Tertiary Education Commission
Te Amorangi Mātauranga Matua

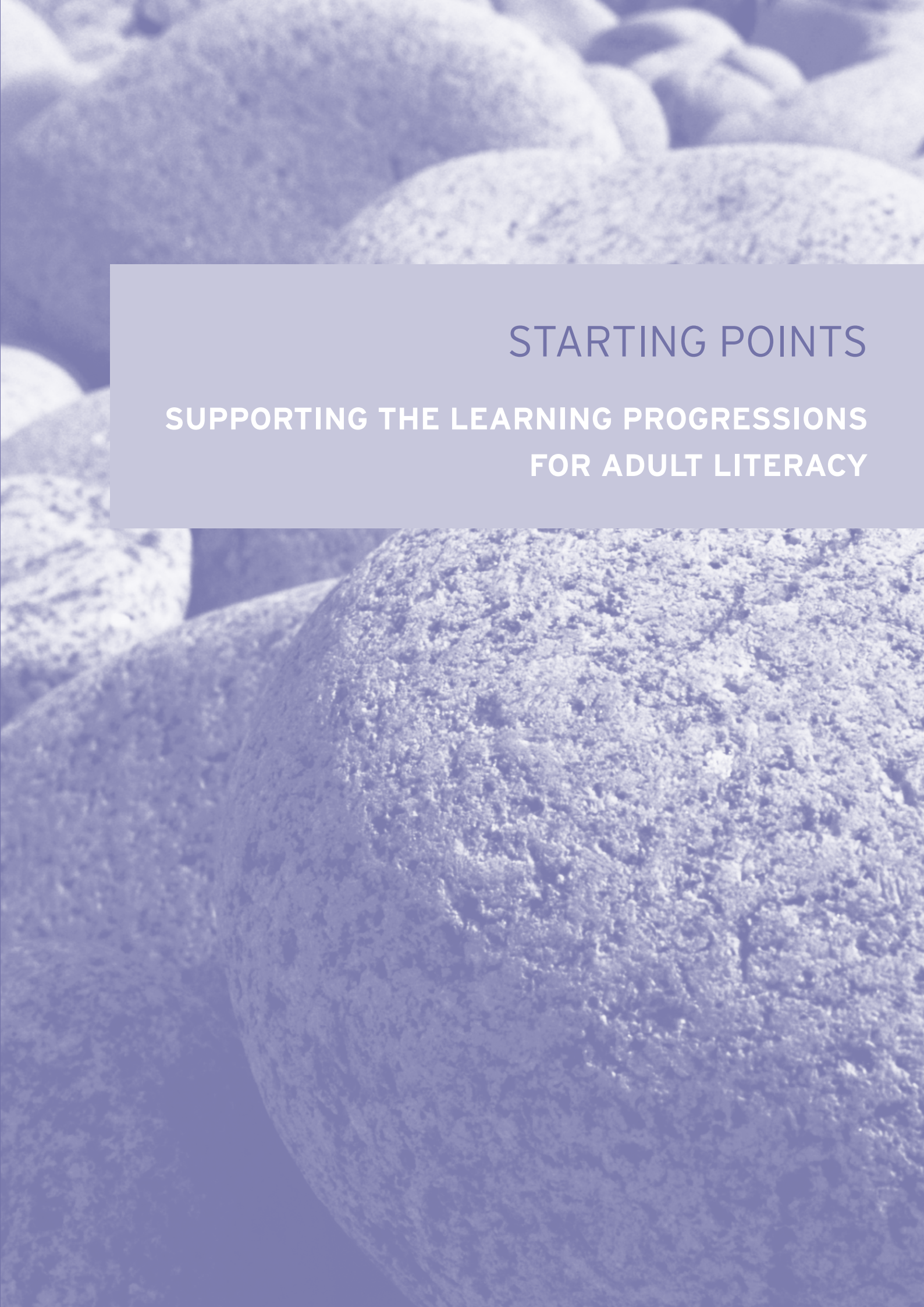
STARTING POINTS

SUPPORTING THE LEARNING PROGRESSIONS FOR ADULT LITERACY

Mā te mōhio ka ora:
mā te ora ka mōhio

Through learning there is life:
through life there is learning!

