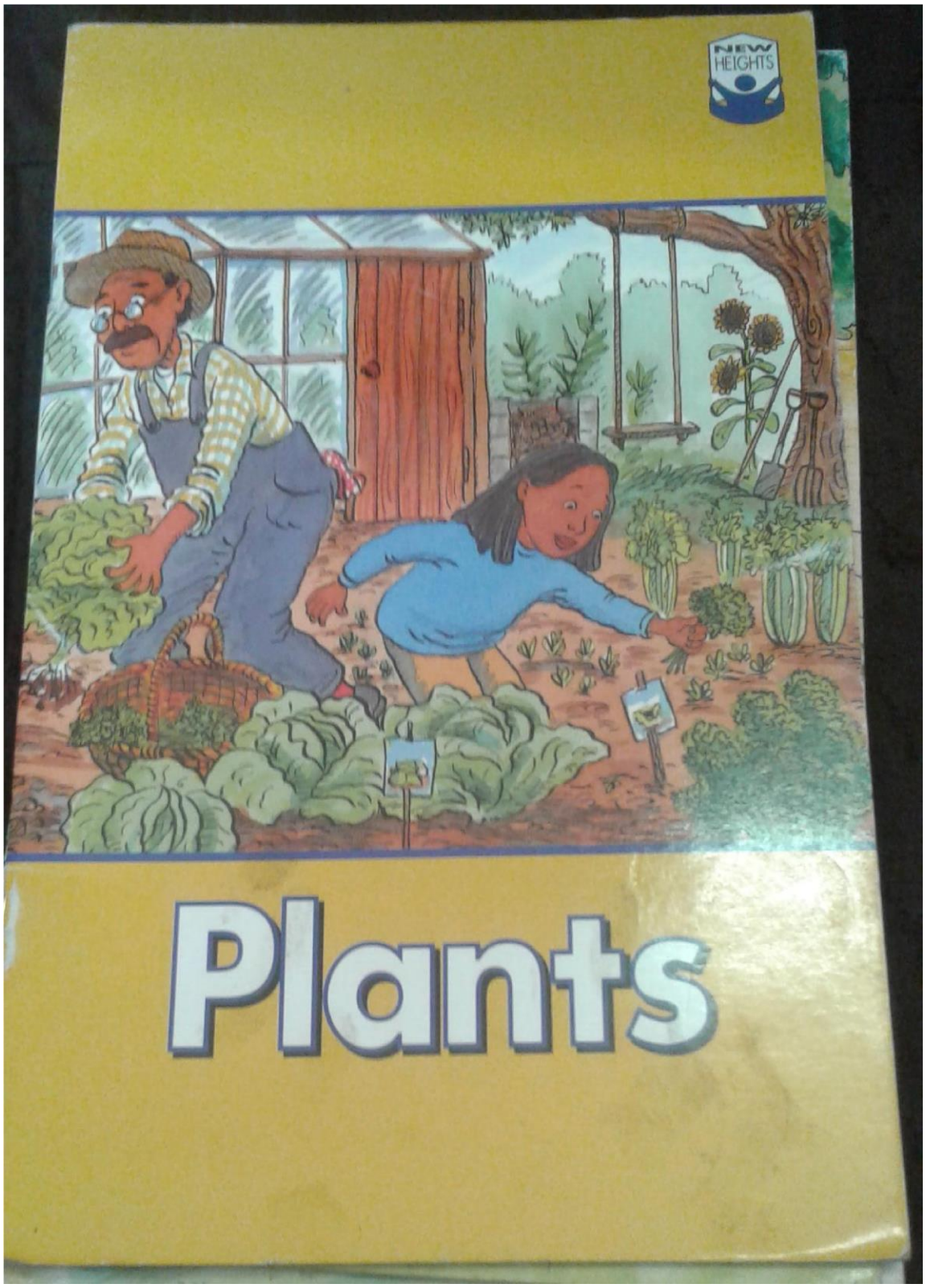


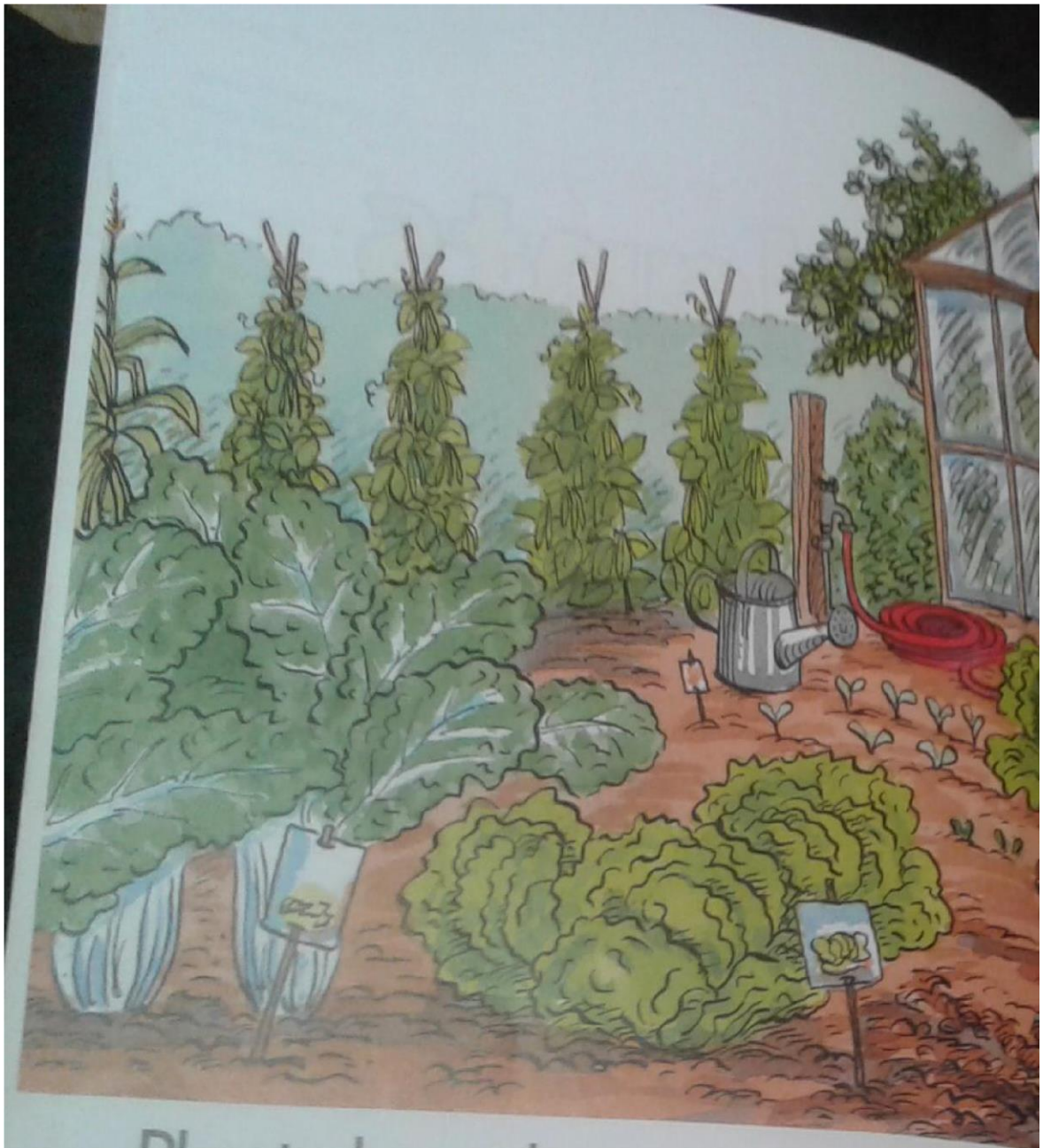

Here are
seven naartjies.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14




Here are eight apples.
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
16
17

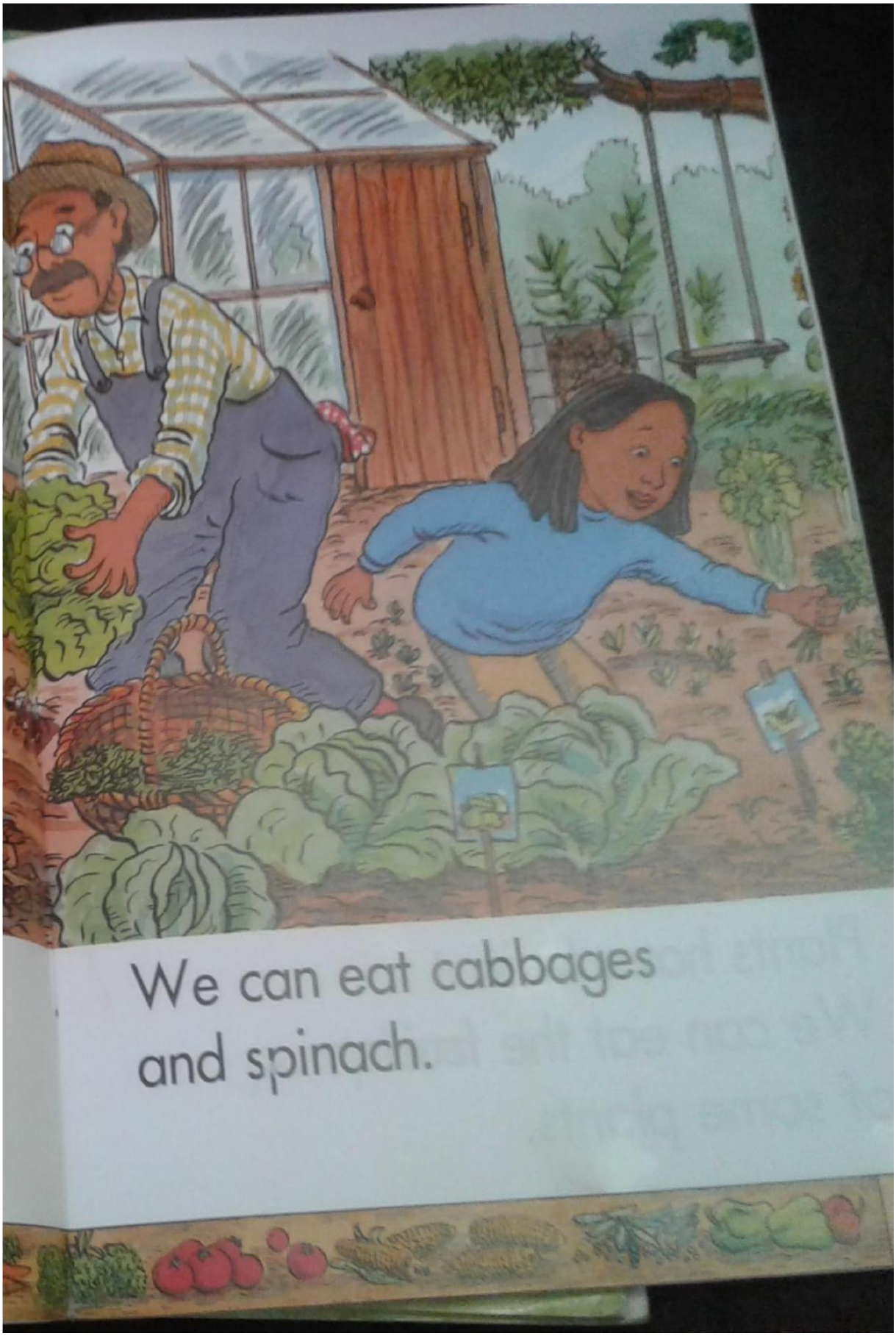
9.12. APPENDIX L: Grade 2 English Expository Reading (Plants)

