INVESTIGATING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A SCHOOL-BASED LITERACY INTERVENTION PROGRAMME: A CASE OF GRADE ONE ISIXHOSA SPEAKING LEARNERS IN THE WESTERN CAPE

By

NOMFUNDO TINY NONDALANA
Student No: 2921262

A Thesis in fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of

MAGISTER OF EDUCATION

at

University of the Western Cape

Faculty of Education
Department of Language Education

December 2015

Supervisor: Prof. Vuyokazi Nomlomo
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abstract ................................................................. (i-ii)

Declaration .............................................................. (iii)

Dedication ................................................................. (iv)

Acknowledgements ....................................................... (v)

List of Figures ............................................................ (vi)

List of Tables ............................................................. (vii)

List of Acronyms ........................................................ (viii – ix)

## CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY ............... 1 - 5

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RATIONALE ............................. 5 - 6

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS .................................................. 7

1.4 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES ................................ 7

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .......................................... 8

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY .................................... 8

1.7 CHAPTER OUTLINE ..................................................... 9

## CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. INTRODUCTION ......................................................... 10

2. 2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK ........................................ 10 - 13

2.2.1 UNDERSTANDING LITERACY ..................................... 10 - 13

2.2.2 THE AUTONOMOUS MODEL ...................................... 13 - 15

2.2.3 THE IDEOLOGICAL MODEL ....................................... 15-16
2.3 LITERACY AS A SOCIO-CULTURAL PRACTICE 16-19

2.4 INSTRUCTIONAL LITERACY STRATEGIES 19-21

2.5 BARRIERS TO LITERACY LEARNING 21-23

2.6 INTERVENTION IN TEACHING AND LEARNING
   2.6.1 LITERACY INTERVENTION PROGRAMMES 23-28
   2.6.2 INTERVENTION MODELS 28
      2.6.2.1 EMBEDDED EXPLICIT MODEL 28-30
      2.6.2.2 COMPREHENSIVE INTERVENTION MODEL 30

2.7 RELATED INTERNATIONAL STUDIES 30-34

2.8 RELATED SOUTH AFRICAN STUDIES 34-37

2.9 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK 37
   2.9.1 APPRENTICESHIP 38-40
      2.9.2 ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT (ZPD) 40-42

2.9.3 SCAFFOLDING 42-43

2.10 SUMMARY 43

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION 44

3.2. RESEARCH PARADIGM AND DESIGN 44-48

3.3 SAMPLING 48-52

3.4 RESEARCH SITE 52-53

3.5 DATA COLLECTION METHODS 53
   3.5.1 OBSERVATIONS 53-55
   3.5.2 INTERVIEWS 55-59
3.5.3 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS 59

3.6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY 59-60

3.7 ETHICAL ISSUES 60-61

3.8 SUMMARY 61

CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS 62

4.1. INTRODUCTION 62

4.2 DATA FROM OBSERVED LESSONS 62-65

  4.2.1 LESSON 1A: PHONICS LESSON 62-77
  4.2.2 LESSON 2: READING 78-82
  4.2.3 LESSON 3: READING AND PHONIC LESSON 83-93
  4.2.4 SUMMARY OF OBSERVED LESSONS 93-94

4.3 DATA FROM INTERVIEWS 94

  4.3.1 LITERACY INTERVENTION TEACHER INTERVIEW 94-102
  4.3.2 FOUNDATION PHASE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL INTERVIEW 103-104
  4.3.3 PRINCIPAL’S INTERVIEW 104-107
  4.3.4 SUMMARY OF INTERVIEW DATA 107

4.4 DATA FROM DOCUMENTS 107

  4.4.1 LEARNERS’ WRITTEN WORK 108-116
  4.4.2 DATA FROM LITERACY ASSESSMENT TASKS 116-119
  4.4.3 SUMMARY OF DOCUMENT DATA 120

4.5 DATA ANALYSIS 120-121

  4.5.1 ANALYSIS OF OBSERVED LESSONS 121-124
  4.5.2 ANALYSIS OF INTERVIEW DATA 124-126
  4.5.3 DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS 126-130

4.5 SUMMARY 130
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

5.2 RESEARCH FINDINGS

  5.2.1 INDEPENDENT CRITICAL THINKING AS A GUIDING PRINCIPLE IN LITERACY INTERVENTION PROGRAMMES 131-133
  5.2.2 LEARNER-CENTRED APPROACHES ENHANCE LITERACY TEACHING AND LEARNING 134-136
  5.2.3 TEACHER DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOPS TO ENHANCE LITERACY TEACHING 136-137
  5.2.4 LACK OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT 137
  5.2.5 SUPPLY OF ADEQUATE TEACHING RESOURCES 13-138

5.3 CONCLUSIONS

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

5.6 REFERENCES 140-153

APPENDIC 154-218
ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the implementation of a Literacy Intervention Programme with Grade One isiXhosa speaking learners in one primary school in the Western Cape. The study was motivated by the persisting low literacy levels in the Foundation Phase which have been reported in the Annual National Assessment (ANA) reports since 2011. The Department of Basic Education (DBE) and the Provincial Departments of Education have designed many intervention programmes to assist teachers in teaching literacy to young learners. These programmes include teacher development workshops and the supply of literacy materials in schools. Schools also have their own intervention programmes to support learners who struggle with reading and writing. Despite these efforts, there is no significant improvement in learners’ literacy levels. Therefore, this study investigated how the literacy intervention programme for Grade one was implemented in one township school in Cape Town.

The study followed a qualitative research paradigm and a case study design to understand how the teachers and learners interacted in the isiXhosa literacy intervention class. Data was collected by means of classroom observations, interviews and documentary analysis. The study involved one Grade One literacy intervention teacher and learners, and the school management, including the Principal and the Foundation Phase Deputy Principal.

This study was conducted in an ethical manner. The Western Cape Education Department (WCED) gave me permission to conduct research at the school. The principal, the Grade One literacy intervention teacher, the Foundation Phase Deputy Principal and parents gave me permission to proceed with my research in the school. I ensured that no participant was forced to take part in the study. I also ensured confidentiality and anonymity of all the participants. The collected data was transcribed and was qualitatively analyzed.

The findings of this study indicate that learner-centred teaching strategies that the teachers employed in literacy lessons seemed to enhance learners’ literacy skills. However, there were constraints that appeared to be barriers to the successful implementation of the literacy programme such as lack of resources and inadequate teacher training.
The study concludes that apart from innovative pedagogical strategies, successful implementation of literacy intervention programmes depends on the role and involvement of different stakeholders such as teachers, education officials and parents. Teacher development and regular monitoring and evaluation of the programmes should be prioritized as a means of quality assurance and successful implementation.

**KEYWORDS:** Literacy, Intervention, Early Childhood, Grade one, IsiXhosa, Implementation, Mediation, Scaffolding, Apprenticeship
DECLARATION

I, Nomfundo Tiny Nondalana, declare that INVESTIGATING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A SCHOOL-BASED LITERACY INTERVENTION PROGRAMME: A CASE OF GRADE 1 ISIXHOSA SPEAKING LEARNERS IN THE WESTERN CAPE is my own work that has not been submitted for any degree or examination in any other university, and that all sources I have cited or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by complete references.

..................................

Nomfudo T. Nondalana

December 2015
DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my late mother, Rita Zuziwe Nondalana, my loving and caring husband, Siviwe Vuzane, and my children Zimasa, Sinokuhle, Achuma and Sinentlahla. Thank you for your support and patience. I love you.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It could have not been possible to complete this study without the assistance of my supervisor, Professor Vuyokazi Nomlomo, an academic and a knowledgeable person who nurtured me as a young scholar. Carrying out this research was a long and difficult journey, but she walked with me all the time. She showed me the significance of postgraduate education and how it could change my personal life and enable me to make a contribution to my community. I wish to extend my appreciation and gratitude to her from the bottom of my heart.

My special thanks are due to the school where I conducted this study. Specifically, I would like to thank the School Principal, the Foundation Phase Deputy Principal, the intervention teacher and parents who granted me permission to involve their children in my study. Let me also thank my friends for their encouragement throughout the long journey of my studies. Without their support, this study would have been impossible.

I would also like to thank the NRF for financial support, through the Early Literacy Development in African Languages (ELDAL) research project coordinated by Professor Nomlomo.

Finally, thanks to my husband who encouraged me to further my education. He has played a valuable role as a father, mother and friend throughout the years of my study. Special thanks also go to my loving and caring daughter, Zimasa and my sons Sinokuhle, Achuma and Sentlahla. You are all blessings in my life.

God bless you all!!
## LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figure</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Figure 1</td>
<td>Phonics chart of sounds taught in Term One</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 2</td>
<td>A book with a story of a wheel</td>
<td>66 - 74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 3</td>
<td>A poster for reading lesson</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 4</td>
<td>Flashcards with [v] letter words</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 5</td>
<td>Pictures that represent vowels</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 6</td>
<td>Picture one which represents [l] letter</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 7</td>
<td>Picture two which represents [l] letter</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 8</td>
<td>Learner’s work after lesson one</td>
<td>109</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 9</td>
<td>Learner (A’s) written activity after lesson two</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Figure 10</td>
<td>Learner (B’s) written activity after lesson three</td>
<td>113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF TABLES

Table A: ANA literacy results (Department of Basic Education, 2013) 3
Table B: Interviewed teachers 49
Table C: Grade 1 (A) learner profiles 50
Table D: Grade 1 (B) learner profiles 51
Table E: Grade 1 (C) learner profiles 51
Table F: Lesson 1A phonics lesson dialogue (Grade 1A) 64
Table G: Lesson 1B phonics lesson (Grades 1B and C) 75
Table H: Lesson 2A - reading 78
Table I: Lesson 2B - reading 80
Table J: Lesson 3 - Reading and phonics lesson 88
Table K: Lesson 3 phonics lesson 92
Table L: Grade 1(A) Term 1 literacy assessment results 117
Table M: Grade 1(A) Term 2 literacy assessment results 117
Table N: Grade 1(B) Term 1 literacy assessment results 118
Table O: Grade 1(B) Term 2 literacy assessment results 118
Table P: Grade 1(C) Term 1 literacy assessment results 118
Table Q: Grade 1(C) Term 2 literacy assessment results 119
Table R: Grade 1(A) learners’ Term One and Term Two performance 127
Table S: Grade 1(B) learners’ Term One and term Two performance 128
Table T: Grade 1(C) learners’ Term one and Term Two performance 128
Table U: Term One literacy results 129
Table V: Term One literacy results 127
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACRONYMS</th>
<th>MEANING</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ARDS</td>
<td>Accelerate Reading Development Skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACE</td>
<td>Advanced Certificate in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ANA</td>
<td>Annual National Assessment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AKF</td>
<td>Aga Khan Foundation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AILEM</td>
<td>Aprendizaje Initial de la Lectura, la Escritura y lasMatematicus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CTLI</td>
<td>Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CAPS</td>
<td>Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DBE</td>
<td>Department of Basic Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFA</td>
<td>Education For All</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECD</td>
<td>Early Childhood Development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EBD</td>
<td>Emotional and Behavioural Disorder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FP</td>
<td>Foundation Phase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FDE</td>
<td>Further Diploma in Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HSRC</td>
<td>Human Science Research Council</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ICT</td>
<td>Information and Communication Technology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IP</td>
<td>Intermediate Phase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LiEP</td>
<td>Language-in-Education Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSA</td>
<td>Learning Support Adviser</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LITNUM</td>
<td>Literacy and Numeracy Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LoLT</td>
<td>Language of Learning and Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NEEDU</td>
<td>National Education and Evaluation Development Unit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OLI</td>
<td>Oral Language Impairment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NGO</td>
<td>Non-Governmental Organisations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSP</td>
<td>Primary Science Programme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PWM</td>
<td>Phonological Working Memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PIRLS</td>
<td>Progress in International Reading Literacy Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRAESA</td>
<td>Project for the Study of Alternative Education in South Africa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RTL</td>
<td>Reading to Learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RR</td>
<td>Reading Recovery</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RNCS</td>
<td>Revised National Curriculum Statement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SGB</td>
<td>School Governing Body</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SMT  Senior Management Team
USA  United States of Africa
WCED  Western Cape Education Department
ZPD  Zone of Proximal Development
CHAPTER ONE: BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

South Africa is a multilingual country with eleven official languages. The democratic Language-in-Education Policy (LiEP) stipulates that all learners have a right to learn in the language of their choice (Department of Education, 1996). But many South African learners are taught through the medium of their mother tongue or home language in the Foundation Phase (Grades R – 3) only. From Grade 4 many schools and parents choose English as the medium of instruction, although many learners experience difficulties in learning through the medium of English (second language).

Language teaching in the Foundation Phase (FP) stresses language and early literacy development. The Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) aims at developing learner’s literacy skills through reading and writing, particularly in the learners’ mother tongue or home language (Department of Basic Education, DBE 2012). More time is allocated to home language and literacy teaching in the early grades of schooling. For example, there are ten hours allocated for literacy teaching and learning in Grade R, and it is seven to eight hours for Grades 1-2 (Department of Basic Education, 2012). The CAPS recommends regular formal and informal classroom assessments to support learners’ literacy skills. These forms of assessment are done by the teachers to monitor and assess their learners’ progress, and to suggest intervention programmes for struggling learners.

Other forms of national and provincial assessments have been conducted to identify the strengths and challenges of the curriculum and to support teaching and learning. For example, the Systemic Evaluation Programme which involved a sampling of learners between 350 000 and 550 000 was conducted in 2004. The assessment was marked by external examiners. The results of the assessment showed the areas of weakness in literacy and the data also informed the variety of policy changes, including the curriculum (Department of Education, 2010:10). The Grade 3 Systematic Evaluation results of 2007 showed a low pass rate of 48%.

Literacy and numeracy development in schools are the key areas targeted by the national government. As a result, many efforts have been done to support literacy and numeracy teaching, especially in the Foundation Phase. In the State of the Nation Address in 2009, the President of the Republic of South Africa stated that by 2014, 60% of learners in Grades 3, 6
and 9 should perform at an acceptable level in languages and Mathematics (Department of Education, 2010:9). The accepted level is the minimum pass rate of 50%. For example, in 2008 the Department of Education introduced the “Foundation for Learning Campaign” which focused on the Foundation Phase (FP) and Intermediate Phase (IP). Teachers were trained for this campaign and materials were distributed to schools.

In 2008 and 2009 trial runs for Annual National Assessment (ANA) were conducted to expose teachers to better forms of assessment (Department of Education, 2010). The ANA objectives were to make a contribution towards better learning in schools, and to provide necessary information to planners, the Minister of Education and teachers with regard to ways of improving literacy teaching and learning in schools. ANA focuses on literacy and numeracy and it encourages teachers to assess learners using appropriate standards and methods (Department of Education, 2010:10). Through ANA the education districts are able to identify which schools need support, as well as well performing schools. Lastly, ANA encourages greater parental involvement to improve the learning process as it provides parents and School Governing Body (SGB) with a clear picture about which subjects need special attention.

During the 2011 academic year, the Department of Basic Education (DBE) distributed literacy and numeracy workbooks to schools. The purpose was to ensure that schools that lacked learning resources and photocopying facilities would be supported through the provision of worksheets. In these workbooks there are different activities to reinforce literacy and numeracy skills. The concepts that are required for each subject are introduced in the workbook. The workbooks assist teachers to focus on targeted skills that learners should acquire in each grade as outlined in the curriculum. The workbooks help teachers to monitor learners in key activities, and prepare learners for the format used in various standardized assessments (Department of Basic Education, 2012).

Although there is support given to teachers through the workshops, and literacy materials are available in schools, there is a slight improvement in the ANA results in the past three years. The learners’ medium of instruction in Grades 1-3 is their mother tongue. The national literacy average performance in 2011, 2012 and 2013 was above 50% in Grades 1 and 2, but it was 35% in Grade 3 in 2011. However, there has been an increase in improvement in 2012 and 2013, and the accepted pass rate of 50% was achieved in Grades 1 – 3. The results show that the literacy levels of FP of learners in South Africa need to improve as there are still
many learners who perform poorly despite the fact that they are taught and assessed in their home languages (HLs). The table below shows the ANA literacy results in the Foundation Phase at the Provincial level from 2011 to 2013.

**TABLE: A: ANA literacy results (Department of Basic Education, 2013)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grade 1</td>
<td>59%</td>
<td>58%</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 2</td>
<td>52%</td>
<td>55%</td>
<td>57%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grade 3</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>51%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ANA literacy results reflected on Table A above were based on learners’ literacy in the Home Language (HL). The diagnostic assessment of the 2013 ANA results showed that FP learners had poor reading comprehension skills, and did not know the correct order of the events in a story (Department of Basic Education, 2013). The learners could not read and rearrange the words to make correct sentences. Learners were unable to write sentences about pictures. In Grades Two and Three learners showed poor knowledge of the past and future tenses. They were also confused about nouns for pronouns. In Grade 3 learners demonstrated insufficient knowledge of how to use verbs to agree with the subject correctly (Department of Basic Education, 2013).

The ANA reports (2011, 2012 and 2013) also showed that that many learners could not read with comprehension. They were not able to produce meaningful written sentences. They lacked the ability to make correct inferences from the given information in the text. Learner’s knowledge of the grammar was very limited with regard to tense, verb use in singular and plural forms. They struggled to spell frequently used words correctly (Department of Basic Education, 2013).

The low learners’ performance in the Systematic Evaluation (SE) and in the ANA has forced the provincial and national departments of education to make plans to improve literacy levels in schools. For example, the National Education and Evaluation Development Unit (NEEDU) (2012:60) states that the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) launched the coordinated Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (LITNUM) (2006-2016). Through this initiative, the WCED planned an intervention programme which focused on teacher development and encouraged teachers to participate in language in-service training and
support workshops in the Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute (CTLI). The aim of the programme is to improve teachers’ pedagogical strategies in literacy.

As stated above, the LITNUM strategy targets preschool and primary school early literacy programmes and teacher development. For example, there is full funding for teachers to get full training through programmes such as the Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE), Further Diploma in Education (FDE) and support and consultation with Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs). The LITNUM strategy also supports family and community literacy (NEEDU, 2012). According to the LITNUM strategy the explicit teaching of phonics should take place through the “whole language“ approach which stresses meaning making in reading and writing. The constructivist approach is applied and both reading and writing are considered critical components of literacy development.

After the release of the ANA reports of 2012 and 2013, the DBE targeted system-wide intervention strategies to improve literacy and numeracy in schools. The aim of the intervention was to enhance curriculum mediation, strengthen literacy and numeracy skills and provide appropriate learning and teacher support materials to district schools (Department of Basic Education, 2012). The introduction of the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) from Grades 1-6 aimed at improving the literacy results because the curriculum gives clear teaching and assessment strategies (Department of Basic Education, 2011). The Department of Basic Education (DBE) has developed an instrument to monitor curriculum and content coverage in schools, and ensuring better teacher and learner attendance. The most recent intervention strategy is the 2014 ANA framework for improvement. The framework stresses structured reading and writing lessons and the need for Grade One learners to read at least one or two books per week as per the CAPS requirements (Department of Basic Education, 2013). Schools are expected to implement these literacy intervention strategies to support teaching and learning and to support learners with reading and writing difficulties. This implies that teachers have to identify learners with reading and writing difficulties, and plan strategies to support them. Therefore, teachers have to design intervention plans and programmes to assist struggling learners.

Midgle (2000:113) defines intervention as a purposeful action by human agent to create change. Intervention can take place in schools, classrooms, communities or homes or clinics, hospitals or institutions (Midgle 2000:63). According to Allington (2013) intervention
strategies should assist struggling learners to read and write more every day. Learners should be given texts with at least 98% word recognition and 90% comprehension. Every day all struggling learners should leave school with one book which they are able to read, or want to read. Intervention should be provided by the most effective and expert teachers.

Roskos, Christie, and Richgels (2003) recommend reading literacy intervention strategies that include rich teacher talk, story book reading, phonological awareness activities and alphabet activities. There should be support for emergent reading, writing and shared book experience. The reading activities should be well integrated and content focused and should develop the learners’ vocabulary skills. For example, teacher–learner conversations may include rare words to develop learner’s vocabulary. The teachers have to read aloud at least twice a day and they should be exposed to various enjoyable stories. They should also provide supportive conversations or talks, before and during reading. The enjoyable stories should be repeated so that learners can attempt to read them on their own.

As mentioned above, many reports indicate literacy crisis in many South African schools, despite the initiatives (e.g. intervention programmes) taken by the DBE to enhance literacy teaching and learning. I argue that literacy intervention programmes do not automatically result in better performance if factors such as teachers’ qualifications, teaching strategies, teaching resources, etc. are not taken into consideration to support learners with reading and writing difficulties. Therefore, this study investigated the implementation of a literacy intervention programme in a Grade One classroom at one primary school in the Western Cape where the medium of instruction is isiXhosa.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM AND RATIONALE

According to the Education For All (EFA) Global Monitoring Report, low literacy performance is a global concern (UNESCO, 2006). There is an estimated 77 million of illiterate adults, and many children are still experiencing reading and writing difficulties globally. Almost all adults who still need to acquire minimal literacy skills live in developed countries. Baatjies, (2003) claims that illiteracy supports poverty and people who are illiterate continue to experience all kinds of human distresses including hunger, disease, high infant mortality rates, unemployment and inadequate shelter.
The EFA Global Monitoring Report (2006:30) also stresses the value and significance of literacy in a person’s life. It strengthens the capabilities of individuals as it supports further learning. For example, if the child acquires good or strong literacy skills from the early grades, it is likely that he or she can progress well in other academic subjects. Therefore, literacy is significant because it frees human beings from many life challenges.

As mentioned earlier, the national and international literacy assessments indicate that many South African learners’ performance is below the accepted levels. Venter, van Staden, Zimmerman, Long, Du Toit, Scherman and Archer (2008:24) claim that the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) 2006 report indicated South African South African learners achieved the lowest score of the 45 participating countries. The Systematic Evaluation and Annual National Assessment results also show Foundation Phase (FP) learners’ poor performance in literacy (Department of Basic Education, 2012, 2013; NEEDU, 2012).

To alleviate poor literacy results in the FP the national reading strategy was developed in 2008. The disadvantaged primary schools were provided with 100 story books (DBE 2013). The new curriculum policy (CAPS) was introduced as means of supporting teaching and learning, including assessment. Teacher development workshops aimed at supporting teachers are conducted regularly as part of the intervention programme. Literacy teaching in the FP occurs through the medium of the teachers’ and learners’ home languages, but the assessment reports still show poor literacy performance in the learners’ home languages (Department of Basic Education, 2012). In South Africa, early literacy development is still a problem despite the support provided to teachers by the national and provincial education departments. The 2011, 2012 and 2013 ANA indicate that South Africa’s learner’s literacy skills are still below accepted levels, despite the literacy intervention programmes that have been introduced in primary schools as a means of alleviating the literacy problem (DBE 2013). It is against this background that this study set out to observe how the literacy intervention programme is implemented in the Grade One classroom. In addition, there is no existing research on literacy intervention in isiXhosa which is the second largest language (in terms of speakers) in South Africa.
1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The main question which guides this study is: How is the literacy intervention programme in isiXhosa implemented in the Grade One classroom?

1) What are the guiding principles of the implementation of the Grade One literacy intervention programme at the school?

2) What strategies do the teachers use to implement the literacy intervention programme in the Grade One classroom?

3) What support do the teachers get from the school and district management to implement the literacy intervention programme?

4) How are parents involved in the Grade One literacy intervention programme?

5) How can the literacy intervention programme be strengthened to enhance Grade One learner’s literacy skills in isiXhosa?

1.4 RESEARCH AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

The main aim of this research study is to investigate the implementation of the literacy intervention programme in the Grade One classroom in order to determine its benefits and constraints. The specific objectives are:

1. To examine and understand the Grade One literacy intervention programme with regard to its aims and content.

2. To observe the teacher’s pedagogical strategies in the Grade One literacy intervention classroom.

3. To investigate parental involvement and the kind of support that the school and district management provide to Grade One teachers to implement the literacy intervention programme.

4. To determine ways of strengthening the Grade One literacy intervention programme to support learner’s literacy skills in their home language which is isiXhosa.
1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research was conducted within a qualitative paradigm. I used a qualitative research approach because it is a situated activity that locates the observer in the world of the participants (Denzin, Lincoln and Norman 2008:4). So, the observer must be involved in order to understand how humans work in the real world. According to Bell (1989) “researchers that adopt a qualitative perspective are more concerned to understand individual’s perceptions of the world”. They seek insight rather than statistically analysis”. The qualitative paradigm aims for depth rather than quantity of understanding of issues.

The qualitative paradigm was appropriate for this study because it provided insight into literacy practices in the Foundation Phase and whether the intervention strategies support the development of learner’s literacy skills. I also followed the qualitative approach because it develops a more flexible research design. In other words, the design may not specify in advance and is open to change during the course of study (Henning, Smit and van Rensburg 2004:3). I had the opportunity to look at how the literacy intervention programme was implemented. In addition, I observed teachers’ intervention strategies and activities. I used a purposive sampling because the aim of this study was to investigate the implementation of a literacy intervention programme. The subjects for this study included one teacher who was responsible for the intervention group in Grade one, the Deputy Principal and the Principal of the school where the study was conducted. I conducted classroom observations in the Grade One intervention class and I interviewed the teacher and management staff. I also analysed learners’ written work in order to determine how they performed in the intervention literacy lessons. Details of how the research study was conducted are discussed in Chapter three of this thesis.

