

PSYCHOSOCIAL WELLBEING SERIES

Community-School Partnerships: Guidelines for supporting early literacy learning

Part one:

*Background theory, overview of
the programme and guidelines
for setting up programmes*



Author: Dr Shelley O'Carroll

wordworks


Psychosocial Wellbeing For All Children



Psychosocial Wellbeing For All Children

REPSI is a regional non-governmental organisation working with partners to promote psychosocial care and support (PSS) for children affected by HIV and AIDS, poverty and conflict in East and Southern Africa.

THE REPSI PSYCHOSOCIAL WELLBEING SERIES

Through this series, REPSI strives to publish high-quality, user-friendly, evidence-based manuals and guidelines, all characterised by subject matter that can be said to address the issue of psychosocial wellbeing. Within the series, different publications are aimed at different levels of audience or user. This audience includes: 1) community workers, 2) a variety of social actors whose work is not explicitly psychosocial in nature, but in which it is felt to be crucial to raise awareness around psychosocial issues, 3) caregivers, parents, youth and children, 4) specialised psychosocial and mental health practitioners. Apart from formal impact assessments, towards further developing the evidence base for our tools and approaches, we welcome user feedback around our materials.

The standardised feedback form and a full list of all the titles in the series can be downloaded from www.repspi.org

Jonathan Morgan

Editor, REPSI Psychosocial Wellbeing Series



Contents

1	Introduction	3
2	The programme	5
3	Why were these guidelines written?	8
4	Steps to becoming literate: how children learn to read and write	10
5	Programme outline for the first year of formal schooling	16
6	Building foundations in the year before school	20
7	Case study: Ready Steady Read !	22
8	Getting started: Materials and resources	25
9	More theory on effective intervention programmes	29
10	Frequently asked questions	33
11	Glossary and definition of terms	35
12	References and further reading	36
13	Credits and acknowledgements	39
	Appendix: Recommended list of easy readers	40
	Copyright information	42

Foreword

WORDWORKS is a non-profit organisation in South Africa whose primary aim is to support the literacy and language development of young children in disadvantaged communities. Since 2004, we have been working with parents, volunteers and children in libraries and schools in the Cape Town area. Our work has shown that there is a need for locally developed resources to help communities give young children a good foundation for learning to read and write. Together with REPSSI, we have developed two sets of guidelines for supporting early literacy development. These guidelines complement each other and follow the natural progression from informal learning in the home to formal learning at school. They have a similar theoretical basis and share some resources. They are nevertheless self-contained and can be implemented independently.

The guidelines for *Home-School Partnerships* are intended for facilitators working with parents, caregivers and families on how to support learning at home. They are appropriate for parents and caregivers of children between the ages of 4 and 7 years. They promote informal learning and are applicable across languages and cultures. The guidelines do not aim to impose a set of ideals or an educational framework on communities, but rather seek to inspire parents and caregivers to support children in fulfilling their true learning potential.

The guidelines for *Community-School Partnerships* can be used to train a team of volunteers, community workers, library staff or teacher assistants to support young children as they learn to read and write. They are aimed at children from 6 to 7 years of age, in their first year of school, and will also benefit older children who are having difficulty learning to read and write. Some of the activities could also be used as part of the curriculum in the year

REPSSI is a regional organisation working across 13 countries in Southern and Eastern Africa. We exist to provide leadership, quality technical assistance and knowledge in psychosocial care and support for children in communities affected by HIV and AIDS, poverty and conflict. REPSSI advocates that services, programmes and policies designed to support vulnerable communities need to respond holistically to the needs and rights of children and communities.

You may be asking how these educational interventions are psychosocial interventions or why they belong in the REPSSI Psychosocial Wellbeing Series. The term psychosocial intervention has come to refer to any planned programme or activity that aims to improve the psychosocial wellbeing of people. Psychosocial interventions build upon a child's natural resilience and family and community support mechanisms, and attempt to provide additional experiences that will promote coping and positive development, despite the adversities experienced.

If psychosocial interventions stand alone, without links to family and community interactions, and to other programme areas, they have limited potential to effectively contribute to the psychosocial wellbeing of the individual and of the group. Many interventions that are not planned or conceived as psychosocial interventions can have significant psychosocial impact. Examples of such interventions are welfare grants and nutritional support. By removing significant stressors, such as hunger, general wellbeing, including psychosocial wellbeing is likely to improve. What is important is 'how' the nutritional support is offered and that psychosocial issues are not ignored.

Although these two sets of guidelines are educational in nature, by working to prevent school failure, we will be removing one of the factors that could impact negatively on children's psychosocial wellbeing. Our experience has shown that both programmes also have direct psychosocial benefits. The Home-School Partnership Programme helps to develop a sense

before formal schooling. The teaching materials are in English and are appropriate for children learning to read and write in English as a second language.

Both guidebooks are appropriate for any community with high poverty levels, low levels of parental education and under-resourced schools with large classes. The programmes promote inclusive and child-centred education and encourage both children and adults to become life-long learners.

The guidelines were not written specifically for teachers. However, it is our experience that teachers have found them to be useful. The programmes are essentially 'preventative' programmes and are not necessarily for children who are struggling. They simply aim to give children what they need to 'close the literacy gap'.

'Middle class children clearly enter school with an advantage. Teacher training is often based on these middle class experiences of reading levels and teachers base their teaching on these phases – assuming that all children have access to early literacy interventions. When learners don't make progress it is assumed that natural ability is lacking and that they require 'remedial' support. Primary school (often) fails to give many learners what they need to close the literacy gap. This, coupled with the relentless pace of the curriculum, ensures that they will not succeed with the demands of secondary schooling, and that they don't expect to. Many learners experience secondary schooling, not as an entry to adult life, but a waste of time. (Rose, 2003)



Shelley O'Carroll
Wordworks Executive Director

of hope and build the self-esteem of women living in situations of extreme poverty by focusing on small, manageable tasks which will impact positively on children's learning. In the Community-School Partnership Programme, positive relationships with caring tutors have an impact on children's self-worth and confidence. A greater sense of mastery in daily school activities contributes to psychosocial wellbeing.

In line with the other guidelines in the psychosocial wellbeing series, these resources are primarily preventative and not necessarily aimed at 'at-risk' groups. The programmes will benefit all children who are affected by poverty.



Noreen Masiwa Huni
REPSSI Executive Director

1 Introduction

Who are these guidelines for?

Teachers or learning support teachers may find the resources useful for small group work in the classroom. However, the programme was developed so that it could be used by people who do not have teacher training. These 'tutors' could be:

- volunteers
- community workers
- teacher assistants
- library staff

Uses of the programme

In a school context, a learning support teacher could use the guidelines as a resource for training a team of volunteers to support children who are at risk for reading difficulties. A librarian could use the guidelines to set up a team of library assistants to work with children in a library after school. A community-based organisation that works with young children might train members to include some of the activities in their day-to-day work.



The programme can be used for the following:

- As part of the curriculum for children in Grade R to ensure they develop a solid foundation for literacy
- As part of a 'catch up' programme for Grade One children who start school with very limited experience of print
- As part of a 'remedial' programme for older children who have not yet acquired basic literacy skills
- As part of a teaching programme for children who are literate in their mother tongue, but learning to read in English as a second language

What can you expect to find in the guidelines?

The guidelines consist of three parts:

- Part one:** Background theory, overview of the programme and guidelines for setting up programmes
- Part two:** Notes for tutors: Step-by-step guidelines for working directly with children
- Part three:** Resource pack

Part one is intended for a 'team leader' whose role it would be to learn about the programme and recruit and train a team to work directly with children. Team leaders who do not have a literacy background would benefit from participating in a training session. Team leaders who have some

experience teaching children to read should find that they can use these guidelines without training, although they would benefit from connecting with a school or organisation that is already running the programme. In Part one, Chapter 2 gives an overview of the programme and a description of the components of a lesson. Chapters 3 and 4 give some theory about how children learn to read, and the difficulties faced by children from high poverty contexts. More theory on effective interventions can be found in Chapter 9. The programme outline in Chapter 5 is an important guide to what to teach when, and should be used as a framework for planning lessons and monitoring children's progress. Chapter 6 looks at ways of including aspects of the programme in the curriculum in the year before formal schooling begins. In Chapters 7 and 8 you will find a practical example of how the programme has been used by a community library, and a list of resources that are required to start a programme.

Part two contains step-by-step instructions for the different components of a lesson. Each tutor will need a copy of these notes. Tutors will also need copies of the materials in the resource pack (Part three) in order to make up their own 'kit' for the programme.