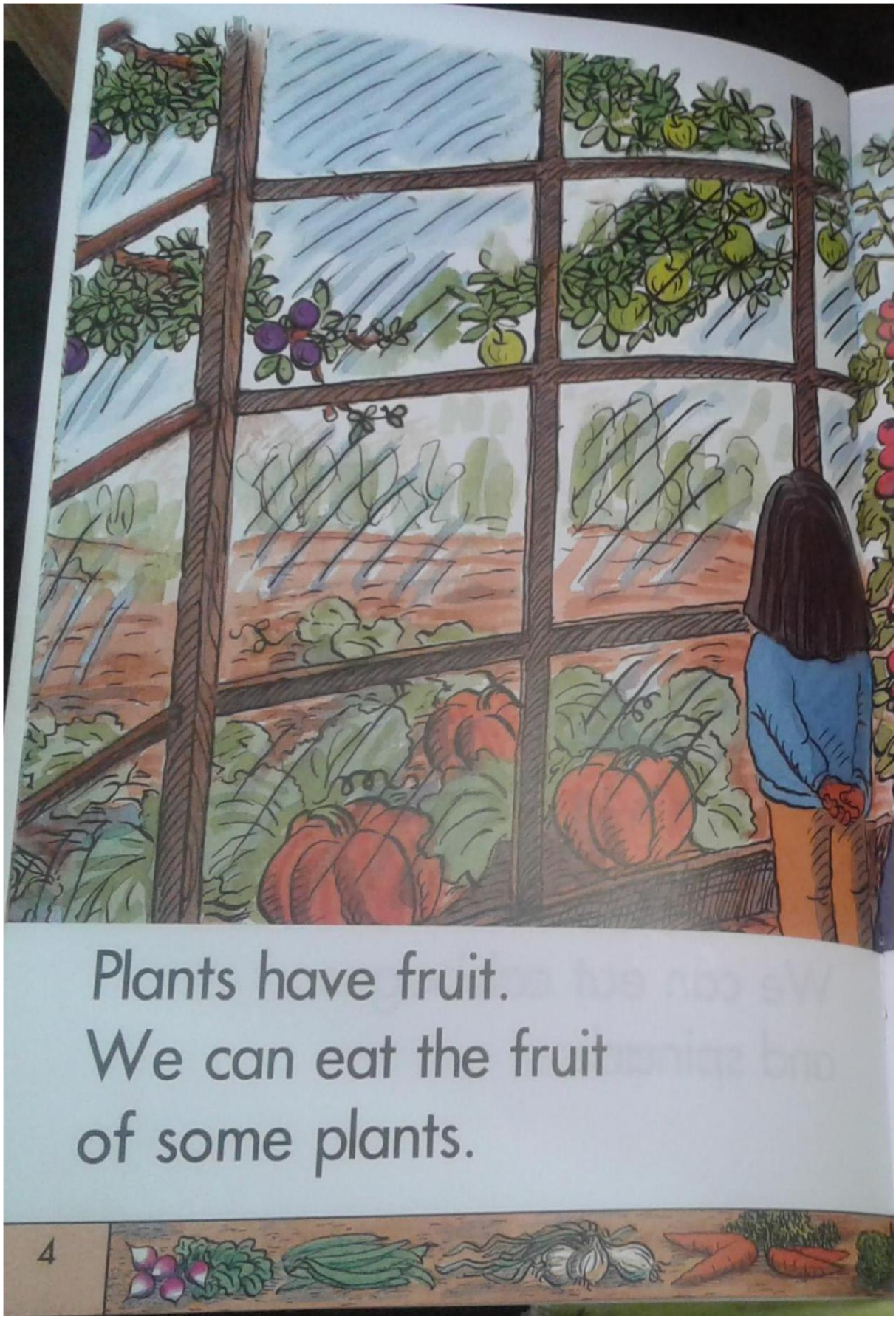




Plants have leaves.
We can eat the leaves
of some plants.

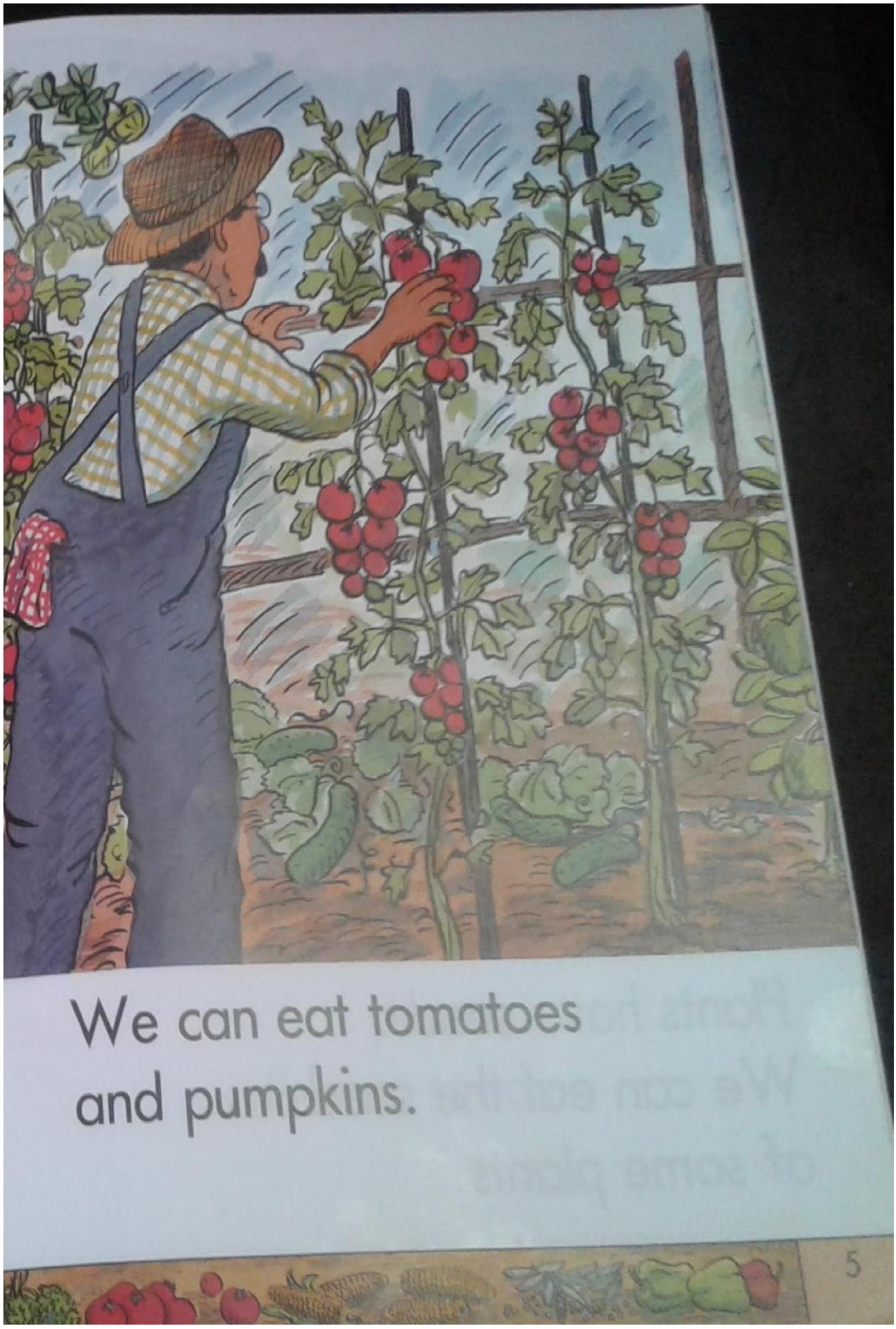


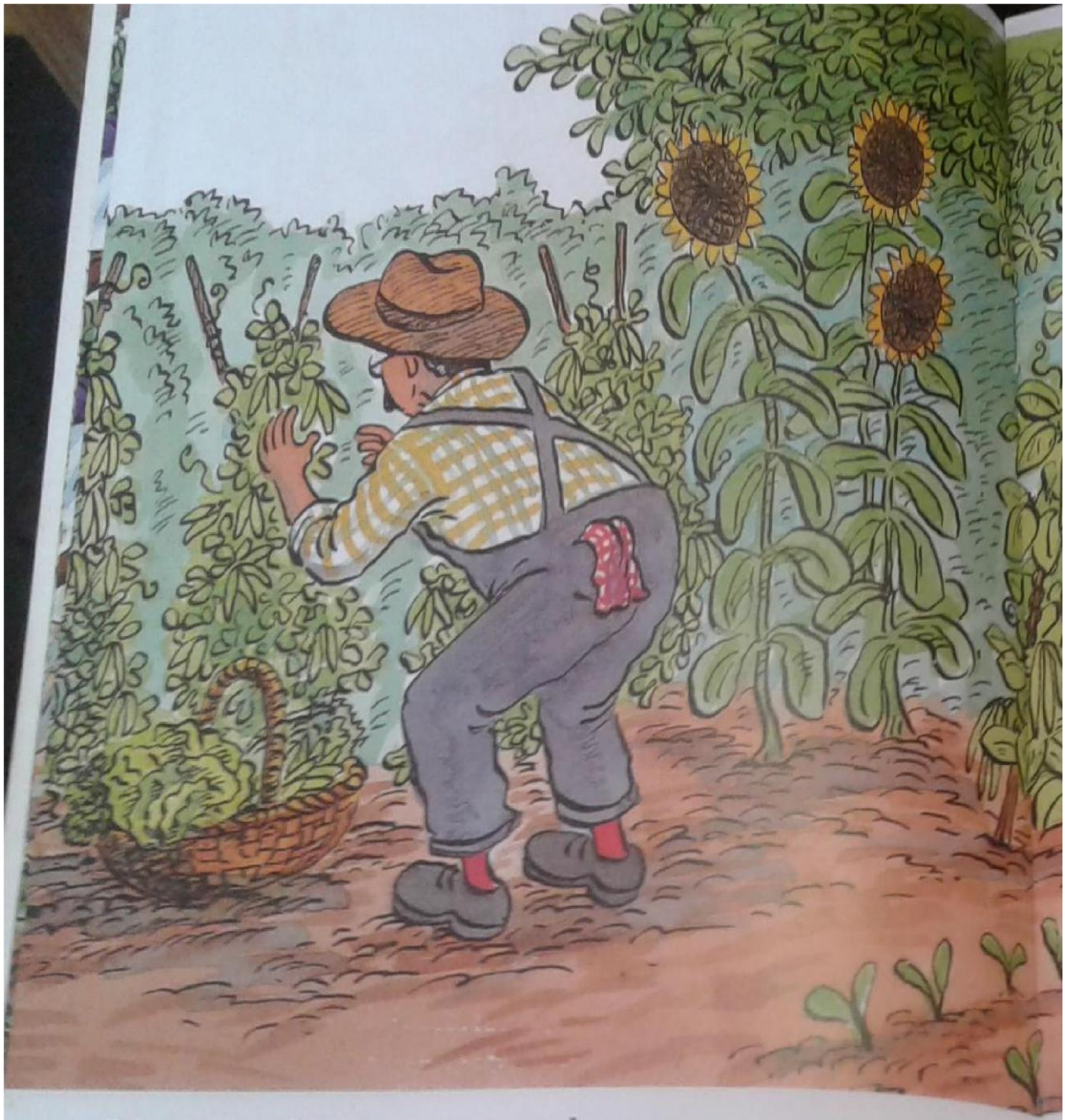

We can eat cabbages
and spinach.