1.6 THE SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The research results of this study are vital because they provide the WCED officials with a situated feedback about why there is still literacy crisis in education, even though intervention programmes are implemented in schools. The findings of this study also provide the schools with an understanding of how intervention programmes could be better implemented to support early literacy development. The final report of this study is of benefit to a number of stakeholders, including teachers, curriculum advisors, schools, the WCED officials and parents. It lays a good foundation for further studies in this area which may focus on different languages and grades.
1.7 CHAPTER OUTLINE

This study has five chapters as follows:

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter is an introduction chapter which focuses on the contextual background to the study, research problem and aims for the study. It briefly highlights the research paradigm that was followed in this study.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

This chapter reviews literature and examines relevant theories that supported the aims of the study. It draws on international and national literature on literacy and Literacy Intervention Programmes. It discusses the sociocultural theory in relation to early literacy development.

Chapter 3: Research Methodology

This chapter outlines in detail the research methods which I used in collecting data. It also deals with ethical considerations for the study.

Chapter 4: Presentation and Analysis of data

In this chapter, the collected data is presented. Data presentation entails the description of data collected from various sources. The chapter also deals with data analysis that leads to the findings of the study.

Chapter 5: Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

The research findings are discussed in this chapter. Concluding remarks from the research are presented based on the research findings. Recommendations that are relevant to the study are provided. The next chapter focuses on literature review and theoretical frame work.
CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to review literature which is relevant to this study. The chapter draws on international and national literature on Literacy and Literacy Intervention Programmes in early childhood education in order to explain how literacy intervention strategies are understood in different contexts, as well as the significance of home literacy and literacy instructional strategies. It also deals with the intervention models which highlight how literacy intervention programmes can be implemented. The first part of this chapter presents the conceptual theoretical framework that underpins this study. This is followed by a review of South African studies which provide a picture of the related studies that have been conducted in this country. Finally, the theoretical framework which guides this study is discussed.

2.2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.2.1 UNDERSTANDING LITERACY

There are different definitions of literacy. The Education For All (EFA) Global Monitoring Report (2006:30) defines literacy as “a context-bound continuum of reading, writing and numeracy skills acquired and developed through the process of learning and application, in schools and in other settings appropriate of youth and adults”. This definition suggests that literacy skills are acquired and developed as an individual applies and implements them in various spheres of life. In addition, acquiring literacy is a continuous process, which occurs from childhood to adulthood. For example, if a child acquires reading and writing skills, those skills are not fixed for school purposes only. The child can be able to access print information in all domains of life.

Joelepoe (2012) claims that literacy is probably the single most important part of education because it involves reading, writing, speaking, listening and viewing to gain more knowledge. Literacy is essential for learning as it enables learners to acquire more knowledge across the curriculum. However, Gee (2008:31) and Bloch (2010) challenge the view of literacy as the ability to read and write only because this definition situates literacy in the individual person rather than in society. Gee (2008:31) defines literacy in social and cultural terms, and not just
in terms of an ability that resides inside people’s heads (Gee 2008:7). The Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) also sees literacy as being part of people’s daily social and cultural activities (Department of Education, 2012). Prinsloo (2009:21) is also of the view that literacy assumes reading and writing to be a social practice that varies within context and use. This implies that an individual can show different literacy skills in different domains and contexts.

Warschauer (1997) sees language and literacy as a resource that allows learners to participate fully in public, community and economic life. Classroom based literacy develops literacy skills of thinking, interpretation and analysis. Therefore, literacy could be defined as a social practice and not as a cognitive act because to teach literacy means to appreciate people into the social practice of literate communities (Warschauer 1997). This suggests that literacy skills are practiced in social settings rather than as individual skills relevant to school setting only.

Wray (2004) perceives literacy as a unitary, neutral process and an independent variable. It is unitary because it is a single skill that is essentially the same for everyone and it is independent of a specific context. According to Wray (2004) “literacy is neutral because it is detached from and impervious to the concerns, values, attitude, trends, tastes, practices and patterns of power or influences be found within a given social setting because it is not shaped by the facts of a particular social setting”. So, Wray (2004) perceives literacy as a skill within an individual which is not attached to any value, attitude or concerns of a society. This demonstrates the significance of promoting literacy skills of each learner because literacy skills are not confined to activities which take place in the school setting only.

According to Makin, Diaz and Mc Lachlan (2007:32) literacy is a tool which is used for everyday communication. Street (1984) solidifies this view of literacy as a social practice by acknowledging the meaning embedded in literacy. The meaning can be presented in oral, written and in visual texts as socially constructed and situated learning. This means that the definition of literacy goes beyond the traditional view of literacy as the ability to read and write only (Bloch, 2010), but as a multifaceted and socially constructed phenomenon (Street 1984). It includes information, visual and media literacy (EFA 2006). According to UNESCO (1962 in Street 1984:183) a literate person is one who has acquired knowledge and skills which enable him or her to use them in all activities that require literacy skills. This demonstrates that the individual literacy skills can be used in different domains for various
purposes. In addition, Nevills and Wolfe (2005:6) claim that literacy is relatively an addition to human culture. Humans have used oral language for perhaps four million years, but the ability to present the sounds of language by written symbols has been around for only 4000 to 5000 years (Nevills and Wolfe 2005:6).

Emergent literacy assumes that children acquire some knowledge about language reading and writing before attending school. Literacy development begins early and continues throughout life (Golbeck 2001). However, speaking is a natural development, but reading is unnatural; it had to be learnt. Speaking is a biological entity, so reading is different because it is an acquired skill (Nevills and Wolfe 2005:7). To prove this, all struggling learners have the ability to participate in oral activities and may struggle with reading. Shaywits (2003:44-69) claims that reading is an acquired skill that occurs at a conscious level. Street (2001) proposes that what counts as literacy varies depending on how the people use it and the social and political context in which reading and writing take place. In addition UNESCO (2004) defines literacy as:

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

UNESCO’s (2004) definition of literacy summarizes all the above views about literacy as the ability to read and write, and as a social practice.

Prinsloo (2009) claims that literacy is crucial as it goes beyond providing educational and economic benefits and helps people to have access to resources and to other economic and political rights. Reading becomes the key to access to these resources. When children are eight years and younger, they benefit most from education and development through reading. Reading becomes a key to open further knowledge and skills while difficulty in reading from early grades impacts on future performance (Prinsloo 2009). This illustrates the importance of assisting struggling readers from early grades. So, learners need effective literacy intervention so that reading and writing skills could be enhanced while they are still young.
Prinsloo (2009) refers to a study conducted by the Human Research Council (HSRC) in 2008 which showed that Grade 8 learners in the Western Cape scored best in multiple choice questions, but struggled to produce their own written responses. This demonstrated that their literacy writing skills were not well developed in their early grades. Likewise, scores of the performance of South African learners in the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) (2006) showed that South Africa had the lowest scores. Learners who completed the test in English and Afrikaans performed better than learners who completed the test in African languages (Howie, Venter, Van Staden, Zimmerman, Du Toit, Scherman and Archer (2006). This finding suggests that literacy performance in South African schools tends to reflect racial and socio-economic differences. Learners from disadvantaged or low socio-economic backgrounds often perform worse than those who are from high or rich socio-economic background. They need more assistance and intervention programmes than learners in well-resourced schools. The following section discusses literacy models that highlight the different conceptualizations of literacy, namely the autonomous and ideological models. Below I provide detailed description of the two models.

2.2.2 THE AUTONOMOUS MODEL

According to Evans (2005) and Bartlette (2008) the autonomous model views literacy experiences separately from people’s social context. Street (1984:19) claims that the autonomous model is constructed for specific political purposes. Street (1995:76) further suggests that the proponents of autonomous model of literacy attempt to treat literacy as an independent variable which is detached from its social context. The autonomous model refers to individual attributes and intellectual capacity (Kurbanoglu, Grassian, Mizrach, Mizrach, Catts and Spiranec, 2013). This model alienates literacy from society where literacy is practiced. The autonomous model views Information and Communication Technology (ICT) as an important element of development and professional success.

Street (1984:20) claims that writing is an example of an autonomous text to express one’s views. Unlike oral language, it can be done over a longer period of time because it does not require immediate feedback. So, oral language is contextual while writing is decontextualized. This shows that if learners’ reading and writing abilities are developed, their perspectives will be decontextualized because they will have an opportunity to voice their views in different contexts.
Writing develops the ability to operate within the boundaries of sentence meaning. Street (1984:20) maintains that literate societies have the possibilities of developing coherent functions of language. This demonstrates that writing follows the logic of sentence construction whereas oral language depends on the context where the conversation takes place. In other words, oral language is context-based and imitative. Writing is not context-based because written information can be available in different domains at the same time. Writing imposes the development of logic; it separates myth from history.

Goody (1977:75) claims that the alphabet makes reading and writing easier and available for more people and more purposes, while spoken language is only available to few people who are available in one context. The greater abstraction and simplification of progressive change in writing decreases the number of illiterates (Goody 1977:75). The shift from spoken language to written text led to significant developments referred to as change in consciousness and graphic kin.

Goody (1977:76) claims that speech is the major element of writing; so writing to some degree, influences speech and the associated cognitive development. Therefore, oral language and writing are contingent. The main functions of writing are the storage function that permits communication over time and space and provides man with a marking, reminder and recording device. The other function of writing is to shift language from an oral to a visual domain (Goody 1977:78). Writing changes the nature of communication beyond that of face-to-face interaction as well as the storage of information. So, the wide range of thought is made available to the reading public (Goody 1977:38).

In light of the above, the autonomous model describes literacy as an individual skill and it alienates it from the society. To support the significance of developing individual literacy skills, the autonomous model differentiates oral language from written language. Oral language depends on the participants and the relationship between them, whereas different people can have access to written language in different domains. Therefore, the autonomous model demonstrates that there is a need to assist struggling writers and readers so that they can be able to access information for different purposes. For example, learners who attend intervention classes are able to access information orally, but may be unable to access print information. So, writing and reading emancipate individuals. In this study, the autonomous model is relevant as it investigates how learners are assisted to read and write independently.
The next section discusses the ideological model which has a different perspective about literacy.

2.2.3 THE IDEOLOGICAL MODEL

Street (1984:28) defines the ideological model as a social construction, and not as a neutral entity. According to Street (1984:28) literacy differs from one culture to another because people practice different literacies in their daily lives. According to Ngece (2014) the ideological model proposes that learners should be exposed to different kinds of environments so that they can be able to construct their own meanings based on that particular scenario. The ideological model acknowledges the importance of social context in developing literacy skills. Barton and Hamilton (1998:12) maintain that literacy becomes a community resource, realized in social relationships rather than a property of individuals. Therefore, literacy skills are culturally constructed. Like all phenomena, they have their roots in the past. A person’s literacy practices can be associated with their own history and identity.

McCarty, Watahomigie, Torres-Guzman, DienToit, Charg, Smith, Silva, and Nordlander (2004:6) claim that literacy is not an autonomous cognitive practice, but an interactive process where talk plays a significant role in defining and negotiating meaning. This occurs as readers and writers transact the text in the socio-cultural environment. Literacy is contextualized in everyday life and sustained by talk, time and space. Street (2001:122) claims that literacy as a social practice constitutes the notion of multiple literacies. Schools perceive literacy as individual ability to read and write only and tend to ignore literacies that are practiced in the community, which learners bring to the classroom.

Similarly, Wyse, Andrews and Hoffman (2010:395) challenge the traditional view of literacy as the ability to read and write only because this perspective excludes children who are not able to read and write. In the conventional sense they perceive them as illiterate, semi-literate or non-literate. Kellner (2000) in Wyse, Andrews and Hoffman, (2010:395) suggests an alternative perspective that there are several literacies; some may be accessible without acquiring the ability to read and write. Wyse et al. (2010:396) claim that the central goal of literacy is communication, even in the form of personal diary writing. Therefore, communication can be represented as a much wider and multifaceted kind of literacy, including reading and writing.
The ideological model maintains that literacy is not a neutral activity but a social activity. It brings literacy to society where it functions as a social practice. It perceives the autonomous model as a model that alienates people who cannot read and write from the wider society; a model that creates discrimination in the society because those who are unable to read and write are viewed as non-literate, although they are active participants in the society. It recognizes oral language as an important literacy skill because an individual acquires it in society and is able to socialize with others.

This study acknowledges that both the autonomous and ideological models are important. Hence, the purpose of intervention is to support the literacy skills of struggling readers until they are able to read and write. But it follows an ideological model in order to acknowledge the different literacies that children bring to the classroom. The next section discusses literacy as a socio-cultural practice.

2.3 LITERACY AS A SOCIO-CULTURAL PRACTICE

There are different views about literacy as discussed in the previous sections. But most of the views incorporate the socio-cultural theory because it perceives literacy as a social activity and not as an individual activity. McCarty et al. (2004:6) claim that a view of literacy from the socio-cultural perspective of learning seeks to understand the cultural context within which children have grown and developed. It seeks to understand how children interpret who they are in relation to others and how children have learned to process, interpret and encode their world (McCarty, et al. (2004:4).

Solers, Fletcher-Champel (2009:7) regard literacy as multidimensional because it serves a variety of social, economic, ideological and political purposes. Literacy serves social purpose because of literacy practices that feature in everyday life such as reading for information or learning, and reading for pleasure, recreation and religion. These literacy practices do not take place at school only; the individuals use them beyond the school. The economic purpose is seen in the workplace where the literacy skills and knowledge demands are made on people. Literate people are perceived to have better job opportunities in the labour market. The political purpose refers to the literacy practices in which people engage in multiple roles as citizens, activists or community members, allowing them to take up positions in relation to social works. The ideological purpose relates to values, assumptions, beliefs and expectations that frame dominant literacy discourse within particular social contexts (Solers et al., 2009:7).
In addition, literacy is a cultural activity that involves people in conscious and reflexive action within a variety of situations in everyday life (Soler et al., 2009:7). Barton and Hamilton (1998:3) claim that “literacy is something that people do; it is located in the space between thought and text. It does not just reside on paper; it is in people’s mind or captured as text to be analyzed”. So, literacy is essentially social, as it is located in the interaction between people.

Literacy as social practice is seen as generally cultural ways of utilizing written language which people draw upon their lives. Literacy practices are what people do with literacy. This includes people’s awareness of literacies, construction of literacy, discourses of literacy, how people talk about and make sense of literacy. These processes are internal to the individual, and practices are social processes which connect people with one another (Barton and Hamilton 1998:6). Literacy practices are not fixed; new ones are acquired through formal and informal education and training. Literacy is also treated as functional because it is something people use to get things done in their lives. To support the view of literacy as a social practice Mc Carty, et al. (2004:5) claim that literacy cannot be considered to be content free or context free. Literacy is always social and cultural situated. Therefore, literacy skills are within individual’s mind but are practiced when individuals interact with one another in the community.

Maybin (1994:168) sees literacy as pluralistic, because different societies and subgroups have different social and mental effects in different social practices. This suggests that different societies have literacy skills which are practiced in a particular manner. Therefore, if a person from another society is unable to meet the expectations of a particular society, that does not suggest he or she is not literate. Literacy is perceived as a way of using language and making sense of both reading and writing (Maybin 1994:168).

Barton and Hamilton (1998:7) refer to literacy events as activities where literacy plays a role. Events are observable episodes which arise from practices and are shaped by them. For example, a teacher reads a story to his or her learners. In addition, events emphasize literacy as situated activity, which exists in a social context. Literacy events refer to the use of written language in an integrated way as part of semiotic systems. It is part of semiotic meaning because written language stands for the views of the author in the context where the writer is not available to explain his or her views.
Literacy is not the same in all contexts (Barton and Hamilton 1998:9). For example, academic literacy is integrated to workplace literacy i.e. a person needs to learn some of workplace skills because they are unique for a specific job. Wyse et al., (2010:171) perceive writing as a social practice because it is an act of connection and communication with others and every act of writing is the way of expressing identity and positioning in relation to the world and readership. Therefore, writing is a personal enterprise located within socially understood expectations and norms about the text, discourses and writing practice. In addition, Romaine (1982:14) maintains that people speak a language before they write it, just as some languages exist today only in written form. Children learn the spoken language before they learn to write it. So, written language is the reflection of spoken language to some extent. Spoken language and written language are instances of the same language embodied in different media. Wyse et al. (2010:172) assert that writing involves acquiring sufficient agency to comply or resist norms and values.

Literacy is perceived as a social practice but literacy skills are individual skills. Soler, Fletcher-Champel and Reid (2009:5) perceive literacy as the ability and the willingness to use reading and writing to construct meaning from printed text in ways which meet the requirements of a particular context. For example, the ability to read and write meets the academic and workplace requirements. This is why the goal of literacy intervention is to assist learners who experience difficulties in reading and writing.

However, the anthropologists have a different view of literacy. They have different views about the importance of reading and writing skills as necessary skills for better life. For example, Kingsten, Kroll and Rose (1998:205) claim that literacy has to do with reading and writing which are regarded as prestigious skills. Therefore, literacy serves as a tool to divide people in the society according to social status. Kingsten, et al. (1988:205) further claim that in five million years people in societies were uneducated but were able to master the knowledge and skills informally. The cognitive skills help the children to acquire and speak a language, and almost every child by the age of five is able to speak.

Hamilton, Barton and Ivanic (1994:16) seem to support the anthropologist perspectives because they argue that the meanings of literacy are not fixed but can be contested. When people are not able to read and write they are identified as not literate, but they are still people. In the world where no one reads and writes people are recognized and valued for all their abilities. So, literacy is viewed as a “robber” because it robs those who are identified as
not literate their strength and identity. They are identified by what they cannot do, rather than as respected individual of society.

Erickson (in Kingsten et al., 2008) views school discourse as “lettered” and as a marker of social class status and culturally political. Erickson does not devalue literacy but argues that schools continue to divide the society according to social classes. The various activities of school are organized so that social class in most instances is maintained from one generation to the next.

The above view demonstrates that reading and writing ability divides the community to literate and not literate, but according to Hamilton et al., (1994:16), reading and writing develop and demonstrate people’s strength and identity. Writing enables one to express and share things with other people. According to Hamilton, et al., (1994:161) writing is an appropriate skill because a person does not need to be there to get his or her ideas to other people. Writing gives one communicative power. Lots of people can respond to you through writing that gets public. It is an important component of literacy. The next section explains the different strategies which could be used to develop learners’ literacy skills.

2.4 INSTRUCTIONAL LITERACY STRATEGIES

There are various teaching strategies that can be used to develop children’s literacy skills. In fact, children’s literacy skills can be developed at home before children begin schooling and when at school. Allington (2013) claims that teacher’s literacy instructional practices often eliminate the struggling readers. For example, teachers prepare more work sheets for struggling learners and they do not focus on other language skills to support their literacy skills. Allington (2013) suggests that teachers should encourage phonemic awareness to promote emergent literacy. Regarding phonological awareness, the activities should increase children’s awareness of sounds of the language. The activities could include games, listening to stories, poems and songs that involve rhymes, alliteration and sound matching (Roskos et al., 2003). The alphabet activities should engage children with materials that promote identification of alphabet letters including alphabet charts, alphabet blocks, puzzles and magnetic letters. The teacher could use direct instruction e.g. children could identify the first sound in a word.
Learners need support for emergent reading. The teacher could orientate learners to look for enjoyable books and borrow books from the library that will encourage independent reading. The classroom should be print rich and be linked to classroom activities such as daily schedules, helper charts, toy shelf labels, etc. (Roskos, et al. 2003). Shared book experience is also important. When the teacher reads an enlarged text he or she should point to print as it is read. The book cover and the title page should be illustrated and the favorite books should be repeated. According to Orton (2000) struggling learners often do not succeed in reading if they are given a text with 98% of words which they do not understand. So, it is important to give them a text which they can read with 90% to 98% comprehension. In that way, reading comprehension is fostered as an important component of literacy development.

A study conducted by Steinhaus (2011) explored an instructional strategy that would be effective in addressing the acquisition of phonemic awareness and alphabetic knowledge in pre-schoolers. Data were collected by means of classroom observations. The results of the study indicated that effective instruction requires teacher focus, reflection and inter-subjectivity. This study also revealed that in order to develop literacy skills, teacher-learner dialogue could be an effective strategy. Teachers have to accommodate learner’s learning styles and their prior knowledge should not be excluded. In this study, different learning styles and learner’s existing knowledge appeared to be the foundation of literacy skills. Therefore, this suggests that learner’s prior experiences should not be disqualified at schools as they are crucial for literacy development.

In addition, it is important that every primary school teacher knows how to teach several decoding approaches effectively. For example, phonemic awareness and inventive spelling are crucial strategies to promote the understanding of alphabetic principles (Allington, 2013 & Orton, 2000). They are important because they are the indicators of reading and writing success (Orton, 2000). In addition, Rivera (1999) (in Glasgow and Farrell, 2007:86) suggest that an effective instructional approach to literacy includes the use of the learner’s language as a language of instruction. He claims that when the learner’s language is used as medium of instruction, learners may be at an advantage because they can transfer basic skills in reading from their Home Language (HL) to their second language. This explains how mother-tongue education supports literacy development.

The teacher should encourage children to use emergent forms of writing such as scribble writing, random letter strings and invented spelling (Roskos, et al. 2003). Activities that
could develop emergent writing include play related materials, shared writing
demonstrations, a writing centre stocked with writing resources, etc. According to the Project
for the Study of Alternative Education in South Africa (PRAESA) (2007) teachers or parents
should encourage children to look for print everywhere and notice writing. For example, print
literacy is found in common places such as billboards, road signs, toilet signs and tuck shop
names. Rich language learning grows through listening to stories and talking about our lives
(PRAESA, 2007). If a teacher or a parent reads stories to children, he or she lays the oral
foundation of reading and writing. Play is also a way of telling stories and children can
explore various ways in which people use literacy in their daily lives. If learners are playing,
they follow rules, practice what they know and learn how to co-operate and be creative.

In addition, PRAESA (2007) recommends that teachers should be role models by reading and
writing everyday so that learners could explore print every day. The integrated, content
focused activities are effective if the teacher provides opportunities for learners to investigate
topics that interest them. It is possible for learners to find information on their own. Learners
find an opportunity for emergent writing as they observe and record information (Roskos, et
al., 2003).

2.5 BARRIERS TO LITERACY LEARNING

A psychological view of literacy is that there are external factors that contribute to the
reading and writing abilities of children. For example, the socio-economic status of the
parents plays a big role in emergent literacy skills. Neuman (1996) conducted a study in the
Three Head Start Centre. The purpose of the study was to assist disadvantaged children to
acquire emergent literacy through story reading. The intervention strategy involved the
parents of children who participated in the study. The book club provided access to literacy
materials and opportunities for parents and children. Parents were engaged actively by
involving their children in highly interactive book reading. The results indicated that all
parents, low proficient readers and proficient readers meaningfully contributed to children’s
emergent literacy abilities through regular storybook reading. In three months of book
reading with parents, children gained knowledge of the front of the book, the fact that print
tells a story, directional rules of left to right and the concept of word and letter. This study
indicated that parents’ and children’s interaction during story reading helped children’s
receptive language and their understanding of concepts in print. It also revealed that
storybook reading is a jointly constructed event between the parents, the child and the text.
Duursma, Augustyn and Zuckerman (2008) claim that parent–child literacy activities result in vocabulary growth. Reading aloud to children promotes emergent literacy, language development and love of reading. Duursma, et al. (2008) emphasize that it is important that parents use shared book reading because children who grow up and experience shared book reading from an early age, tend to be more interested in reading at age four and five, than those who receive shared reading when they are older.

Duursma, et al. (2008) believe that social class has an impact on the reading ability of children. They claim that in low-income families learners do not receive exposure to shared book reading which is important for developing literacy skills, vocabulary growth and emergent literacy. In addition, Justice, Chow, Capellin, Flanigan and Colton (2003) associate Oral Language Impairment (OLI) and poverty with an increase in risk factors for literacy studies. Poverty is associated with increased risk of reading and writing because learners who grow up in low-socio-economic families have limited exposure to oral and written language as there are no story books and print resources. Furthermore, Prinsloo (2009) believes that variations of reading abilities point to the effects of poverty, such as the availability of books available at home, parents’ level education and access to books at school. Parents’ low educational levels reduce parental involvement and support in their children’s homework.

According to Duursma, et al’s study (2008) four year old children from middle class and lower class had different letter knowledge. Children from middle class knew an average of 54% of the letter names and five year–old children from middle class knew 85% of the letters. However, four and five year old children from low-income families who entered the Head Start knew an average of four letters and learned an additional of five while enrolled. Duursma, et al’s study (2008) claim that a non-mediated talk in shared book reading gives a child the opportunity to understand and use more sophisticated words required to make predictions, to describe the internal states of characters and to evaluate the story. In shared book reading a non-mediated talk and active engagement is beneficial for children language enhancement. Therefore, non-mediated talk helps learners to predict and relate the story to their past experiences. This also provides children with the opportunity to talk about their own feelings.

The above study findings seem to justify why there are differences in the scores of the ANA results in South African schools. For example, the Eastern Cape has the lowest scores. This
could be linked to the socio-economic status of the rural families which often do not have access to reading materials. This indicates that access to information is not the same. Despite the universal schooling, a continuing percentage of the population of learners in South Africa has difficulties with reading and writing.

To conclude, the psychological perspectives on reading difficulties show that the external factors have an influence on the child’s literacy skills. They highlight that the socio-economic status of parents and their educational levels could be a barrier to their children’s access to literacy. Children who grow up in homes where print resources are available have better opportunities for emergent reading while those who are not exposed to books could experience difficulties in reading. It is the latter group that may need more support through literacy intervention programmes.

2.6 INTERVENTION IN TEACHING AND LEARNING

2.6.1 LITERACY INTERVENTION PROGRAMMES

Cooper, Williams, Boschken, and Pistochini (1999) define intervention as the act of coming into or between to hinder or alter an action. For example, a reading intervention programme is one that hinders or alters the action of reading failure by preventing it from occurring or stopping it if it has already started. Therefore, a literacy intervention programme serves as a secondary prevention because it helps to support learners with reading and writing difficulties to improve their performance.