2 The programme

The most effective way of setting up a programme is to have a number of people working directly with children, while a team leader is available during the lessons to make suggestions about new activities and to monitor the children's progress. For example, at some schools where we work, volunteers meet once a week at the school from 8 to 10.30am. Each volunteer works with two children from 8.30 to 9.30, and then with another two children from 9.30 to 10.30. In our experience it is important that:

- children attend at least one lesson a week for six months or more
- each volunteer works with the same children every week. The relationships that develop over time are key to the success of the programme



A group of volunteers at the Masiphumelele Library

Lesson components

- Lessons of 40 minutes are recommended for young children who have not started school, while those in their first year of formal schooling should manage 50 minutes to an hour. In order to keep up the interest and energy of young children, it is important that each activity lasts only 10 to 15 minutes.
- Each lesson should include four components:
 1. talking (5-10 minutes)
 2. reading (5-10 minutes)
 3. writing and drawing (15-20 minutes)
 4. wordplay (15-20 minutes)

Each component of the lesson is important. Talking acts as a stepping stone for reading, and children experience language in a book before facing the difficult task of writing. This is called a 'language experience' approach (Walker et al., 1984). Talking about a book makes the reading task easier and gives children new language to use when speaking and writing. If we use books in this way, they become important teachers of a second language (Gregory, 1996).



Variation: As a variation on the basic lesson, picture sequences can replace talking about and reading a book. Picture sequences are stories in their simplest form, and they are a useful tool for developing children's expressive language. A picture sequence lesson would include the following components:

1. talking about the pictures (5-10 minutes)
2. arranging them in the correct order and telling the story (5-10 minutes)
3. writing the story and drawing a picture (15-20 minutes)
4. wordplay (15-20 minutes)



3 Why were these guidelines written?

'School is directed to those who already know. Success in learning depends on the child's condition when he or she begins receiving instruction'

(Ferreiro and Teberosky, 1982, p. 280).

Over the years there has been much debate about how children learn to read and write. Traditionally, whole language approaches to teaching reading have been based on the idea that learning to read is similar to learning to speak (Goodman, 1967). We know that children learn to speak by being surrounded by language and by people talking to them in everyday encounters. By implication, children will learn to read if provided with an environment filled with print and meaningful encounters with print.

In high poverty contexts, children's early years are generally not characterised by 'print rich environments' and 'meaningful encounters with print'. High failure rates suggest that literacy is not 'emerging' as it might do in middle-class contexts. We know that 'children from actively literate families have developed all or most of their essential understandings about reading and writing from literacy experiences during their early childhood' (Walker, Rattanaovich and Oller, 1984, p. 2). Adams (1990) gives

the example of her son, who started school at age five with a wealth of knowledge about written language, as well as good letter recognition skills and awareness of sounds. She makes the point that her son had been read to for 30 to 45 minutes every day from the age of six weeks (amounting to 1000 to 1700 hours of storybook reading) and would have spent thousands of hours watching educational television programmes, participating in literacy activities at preschool and playing word and spelling games in the car. She proposes that 'he will learn to read on schedule because he has learned to read already' (p. 84). In contrast, Adams (1990) cites Teale and Sulzby's (1986) study of the home literacy exposure of children in low income homes and extrapolates their results to show that by the time these children enter Grade One they will have had about 25 hours of storybook experience and about 200 hours of general guidance regarding the form and function of print.

Wallach and Wallach (1976) warn that ‘classroom instruction from the very start assumes the presence of skills which some children, most often the children of the poor, simply have not yet acquired’ (p. 46). What are these pre-requisite skills, and how can we help children from disadvantaged communities acquire the skills and understanding that will help them to benefit from classroom literacy instruction? In particular, how can we support children who are learning to read in English as a second language?

This guidebook was written in response to these questions. The programme should better prepare children to take their first steps into literacy, fill in gaps in their learning, and supplement what is being done in classrooms. It will help children benefit more from daily classroom instruction by providing the necessary building blocks to support language and literacy learning.

The guidebook is based on the following early literacy resources and programmes: Reading Recovery (Clay, 1993); Concentrated Language Experience (Walker et al., 1984); Scaffolding emergent writing (Bodrova & Leong, 1998); Sound Linkage (Hatcher, 1994); Road to the Code

(Blachman, Ball, Black, & Tangel, 2000); Making Sense of a New World: Learning to Read in a Second Language (Gregory, 1996); Helping Children with Reading and Spelling (Reason & Boote, 1994); Phonemic Awareness in Young Children: A Classroom Curriculum (Adams, Foorman, Lundberg, & Beeler, 1998); Sound Foundations (Byrne & Fielding-Barnsley, 1991 b). These resources were adapted as part of a doctoral study conducted in disadvantaged schools in Cape Town, South Africa (O’Carroll, 2006).



4 Steps to becoming literate: *how children learn to read and write*

'Unfortunately, the majority of children don't just pick up the rules of written language. They need explicit and persistent help if they are to crack the code which, in an alphabetic system, relates letters or small groups of letters to the sounds of spoken language' (Oakhill, 1993, p.72)

What do skilled readers do?

We know that skilled readers use a number of different strategies when reading. They use the context to predict words and their knowledge of word meanings to understand what they read. They know which words usually go together and use this to make predictions. These are language-based skills that support reading and writing.

However, we also know that skilled readers pay attention to letters and individual words. They can sound out words they have never seen before and recognise words even when there is no context. To be able to sound out words and read words out of context, skilled readers need to have worked out that English is an alphabetic language – the sounds in spoken words are related to letters in written words, even if this is not always a perfect match.

Developing alphabetic understanding

English is an alphabetic writing system, even though there are many irregular words in which letters do not match sounds (e.g. yacht). The majority of words can be read using letter-sound knowledge, and even an irregular word will have some letters that match the sounds in the spoken words (e.g. **yacht**). To become a skilled reader, and to be able to write words, children need to learn how to make use of this alphabetic system.

The important step that children need to take is to realise that written language (the marks they see on paper) is related to the sounds in spoken words. Donaldson (1978) warns that awareness of a correspondence between written and spoken language 'should never be taken for granted' and that 'it is essential to make certain that the child understands that the marks on paper are a written version of speech' (p. 97).

In the words of Ferreiro and Teberosky (1982):

The relationship between oral and written language seems obvious to any literate adult. What else could the letters represent except the elementary sounds of the speech, even though this representation could only be approximate? What else could the series of letters with blanks in between represent except the words that we pronounce when we speak? It is difficult for us to imagine that someone may not look at writing in this way (p. 83).

This understanding that written language represents speech sounds marks a significant step in children's progress towards becoming readers. Before learning to read and write, most children are familiar with drawing as a way of representing things. Drawings of things look something like the things they represent. However, the difficulty with writing is that words are not in any way related to how things look, and children need to learn that written words are related to how we say things, not the things themselves. Studies have shown that many young children go through a stage of thinking that words relate to how things look, a big thing should be represented by a long word and a small thing by a small word (Ferreiro and Teberosky, 1982).

Young children who have no knowledge of writing as an alphabetic system, generally 'read' by making up or reciting a story to match the pictures in a

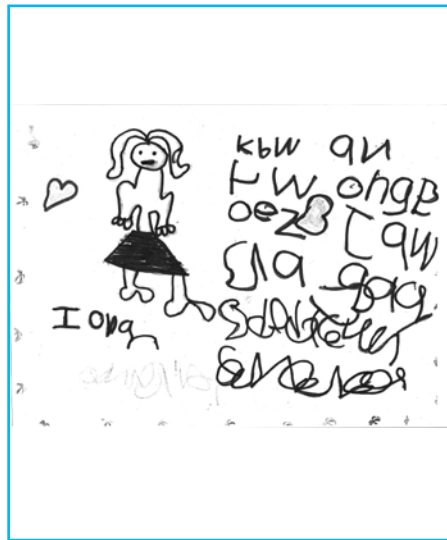
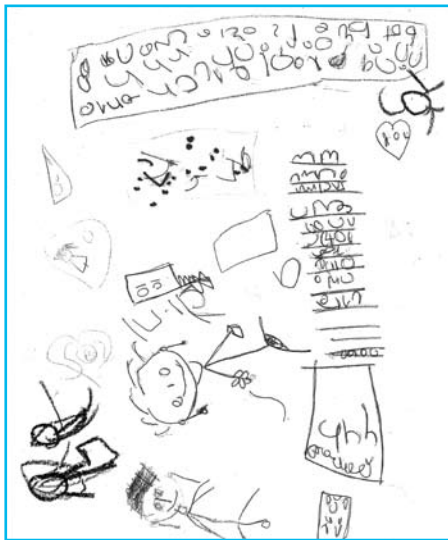
book. They might initially point to the pictures while 'reading', but gradually start to realise that you read printed words. However, they might still not have a concept of what a word is, and will tend to point to a sentence while saying a single word, or to a word while saying a whole sentence.

Children in this phase rely heavily on context when reading print in their environment, such as using colour cues to remember that a street sign says 'stop' or reading 'KFC' because of the logo. They do not understand that letters in written words are related to sounds in spoken language and see reading as remembering a visual sequence of letters using whatever cues are most helpful, such as word length and shape, and shapes of letters (e.g. the word **look** is often remembered by the two 'eyes' in the middle of the word). These links are arbitrary and are likely to mean that children frequently confuse words that have the same letters. More importantly, a visual learning strategy means that an emergent reader is initially reliant on someone to tell them what a word says – they have no way of working out by themselves what the word could be.