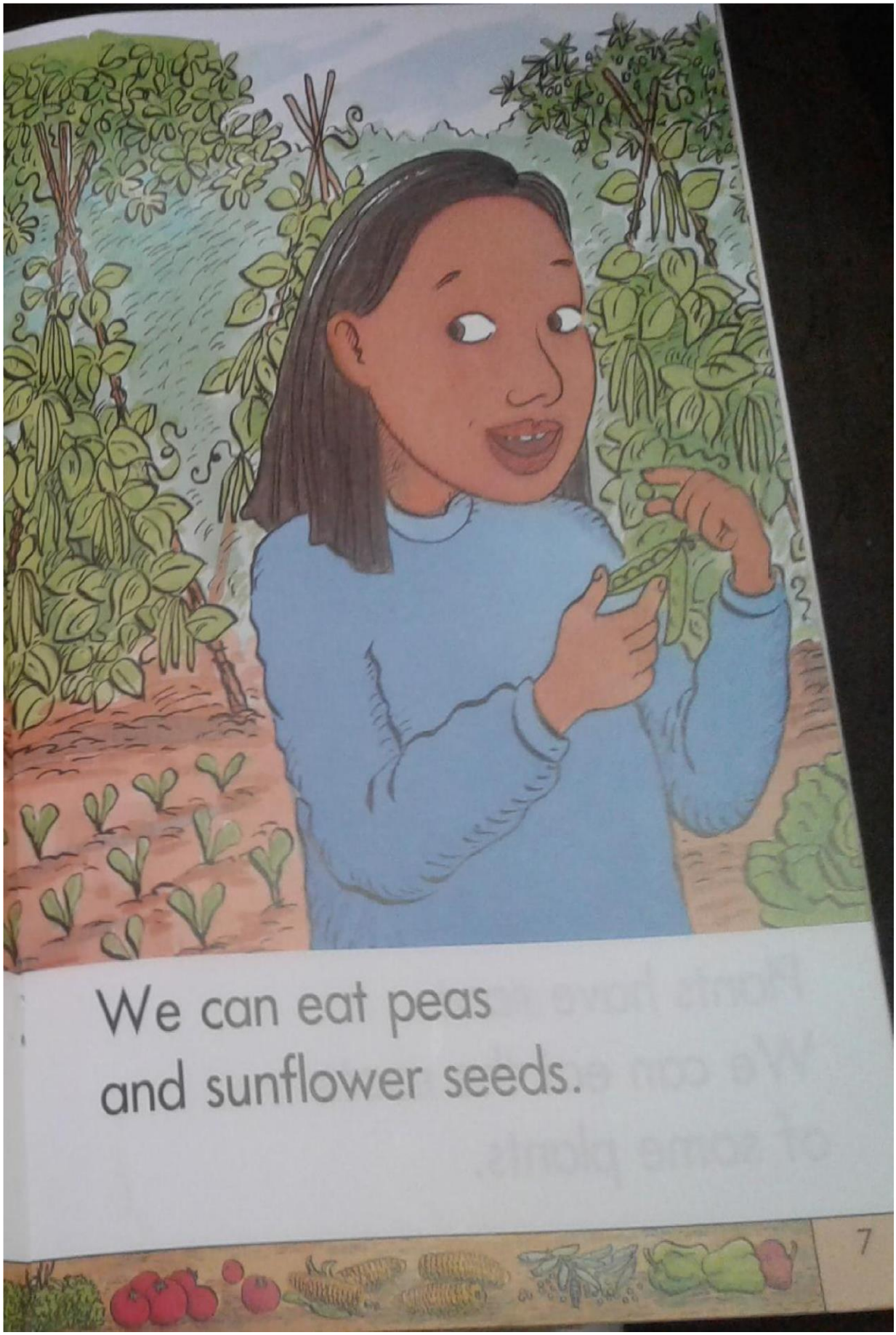
Plants have fruit.
We can eat the fruit
of some plants.

4


We can eat tomatoes
and pumpkins.
5

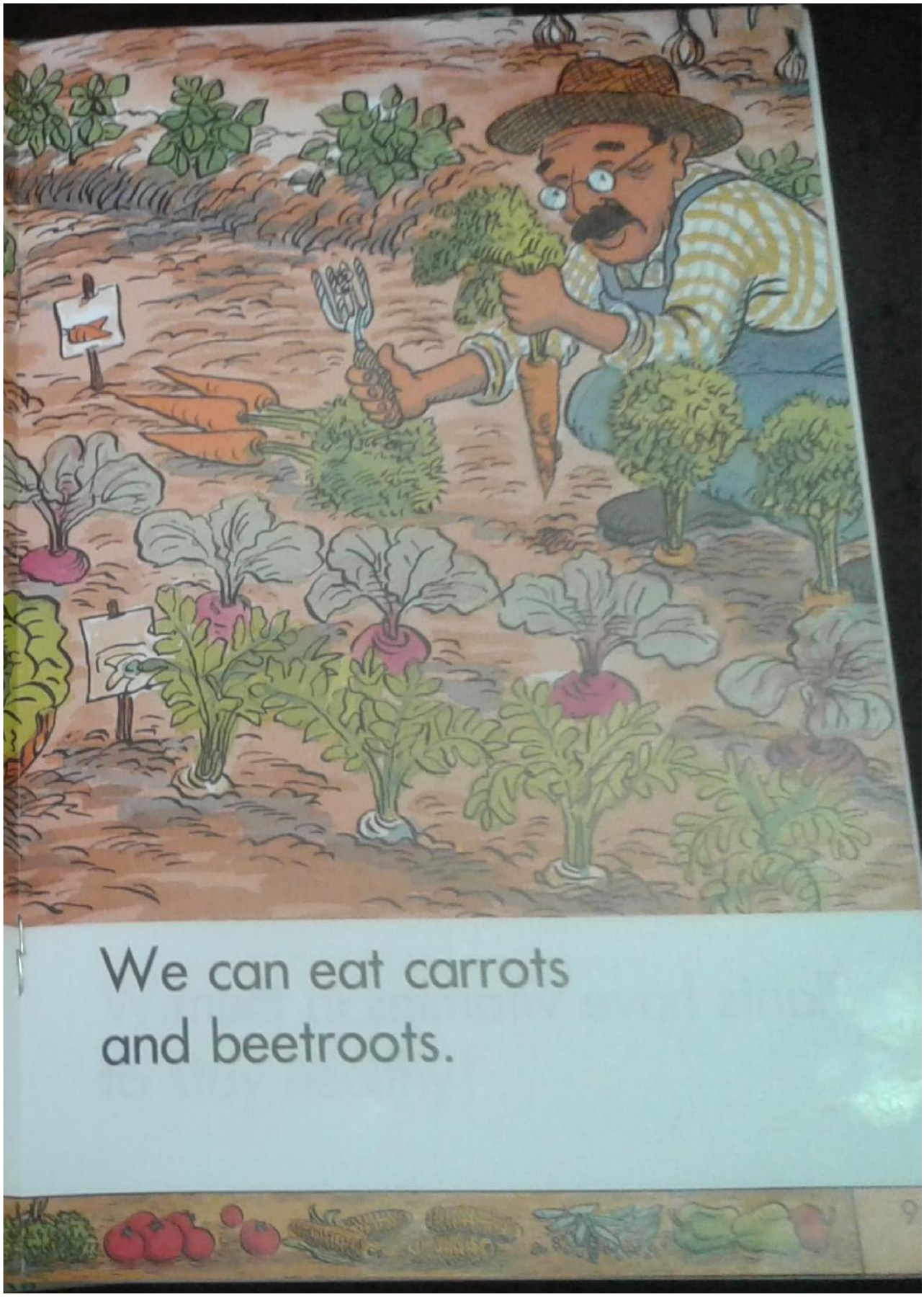


Plants have seeds.
We can eat the seeds
of some plants.