According to Saracho and Spodek (2002:57) “effective intervention demands a multipurpose programme with families, concentrating on clearly motivating the child by enriching the quality of parent-child interactions on the home environment”. The home environment can contribute to the child’s literacy learning where the family provides literacy experiences in different ways. Literacy experiences can include access to books, shared reading experiences, having print materials available and developing positive attitude towards literacy (Saracho and Dayton 1991, 1989). The above statements illustrate that it is not only the teacher-child interaction that is important in a literacy intervention programme, but the parent-child interaction also plays a crucial role.
According to Barbara (2006) intervention is used to small groups who need intensive support to achieve grade level competency. The Response to Intervention (RTI) is a multitier approach to the early identification and support of learners with learning and behaviour needs (Klingner and Edwards 2006). The RTI holds promise for preventing academic failure by providing support for culturally and linguistically diverse students before they become underachievers (Klingner and Edwards 2006). The RTI acts before learners are labeled as underperforming learners. It has three tiers namely, Tier one, Tier two and Tier three.

Tier one refers to High-Quality Classroom Instructions, screening and group intervention. In this tier all students receive high quality, scientifically based instructions provided by a qualified person to ensure that their difficulties are not due to inadequate instructions (Klingner and Edwards 2006). All learners are screened on a periodic basis to identify struggling learners who need additional support. Learners who are identified as at-risk receive instruction during the school day in a regular classroom. The length of this programme could be eight weeks and learners who show significant improvement return to their classroom. Those who do not show progress are moved to Tier two (Klingner and Edwards 2006).

Tier two is targeted intervention. Learners are provided with intensive instructions matched to their needs on the basis of performance and notes of progress. This service is provided in small group settings. From Grade R to three intervention programmes are usually in the areas of reading and mathematics. They take a longer period but not more than a grade period. If the learner still does not show improvement, then he or she will be moved to Tier three.

Tier three is intensive intervention and comprehensive evaluation (Klinger and Edwards 2006). In this tier programme, learners receive individualized and intensive interventions that target learner’s skills deficits. If the learner still does not show progress or achieve the desired progress, he or she is referred to a comprehensive evaluation programme and considered for eligibility for special education service under the Individuals with Disability Education Improvement Act of 2004 (IDEA 2004).

An intervention programme was implemented in Suffolk country in New York in 1992-1993 by Whitehurts, Epistein, Payne, Crone and Fischel (1994). Their hypothesis was that the combination of dialogic reading and sound foundation would enhance language linguistic awareness and print knowledge when introduced in the intervention classroom. Participants were four year-olds. Children participated in an interactive book reading programme in small
group dialogic reading, three to four times a week and in one to one reading at home where they read the same text. The results indicated that the children’s language abilities could be increased by means of conscientiously applied programme of interactive book reading at school and at home. The ability to identify first letter and first sound of words showed significant effects. This study showed that dialogic reading helped children to be active participants in shared picture book reading rather than passive listeners.

To demonstrate the significance of intervention, Carrol (2011) conducted a study in Cape Town. Two schools in high poverty communities were involved. The medium of instruction was English which was a second language to the majority of learners. Children in both schools were tested in February in Grade one. The results showed that children in these two contexts had limited exposure to letter sound in the year before beginning formal school. An intervention programme was implemented to assist the children. The teachers were involved. The intervention programme included a qualified English speaking teacher and an isiXhosa speaking teaching assistant. The study results showed that learners who received letter knowledge in the intervention programme were significantly better than the average group who only received classroom teaching of letter knowledge. The results also indicated that children who had good letter knowledge in the beginning of Grade One were those who had good word reading and spelling scores at the end of Grade One (Carrol 2011). The study results suggest that early intervention plays a crucial role for literacy development, and that if the child acquires strong literacy skills from Grade R, he or she is likely to progress well in Grade One. Therefore, to enhance learners’ literacy the intervention programme should begin from Grade R.

According to Justice and Pullen (2003) an intervention programme is guided by certain principles. The intervention activities should address both written language awareness and phonological awareness. Written language awareness refers to alphabet features, alphabet names, book handling, concept and word in print, environmental print, print concept, print function, print term and writing (Justice and Pullen 2003). Phonological awareness refers to alteration which is the recognition of common sounds across the words in initial, medial and final position. The blending combines smaller oral language to larger units, for example, “f-r-o-g” to “frog” (Justice and Pullen 2003). The phoneme identity refers to a particular phoneme in a word, for example, monkey starts with “m”. The rhyme awareness produces rhyme segments by breaking larger oral language units into smaller units, for example,
“monkey” to “m-o-n-k-e-y”. The syllable awareness recognizes the syllable boundaries in spoken language (Justice and Pullen 2003).

The other activities engage learners in child centered, contextualized and meaningful literal activities which provide regular structured opportunities for teacher directed, explicit exposure to key literally concepts (Justice and Pullen 2003). The other practice should be evidence-based. Evidence-based refers to the use of intervention strategies and procedures that have been rigorously studied to demonstrate efficacy or effectiveness with a specific or generalized population (Justice and Pullen 2003). Intervention activities delivered to young children should effectively and efficiently increase emergent literacy knowledge.

In addition, Smith, Elkins, Gunn (2011:135) suggest that effective learning support falls into three categories of school, namely leadership, network and support. Effective learning support represents the balance of the three categories which in the end ensures positive outcomes for the learners and their families. The leadership category provides the motivation for learning support and for strategic decision-making about how support will be enacted in the school. So, the role of the school principal is to ensure appropriate curriculum development of the intervention programme. Strong leadership is crucial to initiate the learning support programme and to ensure its effectiveness across the years of schooling (Smith, et al., 2011:135). This implies that it is the responsibility of the school principal to initiate a programme that will assist struggling learners to make sure that an appropriate curriculum is implemented.

The second category is network. This category assumes that the implementation of learning support plans within a school relies on the network of people. The decision should be about how support will be provided to learners, who will provide the support and what support programme is to be implemented. The specialist, classroom teacher, parent and family members have a significant role in supporting learners with learning difficulties (Smith, et al. 2011:135). So, this programme depends on the clarity on communication between members of the networks identified and the gathering and dissemination of information as frequently as possible. There is also a need for regular evidence-based reviews of progress and shared decision-making of any changes in the support programme.

Lastly, the support category involves targeted instructions which are based on a variety of contexts that may include withdrawal from classroom, and class support with a special

These categories imply that team work could support children’s development. The literacy intervention teacher needs to involve parents, the classroom teacher and the school management in order to promote literacy skills of struggling learners.

As discussed above, literacy is not just a skill of reading and writing, but one applies these skills for certain purposes in specific contexts. Kingsten, et al. (1988:221) believe that in order for intervention to be successful, it should start by locating the problem jointly at the level of society at large, and in consultation with specific individuals. Therefore, teachers should look at the challenges of the society, and involve parents. The culturally responsive intervention emphasizes that teachers and parents need to understand the way each defines, values and uses literacy as part of cultural practice (Wiley 1996).

Wiley (1996) proposes three courses of actions that are suggested in working with learners and families. These actions are accommodation, incorporation and adaption. Accommodation requires teachers, supervisors, personnel officers and gate keepers to have a better understanding of the communicative styles and literacy practices among their learners and account for these instructions. Incorporation requires researchers to study community practices that have been valued previously by school and incorporate them in the curriculum. The adaption claims that children and adults must learn to match or measure the norms of those who control the school, institution or workplace (Wiley 1996). This shows that the society has an influence on the child’s development and it has to intervene in the child’s learning.

The literacy intervention programme is significant in the Foundation Phase. Wyse, Andrews and Hoffman (2010:11) claim that the most significant achievement in primary grades is the ability to read and write in one’s home language because it is the gateway for continued learning. Learners need to acquire motivation to learn to read, to monitor and construct meaning from texts, to use reading instrumentally for various purposes and to read for pleasure and enjoyment. According to Lane (2010) 1% of school children are learners who are at risk for Emotional and Behavioural Disorder (EBD). When learners have this kind of behaviour, they often experience problems in the acquisition of early literacy skills. This supports the need for literacy intervention because it is the only strategy that could assist struggling learners.
This study focuses on literacy intervention by Grade One learners receive support to develop literacy skills of reading and writing in their home language. According to Shapiro and Clemens (2009) if struggling learners are referred to literacy intervention classrooms, the number of learners at risk of academic failure could decrease. This study seeks to understand how teachers support struggling learners. In other words, it investigates the strategies used by teachers to support Grade One learners who have been identified as “at risk” learners with regard to literacy learning. The next section describes the intervention models that can inform literacy intervention implementation.

2.6.2 INTERVENTION MODELS

2.6.2.1 EMBEDDED EXPLICIT MODEL

There are different intervention models that support literacy teaching and learning. An intervention programme can be individualized or it can target a group of learners. Justice and Kaderavek (2004) suggest the embedded-explicit model of emergent literacy intervention. This model emphasizes the use of multiple intervention strategies to ensure that a child at risk attains critical emergent literacy skills for successful transition from pre-readers to readers. The embedded-explicit approach emphasizes the unique value of children’s self-initiated, natural and contextual interaction, with oral and written language. It emphasizes the role of adults as facilitators of children’s learning and the influence of social interaction (Justice and Kaderavek, 2004). This model suggests that emergent literacy intervention could improve if there is interaction with contextualized print in the environment. It can scaffold exchanges with the oral and written language of a story. For example, if play centers could be infused with literacy materials, children could acquire better literacy skills.

Furthermore, the embedded explicit-approach emphasizes the importance of direct instruction for the development of discrete (reading and writing) skills. This approach operates from the view that at risk children and those with oral language problems require systematic and exposure to cognitively challenging situations in order to acquire concepts and skills. The goal of the explicit approach is to bring aspects of language and literacy to a metalinguistic level. Phonological awareness is the central focus of the embedded-explicit model. It goes beyond phonological awareness to include print concepts, alphabetic knowledge, early writing and other forms of literacy (Justice and Kaderavek, 2004).
According to Justice, Chow, Chapellini, Flanigan and Colton (2003) engaging learners in explicit instructional activities is the most effective route to literacy skills development. A study was conducted with four-year olds experiencing multiple risk factors where the majority of children had difficulties in oral language development. These children were residing in low socio-economic community and attended at risk pre-school. The purpose of the study was to determine the relative efficacy of an experimental explicit approach to emergent literacy intervention in which children participated in structured activities designed to promote their skills in targeted areas, such as written language and phonological awareness. The results indicated significant gains in emergent literacy knowledge over the entire 12-week intervention programme. The growth was significantly greater during the experimental explicit intervention programme, compared to the comparison programme. The results also showed that oral language skills and better predict emergent literacy performance at the end of the programme.

Glynn, Wearmouth and Berryman (2005:69) propose three approaches to literacy intervention which are part of the embedded explicit-model namely the bottom-up, the top-down and the interactive approaches. In the bottom-up approach, children must first learn letters of the alphabet, establish the principle of symbol to sound identification and apply this order to decode words (Glynn, Wearmouth and Berryman 2005:69). In other words, the bottom-up approach emphasizes the mastery of phonics and word recognition. In the bottom-up approach the teacher uses explicit instructions in phonics and spelling (Grabe 1991). The teacher believes that if learners could master the letters of alphabet they will be able to recognize it in the text and become fluent readers.

According to Grabe (1991) in top-down approach the learner’s prior knowledge is activated because it enhances learning and enhances reading comprehension. This approach uses whole language teaching approach. The reader focuses on context and makes meaning of the reading text. Goodman (1986) in Glynn, Wearmouth and Berryman (2005:69) views the top-down approach in reading as a means of active construction of meaning. The strategies that the mind uses for making sense of print are psycholinguistic because thought and language continuously interact in this process (Glynn et al., 2005:69). Finally, the interactive approach claims that children process information from top-down and from bottom-up. In other words, it combines the two approaches mentioned above. The children use information simultaneously from different levels, and do not necessarily begin by either graphic (bottom-up) or context (top-down) level. In the interactive approach, three processes interact, namely,
sound, sight and meaning. Grabe (1991) claims that interaction between the text and the reader is inseparable. When the reader reads the text, the reader is in the centre whereby the reader’s prior knowledge and the textual reading interact. In short, the bottom-up approach focuses on phonics while the top-down and interactive approaches focus on the whole language development.

2.6.2.2 COMPREHENSIVE INTERVENTION MODEL

Dorn and Schubert (2008) suggest a Comprehensive Intervention Model (CIM) which is a systemic design for increasing literacy achievement of struggling readers. This model has four components. The first component includes a core classroom programme with differentiated group instructions where the teacher provides support to the lowest achieving group. It is similar to the baseline assessment which is done at the beginning of each grade in South Africa. The teacher assesses and identifies different groups in the classroom according to performance. Then the teacher develops teaching strategies and activities for these heterogeneous learners and provides support to the lowest performing group.

The second component comprises a small group intensity that relates to group size and expertise. The time spent on each group depends on the learners’ needs. Thirdly, there is individualized intervention and the last component is about special education which involves a referral process (Dorn and Schubert 2008).

The above intervention models illustrate that learners could be referred to the literacy intervention to increase their literacy achievement. The explicit embedded model claims that the direct instructions are important. These models are relevant to the study because they enabled me to analyze and understand the model that underpinned the teacher’s literacy instruction in the Grade one intervention class.

2.7 RELATED INTERNATIONAL STUDIES

Both International and South African studies on literacy intervention programmes show better learners’ performance at the end of the programme. For example, a literacy intervention programme in Santiago in the United States of America (USA) showed that learners achieved better scores than before the intervention (Bravo, Razmil and Swarts, 2005). An Aprendizaje Initial de la Lectura, la Escritura y lasMatematicus (AILEM which means Early Learning in Reading, Writing and Mathematics was developed to improve
classroom instruction and to increase learning achievements in USA (Bravo, Razmil and Swarts, 2005). The AILEM programme was allocated to schools which did not improve their literacy performance despite the additional support received within the educational system. The participants were kindergarten and Grade one learners and teachers. Before the AILEM intervention programme, the majority of kindergarten children were in the lowest level of achievement and the first grade literacy learning outcomes were below 60%. The results of the programme showed a significant improvement during the school year of AILEM implementation. After the AILEM intervention programme, more than 60% of the learners reached good achievement levels, and 30% of the learners performed at the expected level at the end of Grade One.

The Reading to Learn (RTL) intervention programme was developed in Australia with an aim to improve reading skills among learners who were behind their grade level. Another RTL was implemented by the Aga Khan Foundation (AKF) in Uganda and Kenya and it was monitored (Lucas, McEwan, Ngware and Oketch, 2012). The intervention programme followed a five step “scaffolding” approach. The results of the RTL were positive in both countries as they showed that early grade literacy had improved. In Uganda early-grade literacy scores were higher than in Kenya because learners were taught and assessed in their mother tongue (in Lango), whereas the language of instruction in Kenya was English (Lucas, et al., 2012).

Ashdow and Simic (2000) conducted research to investigate whether Reading Recovery (RR) was effective as an instructional intervention for English language learners and whether it reduced inequalities in academic achievement between native and non-native speakers in monolingual English classrooms. According to Rock and Hotel (2013) RR is a one-to-one literacy intervention for Grade one learners who fall in the lowest quarter of their class and have difficulties in reading and writing. In Ashdow and Simic study, the RR targeted the lowest performing first grade learners who were learning in their second language (English). The study findings showed that children who were selected for Reading Recover had higher scores than children who were not selected. The Reading Recovery was an effective intervention programme that aimed to close the achievement gap between native and non-native speakers of English. Ashdow and Simic (2000) research findings demonstrated that with RR, the achievement gap could be closed.
Rock and Hotel (2013) suggest that teachers who assist learners in RR should be trained in different teaching strategies to accelerate learners learning so that the achievement gap could be closed and start to make average progress. Once the child is able to read and write at the average achievement he or she should discontinue with the programme and another child can enter (Rock and Hotel 2013).

In the United States, Swart and Nathanson (2011) conducted a study to examine whether a classroom teacher intervention programme for struggling readers would help kindergarten and first Grade children. The results indicated that after an individualized intervention, there was significant improvement. This study showed that if classroom teachers are trained to facilitate struggling learners, the learners’ academic literacy skills could improve. In this study teachers had one-to-one intervention for 15 minutes, four times a week. This intervention strategy showed that individual attention helped to have a better understanding of a child because each child has a unique way of learning. A continuous teacher development programme for intervention was a good support to the teacher.

The individualized literacy intervention programme by Swart and Nathanson (2011) indicated that each child had a unique learning style because the lessons were carried out according to each child’s competences. This was an effective intervention because it considered the fact that learners identified as at risk of reading and writing, may not necessarily have the same learning style. The individualized literacy intervention could be one of the important literacy intervention strategies because it provides a face-to-face interaction whereby the teacher’s input could enhance the child’s Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) which will be discussed at length in the following section. However, the group literacy intervention could be a problem if the teacher uses one strategy for all learners; but individualized intervention accommodates heterogeneous learning abilities.

Another study was conducted by Dubeck, Mathew and Okello (2012) in Kenya in one of the poorest districts. The objective of the research was to understand literacy instruction in early primary classrooms. The results of the study showed that oral language was significant for early literacy development.

Research conducted in California for school readiness initiative programmes indicated that if learners learn in their second language (English) have limited English proficiency when they enter school, these children will always lag behind their peers in the acquisition of literacy (Sri 2005). The study recommended that the curricula should develop literacy skills by
focusing on phonological awareness and build vocabulary and critical thinking skills. The classrooms should be print rich in both primary and secondary languages of children. Oral language is recognized as one of the important strategies to promote literacy and this could be done through dramatic play, questioning, songs, stories, students’ summaries and conversations between adults and children. Parents too can be used as volunteers to enrich the learner’s language abilities. They can be provided with books and other literacy materials in their home language.

Blachman, Tangel, Ball, Black and McGraw (1999) conducted a two year intervention programme among low-income children in New York. The purpose of the study was to develop and evaluate a two-stage intervention programme which was delivered in a mainstream classroom by kindergarten, first and second grade teachers. The children were selected during the year of kindergarten in a large urban district of New York from five schools with the lowest achievement scores in reading on standardized texts. Treatment and control group children attended different schools so that the control group could not be exposed to the treatment activities. The results of this study showed that the treatment group outperformed the control group in terms of phonological awareness. They also performed well in letter name and letter sound knowledge. They could read phonetically regular real words and they could spell words correctly. The good performance was experienced across the three groups, i.e. from kindergarten to Grade 2. As a result, only few learners continued with the intervention programme at the end of Grade 2. The study results imply that an intervention programme can be successful if it is well managed and proper support is given to teachers through training.

Research conducted by Ziolkowska (2007) showed that the classroom teacher could assist struggling readers and writers without referring them to the intervention class. The study was conducted in Pennsylvania elementary school. The aim of the study was to explore the process of how one classroom teacher, in the role of teacher researcher, worked with Grade one learners. The teacher implemented 30 minutes guided reading instructions daily with a small group of struggling readers. The results indicated that introducing difficult words before the story helped learners. The class teacher discovered that working intensively with struggling readers and writers as soon as reading and writing problems emerged helped learners to make tremendous progress throughout the school year. This study indicated that class teachers could improve learners reading and writing skills if they plan their intervention
strategies as soon as they identify learners at risk of reading and writing. This study highlighted that class teachers too could assist their struggling learners. It is important to let the learners know what they are good at the end of each lesson. However, the teacher in Pennsylvania had a reasonable number of learners and she was able to assist struggling learners in her class without interruptions. The teacher had 24 learners and literacy intervention was implemented regularly. This suggests that the number of learners in the intervention class is important. In many South African classrooms, particularly in disadvantaged environments, large classes remain a challenge as some teachers may teach 40 – 50 learners in a class. These studies presented above, highlight that the purpose of literacy intervention is to assist struggling learners until they are able to read and write. The parents send their children to schools so that teachers could assist them in reading and writing. All the above international studies inform this study about the purpose of literacy intervention in schools and how to assist struggling readers and writers until they are able to read at grade level. Even though the studies were conducted in different contexts, they dealt with similar issues as many South African FP learners struggle with reading and writing. The literacy intervention programme on which this study was based targeted low-performing learners in isiXhosa. The following section presents research on literacy intervention which was conducted in South Africa.

2.8 RELATED SOUTH AFRICAN STUDIES

In South Africa, many research studies have been conducted on literacy intervention programmes with English second language learners. For example, a study conducted in KwaZulu Natal by Naidoo, Reddy, and Dorasammy (2014) looked at how English second language learners had reading difficulties in the Intermediate Phase (Grades 4 – 6).

Pretorius and Currin (2009) conducted a longitudinal study in a poor multilingual primary school in a township in Pretoria which looked at Grade 7 learners’ reading levels in Northern Sotho (NS) and English from 2005 to 2007. The aim of the intervention programme was to develop sound reading skills in order to improve the overall language and academic performance of the learners at the school. In the beginning of the intervention, the reading levels of the school were 30%. The aim of the intervention was to raise the Grade 7 learners’ comprehension level to a mean of 50%. By the end of 2007, the English reading average had moved up to 47%. The results demonstrated that the weak learners showed little improvement from the intervention programme while good readers showed good academic achievement
before and after the intervention programme. The intervention results suggest that even though children may start off poorly, they can improve their reading skills if they are given opportunities to read more often. This suggests that the intervention programme should focus more on weaker learners.

To observe the relationship between phonological skills and reading in emergent bilingual Northern Sotho and English, an investigation was conducted in a suburb on the outskirts of Pretoria by Wilsenach (2013). The aim of the intervention programme was to improve overall language and academic performance of the learners at the school. The pre-test results demonstrated that the average reading comprehension scores of learners were low in both NS and English. In contrast, the post-test results showed that reading performance in NS tended to be more static during the three years; it showed very little change from year to year. On the other hand, it showed some increase each year in English. The results of the intervention programme suggest that learners can improve in both home and school languages, if given time opportunities to read more often. The intervention programme report also showed that learners who were poor readers in one language were also poor in both languages. Learners in the achieved and outstanding categories tended to perform slightly higher in reading each year because of intervention programme.

A literacy intervention programme which was implemented in one secondary school in Mpumalanga by Joebert, Ebersonhn, Ferreira, du Plessis, & Moen, (2013) had positive results. The school medium of instruction was English, which was the second language of teachers and learners. The learners in this school struggled with reading, writing and speaking English. Teachers were not trained to teach reading skills. There was lack of resources and there were limited reading materials available to children. The literacy intervention programme provided teachers with necessary literacy training in order to assist children. A basic phonetic programme was used in this intervention programme to encourage both teachers and learners to start reading and experience reading as an enjoyable activity. The results demonstrated that after the literacy intervention programme, teachers expressed confidence in their abilities to teach how to read, and were able to implement literacy intervention activities such as homework exercises. Teachers reported that the learner’s academic achievement with regard to their reading confidence and the ability to read with understanding had improved.
One of literacy intervention programmes was conducted by Anthonissen, and Southwood (2010) in the Southern Cape and Karoo of the Western Cape. The aim of the study was to prevent reading literacy difficulties in high risk population. There was a Bridging Programme for English second language learners to Accelerate Reading Development Skills (BEAR programme) which aimed at closing the gap between English second language learners and their L1 peers. The BEAR programme was based on evidence-based principle and oral language. The findings of the study demonstrated that English L1 learners did not perform better than English L2 learners. However, L1 performed better on word definition and narrative ability. On the other hand, the English L2 learners did well on word definition and on rhyme production. The results also indicated that learners from high socio-economic status performed better than their peers from disadvantaged backgrounds.

To observe the relationship between phonological skills and reading in emergent bilingual Northern Sotho and English, an investigation was conducted in a suburb on the outskirts of Pretoria by Wilsenach (2013). Learners were chosen from two schools. Group 1 in the study was from a school where Northern Sotho was the medium of instruction from Grade R-3, and English was taught as subject and Language of Learning and Teaching (LOLT) after Grade 3. Group 2 was from a school where English was the medium of instruction from Grade R onwards. In both schools, there were libraries and teachers attended workshops that aimed at developing their literacy teaching skills. The research results indicated that participants from both groups had comparable Phonological Working Memory (PWM). Group 1 performed significantly better on phonological awareness task than Group 2. In reading, Group 1 performed significantly better in the Northern Sotho word recognition task and in fluent reading than Group 2. Even in English, Group 1 outperformed Group 2 in both word recognition and fluent reading. These results indicate the significance of the learner’s home language for literacy development because Group 1 who outperformed Group 2 had good foundation of reading and writing in the first language.

All the above literacy intervention programme studies demonstrate that teachers should implement good teaching strategies that develop reading skills, phonemic awareness, letter sound knowledge, etc. For example, the intervention programmes in New York, Chile and in South Africa show that effective intervention programmes could improve literacy skills. Some of the studies reveal that teacher’s reading teaching strategies had an impact on literacy instruction. Parental involvement is also crucial in literacy development and parents need to be trained on how to contribute to literacy development of their children. Most intervention
programmes demonstrated that teacher development is necessary to develop literacy instruction of practice.

All the reviewed studies also illustrate that early literacy intervention from primary school could improve the children’s academic achievement in higher grades. Print rich classrooms and homes can be used as vital resources to develop young learner’s literacy skills.

My research looked at the teaching strategies which were used in a literacy intervention classroom in one of Western Cape primary schools where the Language of Teaching and Learning (LoLT) was isiXhosa. As indicated in Chapter One, my concern was that in each school in the Western Cape there are literacy intervention programmes which cater for learners with reading difficulties. However, there seems to be no significant improvement with regard to learners’ literacy performance, particularly in the Foundation Phase in many South African schools, especially in township and rural schools.