At this stage of their literacy development, children are keen to see how things are written and often ask a nearby adult to 'write it down'. This is an important part of writing development, for even though they are not physically doing the writing, children are learning important things about



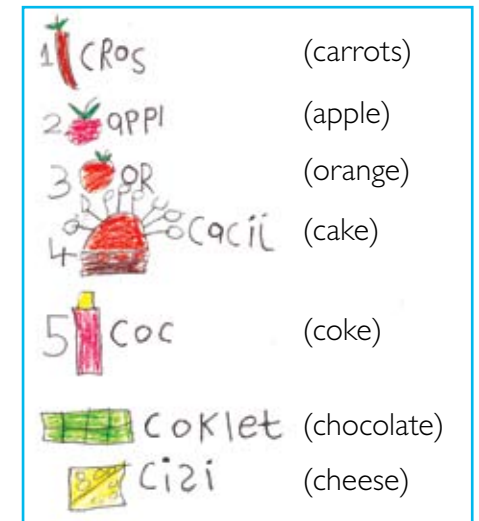
written language: that spoken words can be written, and that each spoken word corresponds to a written word. They are also developing confidence in expressing themselves and communicating a message through speaking and writing. When children initially 'write' themselves, they tend to use scribbles, marks and a mixture of numbers and letters. The following examples of emergent writing show the important developmental stage of realising that writing and drawing are different.



Why letters and sounds are useful

Scribbling or writing using random letters and symbols is an important developmental step. However, it is the next phase of writing development that really shows that a child has taken the first steps into literacy. Consider

the following example of writing (a shopping list written by a little girl who has just started school). Although these words are not spelt in a conventional way, they are meaningful attempts to represent the sounds in words. This type of 'invented spelling' or emergent writing is a good sign that the child can hear sounds in words, has some letter-sound knowledge, and knows that written language has something to do with the sounds in spoken words. The child is starting to discover how the system works.



In many studies of preschool children in first-world countries, researchers have found that children go through a phase of 'invented spelling' in preschool. Invented spelling means that children are experimenting with how to represent sounds in words – an important step before they begin formal schooling when the teacher will often show them how to write words. Studies have shown that in high poverty contexts, children are less likely to have an 'invented spelling' phase. In a study of Grade R children from a low socio-economic community in Cape Town, Willenberg (2004)

found that only about 30% of the 101 children in her sample attempted to write the words that were dictated in a spelling task. She suggests that 'to most of the children writing was something that they needed to be taught by a teacher and until such time as that happened, they did not write any words' (p. 81). She goes on to speculate that the children seemed to have a 'notion that writing is either done conventionally or not at all' (p. 82).

Studies have demonstrated a relationship between invented spelling and reading. Bradley and Bryant (1980) found that the ability to write words the way they sound preceded the ability to read among children, which suggests that alphabetic understanding might well be evident in children's writing before their reading. Mann, Tobin and Wilson (1987) found that invented spelling was a predictor of later reading ability, confirming the importance of a child's growing ability to represent sounds in words. They found that 'children who tend to give a higher proportion of phonologically-accurate, pre-conventional spellings tend to become better readers in the first grade' (p. 373).

Once children start using letters to represent sounds in words when writing, they are also likely to be paying attention to letter-sounds when they read. This gives them an advantage over children who do not know any letter-sounds and are learning words using visual cues only. Many teachers hold the view that children initially learn words by sight and then

only later start to use letter knowledge when they decode or sound out words. Researchers have challenged the idea that learning to read words initially involves memorising shapes of words or other visual features – they have proposed that letter-sound correspondence plays a role from the earliest stages of literacy development (Ehri, 1997; 1998, 2005; Dixon, Stuart and Masterson, 2002; Stuart, Masterson and Dixon, 2000).

Children who use phonetic cues have a system they can use to remember words. In contrast, visual cue readers have to remember arbitrary connections. For example, a child who has some letter knowledge might use the 'l' and the 'k' as clues to help them read the word 'look'. A child who has no letter knowledge, might remember the word 'look' because it has two 'eyes' in the middle. This strategy works when they only have a few words to learn. However, it does not help them when they are faced with other words that look similar such as *book*, *moon* and *roof*. Even though not all the letters in irregular words correspond to the sounds in the word, there will be some letters that do correspond to sounds and can be used to anchor the word in memory. For example, if a child knows the letters 's' and 'd', and his teacher asks him to read the word 'said', he can use his knowledge of letters as a clue to what the word says.

Developing a 'self-teaching' system

Once children have started to understand how the alphabetic system works, and show evidence of invented spelling and using letter-sound cues in their reading, another skill that will help them on their way to becoming skilled readers and writers, is the development of the ability to segment and blend sounds in words. What does this mean? At this early stage of literacy, writing all the sounds in short single-syllable words such as 'cat' and 'bus' is difficult for many children. The sounds in these short words are difficult to 'pull apart', and children have particular difficulty hearing the vowel sounds in the middle of these words. This explains why they write 'bs' for 'bus'.

They need to develop the ability to break or segment the words they hear into individual sounds. For example, the word 'cat' consists of three sounds, /c/ /a/ /t/. Through games and activities that help children to listen carefully for sounds in words, they can become more skilled at segmenting words into sounds. This is the point where their writing will take off.

Reading short words involves the skill of auditory synthesis or blending. In order to read the word 'bag', a child will need to look at the letters and say the individual letter sounds, /b/ /a/ /g/. Some children can do this very well, but still cannot tell you what the word is. They need to develop the auditory skill of blending sounds together before they will be able to read words using all the letters.

Teachers sometimes refer to segmenting sounds as auditory analysis and blending sounds as auditory synthesis. These skills of blending (putting together) sounds and segmenting (breaking up) words are just one level of sound awareness (phonological awareness) that is critical for learning to read. Once children know some letter-sounds and are able to blend and segment sounds with some level of confidence, they have the beginnings of what we call a 'self-teaching system' (Share, 1995; 1999). This means that each time they read or write a new word, they will be able to use the letter-sounds to store it in their memory and will learn more about spelling patterns.

What about language skills?

In this chapter we have focused on the skills and knowledge children need to 'crack the code' to be able to read and write words. This is only the first step in the process of becoming skilled users of written language. Without a solid foundation of language skills, children might learn to read words, but not understand what they read. They might be able to write words, but not be able to express their ideas in writing. As they progress through school, children will be exposed to more varied texts that make increasing demands on their language skills. They will need some awareness of story structure (that stories usually have a beginning, middle and end) so that they can structure their own writing. They will need an extensive vocabulary and will need to be able to use language to make inferences and predictions

to help them understand what they are reading. Foundations for these important language skills need to be laid while children are learning to read and spell words. However, learning to read and write also helps to develop these skills. In her work with children learning to read and write in a second language, Eve Gregory came to the conclusion that 'children can learn to read before they have oral competence in the target language. Indeed, it is clear that these young children are learning English through their reading. Reading, then, can lead oral language development' (Gregory, 1996, p.89).

Note: Awareness of sounds (phonological awareness) can be on many levels, and generally develops through experiences such as learning nursery rhymes and playing games such as 'I spy'. These experiences help children to start focusing on the sounds in words – not just their meanings. Margaret Donaldson (1978) makes this point: 'Of course in some homes awareness of the spoken word is greatly encouraged. Some parents talk about words to their children, play word games with them and so on. But most talk only with words. Indeed, a great many children come to school not even aware that separate words exist – that the flow of speech can be broken up into these units' (p. 91). Rhymes and games which involve syllabification (clapping out the beats in a word, e.g. cu-cum-ber) play a key role in shifting children's attention from the meanings of words to their sound value. However, the most critical level of awareness for reading and writing is at the level of individual sounds or phonemes (Castles & Coltheart, 2004). Hearing beginning and end sounds in words is an important first step, however, teaching programmes are likely to be more effective if they include activities that focus on blending and segmenting individual sounds in words. (Byrne & Fielding-Barnsley, 1991a, 1993, 1995).

5 Programme outline for the first year of formal schooling

This chapter includes a programme outline for the first year of formal schooling. This serves as framework for what children should be able to do at different points in the year. A child at the beginning of Grade One is very different to a child in the second half of the year, and two children beginning Grade One might be very different in terms of their emergent literacy skills. This is an 'ideal' outline for the first year of school. If you are able to follow this outline, the children you work with will have a very good foundation for Grade Two and beyond. The outline is a guide to what children with average potential should be able to achieve given the right opportunities for learning. In our experience, very few children from disadvantaged communities achieve these levels without some support to help close the gaps in their early learning.