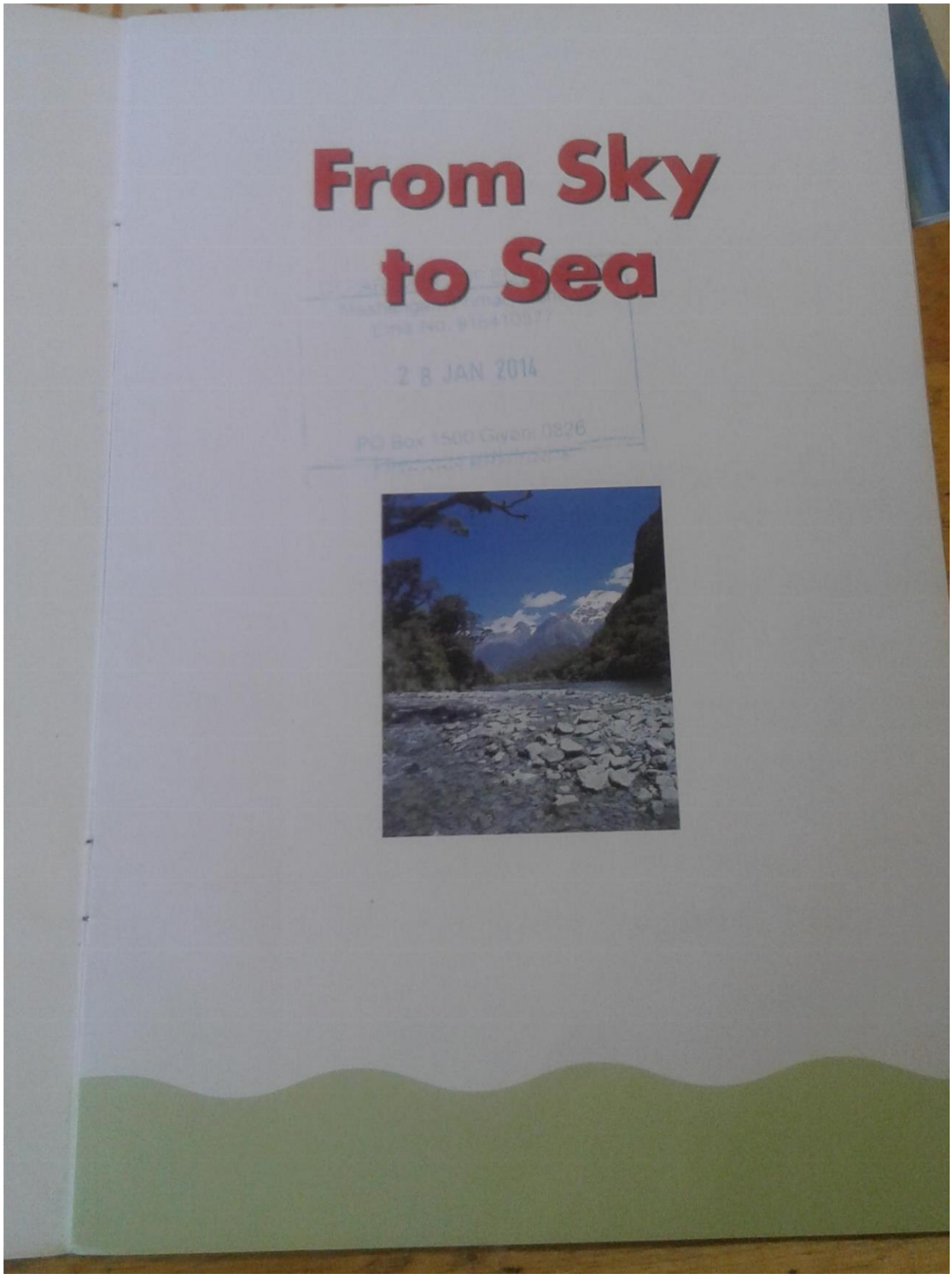

We can eat peas
and sunflower seeds.
7

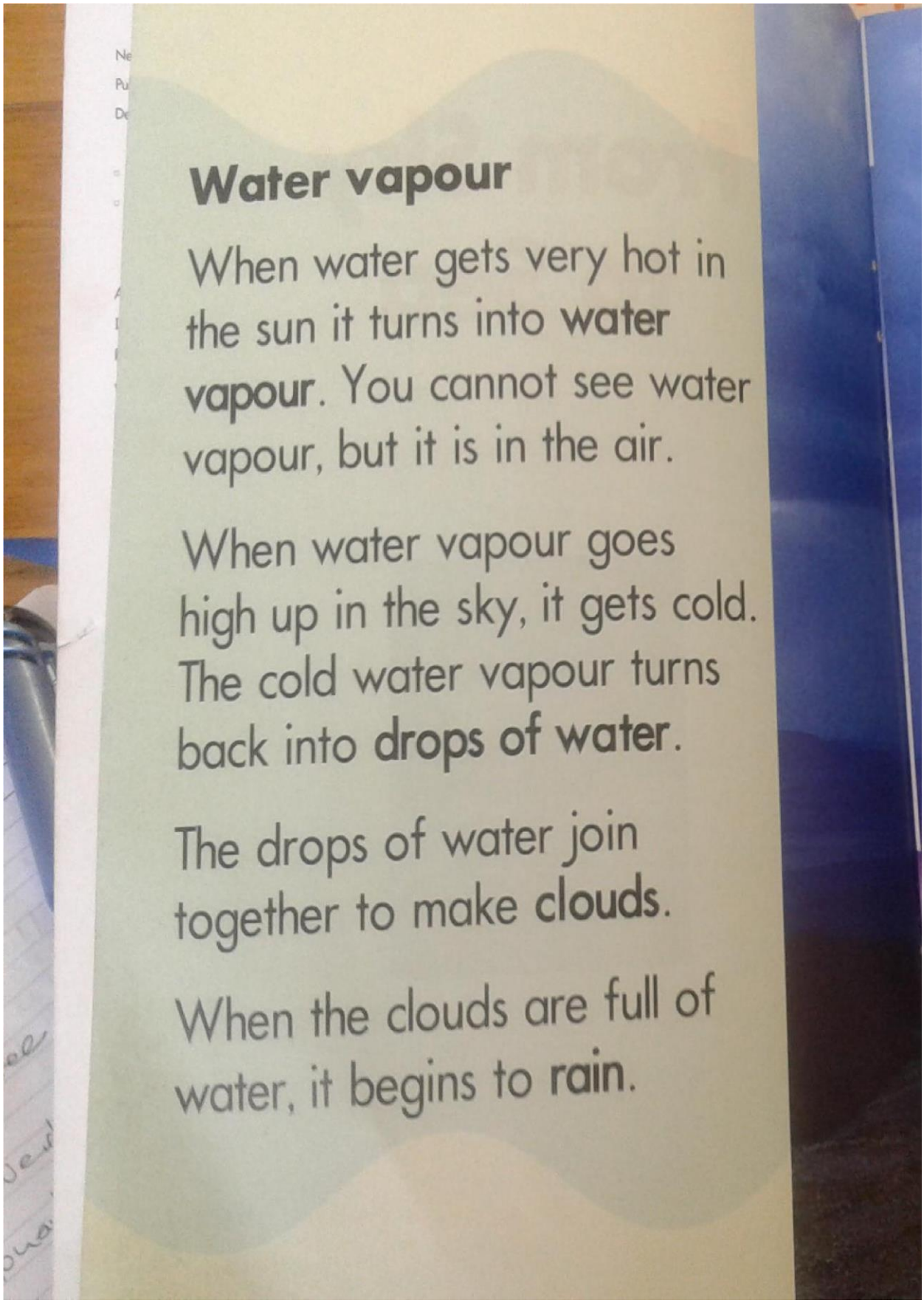


Plants have roots.
We can eat the roots
of some plants.


We can eat carrots
and beetroots.
9

9.13. APPENDIX M: Grade 3 English expository reading (From sky to sea)





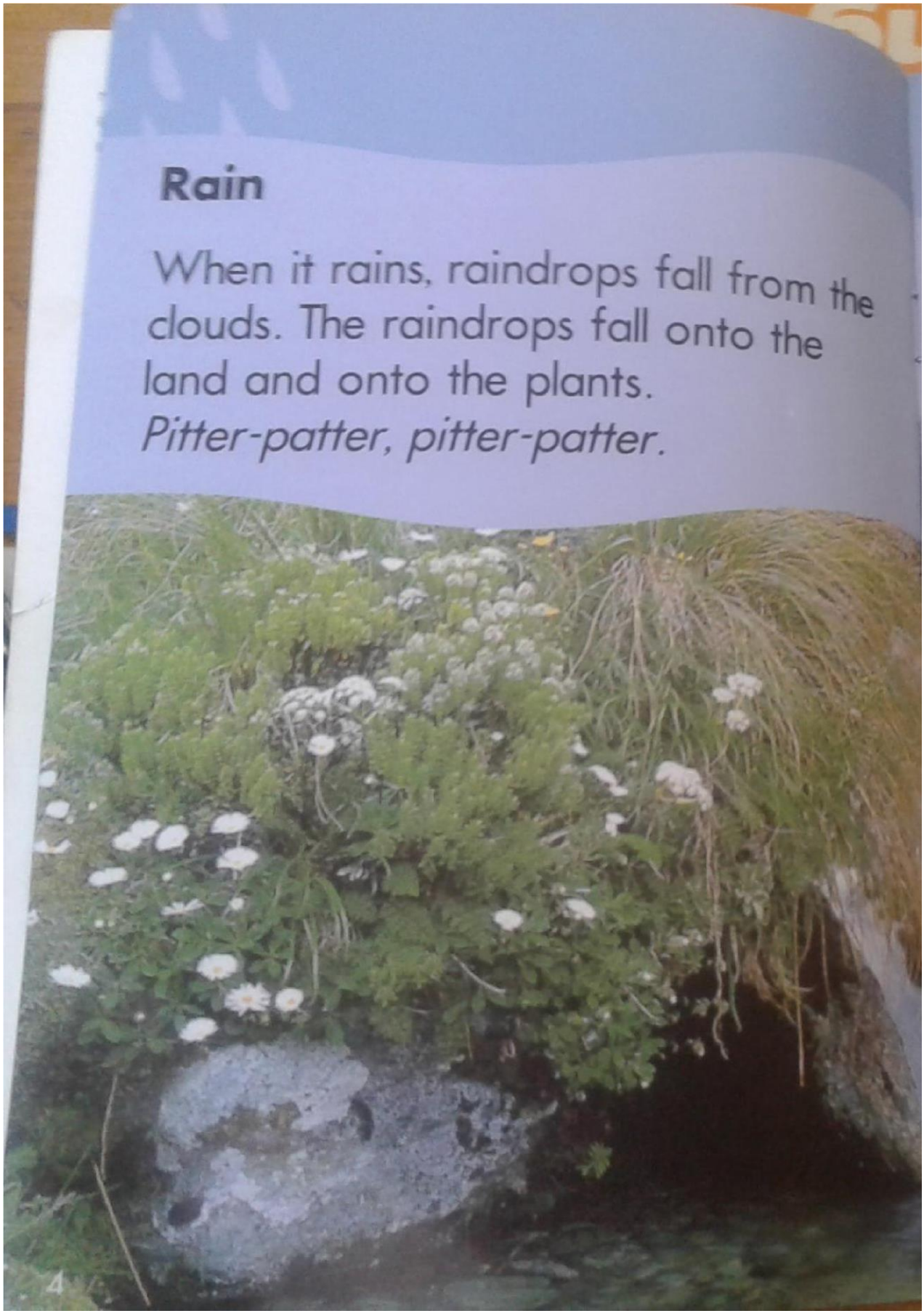
Water vapour

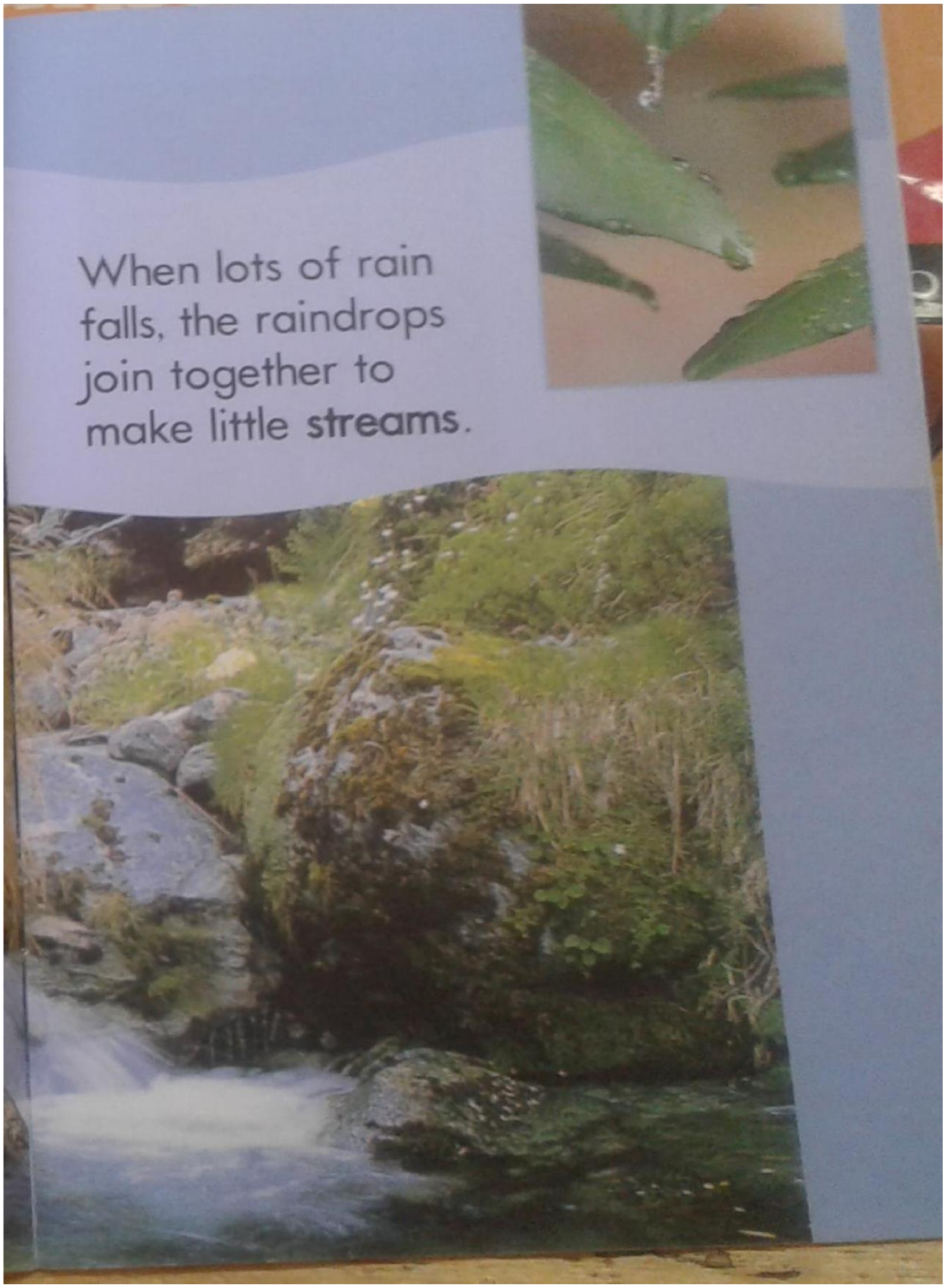
When water gets very hot in the sun it turns into **water vapour**. You cannot see water vapour, but it is in the air.

When water vapour goes high up in the sky, it gets cold. The cold water vapour turns back into **drops of water**.

The drops of water join together to make **clouds**.

When the clouds are full of water, it begins to **rain**.