2.9 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This study followed a sociocultural view of literacy intervention. This view is discussed in relation to apprenticeship, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), mediation and scaffolding. In this study, intervention is regarded as a component of teaching and learning which involves face-to-face interaction which takes place between the one who has less knowledge (learners) and the more knowledgeable one (Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana 2006:72). The teacher acts as a mediator to help learners to reach new levels of understanding. According to Donald et al. (2006:86) in the process of scaffolding the mediator initially models key knowledge structures and strategies for the learners.

Rock and Hotel (2013) claim that interactive reading within guided reading and intervention provides teachers with an opportunity to build learners’ background knowledge and expand their language system for reading and comprehending complex text. Comprehensible input could be achieved if the teacher uses pictures, gestures and written text in order to help the child learn a language. Donald et al. (2006:113) claim that one of the dimensions of scaffolding is apprenticeship which is discussed below.
2.9.1 APPRENTICESHIP

Apprenticeship occurs in all social contexts and schools can make more use of school-community linkages to promote it (Donald et. al, 2006:113). Apprenticeship includes participation in any culturally organized activity such as other kinds of work, schooling and family relations. It focuses attention on the specific nature of the activity involved, as well as on its relation to practices and institution of the community where it occurs (Rogoff 1990). Rogoff (1990) claims that apprenticeship learning is a shared problem solving between an active learner and a more skilled partner. The learner in an apprenticeship needs more knowledge and help, but the learner is not passive but is actively engaged in the learning process.

In literacy development, apprenticeship may involve any reading situation where a learner is in close contact with someone who has mastered a craft, knowledge area or set of procedures (e.g. the teacher). Once learners grasp the essentials of what the teacher is scaffolding, they need to practice, adapt and refine their understanding. The What Works Clearinghouse Report (2010) claims that the role of reading apprenticeship is to improve learners’ reading skills by having them learn how to closely examine both their own reading strategies and processes and those of their teacher and fellow students.

According to Rock and Hotel (2013) an apprenticeship approach to literacy emphasizes the role of a teacher to provide clear demonstration, to engage learners in active problem solving, monitor learners’ understanding, provide adjustable scaffolds and ultimately withdraw support when the learner gains independence. In a cognitive apprenticeship approach the teacher considers the mediating influence of the social situation to help the child develop conscious awareness of specific knowledge (Dorn, et al 1998:5). The teacher is aware that to develop cognitive skills of learners, social interaction plays a crucial role because problem solving skills do not exist in isolation. The apprenticeship approach emphasizes the importance of explicit demonstrations, active engagement and to guide the learners’ literacy development to a higher level. The goal of apprenticeship is to assist learners to develop learning skills. The more knowledgeable demonstrations should be clear and the learners should be active participants until they are able to work on their own. The teachers’ role is to demonstrate and use resources that will support and accelerate academic achievement of a learner until he or she is at an appropriate average of grade level. Apprenticeship illustrates the significance of social interaction in the literacy intervention programme. This informs this
study because my purpose of investigation was to discover how interaction during the lesson took place and how resources were used to support learning. In the literacy intervention the teacher was the more knowledgeable individual and the aim of intervention was to assist learners until they were able to read and write independently.

Collins et al. (in Dorn, French and Jones 1998:16) claim that learners acquire cognitive and metacognitive processes through assisted instruction with a sensitive and knowledgeable adult. This illustrates that the expert in the literacy intervention programme could help struggling readers and writers until they are able to use their cognitive skills without assistance. According to Silliman and Wilkinson (2004:201) a cognitive apprenticeship approach is the one which interaction between experts and the novices support the movement of the novices toward expert and the learning continuum. Similarly, Rogoff (1990:15) defines cognitive apprenticeship approach as an instrumental model which teachers use to organize the learning environment and an approach that helps the teacher to see the processes involved in complex learning activities.

Cognitive apprenticeship allows all learners; from struggling learners to the most capable learners (Rogoff 1990:17). Apprenticeship occurs through guided participation in social activity with companions who support and stretch children’s understanding of a skill in using the tools of culture. Silliman and Wilkinson (2004:201) propose four features that inform the apprenticeship model. The first feature is the situated language activity. Language and discourse are important ways for acquisition and thought in all disciplinary subjects valued in schools. Situated language activity involves acquisition of language in authentic contexts. All teachers should be viewed as language and literacy educators and their responsibility is to provide learners with the language associated with comprehending, communicating and composing meaning. General and remedial teacher must apprentice learners into the language of thought, expression, comprehension and oral (Silliman and Wilkinson 2004:201).

The second feature of apprenticeship is to make transparent the invisible. The social interaction with adults and peers, combine with the provision of mediation tools that support psychological performance. The third feature is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Teachers should simultaneously step in to provide support and scaffold for skills that are beyond the child’s ability and sit back to transfer control to learners when they grasped the skill (Silliman and Wilkinson 2004:204).
In apprenticeship the teacher’s language is critical for guiding successful experience that shapes higher levels of understanding (Dorn, et al., 1998:20). During shared writing and interactive writing, the teacher’s language exposes learners to educational concepts that are used during literacy activities and help learners to understand how the concept relates to the reading and writing experiences. So, apprenticeship is about support in learning. It is relevant in any intervention programme as learners have to be supported to reach higher levels of learning. In this study, the concepts of mediation and scaffolding or apprenticeship and ZPD will be useful to understand the literacy teaching strategies used by teachers and the support that is given to the Grade one learners who are in the literacy intervention programme.

2.9.2 ZONE OF PROXIMAL DEVELOPMENT (ZPD)

According to Freeman and Freeman (1994:57) learning will take place if instructions occur in the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). Dorn, French and Jones (1998:4) define the ZPD as the level of development where the child could read with assistance. The level of understanding occurs as a result of support. For example, a learner can finish tasks or understand only through support from a more knowledgeable person. This helps the child to move independently. Donald, et al. (2006:59) strengthen the above view by claiming that the ZPD is the critical space between where a child cannot quite understand something on her own, but has the potential to do so, through proximal interaction with another person. The output is where the individual is competent in the language. It could be a parent, peer, teacher or other mentor who helps the learner to think forward into that space. For example, the learner comes to school with knowledge from experience outside the school and the teacher adds new information. The learner does not simple take in what is presented but actively interacts with it in the ZPD to construct his or her own meaning (Donald, et al. 2006:59). The learner connects the new information or knowledge to existing knowledge through teacher support.

Dorn, French and Jones (1998:16) claim that the teacher observes what the child knows and uses language to build bridges that help learners to use their prior knowledge to acquire new information. So, the learners’ home language is the valuable tool that assists teachers in the classroom. Dorn, et al. (1998:16) support this by claiming that it is only language that helps learners when they combine their background knowledge to new knowledge. The teacher
facilitates learning until the learner reaches the ZPD. Dorn, et al. (1998:1) claim that print rich classrooms are not necessarily help struggling readers. There is a need for teachers to be knowledgeable about the literacy process and provide learners with constructive reading and writing opportunities that guarantee their right to literacy. In an intervention programme, the teacher identifies learners with reading and writing difficulties and decides which resources and teaching strategies could be effective in his/her classroom. It is vital that the teacher understands the differences between individual learners in the class and their learning styles.

Dorn, et al. (1998:5) proposes that through the ZPD the teachers should value the ups and downs of new learning and be able to adjust support that accommodates this learning. Therefore, teachers need to observe what the child is able to do and strive to assist what the child struggles to do. For example, if the child understands the sounds but he or she is unable to match sounds and vowels, the teacher has to assist in matching and reading the sound with a vowel. Dorn, et al. (1998:5) proposed four stages in the ZPD. In the first stage the child requires a great deal of support to complete a task. The teacher constantly adjusts support to ensure that the learner is successful. The second stage is where the learner displays his or her capacity to assist his/her own learning. Through repeated practice the learner’s knowledge becomes more automatic. This demonstrates that for literacy intervention to be successful, the learners needs support daily and repeat the activity until they are able to work independently. For example, in this stage, the child may be able to match the vowel and a sound but only needs assistance in reading aloud; or the child may be able to read and write a sentence but needs to understand that a sentence begins with a capital letter and ends with a full stop.

In stage three, assistance from more knowledgeable is no longer needed. The learner is able to read and write fluently for varied purposes. In stage four, an internalized behaviour can be disrupted by variety of influences, such as environmental changes, new cognitive demands or physical trauma. When this occurs the teacher should guide the learner back to ZPD by providing the necessary levels of support to regain automatization (Dorn, et al. 1998:5). All the four stages of ZPD illustrate the importance of observation. If the teacher is not observant he or she will not know which resources are suitable for each child. These stages demonstrate the significance of individualized intervention strategy because learners in one intervention class may not be in the same stage of ZPD. So, ZPD is the difference between what an individual achieves by herself and what might be achieved when assisted. The ZPD
enables the learners to move further in their learning than they could have if working alone. The next section discusses scaffolding.

2.9.3 SCAFFOLDING
Scaffolding takes place within the ZPD. Dorn, et al. (1998:21) claim that during the ZPD, the teacher provides learners with varying degrees of support that enable the learner to finish a specific task. Scaffolding provides a temporary structure that enables the child to accomplish the action successfully (Dorn, et al., 1998:21). Silliman and Wilkinson (2004) suggest that in scaffolding teachers should consciously add and withdraw so that the learner completes the task.

Swain, Kinnear and Steinman (2011:26) suggest that scaffolding can also occur without classroom teacher. In this case, learner-learner interaction can be powerful. The teacher’s language seems to be a vital resource in the process of scaffolding. Rock and Hotel (2013) claim that teachers use language as a tool for scaffolding students’ performance on literacy tasks. Through explicit and intentional teaching, the teacher creates scaffolds that enable the child to complete difficult tasks with assistance. The level of support is determined by what the child is able to do (Dorn, et al., 1998:21). For example, learners in the Foundation Phase are taught in their HL which is also their teacher’s language. Rock and Hotel (2013) emphasize the teacher’s language as an important tool for literacy intervention. Therefore, this demonstrates that it is significant that schools choose a teacher that has competence in the learners’ home language to teach in the literacy intervention programmes.

According to the sociocultural theory learning takes place through social face interaction. Therefore, apprenticeship, ZPD, scaffolding and mediation support the sociocultural theory because to support struggling readers and writers is a social interaction. But in order for interaction to take place there should be a more knowledgeable person to assist the struggling learner. Both the ZPD and apprenticeship claim that when the more knowledgeable individual supports the learner, the learner becomes more actively involved in the process of learning. Therefore, the sociocultural theory is relevant to this study because it suggests interactive strategies that can be used to support learners. When the interaction takes place the teacher supports the learners to be able to read and write independently. So, this shows that the ZPD, apprenticeship, scaffolding and mediation are inseparable. In order to have an
effective literacy intervention programme, the four concepts should guide the teaching and learning process.

2.10 SUMMARY
This chapter discussed the concept of literacy. It defined literacy as a skill that goes beyond reading and writing only, but as a phenomenon which is life guided by the context. This chapter demonstrated that reading skills lay a good foundation for further knowledge while difficulty in reading from early grades impacts on future performance. This implies that there is a need for literacy intervention to assist struggling readers until they are able to read without support.

The autonomous literacy model strengthened the need to assist learners because it showed that literacy is an individual attribute. If an individual is unable to read, he or she will depend on oral language only. On the other hand, the ideological model demonstrated that literacy skills are acquired in social interaction and children acquire literacy skills before they begin schooling. The ideological model viewed literacy as a social practice.

The sociocultural theory demonstrated that literacy is a social practice which has to be mediated and scaffolded by a more knowledgeable person (i.e. the teacher). Thus this study investigated classroom interaction to determine how teachers mediated literacy learning in the intervention programme. Literacy skills are practiced at school, work place and in the community. The next chapter discusses the research methodology which was used in this study.
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

Silverman (2000:233) suggests that the purpose of a methodology chapter is to explain why the researcher has chosen certain methods for collecting data. The researcher describes the data he/she has studied, how he/she obtained the data, and claims he/she is making about the data. The researcher also describes why he/she has chosen those methods, how he/she analysed the data, the advantages and the limitations of using methods of data analysis (Silverman 2000:235). Therefore, this chapter will discuss the data collection methods which were used in this study. The next section discusses the research paradigm and design.

3.2. RESEARCH PARADIGM AND DESIGN

According to Goddard and Melville (1996:8) the purpose of research is to answer unanswered questions. Goddard and Melville (1996:8) claim that there are seven types of research namely, experimental research, creative research, descriptive research, historical research, Ex Post Facto research, action research and expository research. The experimental researcher is concerned with cause and effects, e.g. the science research (Goddard and Melville 1996:8). The creative research involves development of new theories, new procedures and new invention. It is used in all fields and it is both practical and theoretical (Goddard and Melville 1996:8).

The descriptive research or case-study is research in which a specific situation is studied, either to see if it gives rises to any general theories. According to Goddard and Melville (1996:9), in the Ex Post Facto research, the researcher exposes similar groups to different treatment to see the effects of the treatment. The researcher looks back at the effects and tries to deduce the causes from the effects. Action research is a research that has a specific goal of social change. The researcher is participatory and emancipatory in this kind of research (Goddard and Melville 1996). The expository research is based on existing information and normally results in review type reports (Goddard and Melville 1996:9). This shows that the expository research depends on existing information. There are two research paradigms which are used for collecting data: quantitative and qualitative research paradigm. Goertz and Mahoney (2012:17) define quantitative research as a design which draws from mathematical tools associated with statistics probability theory. Thomas (2003:11) claims that the researcher focuses on measurements and characteristics displayed by people and events that
the researcher studies. This shows that the researcher uses statistics to understand how people’s events in quantitative research.

Bamberger (2000:10) claims that quantitative research is a random selection of subjects so that each subject has an equal probability of selection, while in qualitative research the choice of sampling is determined by the purpose of study. In addition, Punch (2014: 206) suggests that quantitative research studies the relationship between variables by comparing groups, or by relating variables directly. The strategy is designed to achieve a certain comparison. It uses numbers to compare these groups.

On the other hand, qualitative methods involve describing kinds of characteristics of people and events without comparing events in terms of measurements of amounts. Thomas (2003:11) perceives qualitative research as a method that seeks to make sense of personal stories and ways in which they interact. Bamberger (2000:9) and Silverman (2001:25) claim that the purpose of qualitative research is exploratory. Its objective is to understand the context in which behaviour is determined and to develop hypothesis or to present case studies of particular groups or individuals. Qualitative research does not ignore the fact that there are contextual factors that make the particular individual to act in a certain way. It often uses informal or semi-structured interviews, direct observations, photographs, behaviour or unstructured interviews. It tends to use more open-ended questions that get at “why” and “how” underlying a phenomenon (Bamberger (2000:39). The next section explores the qualitative case study design which was appropriate for this study.

In this study, I used qualitative research methods in order to understand the context in which literacy intervention was implemented. It followed a descriptive qualitative research because its aim was to explore how literacy intervention was implemented with isiXhosa speaking learners. For example, it selected learners that participated in the intervention class and teachers that were involved to support these learners. It used open-ended questions in interviews and lesson observations in order to understand why and how the literacy intervention programme was implemented.

Yin (2009:26) defines a research design as a logical sequence that combines the empirical data from the initial questions to its conclusion. Yin (2009:26) adds that a research design is a logical strategy for getting information from here to there. This definition illustrates that it is a research design that helps the researcher to know where to start and end. So an empirical study needs a planned strategy that will assist the researcher to find answers about the
research problem. This study followed a planned strategy from the research problem and research questions to answers that are presented in chapters four and five.

This study aimed to investigate intervention strategies to support learners who did not perform at the expected level of literacy. According to Punch (2014:114) a research design situates the researcher in the empirical world and connects the research question to data. It is a basic plan for a piece of research. Punch (2014:114) claims that a “research design includes strategy, conceptual framework, questions of who or what will be studied and the tool and procedures to be used for collecting and analysing empirical materials”. Kumar’s (2014) definition of research design emphasizes that it is a road map that the researcher decides to follow during the research journey to find valid and objective answers to research questions. Therefore, the researcher needs to plan before conducting a study. He/she needs to have a strategy, conceptual framework, subjects and procedures to be followed to conduct a study.

The case study design involves using various sources of data of a small number of purposefully selected cases. According to Punch (2014: 115), in order to collect data in qualitative study the researcher uses a case study, ethnography and grounded theory. Qualitative research uses multiple sources of data (Punch 2014: 115).

A case study is a detailed explanation and analysis of a bound system (Meriam 2009:40). It answers broad research questions by providing the researcher with a systematic understanding of how the process develops in a case (Goddard and Melville 1996:3). Meriam (2009:41) recommends that for a research to be a case study, it should focus in one particular programme or particular classroom of learners. Aray, Jacobs and Sorensen (2009:29) claim that a case study is a type of ethnographic research that focuses in a single case, one individual, one organisation, one group or one programme. Meriam (2009:41) claims that the researcher chooses a case study because he or she is interested in insights rather than hypothesis testing. For example, my interest in this study was not to test a hypothesis about literacy intervention teaching strategies but to understand how the literacy intervention programme was implemented in the selected school.

Meriam (2009:43) claims that a case study is particularistic, descriptive and heuristic. It is particularistic because it focuses on a particular situation, event, programme and phenomenon. This makes a case study a good design for practical problems, questions and situations. A case study is descriptive as the end product is a rich and thick description of the phenomenon under study. It includes as many variables as possible to portray interaction over
a period of time. Meriam (2009:44) claims that case study descriptions can be creative as the research can use literary techniques to express the researcher’s perceptions of the case. According to Aray, Jacobs and Sorensen (2009:29) the researcher chooses a case study with an aim to arrive at a detailed description of understanding of the case. A case study is exploratory as it illuminates the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon being studied. The uniqueness of case study lies on the questions asked and their relationship to the product to reinforce generalization.

Meriam (2009:39) suggests that the researcher in a case study is the primary instrument of data collection and analysis to produce rich and descriptive research results. Meriam (2009:44-46) further claims that a case study differs from other qualitative research designs because a case study knowledge is more concrete, contextual, developed and based more on reference population determined by the reader. The knowledge is more concrete because it resonates with our own experiences and becomes more concrete than abstract. It is contextual because our experiences are rooted in the context of research (Meriam 2009:44-46). It is developed by the reader’s interpretation because the reader brings his/her own experiences and understanding which lead to generalisation if the new data for the case is added to old data.

Meriam (2009:47) adds that the qualitative case study has different types such as historical organisation case study, observational case study and life-histories case study. The historical case study focuses on the development of a particular organisation. The observational case study focuses on the particular organisation or some aspect of the organisation. The life history case study focuses on life history or biographical information. The researcher conducts extensive interviews with one person for the purpose of collecting a first person narrative (Meriam 2009:48). This study used an observational case study as it focused on a particular case in the school.

According to Simons (2009:43) a case study method uses interviews, observations and document analysis. Yin (2009:27) claims that a case study method is appropriate for why and how questions and the researcher have to clarify the nature of research questions before choosing the case study. The main questions of this study was to investigate how literacy intervention was implemented so that I could understand how Grade one isiXhosa-speaking learners with low literacy levels were supported.
A case study has its strength and limitations. According to Meriam (2009:51) a case study results in rich and holistic account of phenomena. It illuminates meaning that expands its readers’ experiences. It is an appealing design in the applied field of study such as educators, social workers, administrators’ health etc. However, a case study researcher may not have time or money to spend to collect data in order to arrive at the phenomenon. In addition, qualitative case studies are limited to the feelings and honesty of the investigator (Meriam 2009:51).

This study used a case-study and used observations, interviews and documents analysis to collect data. It used a case study because it was an appropriate method for answering the research questions. It focused on one school, and on the literacy intervention programme in the school where research was conducted. The next section presents the sample of the study in order to indicate how and why the research subjects or participants were selected.

3.3 SAMPLING

According to Silverman (2000:234) a qualitative researcher can work fruitfully with very small amounts of data. Purposive sampling allows the researcher to choose a case because it demonstrates some features which he/she is interested in. It demands the researcher to be critical about the population he/she is interested in (Silverman 2001:250).

For this study, purposive sampling was relevant. I collected data from people who were involved in the literacy intervention programme. I did not involve all the Grade one learners but only those who received support in the intervention class. Purposive sampling allowed me to investigate the implementation of the literacy intervention programme because it was the only way to find how low performing learners were supported at the schools.

Table B demonstrates the profiles of teachers who were selected for this study. I did not use the real name of teachers and learners in order to protect their identity as it is important to keep their information confidential.
**TABLE: B INTERVIEWED TEACHERS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>Language of Teaching and Learning</th>
<th>Designation</th>
<th>Highest qualification</th>
<th>Teaching experience</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kalo</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>IsiXhosa</td>
<td>IsiXhosa</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>BEd (Honours)</td>
<td>15 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pam</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>IsiXhosa</td>
<td>IsiXhosa</td>
<td>Foundation Phase Deputy Principal</td>
<td>Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE)</td>
<td>10 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nolizwi</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>IsiXhosa</td>
<td>IsiXhosa</td>
<td>Intervention class teacher</td>
<td>BEd (Honours)</td>
<td>35 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The school had seven Grades one classes but I selected only three classes (Grade 1(A), Grade 1(B) and Grade 1(C). The selected learners were in the literacy intervention programme. There were eighteen learners in total as I targeted a small sample that would be manageable to work with: seven in Grade 1(A), three in Grade 1(B) and eight in Grade 1(C). Tables C - E below illustrate the profiles of Grade one learners who participated in this study.

**TABLE C: GRADE1 (A) LEARNER PROFILES**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Home language</th>
<th>Other languages used at home</th>
<th>Attended Grade R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Milo</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kakasi</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emihle</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes (in English medium school)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asenathi</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samkelo</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hlumelo</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linathi</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simthandile</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masilakhe</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lumile</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE D: GRADE1 (B) LEARNER PROFILES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Home language</th>
<th>Other languages used at home</th>
<th>Attended Grade R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sizwe</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodwa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Repeat grade 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owethu</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE E: GRADE1 (C) LEARNER PROFILES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Home language</th>
<th>Other languages used at home</th>
<th>Attended Grade R</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abusiswa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busi</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sizwe</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muntuza</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Repeat grade 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alizwa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kulungile</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simelana</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owam</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the research ethics the names of the subjects should not be identifiable, so I used false or fictitious names of learners and teachers to avoid harming them physically and emotionally. The information is only for learners that returned signed consent letters from
their parents. The above tables demonstrate the learner’s home language, school medium of instruction in the Foundation Phase, Grade R attendance, their age and their academic performance which remained at the low performance level even after they attended literacy intervention in term one. My purpose for the above information was to discover all the possible factors that could have had an influence in the learners’ low performance. The following section discusses the research site to portray a picture of where the selected school was situated.

3.4 RESEARCH SITE

This study was conducted in a primary school (herein referred to as Sachuma) situated in Dunoon, a township close to the Table View suburb in the west coast of Cape Town. Dunoon is situated in the east of Table view and North of Killarney Gardens. This area is an overcrowded place. Dunoon is one of the disadvantaged townships of Cape Town. This becomes a problem as there are only three schools in this area: two primary schools and one high school. Every year, there children who need to be placed at school but they end up staying at home because schools are full.

As stated above, Sachuma Primary School is one of primary schools in a large disadvantaged township. Even though the majority of people spoke isiXhosa as their mother tongue, the township is now home to many different African language speakers from neighbouring African countries. Sachuma is a quintile one (non-fee paying) school that serves as a poor community. The school has feeding scheme. Learners from Grade R to seven are fed once a day.

This school was opened in 2008. At the time of the data collection, there were 36 educators and approximately 1495 learners in this school. This primary school starts from Grade R to Grade 7. There are three Grade R classes, seven Grade one classes and five Grade three classes. In the Intermediate Phase there are five Grade four classes, four Grade five classes and three Grade six classes. In the Senior Phase there are two Grade seven classes. The medium of instruction is isiXhosa in Foundation Phase and from Grade four to seven English becomes the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT). Teaching and learning takes place in containers. The majority of the learners come from informal settlements and the township is extremely over populated with high level of unemployment. This shows that the majority
of learners in this school came from disadvantaged homes. According to Warden (1968:128) a child that comes from an impoverished background has the same eager to learn and discover as other children. So, irrespective of the child’s background, all children are eager to learn. Strickland, Ganske and Morroe (2002) claim that children who are likely to be at risk of failure could be anywhere, especially from poorest community where teacher have overcrowded classroom. Even though learners of this school came from an impoverished area, but they had the same passion in education as learners from advantaged homes and areas. The majority of parents were unable to assist learners in their school work. This was a problem as learners only got support from their teachers at school only.

I chose this school because the Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in the Foundation Phase was isiXhosa. I wanted to investigate how isiXhosa speaking learners who struggled to read and write were assisted in the isiXhosa literacy intervention programme. It was a convenient for me to conduct a study in the school as I teach in the same school. The next section explains the data collection methods which were used in this study.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

As I mentioned earlier that qualitative research method was pertinent to this study, I gathered data by means of observations, interviews and document analysis. Below I explain how I used observations in collecting data for my study. For example, I also observed the literacy intervention lessons in the Grade one classroom. I interviewed the intervention class teacher, the Foundation Phase Deputy Principal and the school Principal. The next section explains how observations were conducted for the purpose of this study.

3.5.1 OBSERVATIONS

Kumar (2014) claims that “observation is a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction as it takes place”. This suggests that observation is empirical because it is a planned activity which has to take place in a setting and the observer needs to be there as the interaction occurs, not later. Simons (2009:55) suggests that there are reasons for researchers to choose observations as methods of collecting data. Firstly, observations allow the researchers to gain a comprehensive “picture” of the size, which cannot be obtained by speaking with people. Secondly, documenting observed incidents and events provides a rich description and a basis for further analysis. Thirdly, through observation the researcher can explore the norms and values which are part of situation’s
programmes, culture and subcultures. Fourthly, observations give a way of capturing the experience of those who are observed. Lastly, observation provides a cross check on data obtained in interviews (Simons 2009:55).