Learning to read and write at St James Primary and Masiphumelele Library



Programme outline for the first year of formal schooling

READING

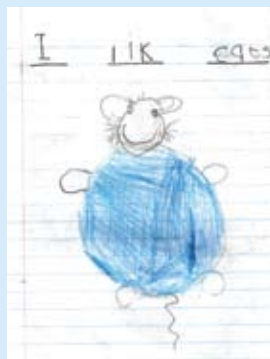
Early to mid Grade One

Look at my ball.



Child points left to right and word for word; uses picture and beginning letter cues to read; starts to recognise high frequency words

WRITING



Needs help constructing a sentence; writes some word parts independently (mostly only beginning sounds) spells a few high frequency words correctly (eg. 'I'; 'is')

LETTERS, SOUNDS & WORDS

Child knows 12+ letters

Child is learning to blend and segment sounds in words, e.g. the sounds /t/ /a/ /p/ make the word 'tap'; the word tap has three sounds /t/ /a/ /p/.

Starting to read and spell two and three letter words e.g. on, in, up, dad, mom, bus

Starts to recognise and spell some high frequency words e.g. I, am, in, up, on, to, is, my, at, mom, dad, see, look, go

Mid Grade One



You have small hands.

Child uses picture and letter cues to read; recognises some high frequency words; tries to sound out unfamiliar words



Still needs prompting to think of what to write; writes two or more sentences; writes some words and word parts independently; uses invented spelling; spells a few high frequency words correctly

Knows 20-26 letters

Able to read and write three letter words (e.g. sit, pen, hot, run, bag). **Starting to get vowels correct.**

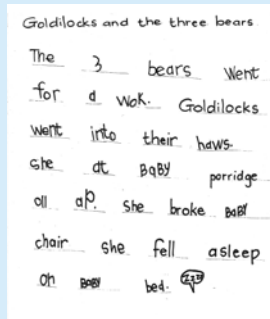
Able to recognise and spell more high frequency words e.g. it, us, can, the, for, you, like, me, he, she, we, this, said, and, went, little

Towards the end of Grade One



Everyone is home.
It is time to eat the bread.

Child uses picture and letter cues to read; recognises high frequency words; able to sound out short regular words



Able to think of what to write without help; starting to write simple stories or sequences of events; writes most words and word parts independently; uses invented spelling; spells most high frequency words correctly

All 26 letters + sh, ch, th

Starting to read and write words with blends (e.g. and, went, frog, jump) and **digraphs** (e.g. shop, chips, thin)

Able to recognise and spell most high frequency words (see Level 1 and 2 lists in resource pack)

You will notice from the programme outline that the programme starts with children knowing 12 or more letters in the beginning of Grade One. This means that they would have learned these letters in the year before starting school. Our experience has shown that this is the ideal, but that most children from poor communities hardly know any letter sounds when they start school. For these children, lessons need to focus on building letter knowledge and awareness of sounds before they can formally slot into the Grade One programme.

In order to know where to begin working with children, it is a good idea to assess their letter knowledge before beginning the programme. A letter recognition test is included in the resource pack.

Case studies

The following case studies show how a letter writing test can be used to establish where to begin the teaching programme.

Case study one: Here is an example of a child who worked with a volunteer once a week during the year before he started school. The volunteer used games and activities to teach letter-sounds over the course of his preschool year. At the beginning of Grade One, he knew many letter sounds, and could use these sounds to represent sounds in words in a



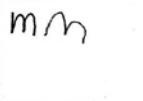

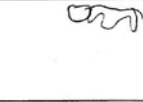
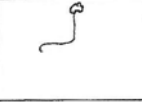

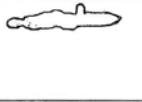


meaningful way (invented spelling). He was asked to write the letters c, b, m, s, o, t, a and f, and then the words cat, bus and elephant. His invented spelling shows that he understands how the system works (that letters are related to sounds in words). He is ready to begin the Grade One programme and is in a good position to start reading short books and writing.

c ✓	q ^(b)	m ✓	s ✓
o ✓	t ✓	q ✓	F ✓


⑦

cat ✓
bs (bus)
eift

Case study two: The following case study provides an example of a Grade One child who is poorly prepared for learning to read and write. At the

abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz

1.	cat c a t
2.	 (butterfly)

beginning of Grade One, she still found it very difficult to hear beginning sounds in words and when asked if she could write any letters or words she drew pictures. She was asked to write the following letters: /c/ for 'cat'; /a/ for 'apple'; /m/ for 'money'; /o/ for 'orange'; /e/ for 'elephant'; /t/ for 'tap'; /s/ for 'sock'; /f/ for 'fish'; /r/ for 'red'; /b/ for 'bird'. Her test profile would be appropriate for a child in preschool who has not had much exposure to letters and sounds. Many children in high poverty contexts start formal schooling with a similar profile. Our experience has shown that these children benefit from a 'crash course' in learning letter-sounds at the start of Grade One, before we begin the Grade One programme. Otherwise,

they get into a habit of reciting books and writing from memory, because they have no letter-sound knowledge to help them. Once these children can hear beginning sounds in words, and know a few letters, they are in a much better position to develop reading and writing skills.

Monitoring children's progress

Once children have started the programme, careful record keeping of their knowledge and skill levels will help us to assess whether they are making progress. The resource pack includes a photocopiable record sheet that can be used to make notes during and after each lesson. We know that our programme is working if children are moving forward. For example, if they only knew 2 letter-sounds at the beginning of the year and by mid-year they know 15, this is good news! However, it is still important to ask the question: how many letter-sounds should a child of that age/grade know? We can use the programme outline to establish whether individual children are getting closer to being at the appropriate level. We are making a real difference if the children we work with improve to the point that they are reading and writing at the right level for their age and grade. We might not achieve this in a few months of working with some children, particularly older children who are very far behind their grade level. However, if we start working with children at a young age, there is a good chance that our lessons will close the gaps.

6 Building foundations in the year before school

These guidelines target mainly children in the first year of school. However, we know that children start the process of learning to read and write long before they start school. Where tutors work with children in the year before school, the programme would include the same components as the Grade One programme: talking, reading, writing and drawing, and wordplay. The main differences in the preschool programme and the Grade One programme are:



	Preschool programme	Grade One programme
Talking and reading	Read to children; use interesting story books; focus on developing a love of stories as well as building language and concepts; include some books with short sentences on a page to show children how to point to words as they read	Use easy readers that children can start reading themselves. Read a story book if there is time at the end of a lesson.
Writing and drawing	Write for the children or encourage them to use a mixture of scribbling/ invented spelling; focus on message	Continue to encourage invented spelling; children begin to write some high frequency words and word parts independently
Wordplay	Spend time teaching letter knowledge and awareness of sounds in words (blending and segmenting)	Work quickly through letter-knowledge and blending and segmenting games and begin games to teach reading and writing of words
General approach	Shorter lessons (30 to 40 mins); more action; no pressure; children can take time to learn letters and develop concepts about print	Lessons of about 50 mins; work from the level of the child, but aim to close gaps as quickly as possible

Many of the activities to teach letter-sound knowledge and blending and segmenting sounds are appropriate for children in the year before they begin formal schooling. In most middle class contexts, learning letter-sounds and learning to blend and segment sounds is part of the curriculum in preschool. Children who participate in these activities in the year before school are being given an excellent start. Here is an outline for teaching letter-sound knowledge and awareness of sounds in the year before school:

First half of the year

Letter-sounds: s, m, b, c, t, r

Beginning sounds: e.g. sun starts with /s/

Blending and segmenting syllables in multisyllabic words: e.g. the syllables 'to-ma-to' make the word tomato; the word table has two syllables /ta/ /ble/

Second half of the year

Letter-sounds: vowels (a,e,i,o,u) and f, d, n, l, g, h, p (Total: 12+ letters)

Blending and segmenting sounds in single syllable words: e.g. the sounds /c/ /ow/' make the word cow; the word tap has three sounds /t/ /a/ /p/

Note: Teaching of letters and sounds is obviously only a part of the literacy curriculum for the year before school. A preschool curriculum should also include many experiences with books and daily opportunities to write. The notes for tutors include suggestions on how to read to young children and how to encourage emergent writing.



7 Case study: Ready Steady Read !

'I do feel very honoured, pleased and privileged to have been a part of this project in assisting the children in my community'

Volunteer, Bonteheuwel Library

In this chapter we present a case study of a volunteer programme that was started by the Friends of Bonteheuwel Library in response to a need in their community. The volunteer programme at Bonteheuwel Library provides a good model for how a community organisation can use the guidelines to set up a literacy programme for young children. Wordworks provided training and materials, and the programme was initiated and run by the Staff and Friends of Bonteheuwel Library. They selected a member of staff to co-ordinate the programme and his tasks included:

- arranging training for volunteers and assisting them to put together their kits
- purchasing books and stationery for the programme
- recruiting children to participate in the programme through advertisements in local newspapers and notices to schools
- setting up a meeting for parents and children at the start of the programme and arranging dates and times of lessons
- keeping a record of attendance and arranging a prizegiving at the end of the programme



Volunteers working with children at Bonteheuwel Library



*Training volunteers at
Bonteheuwel Library*

In October 2006, seven volunteers from Bonteheuwel participated in two training sessions of two hours, and weekly support and mentoring was provided for the first seven-week term of the programme (7 weeks). One of the training sessions included a demonstration lesson with two children. None of the volunteers were trained teachers, however, as they participated in the programme, they became skilled tutors of reading and writing. This model of initial training sessions combined with ongoing mentoring seems to be the most effective way of equipping tutors to run the programme.