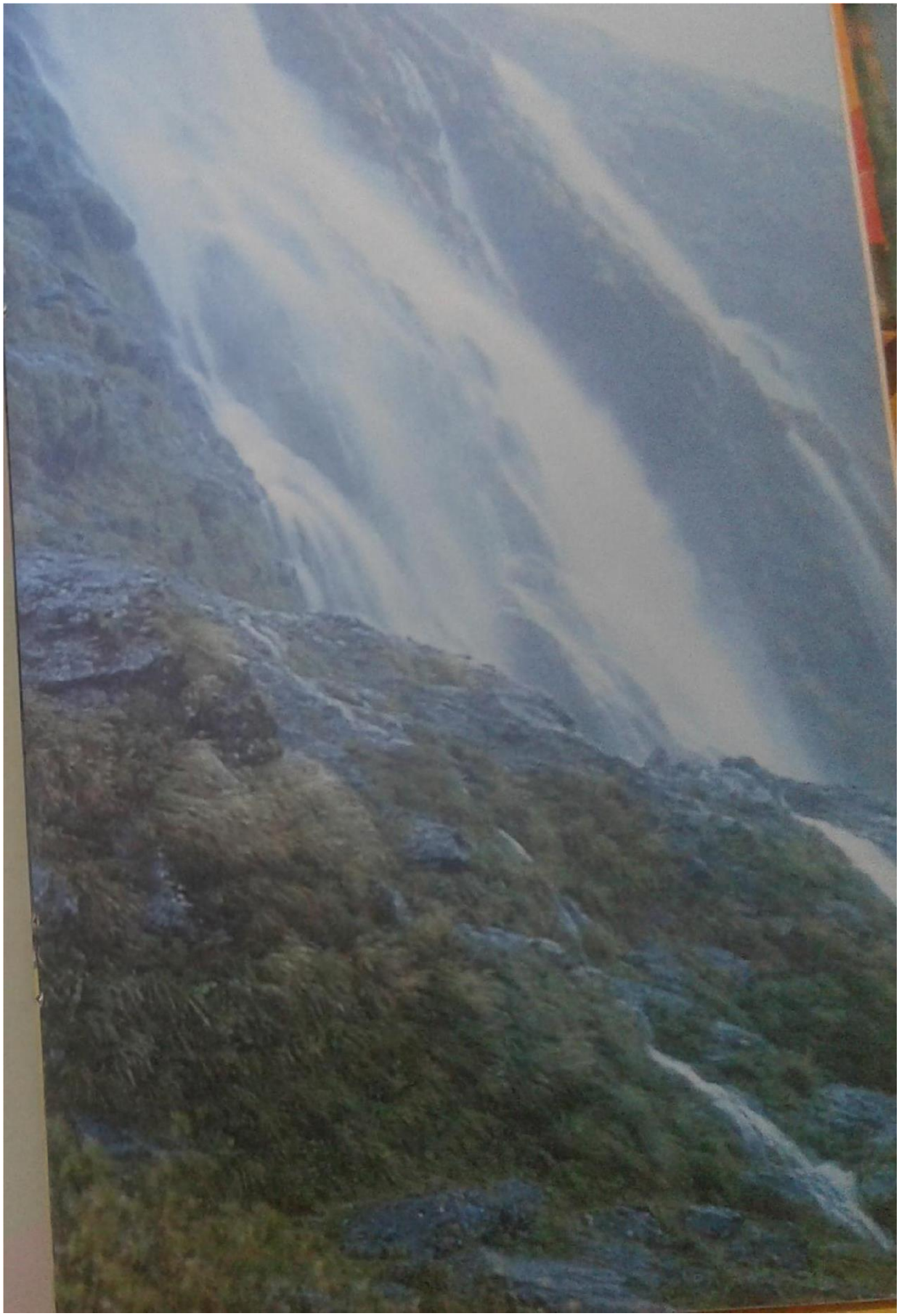

Rain
When it rains, raindrops fall from the clouds. The raindrops fall onto the land and onto the plants.
Pitter-patter, pitter-patter.
4

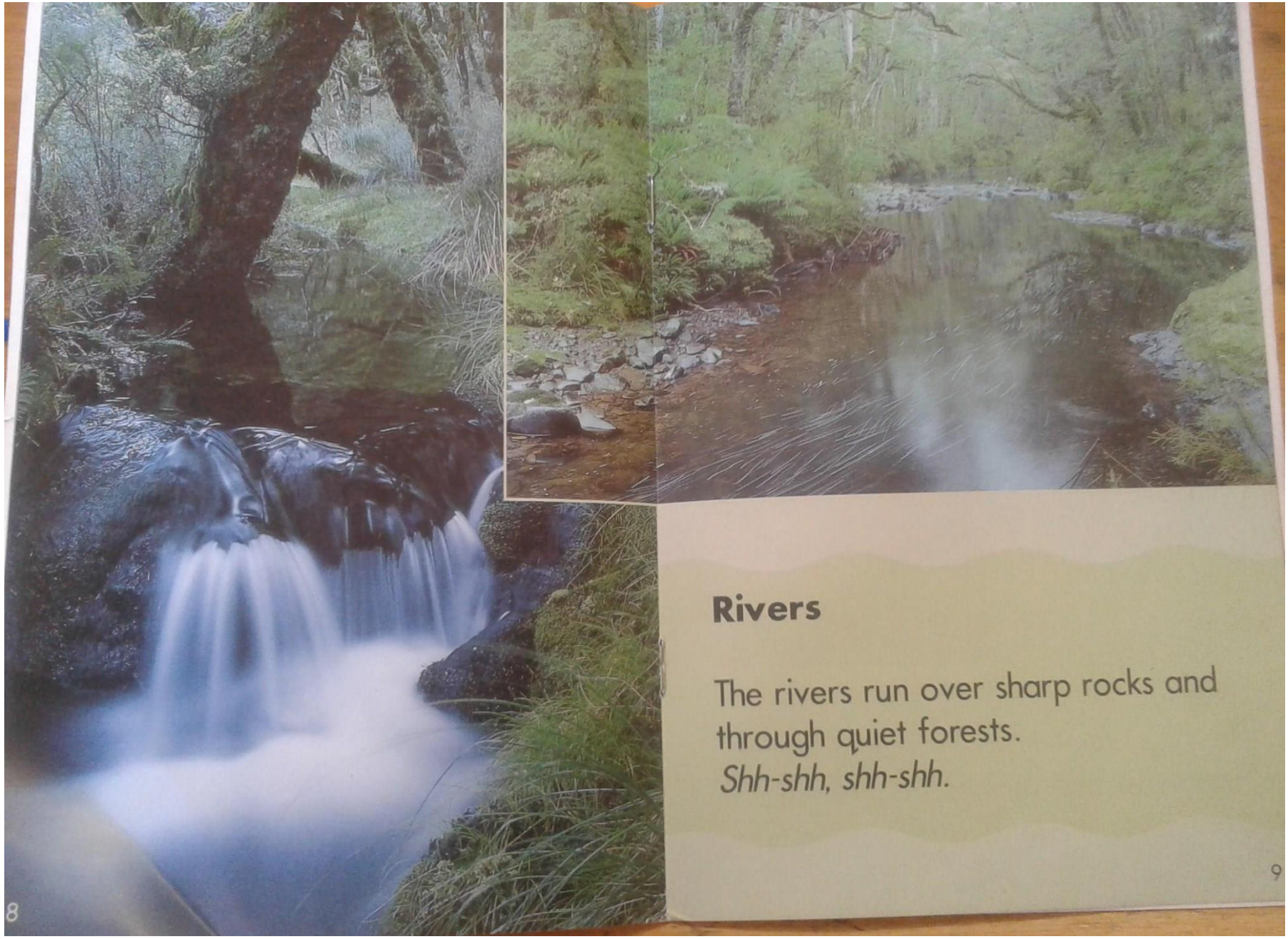

When lots of rain falls, the raindrops join together to make little **streams**.

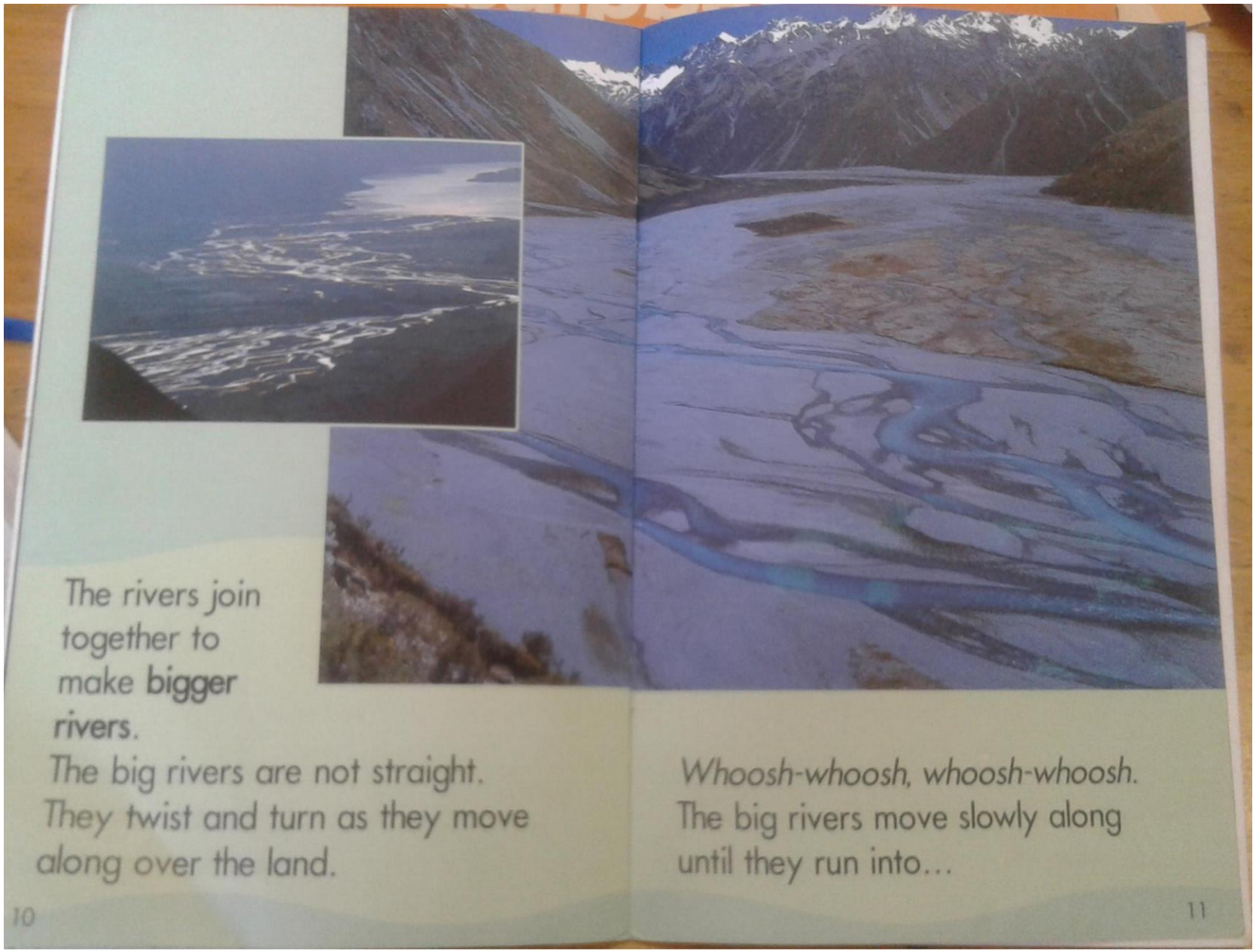


Streams

The little streams join together to make bigger streams.
The streams run over the land and through the grass.
Trickle-trickle, trickle-trickle.
The streams join together to make **rivers**.