Similarly, Brenner, et al. (1985:119) claims that observation helps the researcher to have some knowledge of the context. Observation is a good technique to use when an activity or event can be observable. Observations are commonly used in case studies, ethnographies and in qualitative action research (Sharan, Merriam and Tidshell 2015:137). This implies that in all types of qualitative research observations are significant data collection methods. The above explanations demonstrate why this method was relevant for this study, i.e. to observe and understand the interaction that took place in literacy lessons that were prepared for intervention group of Grade one learners.

Observations and interviews are always used in qualitative research. Sharan, Merriam and Tidshell (2015:137) recommend that observations take place in a setting where the phenomenon of interest naturally occurs, rather than in the location designated for the interviews. For example, the researcher cannot observe lessons of literacy intervention in church, because the natural setting of literacy intervention is at school. However, interviews can be conducted in any setting as long the respondent provides relevant information to answer the research questions. Observations are first-hand encounter with a research phenomenon, while interviews are second hand account of the world obtained in an interview (Sharan, et al, 2015:137). I observed the literacy lessons and this gave me the opportunity to see everything that happened in the classroom.

There are two types of observations, namely participant and non-participant observations. According to Simons (2009:56) structured forms of observing are useful in context where a particular hypothesis is explored. My observations were structured because the aim of the study was to observe only the teaching strategies that were used by the literacy intervention teacher. Therefore, I predetermined the observation schedule. For this study I used the non-participant observation type because the purpose was to see how literacy intervention programme was implemented in the Grade One classroom, and not to assist in the implementation of the programme.

According to Silverman (2001:33) qualitative research is stronger on longer descriptive narratives than on statistical narrative. During lesson observations, I recorded using narrative recording. I recorded information using my own words. The advantage of narrative
observation is that it provides deeper insight into the interaction. However, I was aware of the disadvantage of narrative observation, because according to Kumar (2014), the observer may be biased because the interpretation and conclusions drawn from observation may also be biased. In the process of recording, part of interaction may be missed. While I was observing, I jotted down important notes that would assist me in data analysis.

According to Cargan (2007:143) observations are time consuming. An observation always takes place from a fixed position. Observing lessons was the only way for me to discover the teacher’s literacy intervention teaching strategies. In order for me to observe lessons, I had to wait for the time when my learners were in the library for an hour because there was no special intervention classroom in this school. The teacher used a library as a classroom. When my learners were in the library she came to my class and taught her learners from another Grade One in my class and I had the opportunity to observe the lesson

I observed nine lessons over a period of eight weeks. I observed three groups of learners who were in the intervention programme. As shown in Tables C – D above, the first group had ten learners, the second group had eight and the last group had nine learners. I observed only literacy intervention lessons which were taught by the same teacher to the three groups of learners.

In each lesson I observed the teacher’s teaching strategies, resources used and teacher–learner interaction. I observed three phonics lessons, three reading lessons and three reading and phonics lessons. I observed a lesson in each week and on the eighth week I observed two lessons. Each lesson took approximately forty minutes. I was a non-participant observer. During each lesson I used tape recorder to record all articulated information. I took pictures of the resources used in the lessons and I jotted down few notes to complement my observations.

3.5.2 INTERVIEWS

Dexter (1970:123) in Bell (2010:20) describes interviews as a conversation with a purpose. Meriam (2009:88) claims that the most common form of interviews is person-to-person where one person elicits information from another. The main aim of interview is to obtain special kind of information, not an unplanned conversation. Brenner, Brown & Canter (1985:151) claim that when the researcher uses interviews in research, the purpose of data collection must be to obtain information from questions. For example, the purpose of
interviews in this study was to obtain information about literacy intervention programme implementation and the extent to which the programme enhanced literacy skills in isiXhosa.

In addition, interviews are necessary as the researcher cannot observe behaviour, feelings or how people interpret the world around them (Brenner, et al 1985:151). Interviews are useful when the researcher conducts intensive case studies of few selected individuals (Brenner, et al 1985: 89). The interviewer must maintain a neutral stance. In other words, the interviewer must not express his/her personal views about the issue under consideration. For example, while I was interviewing the subjects, I listened to their views without expressing my perspectives about the issue.

Interviews allow both the interviewer and the interviewee to explore the meaning of the questions and answers involved. If there is any misunderstanding between both parties, they can check immediately (Brenner, et al. (1985:3). Similarly, Mellville and Goddar (1996:49) claim that interviews are useful more than questionnaires because the researcher is able to ask the respondents to explain unclear answers and follow up interesting answers. Interviews give the researcher an opportunity to get information from people who are unable to write rather than the questionnaire which can be answered only by those who are able to write (Mellville and Goddar 1996:49).

There are three types of interviews, namely, structured interviews, semi structured and unstructured interviews. In the structured interviews, the wording and the order of questions are predetermined (Brenner, et al. (1985:3). In semi structured interviews the largest part is guided by the list of questions or issues to be explored. Semi structured interviews allow the researcher to respond to the situation at hand and to new ideas on the topic. There are no predetermined questions. On the other hand, unstructured interviews are more like a conversation. The researcher uses it when he or she does not know enough about the phenomenon to ask relevant questions. Unstructured interviews can be used in qualitative research. The advantage of unstructured interview is that the researcher is free to ask whatever questions in a format that suits the situation (Kumar 2014).

I conducted formal interviews with three teachers, namely the literacy intervention teacher, the Foundation Phase Deputy Principal and the school principal. It was individual interviews. All the interviews took place at school. All interviews took place after working hours (after three o’clock). In all interviews I used a tape recorder to record the conversation and I
listened attentively while I wrote down some notes. All teachers were helpful during interviews as they allowed me to use their time.

Firstly, I interviewed the school principal. The interview was conducted in his office. It took about thirty minutes. We used English for the interview even though both of us spoke isiXhosa as our Home Language. The school principal’s interview covered the following questions:

- the principles underlying Grade one literacy intervention programme,
- constraints of the literacy intervention,
- the question about the number of teachers who had been trained for assisting struggling learners,
- the kind of measures which the school principal had to support educators that had no formal training on literacy intervention,
- the question on how often the Grade one teachers went for literacy intervention in-service training,
- the literacy challenges that the Foundation Phase teachers were faced and
- how the principals supported the teacher in the implementation of literacy intervention

Secondly I interviewed the Foundation Phase Deputy Principal. Again we used English for the interview even though we shared isiXhosa as our Home Language. The interview was in my classroom after working hours (after three o’clock). The interview took about thirty five minutes. The Foundation Phase Deputy Principal answered question on:

- Her understanding of the principles underlying Grade one literacy intervention programme, the question about the benefits of literacy intervention programme,
- the question about the literacy challenges that the school was faced with and
- how she supported the teachers in the implementation of literacy intervention programme.

Lastly, I interviewed the literacy intervention teacher in my classroom. We used isiXhosa for conversation. The interview took about fifty minutes. Her interview covered a number of questions such as:
Her understanding of literacy intervention,

- the benefits of literacy intervention programme,
- the approaches do she used in the literacy intervention class,
- the question on challenges she experienced as a literacy intervention teacher,
- the causes of such challenges,
- assistance she got from the SMT and the district office,
- the materials she used to promote literacy in isiXhosa Home Language,
- her thoughts about enhancing her teaching in the literacy intervention class.

Her responses helped me to get in-depth information which I needed in order to address of the questions posed by this study.

Brenner, et al. (1985:89) claim that there are three basic ways of recording interviews: tape recording, taking notes and writing down as much as the researcher can remember. The tape recorder ensures that everything said is preserved for analysis (Brenner, et al. (1985:109). Recording interviews allows the researcher an opportunity to listen for a way to improve his or her questioning technique. All the three basic ways of recording interviews were used in this study. Firstly, tape recording was used and while I was listening to the respondents, I wrote down some notes. The interviewees gave me permission to write the notes while I listened attentively their answers. Lastly, after every interview, I wrote down my reflection. However, I did not have time to write reflection immediately after the interview because I conducted interviews at school where I was working. After the interviews I had to do my duties. I wrote my reflections on the interviews at home.

Silverman (2001:161) maintains that the qualitative researcher has to use audio recorder because the researcher cannot depend on notes of conversations. It is also impossible to remember matters such as pauses, overlaps and in-breaths. Silverman (2001:162) claims that audio tapes have three advantages: they are a public record and can be replayed, transcripts can be improved and tapes can preserve the sequence of talk. Audio recording allows the researcher to check his/her recording skills. The researcher is also able to check data obtained from taking notes and data obtained from recording (Simons 2009:52).
However, recording is time consuming to the transcriber. Equipment can also fail, living you vulnerable to having no data at all if you are not taking notes. Another disadvantage is that the researcher cannot concentrate sufficiently in the interview or document the main issues in order to deepen questioning as the interview proceeds. In this study, I was able to check and compare data obtained from taking notes and from audio recordings.

3.5.3 DOCUMENT ANALYSIS

According to Aray, Jacobs and Sorensen (2009:29) document analysis focuses on analysing and interpreting recorded material. Document analysis is a relevant method for a case study to describe and enrich the context and contribute to analysis of issues (Simons 2009:63). The main purpose of keeping documents is to make sure that the researcher will be able to retrieve it for later inspection. The documents relevant to a case study are collected during data collection (Yin 2009:120). For this study, document analysis involved an examination of learners’ written work and their literacy assessment results.

It is important to use document in data collection because the researcher cannot be there in all places, at all times. So, the documents and records give access to information that would be otherwise unavailable (Mertens (1998: 389). I collected learners’ written work after each lesson. I selected work of learners whose parents signed the consent letters. I wanted to see how they performed in their literacy written activities after each lesson. I examined five tasks. I looked if they understood the instructions, and the letter taught in that particular lesson, for example, if they were able to recognise the letter, trace it, write and to read words, copy and write next to the correct picture that represents the word.

I also looked at their literacy assessment marks for term one before I conducted the study and term two marks after I had collected data. The literacy assessment focused on listening and speaking skills, phonics, reading, creative writing and hand writing. All these skills were developed in the literacy intervention class. For example, their handwriting skills were developed as they drew and wrote after each lesson I observed. I did not observe them while they were writing in their books, but I collected that information afterwards to see how they performed after each lesson.

3.6 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY

According to Silverman (200:75) validity is another word for truth. Merriam (2009:209) suggests that to ensure validity and reliability the qualitative researcher should conduct the
investigation in an ethical manner. I considered all ethical issues as I followed the ethical protocol of conducting a study at the school. All relevant stakeholders were informed about this research and I received permission to conduct it. Researcher needs to present a report with insights and conclusions that ring factual to the readers, practitioners and other researchers. So, the research report should be clear and realistic so that the readers can understand it in such a way that a theory can be constructed on it or further investigation can be applied based on the findings.

The findings of this study will be realistic in such a way that they will inform the readers if there is a need for further investigation. Brenner, et al. (1985:20) suggest that if the researcher wants to ensure validity and reliability in research, he or she must use qualitative research because it involves conducting investigation in a qualitative manner. The next section explains the ethical issues that are considered when conducting research.

3.7 ETHICAL ISSUES

Ethical issues help the researchers to understand the principles of conducting research. Bell (2010:160) suggests that before the researcher collects information, he or she must explain to the respondents what the research is about, why the researcher wishes to interview them, what will be involved and what the researcher will do with the information. This should be in written mode beforehand so that the respondent will have an opportunity to read and understand the purpose of the research (Bell 2010:160). In conducting this research, I gave all the respondents information sheets and where everything about the research was explained before collecting data and they signed consent letters as proof of agreement as shown in I wrote consent letters to learners’ parents. In the letters I requested for parents’ permission to sit in their children’s intervention lessons and observe how they interacted with the teacher and peers. I also asked to observe their written activities. The majority of parents signed the consent letters, so in this study I only present the written activity of learners whose parents signed.

All the subjects signed consent letters as proof that they agreed to participate in the study. All participants in this study received informed consent letters before data was collected. I sent informed consent to the WCED, to the school principal, the Foundation Phase Deputy Principal, the literacy intervention teacher and to the parents of learners who attended the literacy intervention class as shown in Appendix B. The consent form had information about the research and it was clear and they understood that participation was voluntary. The
WCED gave me permission to conduct my study at the school. The school Principal, the Foundation Phase deputy principal, and the literacy intervention teacher all agreed to participate in the study, but not all parents signed the consent letter. However, the majority of parents signed.

Mellville and Goddar (1996:49) claim that the researcher needs to avoid harming people when conducting a study. The researcher has to respect the participants as individuals and not subject them to unnecessary harm. He or she must guard against both emotional and physical harm. The subjects should not be identifiable to anyone reading the report (Mellville and Goddar 1996:49). For this study I used false name for the school, the teachers and the learners to protect their identity and to make sure that all readers of this report would not be able to recognize them. When I conducted the study, I was aware that the subjects were individual human beings and I treated them with respect. All collected data were kept safely and confidentially (Mellville and Goddar 1996:49).

3.8 SUMMARY

This chapter discussed how the study was conducted. It explained the research methodology so that the reader could have a picture of how data was collected. It explored the two research paradigms, the qualitative and the quantitative paradigm. It explained why the qualitative paradigm was relevant to this study. The study used observation, interviews and document analysis in order to find the answers to the research questions stated in the first chapter of this study. The next chapter deals with data presentation and data analysis.
CHAPTER FOUR: DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1. INTRODUCTION

As discussed in chapter three, the qualitative paradigm was an appropriate approach to understand how the literacy intervention programme was implemented in the selected school. In this chapter, I present data on how the literacy intervention programme was implemented with Grade one isiXhosa speaking learners. Firstly, I present data from lessons that I observed. Secondly, I present data from the interviews I conducted with the Grade one intervention teacher, the Foundation Phase deputy principal and the school principal. Lastly, I present data from documents, namely teacher resources, photos and learners’ written activities. The next section presents a phonics lesson that I observed.

4.2 DATA FROM OBSERVED LESSONS

4.2.1 LESSON 1: PHONICS LESSON

The first lesson that I observed with Grade 1 [C] was a phonics lesson. In all lessons learners were seated on the mat. Firstly, the teacher revised the work that was done in the previous term. The work was on these phonics: [l, s and m]. She showed learners the flash cards with the phonic chart below and learners pointed at it and named the phonics. But some of the learners were unable to identify the words.
FIGURE 1: Phonics chart of sounds taught in term one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>u</th>
<th>o</th>
<th>u</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>e</th>
<th>e</th>
<th>s</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>i</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>o</th>
<th>s</th>
<th>i</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
After the revision the teacher narrated story as indicated in table F below:

**TABLE F: LESSON 1A- PHONICS LESSON (Grade 1A)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Learner 1</th>
<th>Learner 2</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>All Learners said in chorus repeatedly</th>
<th>Learner said in chorus</th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>All Learners said in chorus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1 | Teacher | Kwakukho inkwenkwe egama layo linguVelile. Ngenye imini uVelile watshayiswa yiveni. Kwenzeka ntoni ebalini?  
There was a boy by the name of Velile. One day Velile was knocked by a van. What happened in the story? | UVelile watshayiswa yimoto.  
Velile was knocked by a car. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 | Learner 1 | UVelile watshayiswa yimoto.  
Velile was knocked by a car. | Iveni, Misi.  
A van, Miss. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3 | Teacher | Ewe, uVelile watshayiswa yimoto. Yeyiphi imoto? Zininzi iindidi zeemoto.  
Yes, Velile was knocked by a car. By which car? There are various types of cars. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 4 | Learner 2 |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 5 | Teacher | Ewe, uVelile watshayiswa yiveni. Yitshoni nonke.  
Yes, Velile was knocked by a van. Say this all of you. |  |  |  |  |  |
| 6 | All Learners said in chorus repeatedly | UVelile watshayiswa yiveni.  
Velile was knocked by a van.  
(Learners repeated this for four times) |  |  |  |  |  |
| 7 | Teacher | Sesiphi isandi enisivayo?  
Which sound do you hear? |  |  |  |  |  |
| 8 | All Learners said in chorus | Ngu [v]  
It is [v] |  |  |  |  |  |

When the teacher narrated the story all learners listened attentively. They were enthusiastic to answer the questions. After the repetition she asked learners to say which sound they heard. The learners replied that is [v] and all learners said aloud [v] repeatedly. She asked them to write the letter [v]. While they said [v] aloud, they also wrote it in the air. That was a phonemic awareness activity. Scott (2009) claims that phonemic awareness is an auditory skill. It is an ability to recognize and manipulate sounds. For example, learners listened to the story and identified [v] sound from [UVelile and iveni -/Velile and the van]. Nevills and Wolfe
(2009) claim that learning in the Foundation Phase begins with emergent literacy skills, which is about knowledge and recognizing the alphabets. Phonemic awareness provides the foundation for all the above skills.

Then the teacher pasted a picture of a wheel on the board and learners copied and drew a wheel which presented the letter [v]. After I had observed the lesson, I wondered if the regular class teacher taught the same letter [v] in the regular classroom so that there would be consistency and consolidation of what was taught in the regular class and in the intervention class. I realized that the above lesson was presented in the other two intervention classes. I noticed that even though it was the same lesson, there were some differences in the manner in which the lesson was taught. For example, in the second class, after the learners were introduced to the sentence [UVelile watshayiswa yiveni-Velile was knocked a van], the teacher used shared book reading to introduce [v]. Firstly, the teacher asked learners to identify what was on the book cover, and to read the name next to the picture. It was a [ivili – wheel]. The teacher showed learners the cover of a book with a wheel and there was a word next to it [ivili] as shown in figure E:
FIGURE 2: A book with a story of a wheel
Vzakile umika in Tata ikuri.
Table G below represents a phonic lesson with Grade 1(A) which was taught differently to Grade 1 (B) and Grade 1(C).

**TABLE G: LESSON 1B - PHONICS LESSON (Grades 1B and 1C)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Learners in chorus</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Yintoni le ikulo mfanekiso?</td>
<td>Livili.</td>
<td>It is a wheel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Kulungile, masifunde eli gama libhalwe apha ecaleni komfanekiso.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Okay, let’s read the name next to the picture.</td>
<td>Ivili</td>
<td>A wheel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Let’s read. I will read and you read after me.</td>
<td>Ndichola ivili.</td>
<td>I pick up a wheel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Ndichola ivili.</td>
<td>Ndichola ivili.</td>
<td>I pick up a wheel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Ndilinika utata.</td>
<td>Ndilinika utata.</td>
<td>I give it to father.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Zukile ulinika utat’omkhulu.</td>
<td>Zukile ulinika utat’omkhulu.</td>
<td>Zukile gives it to grandfather.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Grandfather gives it to uncle.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Utat’omkhulu ulinika umalume</td>
<td>Grandfather gives it to uncle.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Utat’omkhulu ulinika umalume.</td>
<td>Grandfather gives it to uncle.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Page</td>
<td>Role</td>
<td>Text</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Umalume wakha ikari.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Uncle builds a cart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>All learners</td>
<td>Umalume wakha ikari.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>read after her</td>
<td>Uncle builds a cart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in chorus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Umalume unika utat’omkhulu ikari.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Uncle gives grandfather the cart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>All learners</td>
<td>Umalume unika utat’omkhulu ikari.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>read after her</td>
<td>Uncle gives grandfather the cart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in chorus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Utat’omkhulu unika uZukile ikari.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Grandfather gives Zukile the cart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>All learners</td>
<td>Utatomkhulu unika uZukile ikari.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>read after her</td>
<td>Grandfather gives Zukile the cart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in chorus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>UZukile unika utata ikari.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Zukile gives father the cart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>All learners</td>
<td>UZukile unika utata ikari.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>read after her</td>
<td>Zukile gives father the cart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in chorus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Utata uyinika mna ikari.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Dad gives me the cart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>All learners</td>
<td>Utata uyinika mna ikari.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>read after her</td>
<td>Dad gives me the cart.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in chorus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Ngoku ikari yeyam.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Now the cart is mine</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>All learners</td>
<td>Ngoku ikari yeyam.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>read after her</td>
<td>Now the cart is mine</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>in chorus</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

She asked the learners to read the word. Then she read the story. While she was reading all the learners were involved. She read a sentence and learners read after her.
I liked the book because it was relevant for Grade one learners especially those who were struggling to learn. Each page had a picture and one sentence. After reading the sentence, the teacher showed learners a picture of a wheel. Next to the picture there were two [v] letters, a capital letter and a small letter [Vv]. The teacher asked the names of the letter and learners were able to identify them as [v]. The teacher pointed to the letter and differentiated between the capital and small letters of [v] e.g. ([V] omkhulu/big [v] omncinci/small). All the learners repeated what the teacher said for several times. Again, the teacher showed a picture of a wheel and asked them to say the name of the object. It was a wheel and she drew a picture of a wheel and wrote the [v] pattern [vvvvvvvvvv]. She asked the learners to copy the work to their books.

The third group had the same phonics lesson but after the learners had answered questions about the story, the teacher wrote the letter [v] on the board. She asked learners to name all words that begin with [v]. She commanded the child to open the door (vula ucango) and to close (vala). In both commands the words began with [v]. At the end of the lesson all learners drew a picture of a wheel and the [v] pattern.

This lesson accommodated some of learners’ learning styles. Even though, it was a phonics lesson that stressed the [v] letter, many skills were developed. For example, listening, speaking and reading through the shared reading activity. Writing and fine motor skills were developed when learners were drawing the wheel and the [v] pattern. That demonstrated that the literacy intervention programme attempted to develop learners’ language skills that are needed for social and academic purposes.
4.2.2 LESSON 2: READING

All learners were seated on the mat. The teacher revised the story of Velile who was knocked down by a van. She pasted a poster on the board. Table H illustrates the reading lesson:

TABLE H: LESSON 2A - READING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Yintoni le? (<em>pointed on the picture</em>)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>What is this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Learner 1</td>
<td>Yimoto.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is a car.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Loluphi uhlobo lemoto?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Which car is this?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Learner 2</td>
<td>Yiveni.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is a van.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Yiveni. Yintoni?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is a van. What is it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>All learners said in chorus</td>
<td>Yiveni. <em>(Learners repeated four times aloud)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is a van.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Ngubani ongafunda eli gama? <em>(She showed a flashcard with a word)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Who can read this word?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Learner 3</td>
<td>Ivili.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Wheel.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Mqhwabeleni, uza kufumana isitoki.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Clap hands for him, he is going to get a lollipop sweet.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>All learners</td>
<td><em>Clapped hands</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All learners were eager to give answers in this lesson. But they only struggled to read the word [ivili] until one boy was able to recognize it and read the word [ivili/wheel]. The teacher showed learners a poster with a picture and one sentence. Figure 3 demonstrates the poster which was pasted on the board:
FIGURE 3: A poster for the reading lesson

uVelile uvula wili leveni
Table I below demonstrates the dialogue between the teacher and learners:

**TABLE I: LESSON 2B - READING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>All learners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Fundani esi sivakalisi. [<em>pointed on the sentence</em>]</td>
<td><em>Were silent</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Read this sentence.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[UVelile uvula ivili leveni/ Velile opens a wheel of a van]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>All learners</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>[Looked confused and were silent]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Funda naliphi igama olizyo apha. [<em>pointed on the sentence</em>]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Read any word that you understand here.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>All learners</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ngubani ongakhomba kwigama elithi Velile?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Who can point to the word Velile?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Learner 1</td>
<td>[Pointed to the word Velile]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>UVelile uvula ivili leveni. [<em>she read aloud while pointing to the words</em>]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Velile opens the wheel of a van.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>All learners read aloud with teacher</td>
<td>UVelile uvula ivili leveni.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Velile opens the wheel of a van. [three times]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above lesson showed that learners in this lesson struggled to read single words. But the teacher encouraged them. She saw that they struggled to read the sentence but she allowed them to read any word they understood. That helped them as one boy recognized the word [Velile]. The approach she used was guided reading. The teacher assisted learners in reading the sentences.

The teacher continued with the lesson and she segmented the sentence into words. Each word from the sentence was on the flash card. For example, these words were on different flashcards.
She asked learners who wanted to be Velile, and those who wanted to be [uvula- open] or [ivili- the wheel] or [leveni of a wheel]. They had to take the flashcards that showed these words. All learners wanted to take the flash card but only four out of twelve were able to hold the flashcards. Four learners stood in front of the class with their flashcards. The first learner had [uVelile]. The second one had the word [uvula-opens]. The third leaner had [ivili-a wheel], and the last learner had [leveni - of a van]. Then all learners read the words aloud. While they were reading, they pointed to those learners who had the flashcards. Learners read the sentence repeatedly. The sentence read as: [UVelile uvula ivili leveni] [Velile opens a wheel of a van]

After this lesson, the learners worked in small groups. Each group had different words. They had to synthesize the syllables to build a word. The teacher had segmented the words.