Children attended lessons at the library after school for seven weeks, and each volunteer worked with two children for an hour (2-3pm) and another two children for a second hour (3-4pm). Subsequent programmes have been run successfully without weekly mentoring and the volunteers are

equipped to run the programme without ongoing support. In 2008 and 2009, the volunteers ran a programme at the library and at three local schools. In recognition of their contribution to the community, Bonteheuwel Public Library won the 2007 Western Cape Ministerial Arts, Culture and Heritage Award for the Best Youth & Children's Services in Libraries.

The following document was produced by the library to inform people about the programme. This is a very useful template for community organisations, schools or libraries who aim to set up similar programmes.

Ready! Steady! Read! and off Bonteheuwel Library went with their first attempt to teach their juvenile patrons to read. The reading programme which officially started on the 2nd of November is the brainchild of the Staff and Friends of Bonteheuwel Library. Bonteheuwel Library Reading Programme is aimed at developing the reading skills of learners in the foundation phase, ie. the Grades 1-2. We strive to instil and develop in the learners a love for reading and in so doing improve their self confidence and self esteem. We also encourage the involvement of the parents to ensure that the child derives maximum benefit from the programme.

Aims and objectives

The Cape Argus recently published an article regarding the poor literacy rate among the Grade 6 learners. Children reach high school, then it is discovered that they have difficulty with reading. This then negatively impacts on their school work. With our programme, the reading habit is formed from a young age and the literacy rate among our children is thus improved.

The need for this program

At the library, we are regularly approached by parents of young children who are struggling with reading or children that are just not into reading. This is what motivated us to introduce this programme. The children receive one on one attention by our trained assistants and reading is made a fun activity through suitable books, picture cards, sound and word games etc. The kids are also encouraged to

make up a book all by themselves that they can present to a friend.

Who is involved in the program?

The Friends of Bonteheuwel Library and an organisation called Wordworks. Wordworks supports early literacy development of children from disadvantaged communities. Shelley O` Carroll, who is a qualified remedial teacher and an educational psychologist, will co-ordinate the training for our assistants. 8 volunteers will be trained over a period of 7-8 weeks. Training will commence mid-October. The volunteers have been carefully selected as the programme needs dedicated, committed persons.

How long does the programme run ?

Each volunteer works with 4 learners per week over a period of 7 weeks. At the end of this period the learners will be assessed and presented with a certificate. The first presentation will take place on the 14th December 2006 at Bonteheuwel Public Library.

Community involvement?

We would be grateful for anyone who is interested in making a pledge towards our programme as we are in need of funding. We need stationery materials for the learners, ie. books, writing material, paper etc. Although our assistants are volunteer-ing their time, we would like to pay them a small stipend as they are unemployed.

8 Getting started: Materials and resources

Each person who will be using the programme to work with children will need a basic kit. This should include the Notes for tutors, the photocopiable Resources and a basic set of stationery.

- 1 x Box/plastic holder for resources
- 2 x Whiteboard markers
- 2 x Pencils
- 1 x Set of pencil crayons
- 1 x Sharpener
- 1 x Eraser
- 1 x Dice
- 10 x Counters (2 colours)
- 2 x Wipesheets: A4 page in a plastic folder (to be used as a whiteboard)
- White A4 paper
- Small exercise books for each child to use for writing and drawing

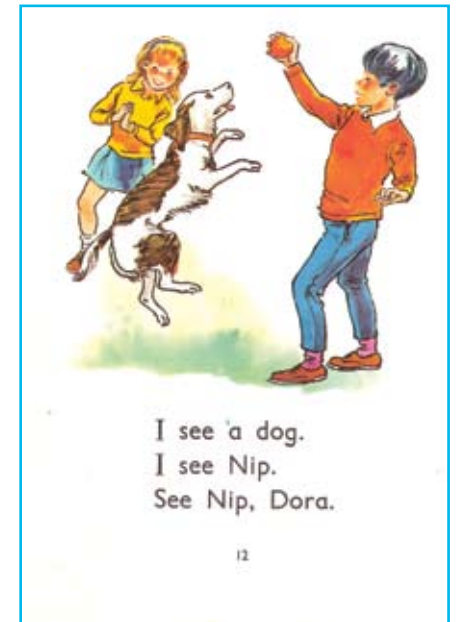
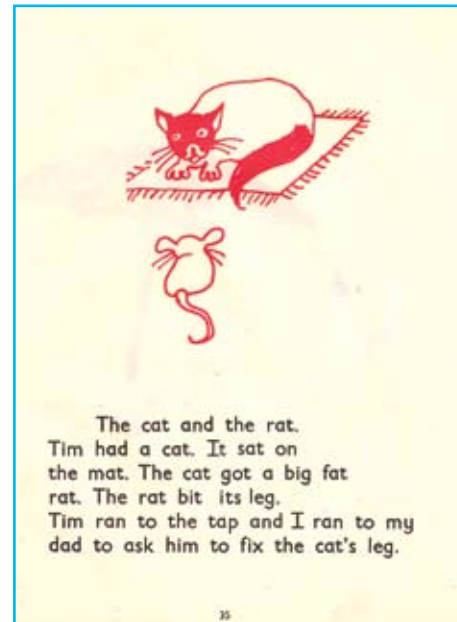


Tutor's kit

In addition to the above resources, tutors will need a set of reading books which can be shared amongst a team. A list of recommended readers can be found in the appendix.

What kinds of books are recommended for beginning readers?

Books should be interesting and engaging for young children, pictures should be clear and it should be quite easy to tell the story from the illustrations. Books are important teachers of language and can be used to build children's vocabulary and knowledge of phrases in a second language. Many children from disadvantaged communities will have had very little experience of books by the time they start school. It is therefore very important that their first experience of books is meaningful and that they are given the message that the language in books makes sense and the pictures and stories are related to real life experiences. For this reason, phonics texts that are carefully written to contain only words that can be sounded out by a beginning reader, are not the best introduction to reading. For second language children who are just starting to communicate in English, it is very important that books include language that is similar to spoken language. Read the following texts and try to remember when last you spoke in this way:

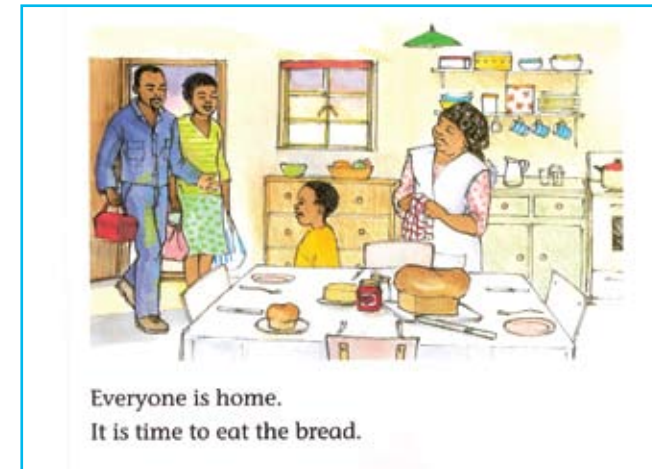
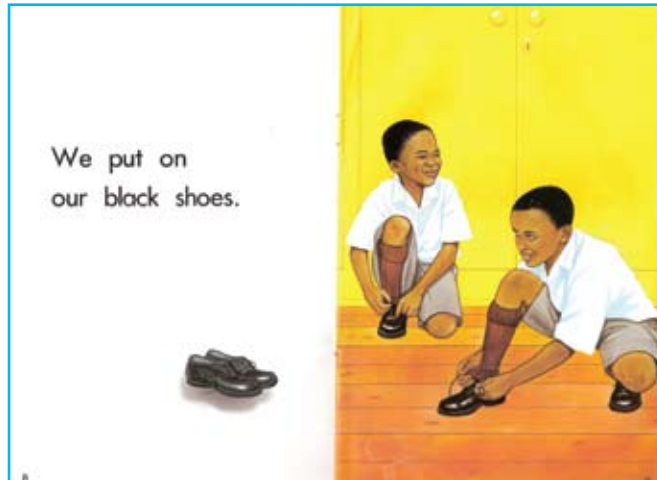


These types of early readers are not recommended for children learning to read in a second language.