Rivers
The rivers run over sharp rocks and through quiet forests.
Shh-shh, shh-shh.
8
9

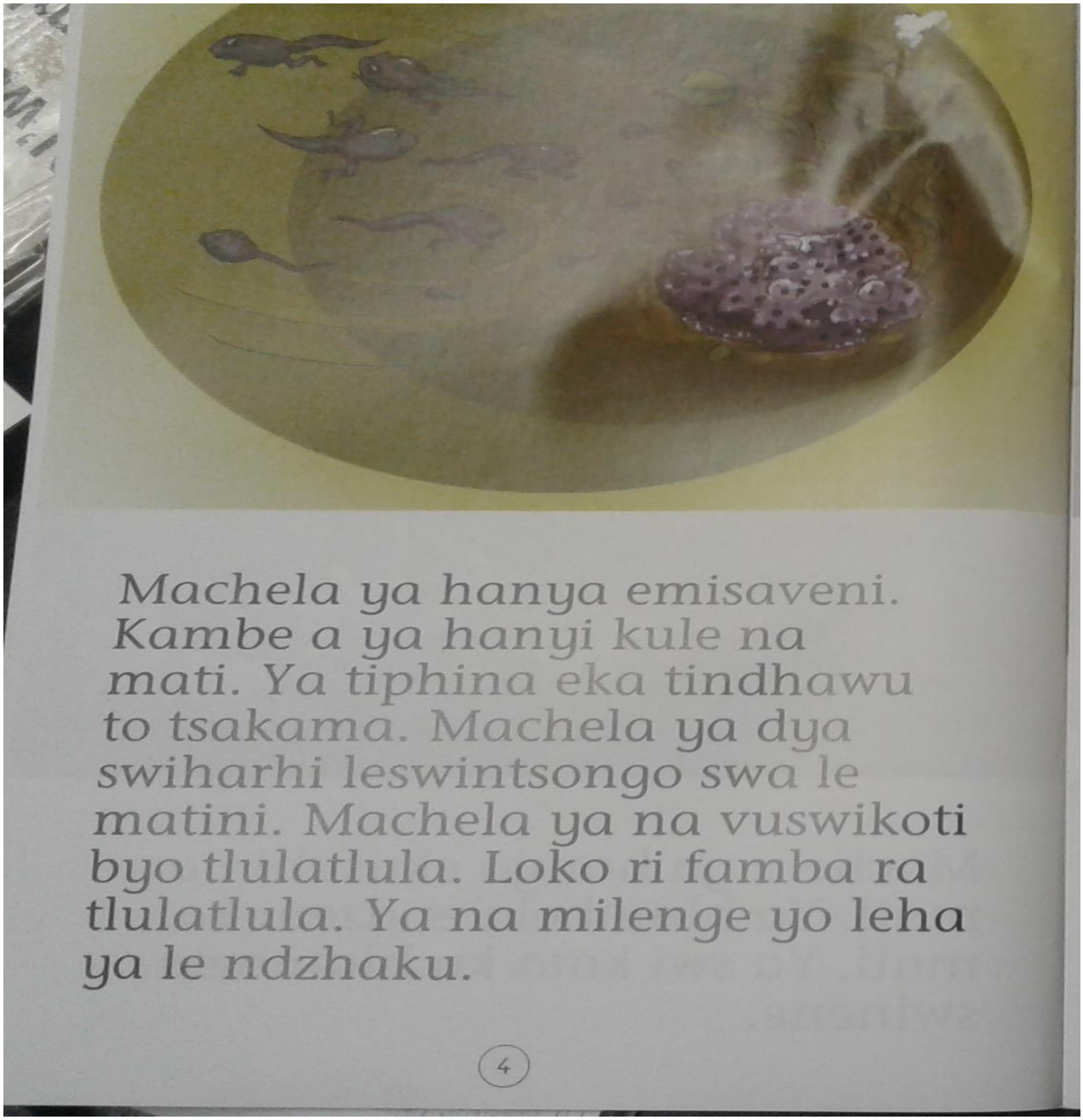

The rivers join together to make **bigger rivers**.
The big rivers are not straight. They twist and turn as they move along over the land.
10
Whoosh-whoosh, whoosh-whoosh.
The big rivers move slowly along until they run into...
11

... the sea.

In the end, all rivers run into the sea!

13

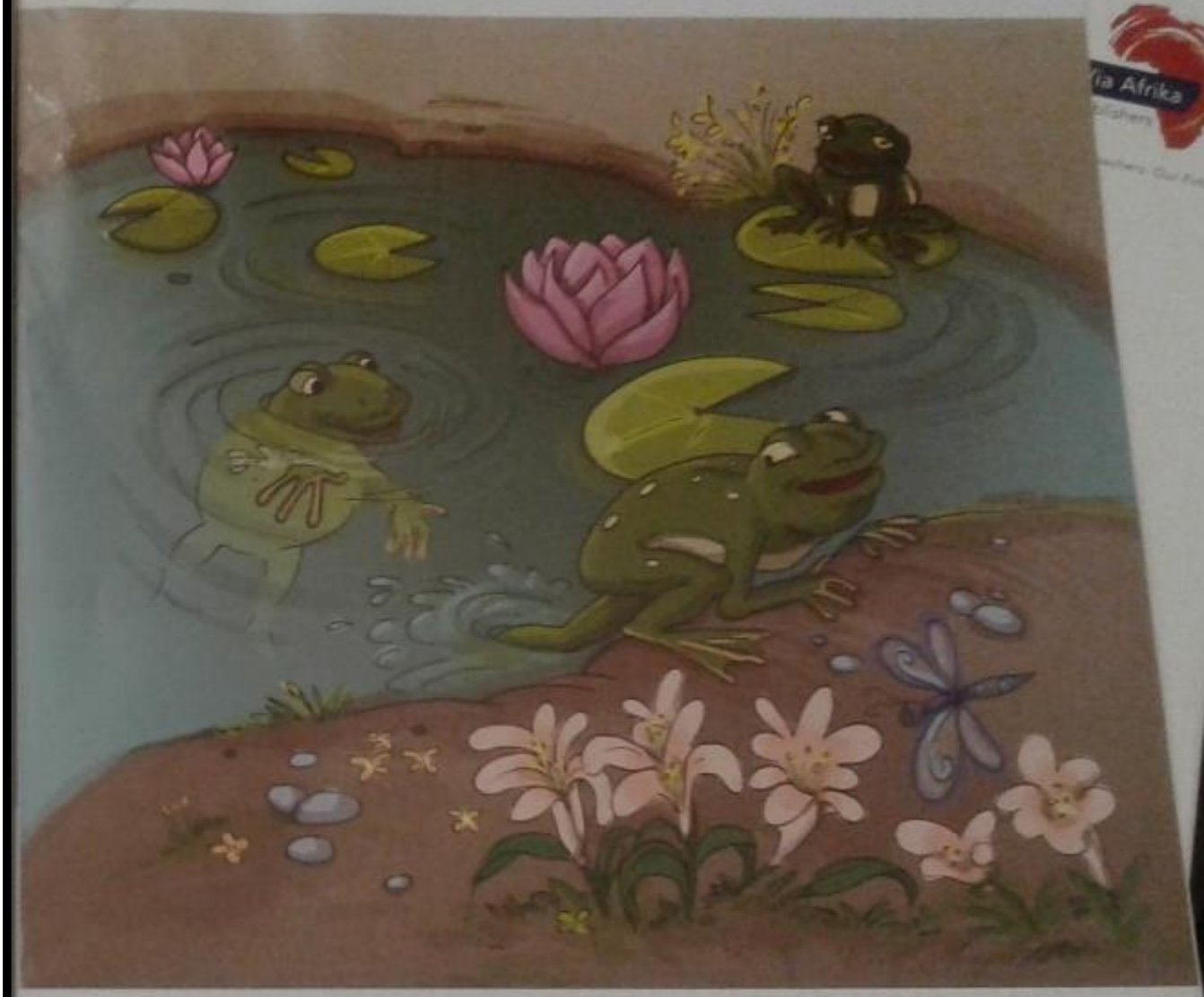
9.14. APPENDIX N: Grade 1-3 xiTsonga Expository reading (Swiharhi leswi hanyaka ematini)



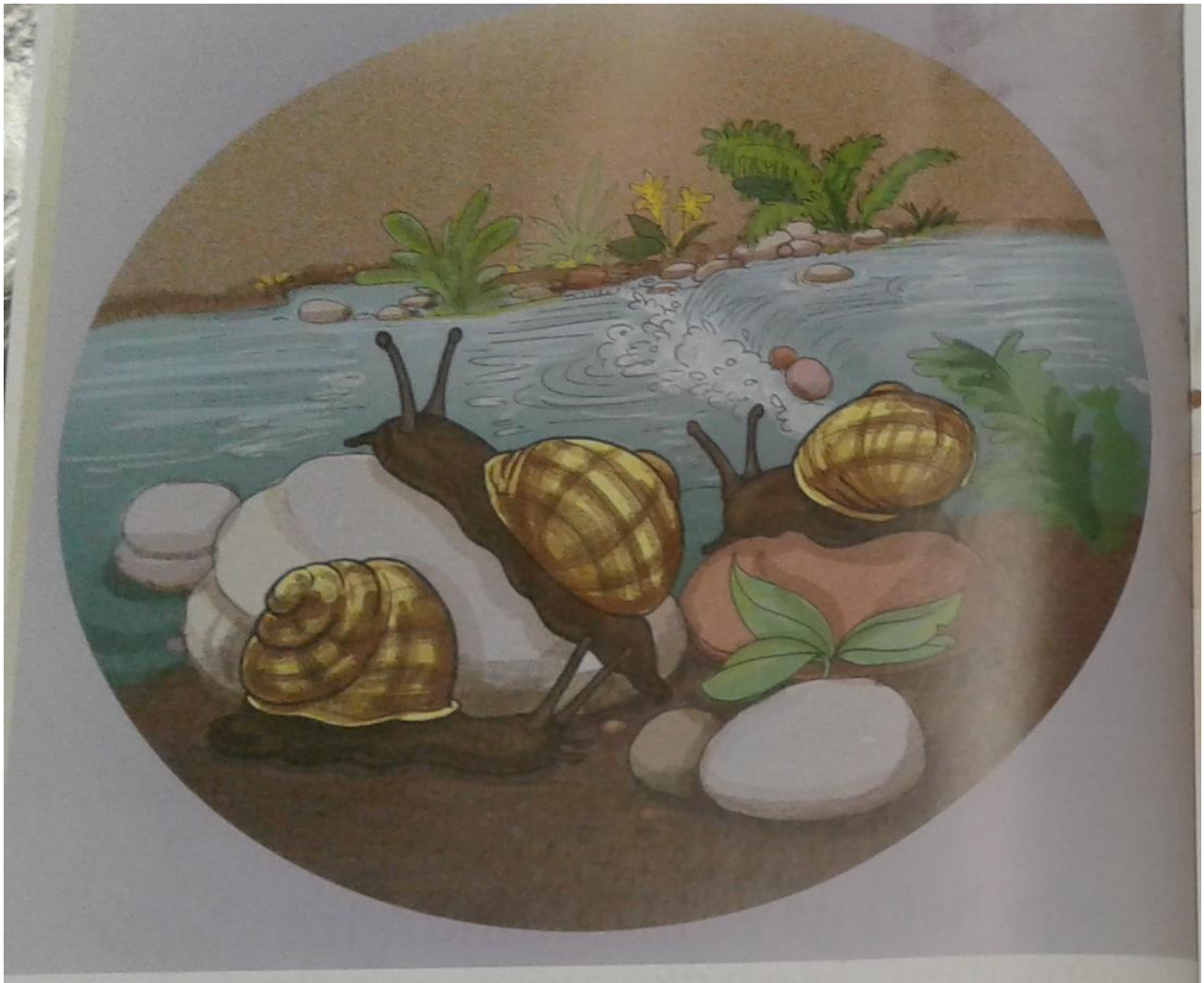
Machela ya hanya emisaveni. Kambe a ya hanyi kule na mati. Ya tiphina eka tindhawu to tsakama. Machela ya dya swiharhi leswintsongo swa le matini. Machela ya na vuswikoti byo tlulatlula. Loko ri famba ra tlulatlula. Ya na milenge yo leha ya le ndzhaku.