**FIGURE 4: Flash cards with [v] letter words**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>UVelile</th>
<th>uvula</th>
<th>Ivili</th>
<th>Leveni</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

For example, there were flash cards with single letters and learners had to blend the letters to build a word. One group had to build [uVelile - Velile]. Others had to build the following words: [uvula - opens], [ivili - a wheel] and [leveni - of a wheel]. When learners were working
in groups the teacher walked between groups and assisted those who struggled to build the words. All of them read the sentence from the poster again. When the groups were finished, the teacher read the words with them and the groups exchanged the words with each other. Then all of them read the sentence from the poster again. In their writing activity, the learners circled all [v] letters in the puzzle and traced [v]. In that lesson the teacher used phonological segmentation.
FIGURE 5: Pictures that represent the vowels

i-apile

amasi amaso
i-emele

eli  ekuseni
i-orenji

i-omo
ubuso

usana
The teacher noticed that learners still needed to revise the previous term’s sound [l]. Firstly, she revised the isiXhosa vowels [a, e, i, o, u]. She used pictures that represented the vowels. For example, a picture of apple to represent [a] e.g. /apile - apple/, a picture of a bucket to represent [e] /i-emele/bucket/, a picture of an ink to represent [i] /i-inki- ink/, a picture of an orange to represent [o] /i-orenji - orange/ and a picture of a face to represent [u] /ubuso - face/. This is illustrated in table G:

### TABLE J: LESSON 3 READING AND PHONICS LESSON

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>All learners</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Ngubani eli gama?</td>
<td>Ngu [a] ka-apile (chorus)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>What is this word?</td>
<td>It is [a] for apple</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lona?</td>
<td>Ngu[e] ka-emele. (chorus)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>And this one?</td>
<td>It is [e] for bucket (emele)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Lo ngu ….?</td>
<td>Ngu [i] ka-inki. (chorus)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>This one is …….?</td>
<td>It is [i] for ink.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Lona?</td>
<td>Ngu[o] ka-orenji. (chorus)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>It is o for orange.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Lona?</td>
<td>Ngu[u] ka-ubuso. (chorus)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>And this one?</td>
<td>It is [u] for face.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

She explained that [ezi zizikhamiso ngoba xa sizibiza siyakhamisa - these are vowels because we open our mouth when we articulate them]. After the vowel revision the teacher pasted a poster with a stepladder (ileli) and all the [l] sounds were written red.
Learners read the word [ileli – stepladder]. She pointed to the word and asked them to read [I]. Learners read [I] aloud repetitively and wrote [I] in the air while they said the sound. The teacher combined consonants and vowels e.g (l + a = la). The teacher presented [I]. They read
it first and [a], then they blended the letters to make [la]. The teacher segmented these words: [la, le, li, lo, lu] as follows:

1) L + a = la
2) L + e = le
3) L + i = li
4) L + o = lo and
5) L + u = lu

The teacher pasted on the board a flashcard with [i] and the learners read it out as [i]. She pasted [l] next to [i]. Learners read aloud [il-], then [e], the word was [ile-]. She further added [l], and the word read as [ilel-]. She asked learners which sound was missing. Learners noticed that it was [i] and she pasted it. The word read as [ileli - ladder]. Learners read the word repeatedly.

The teacher pasted a flashcard with the word [ilula – light]. Learners read it and they constructed a sentence: [ileli ilula - the stepladder is light]. Learners read that sentence aloud repeatedly in chorus. Then the teacher presented a picture of a train. The picture is shown in figure 6 below.
FIGURE 7: Picture two which represents [l] letter
Table K represents the dialogue between the teacher and learners:

### TABLE K: LESSON 3 - PHONICS LESSON

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Yintoni le ikulo mfanekiso? (pointing on the picture)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>What is on this picture?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Learner one</td>
<td>Yigutsi.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is a goods train.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Learner two</td>
<td>Yitreyini.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is a train.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Learner three</td>
<td>Nguloliwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is a train.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Yintoni?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>What is it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>All learners</td>
<td>Nguloliwe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>It is a train (Chorus)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the lesson the teacher explained that she decided to revise the vowels because she noticed after she had introduced the \([v]\) sound there was a need to revise the vowels. When she introduced the \([v]\) sound she assumed that learners had understood the \([l]\) sound which was taught in the first term. For their writing task, the learners coloured the train.

In another group there was a little difference in how the same lesson was presented. After the vowel revision the teacher pasted a poster with a train and there was a word next to the picture, \([uloliwe – train]\) and \([u]\) was underlined. She asked learners to describe what they saw on the picture. Then she asked them to read the underlined word. Learners read the word as \([u]\). She showed learners words with \([l]\) sound and all \([l]\) sounds were highlighted with a red colour so that learners could identify it after they had read the word \([ileli – stepladder]\) and \([lala – sleep]\). Learners repeated aloud the \([l]\) sound. The teacher pasted the picture of stepladder (ileli) on the board. Then she segmented the word \([ileli]\). Firstly, she showed the learners a flashcard with \([i]\) and asked learners to read \([ileli]\) as: \([i – l – e – l - i]\). Learners read the word which was segmented in this way:
They read the each word aloud repeatedly while pointing at each letter. In the second segmentation, the teacher showed the flashcards with single sounds as:

| l | e | l | i |

Learners read each sound separately. The teacher showed them each letter. They read them and she pasted the letters on the board next to each other to build the word [ileli – stepladder]. After they had built the word, she asked them to read the word and all of them read aloud again. She showed learners a flashcard with the word [uloliwe – train]. Learners read each letter from the word but it was difficult for them to blend the sounds. She showed them a picture that represented the word and they recognized it as [uloliwe - train]. In all the lessons which I observed I noticed that the teacher used pictures that represented the sounds. In the first lesson she used a story to present the [v] letter. Learners were always involved as they read after her.

4.2.4 SUMMARY OF OBSERVED LESSONS

The teacher had a group of eight or more learners in each lesson. She used the same lesson to all learners that attended her class. The teacher had challenges because she did not have a special classroom where she could paste all her reading resources that would assist her learners for emergent reading as she used the school library for the intervention class. Learners that were referred to the intervention class had different learning challenges as there was no individualized intervention.

The teacher demonstrated that she knew which resources were suitable to assist struggling readers. I noticed that in each lesson shared reading, reading aloud, repetition, word segmentation and blending were used to develop phonemic awareness. The learners’ writing skills were developed too because after each lesson there was a writing activity. The learners’ fine motor skills were developed when they coloured the objects; they traced and circled the relevant letters.
All the observed lessons focused on reading and writing. They covered phonemic awareness, shared book reading, guided reading and writing lessons. Some learners could master the reading and writing skills on their own, while others needed guidance in order to master these skills. So, the literacy intervention teacher guided the struggling readers and writers to master reading and writing skills in that school. According to CAPS (DBE 2011:18) reading aloud is a vital component of a balanced reading programme by the teacher. It was implemented in all lessons that I observed.

In the following section I present data from interviews with different participants, i.e. the literacy intervention teacher, the Foundation Phase deputy principal and the school principal.

4.3 DATA FROM INTERVIEWS

In the previous chapter, I mentioned that interviews are part of qualitative research. Interviews served as a relevant method for this study in order to get information about the teacher’s understandings of the literacy intervention programme. I interviewed three teachers, the literacy intervention teacher, the Foundation Phase deputy principal and the school principal. Interviews helped me to find out the guiding principles of the implementation of the Grade 1 literacy intervention programme at the school and how support was provided to the teachers at the school by district management. I used semi-structured interviews as I prepared both open-ended and closed ended questions for each interview. The following chapter presents data collected from an interview with the literacy intervention teacher.

4.3.1 LITERACY INTERVENTION TEACHER

The school has two literacy intervention teachers but I interviewed one only. I interviewed Nolizwi (not her real name) who is the specialist in the intervention class. She is a qualified teacher. Her highest qualification is BEd Honors. She had been teaching for thirty five years during the data collection period. She taught Grade one for twenty years. She has been teaching in the literacy intervention class for fifteen years. I conducted the interview with her in isiXhosa which was her home language and medium of instruction in the Foundation Phase. I thought that this would help to get in-depth teachers’ perspectives about the literacy intervention programme. Regarding Nolizwi’s understanding of literacy intervention, she said:
Nolizwi’s understanding of literacy intervention revealed that the purpose of literacy intervention programme is to assist learners that are having difficulties in reading and writing. She believes that after learners participated in the literacy intervention class, the gap between them and their peers could be bridged.

On the question about the benefits of literacy intervention programme, the literacy intervention teacher indicated that;

Umntwana ufumana ithuba elaneleyo lokuziqondela eyedwa engenabantwana aba-around yena. Ubanayo ne-confidence yokuzifundela Pha akukho mntu aleqana naye. Akukho nto im-stressayo ufunda ngokukhululekileyo. The learner receives an opportunity to learn independently without other learners around. He or she develops confidence to read independently. There is no competition. They are not stressed out. They read without constraints.

The above answer revealed that learners who had difficulties in reading and writing were intimidated in the regular class by those who were fluent readers. They developed low self-esteem. According to Nolizwi, learners in the intervention class are happy because they are at the same level of performance. That demonstrated that big classes were not only a problem to teachers, but learners too did not feel free in the same situation.

On the question of what approaches did Nolizwi used in the literacy intervention class, she mentioned that:

Uba ndiyabona apha akasebenzanga ndiyatshintsha ndisebenzise enye. Kodwa uyakhangela ukuba yeyiphi emlungelayo umntwana.

……I use Top-down and Bottom-up approaches. I do not have a specific approach. In the Top-down approach I discuss the picture with learners. You involve him/her actively. In Bottom-up you start with the sound, and then match them; he/she constructs words and move forward. If I see that it is ineffective, I change the strategy. But you determine which one is appropriate for the child.

Nolizwi combines the top-down and bottom-up approaches in her teaching. Goodman (1986) in Glynn, Wearmouth and Berryman (2005:69) views the top-down approach in reading as the active construction of meaning. The strategies that the mind uses for making sense of print are called psycholinguistic because thought and language continuously interact in this process (Glynn et al., 2005:69). According to Nolizwi in the top-down approach learners are actively involved in constructing meaning as they build their own sentences and words. She introduces a letter from learners’ words. All information is constructed by learners.

Glynn, Wearmouth and Berryman (2005:69) state that in the bottom-up approach, children must first learn letters of the alphabet, establish the principle of symbol to sound identification and apply this order to decode words. In other words, the bottom-up emphasizes the mastery of phonics and word recognition from the beginning. Her answer demonstrated that she followed the bottom-up approach. She claimed that in the bottom-up approach she introduced a letter first and learners matched letters with vowels. In that way, they were able to build words and form sentences. Even though she used both the top-down and bottom-up approaches, she emphasized that she did not use the same approach to all learners. She first checked which approach was appropriate for each child, and alternated the approaches. For example, the observation data shows that she used the bottom-up approach to introduce the letter [v] in her teaching.

On the question on what challenges she experienced as a literacy intervention teacher, she said:

……Mm eyona ingamandla lithuba elingekho *enough*. Ukuba bendithatha *eight* kwiklasi nganye ngewukhona umahluko. Umzekelo abantwana abangaphezu ko-*eight*.nethubaelingekhoyo lokudibana naye rhoqo. Ngelinye ixesha uyambona uyeza kodwa
aphuncuke kuba akakhawulezi ukuphindla umbone…Zininzi ikhlasa endisebenza ngazo. Zingaphezu kwam; uGrade R, Grade one noGrade two.

Ndibanayo i core group. Ndihlala nabo okokoko. Umzekelo abantuwa bebayi-two endisebenze ngabo kulo nyaka bakwa Grade two. Kwa-Grade one siya assuma ukuba umntwana abakakho ready

Zikhona ii severe cases kwaGrade three endiye ndizincede. Bekumele ndenze necollaboration teaching kwaGrade one, ndititshe iklasi yonke ndingathathi la group yodwa, kodwa ngenxa yexesha andikhe ndiyenze loo nto.

……Mm the big challenge is that there is not enough time. If I could take only eight learners in one class, there would be a difference. For example, learners are more than eight and there is not enough time to meet them every day. Sometimes you see that the child could improve but you lose that child because you don’t see him or her constantly.

I work with lots of classes. It is too much workload as I work with Grade R, Grade one and Grade two. I have a core group. They are always in my class. For example in this year, I worked with two Grade two learners. We assume that Grade one learners are not ready. There are severe cases in Grade three, whom I also assist. I have to do collaborative teaching in Grade one, where I teach all learners in the class; not only that group, but because there is no time I do not do that.

Nolizwi indicated many challenges in her intervention class. Firstly, she complained about time which was not enough for teaching struggling readers. These learners needed support on a daily basis. Strickland, Ganske and Morroe (2002) suggest that children with learning difficulties need more time on task than their peers who perform well. The teacher in the literacy intervention should work with a small group so that the teacher could be able to meet with all learners and plan different strategies that would assist learners with individual needs. She worked in a big school. For example, there were three Grade Rs’, seven Grade ones and six Grade twos. All these classes depended on one teacher for intervention. That could be a problem as she mentioned that the workload was too much for her. That was the reason she could only meet learners once a week, instead of two according to her timetable. According to Nolizwi, one of her duties was to do collaborative teaching in Grade one, but because of insufficient time she could not perform that duty.

Regarding the question on the challenges she experienced, she claimed that:

……iiklasi zininzi.ukubangaba umntwana bendimbona almost twice a week ngekubhetele. Ngokwe-time table yam bekumele ndibonabana kabini kodwa ngenxa yokuba ndisebenza
Nolizwi worked with many classes and did not have a classroom as she used the school library. This seems to illustrate that the lack of appropriate resources to support literacy learning. In other words, the WCED did not cater enough for learners that needed extra support in order to improve their literacy skills.

Concerning the question on the assistance Nolizwi received from the Senior Management Team (SMT) and the district office, she mentioned that:


….the SMT helps us by communicating with the teachers to identify learners at risk. When I have a problem that needs teachers I speak with SMT, then they speak with the teachers. I buy my own material by requesting from the school; there are funds from the department. There is LTSM money from the department… In the workshops conducted in cluster meeting … Also, the CAs inform us all the time on how to test children, they provide us with materials to test children. In cluster meetings we share the best practice as teachers. The workshop feeds us with information.

That response above indicated how the WCED and the School Management Team supported the literacy intervention teacher. According to Nolizwi, teachers that attended cluster
meetings to share information about which teaching strategies worked well for them to improve literacy skills of struggling readers. Teachers shared best experiences in workshops.

Nolizwi mentioned the materials used to enhance literacy teaching and learning. She had this to say:


I use flashcards, sentence strips, big books, pictures and another programme I was trained for in Stellenbosch, it helps me a lot. I use any book if I see it is helpful. I always use flashcards. Learners build their own words with flashcards. I always use flashcards. I do not see any strategy which could be used for a child to learn. I do not believe in worksheets. I believe in word building. I want learners to work on their own using flashcards to build words.

The above views demonstrated Nolizwi’s teaching strategies. She used flashcards so that learners could discover knowledge on their own. It seems that this strategy worked well for her as she claimed that flashcards was the only teaching resource that was effective for learning. Learners needed to build words on their own. This seemed to indicate that the teacher understood how children learned at this stage. According to Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana (2006:55) seven year olds children are in the concrete operational stage. At this stage their understanding is limited to what is concrete. Therefore, the teacher maintained that concrete resources helped to improve learners’ literacy skills.

On the question on whether the literacy intervention teacher shared teaching resources with other Grade one teachers, she responded thus:

……kakhulu loo nto ndiyifumene ndiyayishera noGrade R kunye noGrade one. Umsebenzi wam ubased kulaa msebenzi weniwiwa eklasini. Ndenza laa ndawo uMisi asilela kuyo. Laa nto umntwana angakange akwazi ukuyenza noMisi. Mna ndivala la gap yapha kwaMisi wakhe.
Very much, everything that I get I share it with Grade R and Grade one [teachers]. My work is based on the work that is done in class. I do what the teacher (Miss) is behind with. If the child was unable to do something in the class, then I close that gap from her/his (regular) class.

According to Nolizwi she shared information with Grades R and one teachers so that they could have mutual understanding of what could assist learners. The aim of the literacy intervention programme was to close the gap so that learners could meet the academic requirement for Grade one.

Regarding the questions on what strategies worked well for the literacy intervention teacher, she claimed that:

………it is the flashcards. Learners build their own words. They are hands on and I only facilitate by telling them that the letter matches with this one to make a sound. Sometimes pictures could be interpreted in different ways. For example, if I show learners a picture of an axe, a learner could give a different word than the formal word of the object. I do not put a picture with a word because that promotes memorization. A child must work on her/his own.

Nolizwi mentioned that flashcards are the best teaching resources because learners work on their own to make sense of their learning. She facilitated learning in various ways to promote learner-centered activities. Also, Nolizwi believed that learners had to discover knowledge on their own. Thus she did not attach words to pictures.

With regard to in-service training, Nolizwi said:

……we have monthly meetings. Here in Metro we meet with other schools, but their Home Language is English but I joined the Delft schools where isiXhosa is spoken.
The above answer showed that it is important to attend cluster meetings where the workshop is conducted in the language that is used by teachers in the classroom. For example, if the teachers share their best practice in teaching single consonants there could be contradictions. There are many words that are single consonants in English, but are double consonants or triple consonants in isiXhosa, e.g. sun [Ilanga], time [ixesha], dog [inja] fish [intlanzi], etc.

Concerning the WCED literacy training programmes, Nolizwi had this to say:

…the meeting is monthly. We attend regularly. We have monthly cluster meetings. Unfortunately, in my metropole we meet with white schools. But I joined the Delft district where teachers speak isiXhosa. Fortunately, the teaching materials are translated in isiXhosa. For example, if we receive story books, there will be books in English and the same books in isiXhosa. They make provision for [isiXhosa].

The teacher’s response above demonstrated that the intervention attended regular workshops to enhance her teaching practice.

Concerning the success of the literacy intervention programme, the teacher made this recommendation:

umntwana nomzali ayenze ekhaya. Yinto ke leyo endiwilling ukuyenza, andinangxaki ndingabatreiyina abazali. Ikhona enye imethod endandiyisebenzisa ngexesha ndititsha uGrade one. Ngoba utitsha nje uitishela ukuba loo mntwana ukwi first group umfundisele ukubaa-excele ngeenjongo zokuba akuncedise apha eklasini kwabathatha kade. Abanye abantwana bayagraspa ngcono xa befundiswa ngabanye abantwana. Xa ndinokudibana nabo everyday bangancedakala.

Mmh…. if I could have a class room that will make it a success because the…….the thing the…….room where I could display all my work. So that when learners enter the class they can see sums and counters. They can see what they can take and read. When learners leave the class room they would have learnt something. If there could be team work between me and the teachers although I do not have a problem with them. I have big numbers, so the number of learners that attend the intervention class should decrease. In each class I should work with eight learners per day only, from each teacher. Sometimes, the period ends before completing what I planned to help them with. I can conduct workshops with teachers so that they could help learners who do not attend the intervention class that can make a difference. Teachers could do what I am doing with the learners [in the intervention class] . Parents should be trained too and I am willing to train them so that what is taught at school parents too could do it at home. One of the methods which worked well for me when I was teaching Grade one, was to teach the first group to excel so that they assist you with the slow learners in the class. Some learners grasp easily when taught by other learners. . Learners could be helped if I could meet with them every day.

Nolizwi’s recommendations indicated that the literacy intervention teacher had many challenges. There is a need to consider means of improving it. The school should have a special classroom so that it could be print rich. The teacher needs only eight learners per group. She claimed that there was a need for mutual understanding between the teachers in the mainstream, the parents and the literacy intervention teacher. That could help the child because what is taught at school could be consolidated at home. She also highlighted that learners learn best from their more knowledgeable others such as their peers. Nolizwi recommended that learners who experienced difficulties in reading and writing n receive support every day. Therefore, if all the above recommendations could be implemented there could be a significant improvement. The next section presents interviews conducted with the Foundation Phase Deputy Principal.
4.3.2 Foundation Phase Deputy Principal’s interviews

The Foundation Phase was big it had its own deputy principal. I interviewed the deputy principal who was responsible for the Foundation Phase. The interview questions were similar to the school principal and some of their responses were the same. According to Pam (the Deputy Principal) the principles underlying the Grade one literacy intervention programme were as follows:

……after baseline educators need to do intervention. Intervention is done to all those learners who are struggling in word building and reading.

The Deputy Principal’s report showed that when learners were identified as at risk of failure to read and write, teachers had to implement the intervention programme immediately. On the question about the benefits of the literacy intervention programme, the Deputy Principal indicated that individual attention was given to each learner in the intervention programme.

Regarding the constraints, she mentioned that the socio-economic status of parents was a challenge as learners came from disadvantaged homes. Most parents were illiterate and they were unable to assist their children with school work. Some parents were young and were not responsible. There was also a lack of resources at the school. According to Foster, Lambert, Abbot-Shim, McCarty and Franze (2005) the socio-economic status of parents has an impact on children’s learning. Children from high socio-economic backgrounds usually perform better than children from low socio-economic backgrounds. Even though, learners were struggling to read and write, teachers were aware of the learner’s background which had an impact on their performance. She also mentioned that there were seven Grade one teachers and all of them were qualified teachers. There were two teachers in the intervention class and one was trained. The other one was an assistant and her duty was to assist with paper work.

Pam mentioned that the teachers in each term attended cluster meetings and in-service training workshops. The meetings were conducted by the Curriculum Advisors. Regarding the question about the literacy challenges that the school was faced with, Pam indicated that:

……the learners came from home to Grade one as they did not have Grade R. The learners came from a multilingual community. For some of learners isiXhosa was not their Home Langue (HL). Regarding the written literacy tasks becomes a problem because there is a direct translation from English to isiXhosa. For example, the English word is fish, and then in
isiXhosa is “intlanzi”. The community dialect is different from the formal isiXhosa language. The Grade three classes are multigrade. There are learners who perform at a lower level; the teachers have three classes in one class. For example, Grade one level, Grade two and Grade three level.

The above statements demonstrate that even though the medium of instruction in FP was isiXhosa, this was a challenge because not all learners were isiXhosa speakers. The community was multicultural and the dialect that was spoken in the community was different from the formal language used at school. On the question about how Pam supported the teachers in the implementation of literacy intervention programme, she said:

….. The school buys resources. The department allocates money to buy resources. There is an assistant teacher. The challenge is overcrowded classrooms.

According to Pam the school district office allocates money to buy resources for the intervention programme and there was an assistant teacher who helped the intervention class teacher. Pam’s response showed that the teacher-learner ratio was a problem for literacy development. The following section presents the interview with the school Principal.

4.3.3 Principal's interviews

I interviewed Kalo with an aim to discover the school management team’s understanding of literacy intervention programme in Grade one, and to discover how they (as SMT) assisted the teacher in the literacy intervention programme. Regarding the principal’s understanding of literacy intervention, Kalo mentioned that:

…..for intervention more time in each term is needed for struggling readers and writers. This could be done after school. Learners should be given extra work and the teacher should use flashcards and concrete objects should be used for mathematics. Differentiation of work is important to accommodate all group levels. If learners learn a text in their regular class, in the intervention classroom they need to learn it again in drawing.

Kalo’s understanding of literacy teaching suggested that teachers should spend more time with struggling readers and writers. This supports Allington’s (2013) views that to help struggling learners to become achieving readers, they should read and write more every day. He was aware that in one class there were different group levels so it was important to cater
for all groups. According to Kalo the intervention teacher should teach what is taught in the regular class but should use visual resources to support learning as he mentioned the use of flashcards, print rich classrooms, and concrete objects for mathematics. When teachers teach mathematics, they should follow a communicative plan which is to begin with concrete representative and proceed to the abstract stage. Therefore, the principal seemed to be aware that the teacher in the intervention class should use more concrete objects so that learners would be able to understand the number concept ant the value of a number. That implied that the intervention class implements both literacy and numeracy intervention. Kalo pointed out that the intervention improved reading and writing skills of learners.

Kalo’s views shows that he understood that if learners were struggling to read and write they could be supported through the intervention programme. On the question that investigated the constraints of the literacy intervention, Kalo mentioned that even though more time was given to struggling readers and writers, when they got back home parents did not intensify on the concepts that were taught at school. Learners easily forgot their work because their parents did not assist them with their homework. The parent’s socio-economic status was also a constraint. So educators had to assist learners with homework. This observation corresponds with the view that low Socio-Economic Status (SES) plays a role in reading achievement because their parents provide fewer opportunities for informal literacy learning (Neville and Wolfe 2009:12). Kalo mentioned that the SES was constraining reading and writing in the Foundation Phase.

Learner’s reading and writing skills could improve if learners receive support after school at home. Kalo’s views illustrated that parents were not involved in their children’s education. Parents should know what is taught at school and strengthen the concepts learnt at school. Kalo mentioned that teachers were aware of the learners’ background but learners from Grade R-3 were not allowed to take books home. All books were kept at school because they had a fear that learners were young. So they made photocopies so that learners could have reading recourses at home. Kalo mentioned that there were two teachers in the literacy intervention class but only one teacher was trained. On the question about the number of teachers who had been trained for assisting struggling learners, Kalo mentioned that educators in the mainstream classrooms were not trained to do intervention but they attended cluster workshops. But these cluster workshops were not enough as they did not last even two hours.
On the question of what kind of measures the school principal had to support educators that had no formal training, the principal had this to say:

…..they attend in-service training as part of their area of development. Some are conducted by Centre of Teaching and Learning Institution (CTLI) and other by the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) at different metro poles.

This information showed that teachers participated in in-service training to develop their skills on curriculum implementation and literacy intervention strategies. Regarding the question on how often the Grade one teachers went for literacy intervention in-service training, the principal said:

…..at least once a term they attend workshops and come back to implement and share best practice with other educators on other grades.

Kalo’s response on the above matter demonstrates that as management team they were aware of the challenges and they sent teachers to workshops every term to keep them informed about the current curriculum and new teaching strategies.

On the question about the literacy challenges that the Foundation Phase teachers were faced with, Kalo mentioned that there was a shortage of books and incorporation of reading methodologies in terms of having time set aside for reading. On each day there were thirty minutes for reading. Teachers had to assist two groups per day on guided reading. This was done for fifteen minutes for each group. It is important that in guided reading teacher should work with learners who have the same ability.