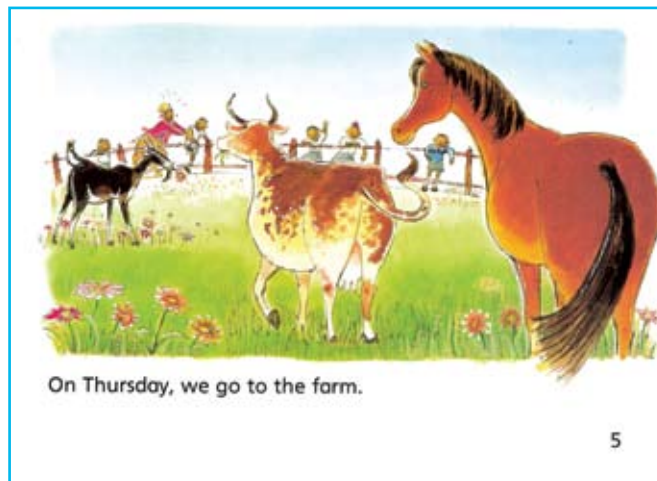
Books suitable for beginning readers have the following characteristics:

- Meaningful language that is similar to spoken language
- Short sentences that are closely linked to pictures
- Repetitive text which repeats a few words on each page

Here are examples of books that would be suitable for children in the earliest stages of learning to read:



These books have few words, and simple sentences that are closely matched to pictures. They do not replace storybooks that include more complex language and ideas. Storybooks are vital for language and conceptual development, and for fostering a love of books.



Making little books

In addition to the list of readers that can be purchased, the resource pack also includes templates for little books and instructions for making these books. Each tutor could make a set of these books for the children to read – or one for each child to take home.

A note about alphabet books

Alphabet books are a useful way of introducing children to letters and showing them that each letter represents a sound – and that many words can share the same beginning sound. However, these books need to be carefully chosen to ensure that the examples that are given will not be confusing for children. Consider the following page from an alphabet book (Moore, 2002).



The page includes pictures of a 'kangaroo', 'karate', 'kiss', 'kite', 'kittens' and 'knitting'. While 'knitting' is spelt with a 'k', the inclusion of this picture is not particularly helpful if we are trying to explain to children that 'k' makes a /k/ sound, that there are many words that start with this /k/ sound, and

that words beginning with the same sound generally start with the same letter. Similar confusion is likely to be caused by the inclusion of a picture of a 'chicken' on the alphabet page for the sound /c/ or a picture of a 'shop' on the page for the sound /s/. As children become skilled readers they will learn that letters can represent different sounds. However, alphabet books should include words that not only have the same initial letter, but also start with the same sound.

9 More theory on effective intervention programmes

This chapter has been included for those readers who are interested in research on early intervention programmes. The previous chapters provide all the information necessary to run the programme, and this chapter simply provides some theoretical evidence for the programme content.

Studies have shown that children from high poverty contexts generally begin school with less well-developed letter knowledge and phonological awareness than their middle-class peers and that these differences contribute to differences in early word reading skills (Stuart, 1990; Bowey, 1995). Stuart (1990) noted that middle-class parents were more likely to teach letter sounds and play games such as 'I spy', which help children to become aware of sounds in words. She found that when letter-sound knowledge was used as a predictor of reading achievement, social class was no longer a significant predictor. In another study, Duncan and Seymour (2000) assessed a sample of children between 4 and 8 years and found that low socio-economic status was associated with less well-developed letter

knowledge, word reading and awareness of sounds. Letter knowledge was the only foundation skill to distinguish socio-economic groups at preschool and they speculated that 'delayed acquisition of foundation literacy skills is traceable to a delay in acquiring letter-sound knowledge' (Duncan & Seymour, 2000, p. 145).

Is there evidence that programmes that focus on letter knowledge and awareness of sounds are effective in low socio economic communities? Research in the US, Australia and the UK has shown that structured teaching of letter knowledge and awareness of sounds has an impact on word reading and spelling skills. The effectiveness of these programmes has been demonstrated amongst low socio-economic groups and second language learners. For example, Blachman, Ball, Black and Tangel (1994) carried out a classroom intervention with preschool children from low-income, inner-city classrooms. The intervention was conducted by teachers and classroom assistants in small groups in the classroom during lessons

of 15 to 20 minutes. Before the intervention, the children knew, on average, only two letter sounds. After an 11 week training programme, the intervention group was significantly better than the control group on measures of letter-sound knowledge and breaking up words into sounds. Although the intervention programme did not include any reading or writing, children in the intervention group were able to read significantly more regular words than children in the control group. They also included more letters in their invented spelling.

Tangel and Blachman (1995) were interested in whether the control children would 'catch up' in Grade One. They followed the intervention group children when they started school and found that these children's invented spelling and spelling continued to be better than control-group children at the end of Grade One. These children produced spellings that were 'at least at the same level' and in many cases 'more complete' than those of a middle-class sample (Treiman, 1993). This was an encouraging finding because the children were doing as well as middle-class children, even though they would have had fewer literacy experiences prior to starting school.

Studies have confirmed the importance of letter knowledge and phonemic awareness amongst children learning to read in English as a second language.

In a study conducted in the UK by Morag Stuart (1994, 2004), 86% of the children were English second language learners and 'many of them entered school with limited ability to express themselves in English' (p. 589). Stuart (1999) compared two intervention programmes and proposed that:

'the results of this study provide very strong additional support for the view that early, structured, focused and rapid teaching of phoneme segmentation and blending skills and of grapheme-phoneme correspondence does accelerate the development of these skills and acquisition of this knowledge in 5-year olds. They extend this finding to children learning English as a second language who have initially very poor receptive vocabularies for English. They also provide further strong support for the view that phoneme awareness, segmentation and blending skills, and grapheme-phoneme correspondence knowledge influence the development of reading and writing skills, and that this leads to a lasting advantage for children who acquire these prerequisites at least as soon as (if not before) they are formally introduced to tuition in reading and writing (p. 603).*

(* grapheme-phoneme = letter-sound)

In South Africa, Elizabeth Nadler-Nir (1997) developed a structured programme to teach phonological awareness to children from disadvantaged communities and found that the programme was 'highly effective in improving phonological awareness, letter knowledge, reading

and spelling skills' (p. 80). She proposed that the results of the study showed that 'phonological awareness and letter knowledge training can help disadvantaged children to develop better self teaching skills for the development of reading and spelling' (p. 98). She advised that 'cost effective, group phonological awareness training has potential for saving the country and education system time and money. By providing children with phonological awareness training within the first six months of Grade One, we are saving many children from exposure to failure and are offering them a better prognosis for developing independent literacy skills' (Nadler-Nir, 1997, p. 99).

Studies that follow children through the grades confirm that this type of early intervention is critical. Juel's (1988) longitudinal study of children from Grade One to Grade Four demonstrated the importance of early phonemic awareness and understanding of the alphabetic principle. She found that 'children who became poor readers entered first grade with little phonemic awareness... poor entering phonemic awareness appeared to contribute to a very slow start in learning spelling-sound correspondences...by the end of fourth grade the poor decoders had still not achieved the level of decoding that the average to good readers had achieved by the beginning of second grade' (Juel, 1988, p. 14). Wallach and Wallach (1976) propose that:

The start of school is the optimum time to provide extra help in the fundamentals of reading for children who need such help. To wait longer means that there will already be cumulative failure and frustration; furthermore, later remedial efforts inevitably have to counter unproductive if not simply erroneous approaches that the child has developed toward written material in the meantime (p. 51).

This set of guidelines was designed to provide guidance about how to give extra help at the start of school, rather than waiting longer until children have failed to learn to read and write. The guidelines are based on a doctoral study carried out in 2004 in two schools in disadvantaged communities in Cape Town. The children who participated in the study all spoke isiXhosa as their first language, but were learning to read in English. At the beginning of the school year, 55 Grade One children were assessed on a range of emergent literacy tasks. Thirteen children were selected to participate in weekly lessons over a period of ten weeks. A group of children with similar skill levels at the start of the year were selected to be part of a control group which did not participate in the intervention. The teaching programme included teaching of letter-sound knowledge, awareness of sounds, reading and writing.

Assessments carried out six months into the school year showed that a short-term intervention was effective in improving the word reading and spelling of children relative to a control group of children who started school at a similar level but had no intervention. The intervention group was also significantly better at blending and segmenting sounds in words than the control group.



The results showed that the children who got above-average scores on tests of reading and spelling, also had above average phoneme blending and segmenting skills at post test. In the intervention group, the children who had good blending skills mid-way through the intervention, had the best reading scores at post test, while those who took

longer to learn to blend sounds, still struggled to apply these skills to read words they had never seen before. Some researchers have argued that it can be difficult to apply newly-learnt skills until they are well established (Karmiloff-Smith, 1992, 1994). This suggests that the sooner children have a solid base of letter knowledge and awareness of sounds, the better it is for their reading development. (See Byrne, Fielding-Barnsley & Ashley, 2000).