4

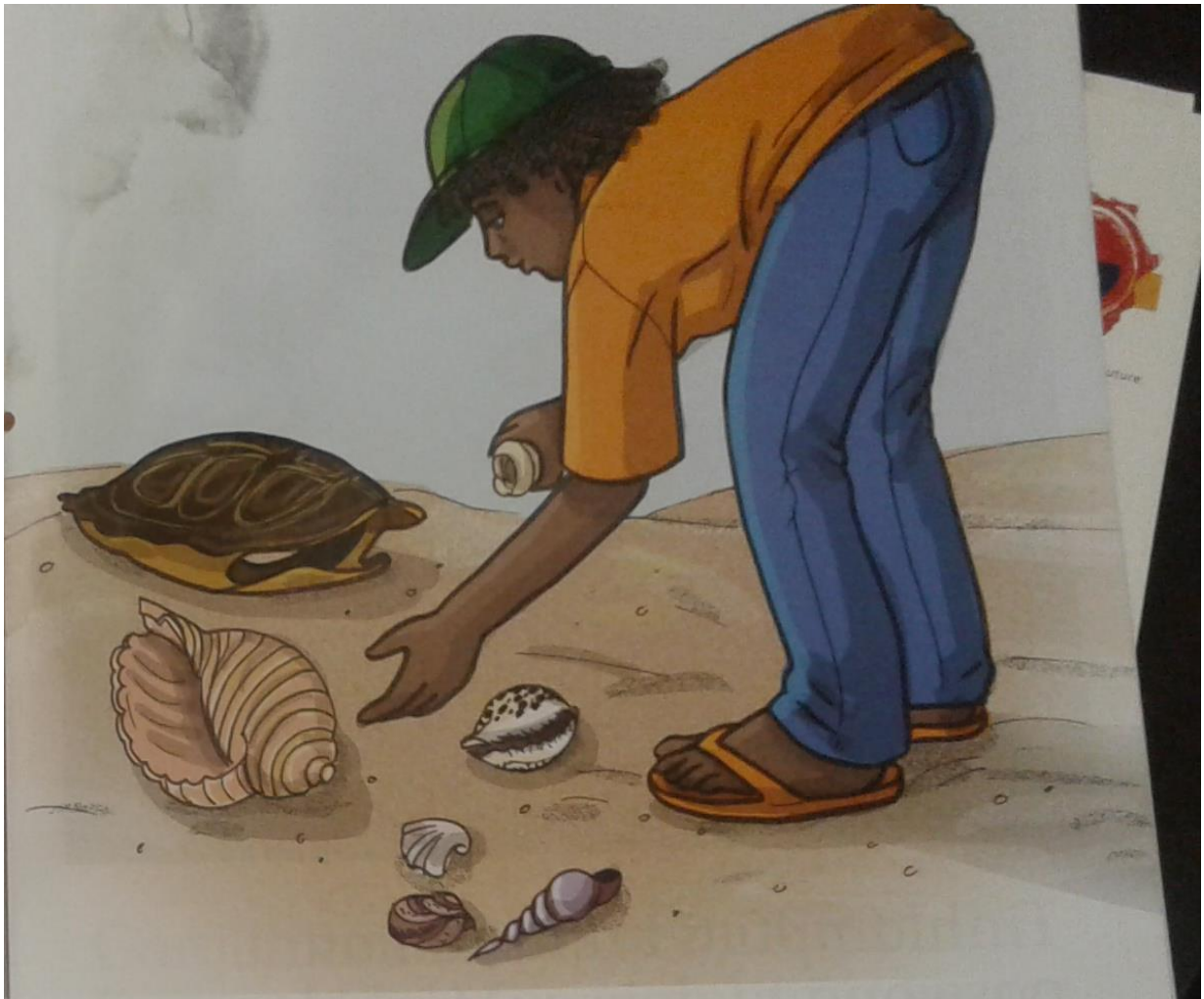
Swiharhi leswi hanyaka ematini



Machela ya hanya ekusuhi na mati. Ya hlambela endzeni ka mati. Ya swi kota ku hlambela swinene.



Tihumba ti hanya ekusuhi na mati. Ti rhandza tindhawu to tsakama. Tihumba na timfutsu swi fana na gugurhwani. Ti na magegetsu yo tiya naswona loko ti nuhetela khombo ti tumbela endzeni ka wona.



Wanuna u na humba. U vekela humba endleveni ya yena. U twa mpfumawulo endzeni ka humba. U twa mpfumawulo wo fana na wa lwandle. Vanhu va khavisa tindlu ta vona hi tihumba. Van'wana va endla na vuhlalu bya le nhan'wini hi tona.



Tinhlampfi ti hanya ematini, naswona ta dyiwa. Machela na swin'wana naswona swa dyiwa. Vanhu vo tala va phasa tinhlampfi ku endla mali.

Ngwenya i xiharhi lexi hanyaka endzeni ka mati. Ngwenya ya chavisa. Matimba ya yona ya le ndzeni ka mati. Nhlonge ya yona ya khwaxa.

9.15. APPENDIX O: Letter to the Principal

LETTER TO THE PRINCIPAL, SGB Chair DATE: 2016/01/14

Dear Principal and SGB

My name is Nkhensani Maluleke I am a PhD student in the School of Education at the University of the Witwatersrand.I am doing research on Bi-literacy development in the foundation phase: an examination of reading comprehension levels of text types.

My research involves document analysis, where I will analyze the texts read as grades 1-3 to identify the text genres and frequency words used. It will also involve observing classrooms during the teaching of reading to identify the kinds of questions teachers ask before, during and after reading. The last part involves a 15 minute conversation with the teachers about their thinking behind the kind of questions asked, or not asked.

The reason why I have chosen your school is because it has all the characteristics of the study s purposive sample; that is the home language for the students is Xitsonga, with English as a First additional language. The parents/guardians of the majority of the students are also Xitsonga first language speakers.

I am inviting your school to participate in this research.

The research participants will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way. They will be reassured that they can withdraw their permission at any time during this project without any penalty. There are no foreseeable risks in participating in this study. The participants will not be paid for this study.

The names of the research participants and identity of the school will be kept confidential at all times and in all academic writing about the study. Your individual privacy will be maintained in all published and written data resulting from the study.

All data will be stored at the Wits School of Education for 3-5 years and will be destroyed thereafter.

Please let me know if you require any further information. I look forward to your response as soon as is convenient.

Yours sincerely,

Signature: 

Name: Nkhensani Maluleke
Address: Mavalani Village, Stand No. 454
Email: nmaluleke@gmail.com
Tel: 0359026353
Mobile no: 0793057443
Supervisor: Prof L. Makalela
University of the Witwatersrand
Tel: + 27 (0) 11 7173002
Email: leketi.makalela@wits.ac.za

9.16. APPENDIX P: Letter to teachers

INFORMATION SHEET FOR TEACHERS Date: 2016/01/14

Dear Teacher

My name is Nkhensani Maluleke and I am a PhD student in the School of Education at the University of the Witwatersrand.

I am doing research on Bi-literacy development in the foundation phase: an examination of reading comprehension levels of text types

My research involves document analysis, where I will analyze the texts read as grades 1-3 to identify the text genres and frequency words used. It will also involve observing classrooms during the teaching of reading to identify the kinds of questions teachers ask before, during and after reading. The last part involves a 15 minute conversation with the teachers about their thinking behind the kind of questions asked, or not asked.

The reason why I have chosen your school is because it has all the characteristics of the study s purposive sample; that is the home language for the students is Xitsonga, with English as a First additional language. The parents/guardians of the majority of the students are also Xitsonga first language speakers.

I was wondering whether you would mind if I asked you to participate in this study. Your participation will include three aspects:

- Allowing me to have a look and analyze the kind of texts read by your students.
- Allowing me to observe you in class as you teach reading.
- A 15 minutes interview where we can have a conversation about your thinking behind the kind of questions you ask during your reading lessons.

Your name and identity will be kept confidential at all times and in all academic writing about the study. Your individual privacy will be maintained in all published and written data resulting from the study.

All data will be stored at the Wits School of Education for 3-5 years and will be destroyed thereafter. You will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way. Your participation is voluntary, so you can withdraw your permission at any time during this project without any penalty. There are no foreseeable risks in participating and you will not be paid for this study.

Please let me know if you require any further information.

Thank you very much for your help.

Yours sincerely,

Signature: 

NAME: Nkhensani Maluleke

ADDRESS: Mavalani Village Stand No. 454

EMAIL: nmaluleke@gmail.com

Tel: 0359026353

Mobile no: 0793057443

Supervisor: Prof L. Makalela

University of the Witwatersrand

Tel: + 27 (0) 11 7173002

Email: leketi.makalela@wits.ac.za

9.17. APPENDIX Q: Teacher's Consent Form

Please fill in and return the reply slip below indicating your willingness to be a participant in my voluntary research project called: Bi-literacy development in the foundation phase: an examination of reading comprehension levels of text types.

I, _____ give my consent for the following:

Permission to review/collect documents/artifacts Circle one

I agree that (SPECIFY DOCUMENT) can be used for this study only.
YES/NO

Permission to observe you in class

I agree to be observed in class. YES/NO

Permission to be audiotaped

I agree to be audiotaped during the interview or observation lesson
YES/NO

I know that the audiotapes will be used for this project only YES/NO

Permission to be interviewed

I would like to be interviewed for this study. YES/NO

I know that I can stop the interview at any time and I don't have to answer all the questions asked.
YES/NO

Informed Consent

I understand that:

- My name and information will be kept confidential and safe and that my name and the name of my school will not be revealed.
- I do not have to answer every question and can withdraw from the study at any time.
- I can ask not to be audiotaped, photographed and/or videotape

- All data will be stored at the Wits School of Education for 3-5 years and will be destroyed thereafter.

Sign_____ Date_____

9.18. APPENDIX R: Letter and consent form to parents

INFORMATION SHEET PARENTS Date: 2016/01/14

Dear Parent

My name is Nkhensani Maluleke and I am a PhD Student in the School of Education at the University of the Witwatersrand.

I am doing research on Bi-literacy development in the foundation phase: an examination of reading comprehension levels of text types

My research involves document analysis, where I will analyze the texts read as grades 1-3 to identify the text genres and frequency words used. It will also involve observing classrooms during the teaching of reading to identify the kinds of questions teachers ask before, during and after reading. The last part involves a 15 minute conversation with the teachers about their thinking behind the kind of questions asked, or not asked.

The reason why I have chosen your child's class is because…

I was wondering whether you would mind if your child participated in this study in this way:

1. I will observe them in class while their teacher is teaching reading in English and in XiTsonga.
2. S/he will read material in English and XiTsonga. These materials will be narrative and expository and designed to be compare-contrast and descriptive text genres.
3. S/he will then respond to questions based on the same texts.

Your child will not be advantaged or disadvantaged in any way. S/he will be reassured that s/he can withdraw her/his permission at any time during this project without any penalty. There are no foreseeable risks in participating and your child will not be paid for this study.

Your child's name and identity will be kept confidential at all times and in all academic writing about the study. His/her individual privacy will be maintained in all published and written data resulting from the study.

All data will be stored at the Wits School of Education for 3-5 years and will be destroyed thereafter.

Please let me know if you require any further information.

Thank you very much for your help.

Yours sincerely,

Signature: 

NAME: Nkhensani Maluleke

ADDRESS: Mavalani Village Stand No. 454

EMAIL: nmaluleke@gmail.com

Tel: 0359026353

Mobile no: 0793057443

Supervisor: Prof L. Makalela

University of the Witwatersrand

Tel: + 27 (0) 11 7173002

Email: leketi.makalela@wits.ac.za

XITSONGA VERSION: PARENTAL INFORMATION SHEET

FOMO YA VUXOKOXOKO YA VATSWARI Siku: 2015/06/17

Eka Vatswari

XIKOMBELO XA MPFUMELELO WA LESWAKU N'WANA WA N'WINA A TEKA XIPHEMU EKA NDZAVISISO WA SWA DYONDZO YA RIRIMI

Ndzi tata ku pfuxela

Hi mina Nkhensani Maluleke, mudyondzi ekaYunivesithi ya Witwatersrand eJoni. Ndzi endla vulavisis tani hi xiphemu xa tidyondzo ta mina ta vudokodela bya dyonzo.