The last question was about how do the principal supported the teacher in the implementation of literacy intervention, he had this to say:

…….I always encourages them to emphasize individual reading by learners so as to be able to see their potential and where to assist them. I also encourage the use of flashcards and word wall when presenting a lesson. The intervention class teacher receives planning from the district. The school buys resources for them. They are accommodated on the time table. There is class visits.
According to Kalo, the school management team supported the intervention class because the teachers received lesson plans on what to teach. The school bought resources that would support learners’ literacy and numeracy skills.

4.3.4 SUMMARY OF INTERVIEW DATA

All the interviewed teachers demonstrated a mutual understanding about the principles of literacy intervention programme. They claimed that the purpose of the literacy intervention programme was to assist struggling readers and writers so that the gap between them and their peers could be closed. The literacy intervention teacher indicated that there were many challenges that hindered her practice such as overcrowded classroom, no classroom for teaching, as she depended on the school library when there were no classes.

The school principal mentioned that the management bought resources to support teachers in the literacy intervention programme. The FP Deputy Principal and the school Principal responses showed that they were aware of the literacy challenges that the school faced. They understood that the purpose of literacy intervention was to assist struggling readers and writers. The support was provided immediately after the baseline assessment. To support the teachers, they sent them to cluster meetings and teacher development workshops. The next section presents data from learner’s written activities.

4.4 DATA FROM DOCUMENTS

This section describes the data collected from work done by the learners. The documents were the written activities and assessment records of learners’ work. The teacher provided me with all the class activities, formal and informal assessment records of the learners’ written work. It is only the work learners wrote after each observed lesson. After each lesson learners wrote an exercise as an assessment of what was taught. I noticed that that this exercise helped her to see the learner’s progress and it also informed her about what should follow or be altered in her teaching strategies.
4.4.1 Learner’s written work

Each activity was an informal assessment to assess if the learners understood what was taught. After lesson one, which was a phonemic awareness activity, the learners drew a picture of a wheel. Figure 8 below demonstrate the picture of a wheel which was drawn by a learner to present the letter [v].
When I observed lessons it was the second term of the school year. But learners in that intervention class seemed to be in their first stage of writing. Gentry, McNeel and Wallace-
Nesler (2012:8) claim that writing is categorized by marking drawing and scribbling which leads to letter like forms. After the teacher and learners listened to the story of Velile, they said aloud the letter [V] repeatedly. Then, they copied the picture of a wheel and drew it in their books. The above learners’ work illustrates how one of the learners carried out the task.

According to Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (Department of Basic Education, 2011) learners in Grade one begin writing using pictures. So the teacher followed the current curriculum to develop learner’s reading and writing skills. Even though it was a second term of the year, most of the learners in this intervention class were still in the first stage of writing. According to Gentry et al. (2012:8) there are four phases of writing. In the first phase a child relies on pictures, logographic memory (visual information) or predicting. In this study, all lessons that I observed, the teacher used pictures to support reading and writing. The teacher used pictures to present letters and vowels. The child imitates reading of easy books (Gentry et. al 2012:8). For example, the learners imitated their teacher when she read the story of [ivili/ wheel]. They also read after her, and in all lessons guided reading took place.

The teacher narrated a story of Velile who was knocked down by a van to develop phonemic awareness of the letter [v]. Phonemic awareness is an explicit awareness of sound structure in words (Scott 2009). It requires a conscious alertness to the sound properties of speech.
FIGURE 9: LEARNER B’S WRITTEN ACTIVITY AFTER LESSON TWO

Biza isandi biyela oo!

V

w v u

m n u

v u v

v v v v v

v i v a v u
On the first literacy written activity, learners drew a picture of a wheel and a pattern that represented [v]. The second lesson was a reading activity. Learners identified, read, segmented and synthesized words with [v]. Then in that lesson learners traced [v] and circled all [v] sound in the puzzle. The majority of learners mastered this activity. Only few learners were unable to differentiate [v] sound from [m] and [u] as shown in the above learner’s work.
FIGURE 10: LEARNER C’S WRITTEN ACTIVITY AFTER LESSON THREE
2. Mandala

Khetha igama ubhale ngezahomfongekise ivili, ileli, ingle vula, ilali.
On the third written activity, the teacher decided to revise the letter [l]. Firstly, she revised the vowels and then moved to letter [l]. Before the learners wrote the [l] activity, learners traced the vowel, and wrote the same vowel under the traced word and also matched the vowels with pictures that stood for it. For example, they matched [a] with an apple.

Then there was an activity with pictures that had [l] letter. There were also words of these pictures on the top. Learners had to select the names of the pictures. The pictures stood for objects and others were action pictures. This written activity follows the current system of writing. According to CAPS (2011) Grade one learners begin writing using pictures. When they master the skills of letter formation, then they can start to copy individual work, caption and full sentences. So, in that activity they started to copy single words. Gentry et al.(2012:9) claim that this is a third phase of writing. Reading, writing and spelling occur by attending to one letter for each sound and by employing word recognition vocabulary. In the same activity word recognition took place as learners matched words with relevant action pictures.

Lastly, after the reading lesson where learners read with the support from the teacher, learners coloured in the picture of a train. In this activity their fine motor skills were developed. This showed that the teacher noticed that when learners copied the words their motor skills, were not well developed so there was a need to increase their ability to use muscles.

4.4.2 Data from literacy assessment tasks

The below tables present the literacy assessment results of learners that attended the literacy intervention class. Learners participated in the literacy intervention class after the baseline assessment. In Grade one literacy, learners’ listening and speaking skills, phonics, reading, writing creative writing and hand writing were assessed. They wrote the assessment at the end of the first and second terms. Firstly, I present the term one results. In that term they wrote one task. Secondly, I present the term two results. Learners wrote two tasks in this term. The numbers that are highlighted bold represent the scores of the second task in term two.
### TABLE L: GRADE 1(A) - TERM 1 LITERACY ASSESSMENT RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Listening and speaking 15marks</th>
<th>Phonics 13</th>
<th>Reading 12</th>
<th>Writing Creative Writing 5</th>
<th>Hand Writing 5</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Milo</td>
<td>M 4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kakasi</td>
<td>M 6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emihle</td>
<td>M 7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asenathi</td>
<td>M 9</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samkelo</td>
<td>M 3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hlumelo</td>
<td>M 8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linathi</td>
<td>F 2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simthandile</td>
<td>F 4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masilakhe</td>
<td>F 6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lumile</td>
<td>F 7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE M: GRADE 1(A) - TERM 2 LITERACY ASSESSMENT RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Listening and speaking 15marks</th>
<th>Phonics 13</th>
<th>Reading 12</th>
<th>Writing Creative Writing 5</th>
<th>Hand Writing 5</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Milo</td>
<td>M 7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kakasi</td>
<td>M 10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emihle</td>
<td>M 6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asenathi</td>
<td>M 13</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samkelo</td>
<td>M 10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hlumelo</td>
<td>M 7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linathi</td>
<td>F 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simthandile</td>
<td>F 9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masilakhe</td>
<td>F 12</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lumile</td>
<td>F 7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE N: GRADE 1(B) - TERM 1 LITERACY ASSESSMENT RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Listening and speaking 15marks</th>
<th>Phonics 13</th>
<th>Reading 12</th>
<th>Writing Creative Writing</th>
<th>Hand Writing</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sizwe</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodwa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owethu</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE O: GRADE 1(B) - TERM 2 LITERACY ASSESSMENT RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Listening and speaking 15marks</th>
<th>Phonics 13</th>
<th>Reading 12</th>
<th>Writing Creative Writing</th>
<th>Hand Writing</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sizwe</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0 0 1 1 1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodwa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0 2 3 3 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owethu</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2 1 2 2 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE P: GRADE 1(C) - TERM 1 LITERACY ASSESSMENT RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Listening and speaking 15marks</th>
<th>Phonics 13</th>
<th>Reading 12</th>
<th>Writing Creative Writing 5</th>
<th>Hand Writing 5</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abusiswa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busi</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sizwe</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muntuza</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alizwa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kulingile</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simelana</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owam</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE Q: GRADE 1(C): TERM 2 LITERACY ASSESSMENT RESULTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Listening and speaking 15marks</th>
<th>Phonics 13</th>
<th>Reading 12</th>
<th>Writing Creative Writing 5</th>
<th>Hand Writing 5</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abusiswa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busi</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sizwe</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muntuza</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alizwa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kulingile</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simelana</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owam</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3.3 Summary of data from documents

All learners’ written activities were evidence of learner’s performance after each lesson. Written activities showed learners who still needed support for reading and writing. Learners were taught in groups but they wrote independently and that helped the teacher to identify learner’s abilities. The same learners wrote assessment task after each term. I noticed that there was improvement in the learner’s literacy performance because they started the class after the baseline assessment but some of them managed to meet the pass requirements for the first term assessment. Most of them did not perform well in term one but there was a significant improvement in term two. The next section will be analysis of data from classroom observation, interviews and learner’s written work and their literacy assessment task results.

4.5 DATA ANALYSIS

According to Miles and Huberman (1984:21) in qualitative research data appears in words. Data is collected in various ways such as observations, interviews, extracts from documents and tape recording. Miles and Huberman (1984:21) claim that data analysis consists of three activities that move steadily and continuously take place at the same time, namely, data reduction, data display and conclusion drawing. In data reduction, the researcher already had collected data but he or she selects, simplifies, summarizes and transforms the data from written up field notes. Data could be reduced and transformed in many ways, through pure collection and through summary of paraphrases (Miles and Huberman 1984:21).

On the other hand, data display is an organized assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action taking (Miles and Huberman 1984:21). The information is organized so that the reader can access and understand the information. For example, for this study, the Systematic Evaluation results and ANA are displayed in a table so that the reader could see that there is literacy crisis which led to the initiation of this study. Miles and Huberman (1984:22) support the above statement by claiming that in qualitative research displays include types of metrics, graphs, networks and charts. These help the analysis to see what had happened and either draw justified conclusions. Silverman (2001:195) claims that visual data includes tattoos, chalked information on blackboards, computer VDU displays, billboards, etc. For example, in this study there are pictures that demonstrate the resources
which were used by the intervention class teacher for each lesson. This helps the reader to have a picture and an understanding of how the literacy intervention lessons were implemented.

Miles and Huberman (1984:22) claim that conclusion drawing means that from the beginning of the data collection, the qualitative analysis decides what things mean, i.e. patterns, clarifications, possible arrangements, casual flows and proposal. Thus, the qualitative researcher plans beforehand to be prepared to conduct research appropriately. For this study, I planned the qualitative method as a suitable approach in order to obtain relevant information. Miles and Huberman (1984:22) suggest that the final conclusion appears when data collection is over and when the analyst has checked the field notes. Huberman (1984:22) claim that there is verification if the second thoughts cross the analyst’s mind during writing, and the analyst can take a short excursion back to the field notes. This illustrates that it is important to keep the recorded information, written up field notes and data from documents so that when second thoughts cross the analyst’s mind, it could be easy to go back and check for verification purposes.

As I mentioned that in this study I collected data from lesson observations, interviews and from learners work in this section I analyse the data I collected through these qualitative methods. Firstly I analyse lesson observations, followed by an analysis of teachers’ interviews. Finally, I analyse data from learners’ written work and literacy assessment results.

4.5.1 ANALYSIS OF OBSERVED LESSONS

In this study I observed the lessons in order to answer the main question: How is the literacy intervention programme implemented in the Grade 1 classroom? In all the lessons that I observed, the teacher revised the previous lesson’s work to assess the learners’ prior knowledge before she introduced the new lesson. The literacy intervention teacher’s teaching strategies followed a socio-cultural approach which claims that literacy is a social practice (Gee 2008). All lessons that I observed were located in a social setting (a classroom) and interaction took place between the teacher and learners. The interactions were guided by mediation, apprenticeship and scaffolding which entail guiding the learners to reach higher levels of understanding in learning (Dorn, French, and Jones (1998:20). There was face-to-face interaction and the teacher was a more knowledgeable adult.
In the first lesson which was a phonics lesson, the teacher narrated a story to introduce the letter [v]. Her strategy promoted phonemic awareness. According to the EFA Global Monitoring Report (2006:64) phonemic awareness is to recognize that articulated language is made up of recognizable units of sounds. After the teacher narrated the story [UVelile watshayiswa yiveni/ Velile was knocked down by a van], she asked questions to find out if learners listened and understood the story. All the learners repeated the answer.

Glasgow and Farrel (2007:259) recommend that if learners read repeatedly, they begin to understand the words they are reading. Repeated reading could be partner reading, echo reading or choral reading. The repeated reading in the literacy intervention class was always choral. As a result, some of them were able to recognize the letter [v] in [UVelile watshayiswa yiveni]. The teacher acted as a mediator to help learners to reach new levels of understanding. For example, the new understanding was the letter [v]. The teacher used an apprenticeship approach because she provided a clear demonstration of the letter [v]. She wrote it in the air and learners too wrote it in the air repeatedly. The purpose of apprenticeship is to support learners, the more knowledgeable other’s demonstrations should be clear and the learners should be active participants until they are able to work on their own. For example, at the end of that lesson learners worked independently in their work books. They drew a wheel that represented the letter [v] and the [v] pattern.

For the same purpose of introducing [v], the literacy intervention teacher read a story with the learners. That was shared book reading. An apprenticeship was implemented because the learners were in close contact with someone who was fluent in reading. But in apprenticeship the learners should be actively engaged in the learning process. The teacher read each sentence and learners read after her. At the end of the lesson learners were able to identify the letter [v] from [ivili/ wheel]. The teacher followed an apprenticeship approach which occurs through guided participation in social activity.

According to CAPS (2011) word recognition involves using the first finger to look at the picture. The reading lesson followed CAPS guidelines as the teacher first asked the learner to identify the name of the object in the picture.

The second lesson focused on reading. The teacher used a poster with pictures and flashcards with words. She used questions in order to find what the learners already knew. This
demonstrated that the teacher acknowledged that even though these learners were unable to read but they were able to see and speak about what they saw. Learners saw that it was a car but she probed to lead them to the word [iveni /van]. That word was used in the previous lesson to introduce the letter [v].

As stated above, the reading lesson followed the apprenticeship approach. The third feature of apprenticeship is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Silliman and Wilkinson 2004:204). When the teacher assists learners he or she does not have to wait and see what will happen but must read at the same time to provide support and scaffold for skills that are beyond the child’s ability (Silliman and Wilkinson 2004:204). The ZPD involves the proximal interaction between individuals where one who has less knowledge and the more knowledgeable (Freeman and Freeman 1994:57). The one with more knowledge assists the less knowledgeable. For example, when learners were building words in groups, she stepped in and assisted those who were struggling to build the words.

The teacher followed the CAPS because her teaching strategies in the reading lesson involved isolation activities. She asked learners what sound they heard from the word [van]. The blending activities were used when learners put flashcards together to build words [UVelile] [uvula] [ivili] [leveni] [Velile] in groups. The teacher in that lesson followed a top-down teaching approach. The lesson began with a picture, sentence, a word and in the last activity learners identified and circled the letter [v].

The third lesson was a reading and phonics lesson. As mentioned above, the teacher followed the apprenticeship approach and the guidelines that underpin the current curriculum (CAPS). In that lesson the teacher followed the CAPS teaching strategies of word recognition. For example, learners used the first fingers when they looked at the pictures that presented vowels (e.g. the train that presented the letter [l]). They used the second finger when learners looked at the train [uloliwe] read the sound they knew (CAPS 2011:16). Phonemic awareness activities such as blending activities were used when learners blended and matched the letters to build the words.

In summary, all the observed literacy lessons were learner-centered. The teacher’s teaching strategies followed a socio-cultural approach and the apprenticeship approach. She used clear demonstrations and learners were actively engaged in their learning. For example, they
listened to stories. While they were listening they comprehended the story and were able to answer questions. The teacher read with them. The teacher allowed them to work in groups and build the words from the sentence [UVelile uvula ivili leveni]. The teacher acted as a facilitator when she assisted learners who were struggling to build words in groups. Scaffolding, mediation and apprenticeship guided the teaching strategies of the teacher. Both Top-down and Bottom-up approaches were used. The Top-down approach was used in the beginning of each lesson as it helped learners in language learning and reading comprehension.

4.5.2 Analysis of interview data
To record data from interviews I used an audio tape, as I mentioned in Chapter three. According to Swartz, Duncan and Towsend (2008: 32) researchers must transcribe the entire interviews rather than selecting what they think is relevant. In this study, I transcribed the interview data by listening to the audiotape and I wrote word for word directly on the word processor. I took down some notes while I listened to the interviews. After I completed transcription, I checked it by reading it through while listening to the audiotape.

I used a thematic analysis. Swarts et al. (2008: 32) claim that “in the process of thematic analysis the audiotape transcriptions are first broken into units of meaning”. So, I developed themes from the data by categorizing transcribed data according to meaning. In that way, I was able to make sense of the data in relation to my research questions.

I mentioned in Chapter three that interviews were an appropriate method to collect information. The interview questions indicated what the teacher’s understood about the principles that underly literacy intervention. All the interviewed teachers had a mutual understanding that the purpose of literacy intervention programme was to assist struggling readers and writers until they were able to read and write at grade appropriate level. However, they mentioned the challenges that the school faced in the implementation of the literacy intervention programme. The challenges were:

1) The low socio-economic status of parents and learners i.e. learners came from a disadvantaged community.
2) There was lack of resources at the school, for example, there were insufficient books.
3) The number of learners in the intervention class was high i.e. there were more than eight learners in one group.
There was not enough time to support struggling learners. For example, the literacy intervention teacher mentioned that she met with struggling readers only once a week while in her time table she was supposed to meet them twice a week.

The school did not have a literacy intervention class and that was a problem because the teacher depended on the school library for space. Print-rich classrooms develop emergent literacy skills but if the literacy intervention programme does have a class, learners may be deprived of adequate literacy learning.

The school was big as there were three Grade R, seven Grade One and six Grade Two classes. All these classes depended on one teacher. That also limited her time to meet learners twice a week.

To answer the question on support that the teachers got from the school and district management to implement the literacy intervention programme, the Foundation Phase Deputy Principal and the school Principal mentioned that the Grade one teachers attended workshop at the Cape Teaching and Leadership Institute CTLI, Primary Science Programme (PSP) and there were cluster meetings every term which were conducted by Curriculum Advisors. The SMT bought resources for the literacy intervention programme. The literacy intervention teacher mentioned that she attended workshops and cluster meetings monthly. The claimed that these cluster meetings were very effective because they were actively involved in developing their teaching strategies. In the cluster meetings the Learning Support Advisors (LSA) acted as a facilitator. Teachers shared their best practice. To highlight the significance of Home Language, the literacy intervention teacher mentioned that she learned more in cluster meetings where the sharing of best practice was presented in isiXhosa.

On the question on how parents were involved in the literacy intervention programme the analysed data showed that parents were not practically involved but they were aware that their learners received extra support from the literacy intervention class. The literacy intervention teacher mentioned that she was willing to train the parents of learners so that what was taught in the school could be consolidated by parents at home.

The last question which guided the study was how the literacy intervention programme could be strengthened to enhance Grade One learner’s literacy skills in isiXhosa. The literacy intervention teacher suggested that the school should have a special classroom for the literacy intervention class. Each class should refer only six learners to the intervention programme.
The literacy intervention teacher should train Grade One teachers. That could help learners who are struggling to read and those who were not referred to the literacy intervention programme. The parents of struggling readers should be trained so that they could be able to assist their learners at home. The Grade One teacher should use their gifted learners as coaches because learners learn better from others. That view supported what was mentioned in Chapter two regarding the apprenticeship approach.

In summary, the interview data indicated that the purpose of the literacy intervention is to assist struggling readers and writers until they reach a stage where they are able to read and write independently. This could be effective if learners receive support every day. One of the constraints for the literacy intervention programme was the parents’ and learners’ low socio-economic background, overcrowded classrooms and the lack of a literacy intervention classroom where literacy intervention lessons could be implemented. The next section analyses data from learners’ written activities and literacy assessment results.

4.5.3 Documentary Analysis

In Chapter three I mentioned that I collected data from the written work of learners. I analyzed the written activities after each lesson. The majority of learners were able to copy the picture of a wheel and to write the pattern [v]. That activity developed the learners’ fine motor skills.

The second activity continued with the letter [v] as learners identified letters which were similar to [v]. That activity developed learners’ visual memory. The lesson followed a reading lesson where they were building and reading words with [v] sound in groups. They worked independently when they circled the [v] letter.

In the third written activity learners had to recognize words and write them next to the action picture. The activity showed that the teacher needed to revise term one learnt sounds as the majority of learners were unable to write the correct words next to the pictures. In the last lesson that I observed, learners copied the vowels and matched the small vowels with big vowels. Learners worked well the teacher moved to the letter [l]. Learners wrote the letter [l] in the air only. The teachers coloured the picture of a train which presented the letter [l] [uloliwe/ train]. The purpose of this activity was to make sure that learners understood the letter [l], and could be able to visualise it in certain objects.
The table below demonstrates learners’ literacy scores over the two terms of my data collection.

**TABLE R: GRADE 1(A) LEARNERS’ TERM ONE AND TERM TWO PERFORMANCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Home language</th>
<th>Other languages used at home</th>
<th>Attended Grade R</th>
<th>Term ONE performance after attending intervention class</th>
<th>Term TWO performance after attending intervention class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Milo</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kakasi</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emihle</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes in English medium</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asenathi</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Samkelo</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hlumelo</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linathi</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simthandile</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masilakhe</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lumile</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### TABLE S: GRADE 1(B) LEARNERS TERM ONE AND TERM TWO PERFORMANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>Other Languages used at home</th>
<th>Attended Grade R</th>
<th>Term ONE Performance before attending intervention class</th>
<th>Term TWO performance after attending intervention class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sizwe</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lodwa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Repeat grade 1</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owethu</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### TABLE T: GRADE 1(C) LEARNERS TERM ONE AND TERM TWO PERFORMANCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learner</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Home Language</th>
<th>Other Languages used at home</th>
<th>Attended Grade R</th>
<th>Term ONE performance after attending intervention class</th>
<th>Term TWO performance after attending intervention class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Abusiswa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Busi</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sizwe</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Muntuza</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Repeat grade 1</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alizwa</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Adequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kulingile</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simelana</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owam</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>isiXhosa</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The above tables represent the literacy assessment results after learners participated in the literacy intervention programme in the first and second terms. These are the results of twenty one learners whose parents signed the consent letter. In term one only three learners met the pass requirement of code four. The majority of learners did not obtain it. Below is a table which illustrates learners’ overall literacy performance in the first term. The reason for these results could be insufficient time as the literacy intervention teacher claimed that she met these learners only once a week. The socio-economic status of parents could be a constraint too. The venue or an appropriate classroom where the literacy intervention could be implemented was a major constraint in that school.

**TABLE U: TERM ONE LITERACY RESULTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of learners</th>
<th>Code 1</th>
<th>Code 2</th>
<th>Code 3</th>
<th>Code 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The majority of learners received good marks in listening and speaking. The analysis of data showed that they were struggling in reading, creative writing and hand writing. This indicates that struggling readers and writers could be able to perform oral skills.

**TABLE V: TERM TWO LITERACY RESULTS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of learners</th>
<th>Code 1</th>
<th>Code 2</th>
<th>Code 3</th>
<th>Code 4</th>
<th>Code 5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The term two results showed significant improvement of learner’s literacy skills. In term one only three learners met the pass requirements. However, term two had nine learners who met the pass requirements (i.e. codes four and above). This suggests that the literacy intervention programme had a positive impact on learners’ literacy skills. The reasons for that improvement could be that the literacy intervention teacher had good teaching experience. She had thirty five years of teaching experience. She taught Grade one for twenty years and she had been teaching in the literacy intervention programme for fifteen years. The teacher’s
interview showed that she was knowledgeable on how to support learners with literacy difficulties. Even though, the learners did not receive support daily the teacher’s teaching strategies and resources helped were useful in supporting the learners’ literacy skills. This implies that if the learners had received support every day, the majority of them could have met the pass requirements.

In short, the data from documents demonstrated that learners’ literacy skills could improve when they participate in the literacy intervention programme. The term one and term two literacy assessment results are evidence of that. However, the implementation of literacy intervention programme in the selected schools had limitations. There was no special classroom for the literacy intervention class. Learners did not receive support regularly. Parents were not involved in their children’s education as the Deputy Principal mentioned that they were young parents, some of whom were irresponsible. The community where the school was situated was overcrowded and there was no community library.

### 4.6 Summary

This chapter analysed the data collected from the lessons which I observed and from the interviews I conducted with three teachers. It also analysed data from learner’s written activities and their literacy assessment results. The analysed data showed the strengths and weaknesses of the literacy intervention programme. The next chapter discusses the findings of this study, and draws conclusion and recommendations.
CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The study investigated the implementation of a Literacy Intervention Programme with Grade One isiXhosa speaking learners in one primary school in the Western Cape. The aim of this chapter is to discuss the summary of the findings of this study. From the findings of this study, I draw conclusions and recommendation. The findings are guided by the research questions which were stated in Chapter one and are as follows:

1) What are the guiding principles of the implementation of the Grade One literacy intervention programme at the school?
2) What strategies do the teachers use to implement the literacy intervention programme in the Grade One classroom?
3) What support do the teachers get from the school and district management to implement the literacy intervention programme?
4) How are parents involved in the Grade One literacy intervention programme?
5) How can the literacy intervention programme be strengthened to enhance Grade One learner’s literacy skills in isiXhosa?

5.2 Research Findings

The following are the findings of the study which address the research questions mentioned above.

5.2.1 Independent Critical Thinking as a Guiding Principle in Literacy Intervention Programmes

The analysed data from the teachers’ interviews shows that the intervention principles are to support struggling readers and writers until they are able to work independently. Learning to read is one of the significant skills for children in the school. If learners experience difficulties in these skills, the literacy intervention should be implemented. The teachers’ responses from interviews indicated that the purpose of literacy intervention is to close the
gap so that struggling readers and writers could acquire literacy skills that are required for Grade one level. Each learner in the intervention programme receives attention than in the regular class. Learners get more time than their peers who are able to read and write.