10 Frequently asked questions

Should tutors be worried about letter formation? What should we do if children are not forming letters correctly or are reversing letters?

Young children who are learning to write are still developing pencil control. Their letters might not be the same size, and they might find it difficult to write between the lines. They might also write some letters the wrong way. This is all a normal part of the process of learning to write and if we focus too much on neat writing, then children become very anxious about making mistakes. It is important that we show children the correct way of forming letters (see the letter formation sheet in the resource pack) and if they are having difficulty, it is a good idea to get them to write big letters in the sand, on a blackboard or on a concrete floor with a paintbrush dipped in water. Once they can feel how to write these big letters, then it will be easier for them to write them on paper. In this programme, we model correct formation of letters, but do not place too much emphasis on handwriting.

Do all children benefit from being part of the programme? What if children do not make much progress?

All children who have not had many early literacy experiences in their homes will benefit from the programme. It is not only a programme for children who are struggling. Learners who have good potential are likely to make rapid progress, while some children will make very slow progress and may not remember things from one lesson to the next. It is a good idea to check their hearing and sight, and make sure they have not experienced a recent trauma that is affecting their learning in all areas. Speak to the child's teacher to see how they are progressing in class. The teacher might confirm that the child is struggling in all learning areas. This child may well have more severe learning difficulties, and would benefit from specialist assessments and interventions if these services are available (e.g. occupational therapy and speech therapy).

Some teachers start off by teaching children words from the same ‘word family’ (e.g. ‘cat’; ‘fat’; ‘hat’). How does this programme fit with a teaching curriculum that focuses on word families?

Teaching of word families is based on the idea that rhyming words often have similar spelling patterns. For example, cat, mat and hat are words that rhyme and they all have the letters ‘at’ at the end. In the Southern African context, children who speak English as a second language are not always exposed to nursery rhymes, and may not be familiar with rhyming words when they begin school. Without this important foundation in hearing of being able to hear end sounds in words, learning words through sound families tends to become a process of learning a list of words that look similar.

While teaching word families gives children a quick way into reading and writing words, it is essential that children are first given a good grounding in hearing sounds in words. Teaching of blending and segmentation skills will not confuse children who are learning sound families, and will ensure that they can learn to hear individual sounds in these words.



11 Glossary and definition of terms

Psychosocial: Psychological aspects of our experience (thoughts, emotions, behaviour) interacting with our wider social experience (relationships, environment, traditions and culture)

Grade R/Reception: The preschool year before formal schooling begins

Grade One: The first year of formal schooling

Invented spelling: The spelling of the word is not correct but is an approximate version of the word based on the sounds a child hears when he/she says the word

Emergent writing: We want young children to 'write' so that they can see that writing is a meaningful activity and a way of conveying a message. When we talk about emergent writing we are referring to scribbling, using random letters/letterlike forms and invented spelling

Phonological awareness: The awareness that speech is made up of sounds

Phonemic awareness: 'the ability to notice, think about, and work with individual sounds in spoken words. Before children learn to read print, they need to become aware of how sounds in words work. They need to understand that words are made up of speech sounds or phonemes. Phonemes are the smallest parts of sound in a spoken word' (Department of Education, 2007, p. 12)

Blending: Listening to syllables or sounds and combining them to form a word

Segmenting: Breaking a word into syllables or sounds

Vowels: The letters a, e, i, o, u and any combinations of these letters

Consonants: All the remaining letters that are not vowels e.g. b,c,d, f, g, h, j...

Digraphs: two letters that are used together to make a sound different to either of the letters e.g. sh, ch, th

Blends: two consonants that occur together in words so that the sounds are often difficult to separate. (Children will often write the word 'jump' as 'jup', because it is difficult to hear the /m/ sound which is part of a blend at the end of the word)

12 References and further reading

Adams, M. J. (1990). *Beginning to read*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Adams, M. J., Foorman, B., Lundberg, L., & Beeler, T. (1998). *Phonemic awareness in young children*. A classroom curriculum. Baltimore: Brookes.

Blachman, B. A., Ball, E. W., Black, R. S., & Tangel, D. M. (1994). Kindergarten teachers develop phoneme awareness in low-income, inner-city classrooms. Does it make a difference? *Reading & Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 6, 1-18.

Blachman, B. A., Ball, E. W., Black, M. S., & Tangel, D. M. (2000). *Road to the Code: A phonological awareness program for young children*. Baltimore: Paul H Brookes Publishing Co.

Bodrova, E., & Leong, D. (1998). Scaffolding emergent writing in the zone of proximal development. *Literacy Teaching and Learning*, 3(2), 1-18.

Bowey, J. A. (1995). Socioeconomic status differences in preschool phonological sensitivity and first grade reading achievement. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87(3), 476-487.

Bradley, L., & Bryant, P. (1980). Why children sometimes write words which they do not read. In U. Frith (Ed.), *Cognitive processes in spelling* (pp. 355-370). New York: Academic Press.

Byrne, B., & Fielding-Barnsley, R. (1991a). Evaluation of a program to teach phonemic awareness to young children. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 83, 451-455.

Byrne, B., & Fielding-Barnsley, R. (1991b). *Sound Foundations*. Sydney: Peter Leyden Educational Publishers.

Byrne, B., & Fielding-Barnsley, R. (1993). Evaluation of a program to teach phonemic awareness to young children: A one-year follow-up. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 85, 104-111.

Byrne, B., & Fielding-Barnsley, R. (1995). Evaluation of a program to teach phonemic awareness to young children: A 2- and 3- year follow up and a new pre-school trial. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87, 488-503.

Byrne, B., Fielding-Barnsley, R., & Ashley, L. (2000). Effects of preschool phoneme identity training after six years: Outcome level distinguished from rate of response. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 92(4), 659-667.

Castles, A., & Coltheart, M. (2004). Is there a causal link from phonological awareness to success in learning to read? *Cognition*, 91, 77-111.

Clay, M. (1993). *Reading Recovery. A guidebook for teachers in training*. Portsmouth: Heinemann.

Comrie, B. & Millner, A. (2003). *Get Going with English, Grade One Teacher's Guide*. Cape Town: Juta - Gariep.

Department of Education. (2007). *Teaching reading in the early grades. A teacher's handbook*. www.education.gov.za

- Dixon, M., Stuart, M., & Masterson, J. (2002). The relationship between phonological awareness and the development of orthographic representations. *Reading & Writing: An Interdisciplinary Journal*, 15, 295-316.
- Donaldson, M. (1978). *Children's minds*. London: Fontana Press.
- Duncan, L., & Seymour, P. (2000). Socio-economic differences in foundation-level literacy. *British Journal of Psychology*, 91, 145-166.
- Ehri, L. (1995). Phases of development in learning to read by sight. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 18, 116-125.
- Ehri, L. (1997). Sight word learning in normal readers and dyslexics. In B. Blachman (Ed.), *Foundations of reading acquisition and dyslexia* (pp. 163-189). London: Lawrence Erlbaum and Associates.
- Ehri, L. (1998). Grapheme-phoneme knowledge is essential for learning to read words in English. In J. Metsala & L. Ehri (Eds.), *Word recognition in beginning literacy* (pp. 3-40). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Ehri, L. (2005). Learning to read words: Theory, findings and issues. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 9(2), 167-188.
- Ferreiro, E., & Teberosky, A. (1982). *Literacy before schooling*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Fitzpatrick, J. (1997). *Phonemic awareness. Playing with sounds to strengthen beginning reading skills*. California: Creative Teaching Press.
- Goodman, K. (1967). Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game. *Journal of the Reading Specialist*, 6, 126-135.
- Gregory, E. (1996). *Making sense of a new world : learning to read in a second language*. London: Chapman.
- Hatcher, P. (1994). *Sound Linkage: An integrated programme for overcoming reading difficulties*. London: Whurr Publishers.
- Juel, C. (1988). Learning to read and write: a longitudinal study of 54 children from first through fourth grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80(4), 437 - 447.
- Karmiloff-Smith, A. (1992). *Beyond modularity: A developmental perspective on cognitive science*. Cambridge, MA: MIT.
- Karmiloff-Smith, A. (1994). Self organisation and cognitive change. In M. H. Johnson (Ed.), *Brain Development and Cognition* (pp. 592-618). Cambridge, MA: Basil Blackwell.
- Mann, V., Tobin, P., & Wilson, R. (1987). Measuring phoneme awareness through invented spellings of kindergarten children. *Merrill-Palmer Quarterly*, 33, 365-391.
- Moore, H. (2002). a to z. Cape Town: Maskew Miller Longman.
- Nadler-Nir, E. (1997). *The effectiveness of a multi-sensory phonological awareness and letter knowledge training programme for disadvantaged first graders*. Unpublished MSc, University of Cape Town, Cape Town.
- Oakhill, J. (1993). Developing skilled reading. In R. Beard (Ed.), *Teaching literacy. Balancing perspectives* (pp. 63-73). London: Hodder and Stoughton.
- O'Carroll, S. (2006) Supporting early literacy development in a disadvantaged community in SA. Focus on developmental change. Unpublished PhD, London University, London.
- Reason, R., & Boote, R. (1994). *Helping children with reading and spelling. A special needs manual*. London: Routledge.