Vulavisisi lebyi byi ta kongomisa eka tinxaka ta tibuku leti ti hlayiwaka eka ntangha n'we, mbirhi na nharhu. Hi xitalo tibuku leti ita mintsheketo. Ndzi lava ku lavisisa leswaku loko vana vo hlaya tibuku leti tiva dyondzisaka swokarhi eka ntangha n'we, mbirhi na nharhu vangaka vanga ti twisisi xana kee.

Ndzi kombela mpfumelelo eka n'wina leswaku n'wana wa n'wina a teka xiphemu eka ndzavisiso lowu. Loko mi pfumela n'wana uta teka xiphemu hi ndlela leyi:

1. Ndzi ta tshama nkarhi nyana etlilasini ndzi vona madyondzelo yo hlaya.
2. Uta hlaya buku leyi yi dyonzisaka swokarhi hi xiTsonga na hi Xinghezi.
3. Uta hlamula swivutiso ku suka eka buku leyi.

Ndzi tiyisisa leswaku vito ra n'wana wa n'wina a ringa tsariwi naka ka ntsongo mayelana na vulavisisi lebyi. Vuxokoxoko hinkwabyo lebyi hlengeletiweke hinkarhi wa ndzavisiso byita hlayisiwa hi ndlela yale henhla eXikolweni xati dyondzo eYunivhesiti ya Witwatersrand ku ringana malembe manharhu kuya fika eka ntlhanu, ivi byi herisiwa endzhaku.

Ndzi kombela leswaku mindzi tatela fomo leyi landzelaka tani hi xikombiso xaku pfumela ka n'wina leswaku n'wana wa n'wina a teka xiphemu eka ndzavisiso lowu.

Wa n'wina hiku tshembeka,

Mfungho:_____

Vito: Nkhensani Maluleke

Ndhawu: Mavalani Village Stand No. 454

EMAIL: nmaluleke@gmail.com

Rinqingo ra ntirho: 0359026353

Rale nyongeni: 0793057443

Supervisor: Prof L. Makalela

University of the Witwatersrand

Tel: + 27 (0) 11 7173002

Email: leketi.makalela@wits.ac.za

9.19. APPENDIX S: Parental consent form

Parent's Consent Form

Please fill in and return the reply slip below indicating your willingness to allow your child to participate in the research project called Bi-literacy development in the foundation phase: an examination of reading comprehension levels of text types

I, _____ the parent of _____ give:

Permission to observe my child in class

I agree that my child may be observed in class. YES/NO

Permission for questionnaire/test

I agree that my child may fill in a question and answer sheet or write a test

for this study.

YES/NO

Informed Consent

I understand that:

- My child's name and information will be kept confidential and safe and that my name and the name of my school will not be revealed.
- He/she does not have to answer every question and can withdraw from the study at any time.
- All data will be stored at the Wits School of Education for 3-5 years and will be destroyed thereafter.

Sign_____ Date_____

Parental consent form: XiTsonga Version

Fomo ya mpfumelelo ku suka eka Vatswari Siku: 2015/16/17

Ndzi kombela leswaku mi tata fomo leyi tani hi xikombiso xo pfumela leswaku n'wana wa n'wina a teka xiphemu eka ndzavisiso lowu wu kongomiseke eka ku hlahluva madyondzelo ya kuhlaya tibuku ta Xitsonga na ta Xinghezi hi xi kongomelo xo dyondza swo karhi.

Mina:_____ Mutswari wa: _____

Ndzi nyika Mpfumelelo wo tshama etlilasini ya n'wananga. INA/EE

Ndza pfumela leswaku u xopaxopa etlilasini ya n'wananga. INA/EE

Mpfumelelo wa leaswaku n'wanganga a tsala xikambelwana

Ndza pfumela leswaku n'wananga a tsala xikambelwana

tani hi xiphemu xa ndzavisiso lowu. INA/EE

Mpfumelo hiku twisisa

Ndzi twisisa leswaku:

- Vito ra n'wananga na vuxokoxoko hinkwabyo swita va xihundla, ku katsa vito ra xikolo lexi n'wananga a nghenaka eka xona.
- N'wananga anga boheki ku hlamula swivutiso hinkwaswo.
- Vuxokoxoko hinkwabyo lebyi hlengeletiweke hinkarhi wa ndzavisiso byita hlayisiwa hi ndlela yale henhla eXikolweni xati dyondzo eYunivhesiti ya Witwatersrand ku ringana malembe manharhu kuya fika eka ntlhanu, ivi byi herisiwa endzhaku.

Mfungho_____ Siku_____

9.20. APPENDIX T: Letter to learners

INFORMATION SHEET LEARNERS Date: 2016//01/14

Dear Learner

My name is Nkhensani Maluleke and I am a PhD student in the School of Education at the University of the Witwatersrand.

I am doing research on Bi-literacy development in the foundation phase: an examination of reading comprehension levels of text types.

My investigation involves sitting with you in your class when you are learning to read. Sometime during my research I may ask you to read a book for me and answer some questions from what you have read.

I was wondering whether you would mind if I asked you to participate in my research.

I need your help with reading a few short books and answering the questions so that I can understand which kind of text you are able to read and understand. I will also like to spend some time in your class as you learn to read.

Remember, this is not a test, it is not for marks and it is voluntary, which means that you don't have to do it. Also, if you decide halfway through that you prefer to stop, this is completely your choice and will not affect you negatively in any way.

I will not be using your own name but I will make one up so no one can identify you. All information about you will be kept confidential in all my writing about the study. Also, all data will be stored at the Wits School of Education for 3-5 years and will be destroyed thereafter.

Your parents have also been given an information sheet and consent form, but at the end of the day it is your decision to join us in the study.

I look forward to working with you!

Please feel free to contact me if you have any questions.

Thank you

Signature: 

NAME: Nkhensani Maluleke

ADDRESS: Mavalani Village Stand No. 454

EMAIL: nmaluleke@gmail.com

Tel: 0359026353

Mobile no: 0793057443

Supervisor: Prof L. Makalela

University of the Witwatersrand

Tel: + 27 (0) 11 7173002

Email: leketi.makalela@wits.ac.za

LEARNER INFORMATION LETTER (XITSONGA VERSION) FOMO YA VUXOKOXOKO EKA VADYONDZI **Siku: 2015//06/17**

Eka Mudyondzi,

Hi mina Nkhensani Maluleke. Ndzi nghena xikolo eka Univhesiti ya Witwatersrand eJoni.

Ndzi endla vulavisisi tani hi xiphemu xa tidyondzo ta mina ta vudokodela bya dyonzo.

Vulavisisi lebyi byi ta kongomisa eka tinxaka ta tibuku leti uti hlayaka laha etlilasini. Hi xitalo tibuku leti ita mintsheketo. Ndzi lava ku lavisisa leswaku loko wo hlaya tibuku leti ti dyondzisaka swokarhi etlilasini ungaka unga ti twisisi xana kee.

Ndzi Kombela leswaku u teka xiphemu eka ndzavisiso lowu. Loko u pfumela uta teka xiphemu hi ndlela leyi:

1. Ndzi ta tshama nkarhi nyana etlilasini ndzi vona madyondzelo yo hlaya.
2. Uta hlaya buku leyi yi dyonzisaka swokarhi hi xiTsonga na hi Xinghezi.
3. Uta hlamula swivutiso ku suka eka buku leyi.

Ndzi tiyisisa leswaku vito ra wena ringe tsariwi naka ka ntsongo mayelana na vulavisisi lebyi. Vuxokoxoko hinkwabyo lebyi hlengeletiweke hinkarhi wa ndzavisiso byita hlayisiwa hi ndlela yale henhla eXikolweni xati dyondzo eYunivhesiti ya Witwatersrand ku ringana malembe manharhu kuya fika eka ntlhanu, ivi byi herisiwa endzhaku.

Ndzi kombela leswaku undzi tatela fomo leyi landzelaka tani hi xikombiso xaku pfumela leswaku uta teka xiphemu eka ndzavisiso lowu.

Wa n'wina hiku tshembeka,

Mfungho: _____

Vito: Nkhensani Maluleke

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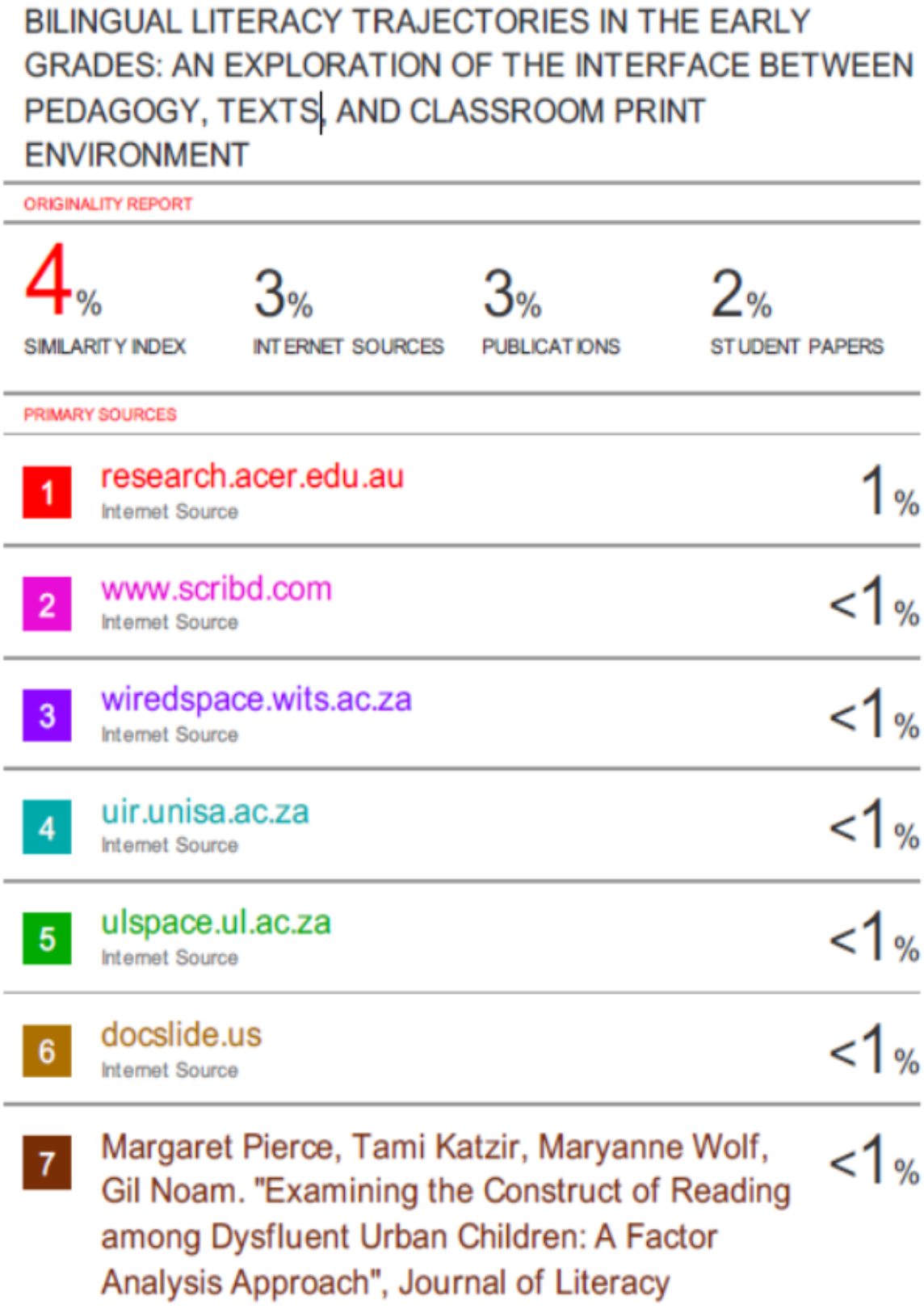

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