The study noted that, one of the principles of literacy intervention programme is to support these learners on a daily basis. However, in the selected school they received support once a week and they only receive group support.

According to CAPS (2011:15) there are five main components of teaching reading namely, phonemic awareness or word recognition (sight words), phonics, comprehension, vocabulary and fluency. All these components should be practiced daily. Phonemic awareness is to recognize that spoken language has a sequence of sounds and being able to recognize these individual sounds, how they form words and how these words can make sentences. Phonemic awareness should be developed from Grade One. Activities that develop phonemic awareness include:

a. rhymes which focus on syllable units (e.g. clapping hands for names e.g. [i-vi-li/ wheel],
b. activities that focus on phonemes (e.g. put the sounds together [vu-la/ o-pe-n, matching activities,
c. isolation activities (e.g. what sound do you hear from the word “van”?),
d. blending activities (e.g. which word do you have if you put these sounds together
e. [i-le-li]? and
f. substitution activities (what word would you have if you replace [v] in vula/ with [g]?) (CAPS 2011:15).

Phonics refer to sounds in words and symbols (letters of the alphabet) used to present them. Phonics are important elements of reading and writing (CAPS 2011:16). Word recognition entails recognizing an individual word on sight through continuous repetition of words.

Shared and guided reading model includes the five finger strategy whereby the reader could use to figure out how to read unknown words. The five finger strategy uses all fingers. The thumb guides the reader to leave the word out and read to the end of the sentence. The first finger means to look at the picture. The child reads the picture. The second finger is to look at
the word and see if any parts of the word are known. The reader reads only the letter he or she knows. The third finger means to sound the word out. The reader reads only the sounds that he or she understands from the word. The fourth finger is to ask for help in reading the word or understanding its meaning (CAPS 2011:16).

According to CAPS (2011:17) comprehension during reading engages learners in levels of thinking. The teacher could use literal comprehension, for example, questions such as describe the main character in the story, find the name of the book he was reading, show the part of the story you liked best, locate the place the family was driving to in the story and state the name of the tittle black dog run away.

The CAPS document (2011:17) suggests that teacher asks learners to reorganize questions such as compare, contrast, divide, classify, summarize and describe. The evaluation questions are significant include questions such as should, in your opinion, do you agree, would you have, is it right that and what best describes. The teacher needs to ask inferential questions, for example, pretend, suppose, could, what are the implications, what might have happened if and what were the consequences? The last questioning style involves appreciation, for example, what you thought, do you know anyone like and why do you like or dislike? (CAPS 2011:19). Inferential questions help the child to refer to their own lives. That is why it is important to choose a story that is relevant to the context of learners so that they could be able to relate the situation in the story to real life.

Another component of reading is reading fluency. According to CAPS (2011:19) reading fluency involves being able to accurately identify the majority of words, to recognise and read words quickly, reading smoothly with appropriate phrasing and expression and comprehension. In order to improve the reading fluency the teacher has to teach specific reading skills for decoding and word recognition. This could be done if the teacher selects simple texts, provides more interesting texts, reads books and increase the volume of text (CAPS 2011:19).

The last component is reading aloud. During story time the teacher reads aloud. The aim of reading aloud is to develop whole language skills including those of reading. Reading aloud creates the love of reading and passion for stories (CAPS 2011:19).
5.2.2 Learner-centred Approaches support literacy teaching and learning

The teacher recognised the learners’ prior knowledge. For example, in all observed lessons, she revised the previous lesson. She asked the learners to give the name of the object which was on the picture. The teacher used flashcards, big books, and pictures. These resources were used for both reading and phonic lessons. For example, the teacher used flashcards in the phonic lesson when she presented the letter [v]. Learners used flashcards when they built the words. The words with [v] letter were written on the flashcards. She used the flashcards to build the word [ileli]. These flashcards were good resources as they allowed the learners to be actively engaged in their learning. An apprenticeship approach and learner-centred teaching strategy were followed in the phonics and reading lessons. The teacher’s role was a facilitator. She demonstrated the lesson and learners worked on their own but she scaffolded while they read or built words. The teacher prepared flashcards and pictures for phonics and reading lessons.

This study found that the teachers used book that was at the learners’ level. For example, when the teacher read the story with learners they enjoyed reading as all of them were involved during reading. It was not a big book but learners were able to see pictures and words because learners were seated on the mat and she was close to them. She read aloud. In that way she followed the current curriculum which recommended that one of the components of reading is reading aloud (CAPS 2011:19). The teacher has to do this during story time. The aim of reading aloud is to develop whole language skills including those of reading. Learners who are exposed to reading aloud tend to have love of reading for enjoyment (CAPS 2011:19). During story reading learners learn that print is read from left to write. Some of the components of reading are phonemic awareness, blending word recognition, phonics and comprehending (CAPS 2011:15). All these components were implemented to develop the reading skills of learners. The teacher did not develop reading skills only, the writing skills too were developed. For example, after each lesson there was a writing activity as learners drew a picture of a wheel that presented [v]. Learners identified and circled the letter [v]. Learners recognised, copied words that presented the action picture matched the big vowels and the small vowels and coloured the picture of a train that represented the letter [l].
The study also found that the teacher used drawings. According to Hickman and O’Carroll (2013) drawing, scribbling and pretend writing are an important foundation of learning to write. Learners pretended writing when they wrote [v] and [l] in the air.

However, there were constraints that hinder the implementation of literacy intervention programmes. For example, the learners did not get support every day. In the school where I conducted this study, there was no classroom where literacy intervention programme resources could be displayed to promote emergent reading. The teacher used group teaching. There was no individualised learning support as she complained about many classes and big numbers.

According to Weimer (2013) in learner-centered teaching the role of the teacher is to facilitate learning. This approach does not follow the traditional view of teaching where all information is presented by a teacher and learners are passive listeners. Learners are actively involved in their own learning. The teacher supports the learning efforts of the learners. Teachers understand that a learner-centered approach requires discovery and invention (Weimer 2013). Learning involves active engagement between learners and the objects and teachers acts as guides because learners are actively involved in learning tasks. Learners are not passive but are actively working on their own (Weimer 2013). Learners are not viewed as empty vessels that need to be filled. This approach is also appropriate in higher education. According to Doyle (2008) learner-centered approach gives students more control over their learning as they have a choice about what to learn and how to learn.

Glasgow and Farewell (2007) suggest that for literacy teaching the teacher should provide learners with more detailed information about the word recognition. Learners have to consider individual letters and sounds in words. Glasgow and Farewell (2007) add that teachers should realize that word recognition relies heavily on graphonic knowledge. Words are recognized by attending to the environment in which they are paced. This shows that the focus should be in print because once learners are able to recognize words; they could be able to read. The focus should be on reading words and not on learning rules. For example, when I observed the reading lesson, the teacher helped learners to read each letter in the word [i-l-e-i] and when they read the sentence [UVelile uvula ivili leveni/ Velile opens the wheel of a van]. She did not focus on the rules of sentence structure because the aim of the lesson was to improve reading skills of struggling learners.
Glasgow and Farewell (2007) propose that teachers should consider the language they use to coach learners, not to make it incomprehensible. Therefore, the LoLT plays a significant role so that learners could be able to comprehend. For example, in this study learners were taught in their home language, isiXhosa, and it was the teacher’s HL too.

The literacy teaching strategies include repetition and guided practice with an able adult or peer (Mc Cormack and Pasquarelli 2010). Grant, Golden and Wilson, (2015:359) maintain that the purpose of repeated reading is to allow learners to read short passages until they achieve a satisfactory level of fluency with the passage. The role of a teacher during repeated reading is to facilitate learning (Grant et al. 2015). In this study, learners did not repeat reading only, but were also involved in building the words.

Mc Cormack and Pasquarelli (2010) suggest that learners could be motivated to read if their environment is print-rich, and if they are involved in choosing text and materials to read. This approach provides learners with an opportunity to read independently and to discuss with others what they have learnt.

The literacy intervention teacher mentioned that she did not have a classroom where she could paste posters that promotes reading. Mc Cormack and Pasquarelli (2010) emphasize the significance of a print-rich classroom. This seems to suggest that the literacy intervention programme was not properly implemented in the selected school as learners were not involved in choosing reading material.

5.2.3 Teacher Development Workshops to enhance Literacy Teaching

This study found that the WCED allocates money for the literacy intervention programme. The Learning Support Adviser (LSA) gives the teachers an assessment plan on what to assess learners in the intervention class. Every month the literacy intervention teacher attends workshops and cluster meetings. The purpose of these workshops and cluster meeting was to improve the teachers’ literacy teaching strategies.

The school Senior Management Team (SMT) ask teachers to identify and refer learners at risk of reading and writing to the literacy intervention programme. They buy resources for the
literacy intervention programme. However, it seemed that the SMT did not recognise the school had a challenge of big numbers in that class and the significance of a special classroom where the intervention could be implemented effectively.

5.2.4 Lack of Parental Involvement

The study found that parents are not involved in the literacy intervention programme. Parents were informed as they signed the letters that informed them that their children received extra support from the literacy intervention class. The literacy intervention class mentioned that she was willing to train parents so that they would be able to intensify the concept taught at school. The teacher’s response showed that if learners received support at school only their literacy skill could not improve.

Hickman and O’Carrol (2013) suggested that the child’s surroundings should be print rich. Hickman and Carrol (2013) claim that literacy skills do not begin at school, but they begin at home. So parents and caregivers have to give all children an equal chance to achieve their full potential through laying the foundation of learning before school. Hickman and O’Carrol (2013) believe that children who missed the opportunities to build early literacy at home they are already behind when they begin formal schooling. To support this, the majority of learners that attended the literacy intervention class did not attend Grade R. These learners were from home to school. Therefore, the intervention programme that focuses on literacy would be effective to assist struggling learners so that they could be on the same grade level with their peers. So, for literacy development, the school and home should be language rich environments.

5.2.5 Supply of adequate teaching resources

This study found that the school needs urgent improvement on how the literacy intervention could be implemented. To improve the literacy skills of Grade one learners there should be a special classroom where the learners that need support could be assisted. The number of learners should be appropriate so that each learner could receive a special support according to his or her needs. All teachers that teach in the Foundation Phase should be trained on how to support struggling readers in their classroom because they have the opportunity to meet these learners every day. Struggling readers needs daily support, not once a week. The
WCED should allocate the learning support teachers according to the school classes in the Foundation Phase. For example, in that school Grades R, one and two, should have their own literacy intervention teacher so that learners could receive support every day.

5.3 CONCLUSION

Based on the findings of this study, in schools the learners who are struggling to read and write are referred to a literacy intervention programme. The purpose of the programme is to assist them by closing the gap so that they could be in the same level as their peers in Grade one. Both reading and writing skills are developed. The literacy intervention teacher receives support from the WCED and the SMT. However, the support is not enough if they do not consider where the programme could take place. Lack of appropriate resources has a big influence on how literacy intervention is implemented. The research findings suggest that if the literacy intervention programmes in schools are implemented only when there is a space, the literacy level of learners will always fall below the expected levels.

Parental involvement plays a crucial part in the child learning. It is important that teachers and parents have mutual understanding of what promotes literacy skills. It is essential to understand that literacy practices are part of people’s lives. The learners use these skills beyond the school environment.

This study was conducted in a school where all teachers and learners spoke isiXhosa as their home language and that implies isiXhosa as LoLT is an appropriate language for teaching and learning in the Foundation Phase. Even though teachers and learners share isiXhosa as Home Language, the school needs to improve on how these learners are supported in the literacy intervention programme. This implies that the learners’ home language does not necessarily determine good literacy performance if the teaching methods are inadequate and where the socioeconomic environment is not conducive to teaching and learning.
5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The number of Grade R classes should be the same as Grade one e.g. if Grade R is less than the actual Grade One in numbers, that implies that there may be more children who never attended Early Childhood Development (ECD) classrooms to gain formal literacy experience.

2. When the WCED allocate intervention teachers, firstly, they should consider the number of Grade one and R classes. The WCED should allocate more than one LSEN teacher per school.

3. In the Foundation Phase each Grade should have a literacy intervention teacher so that learners could receive support daily.

4. All teachers need to be trained for literacy intervention. One hour or two hours in-service training is not enough.

5. Each school should have an intervention classroom, so that the teachers could work easily. If they do not have their own classroom, they are unable to have print rich classrooms.

6. Schools should buy resources for regular classes so that learners could get support from their class teacher.

7. The WCED should re-examine the teacher-learner ratio, especially in Grade One as all learners in this Grade need attention. A teacher-learner ratio plays an important role if schools focus in quality literacy results.

8. With regard to age cohort, these learners need to attend intervention classes until they are able to read and write.

5.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This research set out to investigate the implementation of the literacy intervention programme in the Grade one classroom in order to determine its benefits and constraints. Another study could investigate how the literacy intervention is implemented in one of the Western Cape schools where the LoLT is English or Afrikaans. Some schools interview learners so that those who do not meet their requirements could not be accepted. In the school where I conducted this study, there are no interviews for admission. Therefore, there is a need to investigate how age cohort learners are supported in the mainstream classrooms.
REFERENCES


Steinhaus, P., L. (2011). Nurturing Phonemic Awareness and Alphabetic Knowledge in Pre-kindergartners


APPENDIX A

PERMISSION LETTER FROM WESTERN CAPE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT (WCED)
Dear Mrs Nomfundo Nondalana

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: INVESTIGATING THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A SCHOOL-BASED LITERACY INTERVENTION PROGRAMME: A CASE OF GRADE 1 ISIKHOSA SPEAKING LEARNERS IN THE WESTERN CAPE

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:

1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators’ programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from 13 April 2015 till 26 June 2015.
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number.
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to: The Director: Research Services Western Cape Education Department Private Bag X9114 CAPE TOWN 8000

We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.
Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard
Directorate: Research
DATE: 10 April 2015
APPENDIX B

CONSENT LETTERS
I. INFORMED CONSENT FORM (PRINCIPAL)

Title: Investigating the Implementation of a School-based Literacy Intervention Programme: A case of Grade 1 IsiXhosa Speaking Learners in the Western Cape

Researcher: N T Nondalana

Contact Details: Cellular no: 0730354638

Email: 2921262@myuwc.ac.za

As the Principal of ..................... Primary School, I hereby acknowledge the following:

a. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of the study.
b. She has also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purpose only.
c. I have given her permission to observe in the Grade 1 literacy intervention classroom, and if necessary to use audio and video recordings.
d. I am willing to be interviewed and to provide her with all relevant documents she may require.
e. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I can withdraw from the study at any stage.
f. I understand that my participation in the study will remain anonymous and that my inputs will be verified by me before being used.

Signed.......................  

Date .........................

Place ........................
[To protect the identity of the principal, the signed consent letter is not included]
Dear Parent

Re: Permission to observe your child’s learning in literacy lessons

My name is Nomfundo Tiny Nondalana. I am a Masters student in the Language Education Department, Faculty of Education at the University of the Western Cape. I am conducting research on the implementation of the literacy intervention programme in the Grade 1 classroom in order to determine its benefits and constraints. The title of my research is: *Investigating the Implementation of a School-based Literacy Intervention Programme: A case of Grade 1 IsiXhosa Speaking Learners in the Western Cape.*

I would like to request your permission to sit in your child’s intervention lessons and observe how he/she interacts with teacher and her peers. I would also like to observe her/his written activities. The research will not interfere in any way with your child’s learning in the classroom. In addition, all participants in the study will remain anonymous. Information received as part of the study will be used for research purposes only. It will not be used in any public platform for any purposes other than to understand how the literacy intervention programme is implemented in Grade 1.

If at any stage you have questions about the research study, please do not hesitate to contact me or my supervisor, Professor Nomlomo, whose contact details are provided below:
Tel. 021 – 959 2650/2442

Email: vnomlomo@uwc.ac.za

I hope that you will consider my request.

Yours sincerely

______________________
Nomfundo Tiny Nondalana
Student Number: 2921262
Email: 2921262@uwc.ac.za
INFORMED CONSENT LETTER FOR PARENTS

Title: Investigating the Implementation of a School-based Literacy Intervention Programme: A case of Grade 1 IsiXhosa Speaking Learners in the Western Cape

Researcher: N T Nondalana

Contact Details: Cellular no: 0730354638
Email: 2921262@uwc.ac.za

I …………………….. hereby grant Ms Nondalana permission to sit in my child’s literacy lessons and look at her/his writing books. I hereby acknowledge the following:

The researcher has explained to me the purpose of the study.

a. She has also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purpose only.

b. I have given her permission to observe in the Grade 1 literacy intervention classroom, and if necessary to use audio and video recordings.

c. I am willing to be interviewed and to provide her with all relevant documents she may require.

d. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I can withdraw from the study at any stage.

e. I understand that my participation in the study will remain anonymous and that my inputs will be verified by me before being used.

Signed…………………… (Parent/Caregiver)
III.TRANSLATED VERSION OF PARENTS’ INFORMATION SHEET AND CONSENT FORM

University of the Western Cape

ILETA YESICELO SEMVUME KUBAZALI

X Primary school
Siyabonga Street
Dunoon
Table view
Milnerton
7445

Mzali Obekekileyo

Isicelo semvume skubukela umntwana wakho kwizifundo zelitherasi


Injongo yolu phando kukuphanda indlela abathi baxhaswe ngayo abafundi abasilelwe kwilitherasi. Loo nto iyakunceda ukuba ndijonge ukuba loluphi uncedo olufunyanwa ngabantwana, kwaye izeziphi izinto eziyimiceli mngeni.
Ndicela imvume yokuhlala kweli gumbi loncedo ndijonge umntwana wakho ngeli lixa utitshala abafundisayo ukuze ndibone ukuba unxibelelana njani naye, kunye noontanga bakhe. Ndikwacela ukujonga umsebenzi womntwana awubhalileyo.


Ukuba unemibuzo malunga nolu phando, nceda undazise okanye uqhagamshelane nekhankatha lam, uNjingalwazi Nomlomo, kwezi nkcukacha uzinikwe ngezantsi:

Imfonomfono: 021 – 959 2650/2442

I-imeyili: vnomlomo@uwc.ac.za

Ndiyabulela ngentsebenziswano.

Ozithobileyo

---

Nomfundo Tiny Nondalana  
Student Number: 2921262  
Email: 2921262@uwc.ac.za
IMVUME YOMZALI


Umphandi: N T Nondalana

Iinkcukacha zonxibelelwano:

Unomyayi: 0730354638

I-imeyili: 2921262@uwc.ac.za

Mna, -------------------------------, ndiyamvumela uNkszn Nondalana ukuba abukele kwigumbi lokufundisa umntwana wam, kwaye aphonononge neencwadi zakhe zokubhala. Ndivakalisa noku kulandelayo:

I hereby acknowledge the following:

a. Umphandi undicacisele injongo yolu phando.

b. Ukwandicacisele ukuba lonke ulwazi oluqokelelwayo lwakusetyenziselwa injongo yolu phando kuphela.

c. Ndimnikile imvume yokubukela izifundo zongenelelo kwilitherasi kwigumbi labaqalayo, kwaye anze ushicilelo olumanyelawyo nolwevidiyo apho kuyimfuneko.

d. Ndizimisele ukudlana iindlebe naye nokumnika onke amaxwebhu anokuthi awafune.
e. Ndiyaqona ukuba ndizingenela ngokuthanda kolu phando, kwaye ndingarhoxa nangaliphi na ixesha lokuqhubekela kophando.

f. Ndiyaqonda ukuba inxaxheba yam kolu phando iyakuba yimfihlo, kwaye lonke igalelo lam lakungqinisiswa kum phambi kokuba lisetyenziswe.

Utyikityo lomzali/Impelesi: ______________________

Umhla: ____________________
IV. INFORMED CONSENT FORM (GRADE 1 LITERACY INTERVENTION TEACHER)

Title: Investigating the Implementation of a School-based Literacy Intervention Programme: A case of Grade 1 IsiXhosa Speaking Learners in the Western Cape

Researcher: N T Nondalana

Contact Details:

Cell: 0730354638

Email: 2921262@uwc.ac.za

As a Grade 1 literacy intervention teacher at …………………….. Primary School, I hereby acknowledge the following:

a. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of the study.

b. She has also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purpose only.

c. I have given her permission to observe in the Grade 1 literacy intervention classroom, and if necessary to use audio and video recordings.

d. I am willing to be interviewed and to provide her with all relevant documents she may require.

e. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I can withdraw from the study at any stage.

f. I understand that my participation in the study will remain anonymous and that my inputs will be verified by me before being used.
Signed……………………

Date ……………………

Place ……………………
V. INFORMED CONSENT FORM (FOUNDATION PHASE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL)

Title: Investigating the Implementation of a School-based Literacy Intervention Programme: A case of Grade 1 IsiXhosa Speaking Learners in the Western Cape

Researcher: N T Nondalana

Contact Details:

Cell: 0730354638

Email: 2921262@uwc.ac.za

As the Foundation Phase Deputy Principal at …………………. Primary School, I hereby acknowledge the following:

a. The researcher has explained to me the purpose of the study.

b. She has also explained to me that all information received as part of the study will be used for research purpose only.

c. I have given her permission to observe in the Grade 1 literacy intervention classroom, and if necessary to use audio and video recordings.

d. I am willing to be interviewed and to provide her with all relevant documents she may require.

e. I understand that my participation is voluntary and I can withdraw from the study at any stage.

f. I understand that my participation in the study will remain anonymous and that my inputs will be verified by me before being used.

Signed……………………

Date ……………………..

Place ……………………..
APPENDIX: C LITERACY INTERVENTION TEACHER INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How long have you been teaching?
2. What is your highest qualification?
3. How long have you been teaching in Grade 1?
4. What do you understand about literacy intervention programme?
5. How long have you been teaching in the literacy intervention class?
6. What are the principles underlying the Grade 1 Literacy Intervention programme in your school?
7. What approaches do you use in literacy intervention class? Why?
8. What challenges do you experience as a literacy intervention teacher?
9. What do you think are the causes of such challenges?
10. What help do you get from the school Head of the Department, Curriculum advisors and colleagues?
11. What kinds of materials do you use to promote literacy in the Home Language (isiXhosa)?
12. How do you share teaching resources with other Grade 1 teachers?
13. What strategies work well for you in literacy development intervention and why?
14. When last did you go for in-service training in literacy teaching?
15. How effective are the programmes offered by Western Cape Education Department in assisting your teaching in the literacy intervention programme?
16. What do you think should happen to support your teaching in the literacy intervention class?
APPENDIX D

FOUNDATION PHASE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL AND PRINCIPAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS
APPENDIX: D FOUNDATION PHASE DEPUTY PRINCIPAL

1. What are the principles underlying the Grade 1 Literacy Intervention programme in your school?
2. What do you think are the benefits of the Literacy Intervention Programme?
3. What are the constraints?
4. Are your teachers in the intervention programme trained for this?
5. How many of the teachers have not been trained for assisting struggling learners?
6. What kind of measures do you have to support educators that have not been trained?
7. What role do you play in the implementation of the literacy intervention programme?
8. How do you support the teachers HODs in the implementation of literacy intervention programme?

APPENDIX: D PRINCIPAL

1. What are the principles underlying the Grade 1 Literacy Intervention programme?
2. What are the benefits of Literacy Intervention Programme?
3. What are the constraints?
4. How many Grade 1 teachers are in the literacy intervention programme?
5. Are the teachers in the intervention programme trained for this?
6. How many of the teachers have not been trained for assisting struggling learners?
7. What kind of measures do you have to support educators that have not been trained?
8. How often do you send the Foundation Phase staff for in-service training?
9. What are the literacy challenges that your school is faced with?
10. What role do you play in the implementation of the literacy intervention programme?
11. How do you support the Grade 1 teachers and HODs in the implementation of literacy intervention programme?
APPENDIX E

OBSERVED LESSONS, TEACHING RESOURCES AND LEARNERS’ WRITTEN ACTIVITIES

I. Revision of term one sounds
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a</th>
<th>e</th>
<th>i</th>
<th>o</th>
<th>u</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>l</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>m</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
II. Resources used for teaching Lesson one a phonic lesson
LEARNERS WRITTEN ACTIVITIES AFTER LESSON ONE
Learner 3
TEACHER RESOURCES FOR READING LESSON TWO

uVebile uvuulu uleveni
LEARNERS’ WRITTEN ACTIVITIES AFTER LESSON TWO

LEARNER 4
Biza isandi biyelo oo Vv
Biza isandi biyela oo!
Biza isandi biyela oo!
Biza isandi biyela oo V.
TEACHER RESOURCES FOR LESSON 3 READING AND PHONIC LESSONS
i-apile

amasi

amaso
i-emele

eli  ekuseni
i-orenjī

i-omo
UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

i-inki

iliso  ivili
ubuso

usana
university of the western cape

uloliwe

lala ileli
LEARNERS’ WRITTEN ACTIVITY AFTER LESSON 3
LEARNER 8
LEARNER 10
the
get
get
get
get

get
get

Tsatsa

university of the western cape

9/3/15
2. Mahalitše

Khetha igama ubhale ngezars
komfanekise, ivili, ileli, ulele, vula, ilali

UNIVERSITY of the
WESTERN CAPE

12/06/15

LEARNER 13
2. Lapha kwakho

Khetha igama ubhale ngezant:
kompakise, ili, ilele, uma.

LEARNER 14
Khetha igama ubhale ngezani
komfanekiso, ivili, itelisi, utelezi
vula yilali.

Sikho
UNIVERSITY of the WESTERN CAPE

ulolive

lala
ileli

28/05/2015