Rose, D. (2003). Sequencing and pacing of the hidden curriculum: How indigenous children are left out of the chain. University of Cape Town seminar.

Share, D. L. (1995). Phonological recoding and self-teaching: sine qua non of reading acquisition. *Cognition*, 55, 151-218.

Share, D. L. (1999). Phonological recoding and orthographic learning: A direct test of the self-teaching hypothesis. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology*, 72, 95-129.

Stuart, M. (1990). Factors influencing word recognition in pre-reading children. *British Journal of Psychology*, 81, 135-146.

Stuart, M. (1999). Getting ready for reading: Early phoneme awareness and phonics teaching improves reading and spelling in inner-city second language learners. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 69, 587-605.

Stuart, M. (2004). Getting ready for reading: A follow-up study of inner city second language learners at the end of Key Stage 1. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74, 15-36.

Stuart, M., Masterson, J., & Dixon, M. (2000). Spongelike acquisition of sight vocabulary in beginning readers? *Journal of Research in Reading*, 23(1), 12-27.

Tangel, D. M., & Blachman, B. A. (1992). Effect of phoneme awareness instruction on kindergarten children's invented spelling. *Journal of Reading Behaviour*, 24(2), 233-261.

Tangel, D. M., & Blachman, B. A. (1995). Effect of phoneme awareness instruction on the invented spelling of first-grade children: a one-year follow-up. *Journal of Reading Behaviour*, 27(2), 153-185.

Teale, W. H., & Sulzby, E. (1986). *Emergent literacy : writing and reading*. Norwood, N.J.: Ablex.

Treiman, R. (1993). *Beginning to spell*. New York: Oxford University Press.

VisionK. (2005). *Our stories. Folk Tales from Kayamandi*. Stellenbosch: VisionK.

Walker, R., Rattanaich, S., & Oller, J. (1984). *Teaching all the children to read: Concentrated Language Encounter Techniques*. Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Wallach, M., & Wallach, L. (1976). *Teaching all children to read*. London: University of Chicago Press.

Weissenberg, M., Torres, K., White, K., Nadler-Nir, E. (2009). *Shine Centre Training Manual for Learning Partners (Version One)*. Unpublished manual.

Willenberg, I. (2004). *Getting set for reading in the rainbow nation. Emergent literacy skills and literacy environments of children in South Africa*. Unpublished PhD, Harvard University, Somerville, MA.

13 Credits and acknowledgements

This book is dedicated to the volunteers I have worked with over the past four years. You have helped many children to learn to read and write – what better gift could you give? You will see your children's work in these guidelines, and you will recognise some of the ideas as your own. You have done the work that has made these guidelines possible. The sharing begins.

With special thanks to:

- The DG Murray Trust, The Hout Bay and Llandudno Community Education Trust, The Peoples Education Fund, Japan; The Vrygrond Trust; The Funding Network (UK) for funding our work in communities over the past four years
- Jenny Buck, Sue Setton, Elizabeth Nadler-Nir, Jenny Silberbauer, Judy Jepson, Vera Henstock, Maurita Weissenberg, Cynthia Pelman, Hawa Williams and Julian Schroeder for reading a draft of the guidelines
- Mr Gordon, Sandra Hamman and the staff at St James Primary School for believing in this work from the start
- Brigid Comrie, Cynthia Pelman and Ilse Appelt: for the many conversations that have shaped my ideas and inspired me
- Jonathan Morgan for offering us this opportunity to take our work to another level
- Brighton Gwezera for supporting the writing process
- Maurita Weissenberg from the SHINE Centre for permission to adapt games from the SHINE training manual
- Elizabeth Nadler-Nir and Maurita Weissenberg for sharing ideas and resources and believing in a common goal
- Pippa Moore (photographer) for documenting our work
- Helga Hoveka for the illustrations in the text and resource pack
- Wendy Paterson, Tracey Nevill, Orli Setton and Stuart Goulding for illustrations in the resource pack
- KVision for permission to use the story of the monkey and rabbit
- Learners at Herschel Preparatory School for the wonderful stories that were adapted to make little books
- Ann Kantey for meticulous editing of the final draft
- Candice Turvey for layout and design
- My parents and parents-in-law for their generosity and support
- Stuart for the drawings and the time and the team effort it has taken to raise two busy toddlers.

Appendix - Recommended list of easy readers

The following list includes examples of books that we have used in our work with second language speakers of English. The list covers a range of different reading series and levels. Some of the books have been developed in South Africa, while others are part of reading series from the UK, Australia and New Zealand. We would welcome suggestions of other locally developed books that would be appropriate for children in their first year of school.

A team of volunteers would need at least 10 books from each level to run the Grade One programme over a year.

Early to mid Grade One

Books only have a few words per page; simple high frequency words are repeated (e.g. I, to, my, go, in, the, is, am, can, look, up, see, like); text is repetitive; pictures are simple and closely linked to the text.

1	PM Series	The way I go to school	1869556275
2		Playing	1869556186
3		In the garden	0170095282
4		Up in the sky	0170095320
5		My little cat	0170095371
6	Wings	I see	1863746862
7		The Plant	186374682X
8	Storyteller	What can I see?	0790128721
9	New Heights	Look at Me	1869270126
10		I Read	1869270231
11		I Like Rice	1869270320
12	Alpha	Dogs	1876917040
13		Fruit salad	1876917008
14	Collins - Big Cat	I can do it	0007186517
15	Oxford - We are growing	Hands talk	0195980295

Mid Grade One

Books have longer sentences that include new vocabulary and more difficult high frequency words (e.g. here, come, with, what, put, our, you, have); pictures are simple and closely linked to the text; repetition of high frequency words.

1	PM Series	The rock pools	1869556445
2		Big sea animals	0170095401
3		My accident	1869556453
4		Packing my bag	1869556437
5	New Heights	My Friend	1869270207
6		Time for School	1869270185
7	Alphakids Plus	Making music	1741480213
8		My fish bowl	1741480183
9	Collins - Big Cat	What do you like?	0007185642
10		Cats	0007185481
11	Oxford – We are growing	Days	0195980332
12		Food of many colours	0195980356
13	Kagiso	Come here	0798671286
14	Cambridge Rainbow Reading	Mkhulu and me	0521741804
15		What do you do?	0521742054

Towards the end of Grade One

Books have a simple story structure; some phrases are repeated but text varies from page to page; non-fiction books introduce new language and concepts.

1	PM Series	Mother bird	0170095770
2		It is raining	0170096355
3	New Heights	Seasons	186927024X
4		Insects	1869270533
5	Wings	Soccer	186374665X
6	Alphakids Plus	Helping in the garden	1741480299
7		The goat	1741480361
8	Alphaworld	Pets	0779137961
9		Favourite places	0779137930
10	Cambridge Rainbow Reading	Gogo and me	0521741538
11		Sisters	0521741927
12	Ladybird Read it yourself Level One	The three billy goats gruff	1846460692
13		Goldilocks and the three bears	1846460715
14	Ladybird Read it yourself Level Two	The three little pigs	1846460746
15		Little red riding hood	1846460777



Shelley O'Carroll and REPSSI are the copyright holders of Community-School Partnerships: Guidelines for supporting early literacy learning. We have chosen to extend the copyright of this programme using the Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial 3.0 Licence so that it can reach as many people as possible. The terms of this license are:

You Are Free :



to share, copy and distribute this manual:

Under the following conditions:



Attribution. You must attribute the Community-school Partnerships guidelines to Shelley O'Carroll with the words: 'Community-School Partnerships: Guidelines for supporting early literacy learning' was originally authored by Shelley O'Carroll and REPSSI. Copyright © Shelley O'Carroll and REPSSI.



Noncommercial. You may not use the 'Community-School Partnerships: Guidelines for supporting early literacy learning' or any of the photocopyable resources for any commercial purposes whatsoever.



No Derivative Works.

- You may not alter, transform, or build upon the 'Community-School Partnerships: Guidelines for supporting early literacy learning' without written consent from Shelley O'Carroll and REPSSI.
- Training. Shelley O'Carroll and REPSSI have exclusive rights to using the Community-School Partnership guidelines to offer training to organisations and individuals to set up programmes.
- We hope that you will be in touch with any questions, comments, suggestions and stories.

WORDWORKS: www.wordworks.org.za; REPSSI: www.repssi.org; P.O.Box 1669, Randburg, 2125, South Africa, tel +27 11 998 5820

For the complete version of this Creative Commons Licence please visit: <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/>

978-0-9814416-8-9