The Tertiary Education Commission would like to thank the many people who have contributed their time and expertise to this document, in preparation, design and development, consultation and review.



STARTING POINTS

SUPPORTING THE LEARNING PROGRESSIONS FOR ADULT LITERACY

Contents

About Starting Points 3

Overview 4
Correlations with the reading and writing progressions 6
Knowing the demands: using the starting points 8
Knowing the learner: learning environments 8
Knowing the learner: learner profiles 8
Knowing the learner: assessment 9
Knowing what to do: using this resource 9
Principles of adult learning 10
Social, cultural and historical perspectives 10
Content and contexts 11

The starting points 12

Listening vocabulary 14

Background information 14
Knowing the demands 14
Knowing the learner 15
Knowing what to do 15
Case study 16

Phonological awareness 18

Levels of awareness 18
Background information 19
Knowing the demands 19
Knowing the learner 20
Knowing what to do 21
Case study 22

Sound–letter (phoneme–grapheme) relationships 23

Background information 23
Knowing the demands 23
Knowing the learner 24
Knowing what to do 24
Case study 25

Print and word concepts 27

Background information 27
Knowing the demands 27
Knowing the learner 28
Knowing what to do 28
Case study 29

Letter formation 30

Background information 30
Knowing the demands 30
Knowing the learner 31
Knowing what to do 31
Case study 32

Environmental print 33

Background information 33
Knowing the demands 33
Knowing the learner 34
Knowing what to do 34
Case study 34

High-interest words 36

Background information 36
Knowing the demands 36
Knowing the learner 36
Knowing what to do 37
Case study 37

Instructional strategies and approaches 39

Using instructional strategies 39
Instructional approaches 40

Web resources 45

General literacy resources 45
ESOL resources 46

Appendices 47

Appendix A: Types of L1 literacy and effects on L2 literacy learning 47
Appendix B: Principles of adult learning 48

Glossary 50

References 52

About Starting Points

The publication *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy* describes the steps towards competency in literacy that apply to most New Zealand adult learners. For some adults, however, the progressions do not adequately describe the initial knowledge, skills or understandings required to begin learning to read and write. *Starting Points: Supporting the Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy* targets New Zealand adult learners who need to develop the prerequisite skills and understandings to decode basic words for reading, or to write (forming letters and encoding) basic words.

Learners may, however, have other literacy skills; for example, they may have excellent listening and speaking skills, including listening comprehension. Some adults may be learning English as a second or other language (ESOL learners) and, for them, a lack of English, along with a limited or very different literacy knowledge in their mother tongue, may be a barrier to progress. Therefore *Starting Points: Supporting the Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy* may be useful for some ESOL learners as well as for speakers whose mother tongue is English, depending on their specific needs.

Starting Points: Supporting the Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy gives a framework for learning to which tutors can add content and contexts appropriate to the situations and needs of their learners. It has been developed to complement and support the adult literacy learning progressions. Specifically, the seven areas selected as starting points provide support for working out how to read and write words (decoding written words, forming letters, and writing or encoding words) to enable learners to access and work within the first steps of the learning progressions.

They represent critical skills and knowledge that are essential for supporting adult literacy development. Without these skills and knowledge, it is unlikely a learner could advance significantly through the progressions for reading and writing.

Unlike the progressions, the areas selected here as starting points are not represented in strands or in a sequential way, because the skills and knowledge are closely interdependent and are related most closely to only two of the learning progressions: *Decoding* (in Read with Understanding) and *Spelling* (in Write to Communicate). They are underpinned by the skills represented in the Listen with Understanding and Speak to Communicate progressions, particularly those for vocabulary and comprehension.

This resource is designed for use by literacy tutors who will have the skills and knowledge to teach at this level and to support tutors (such as vocational tutors) in their work with learners.

Overview

The areas selected as starting points cover the following aspects of literacy:

1. listening vocabulary
2. phonological awareness
3. sound–letter (phoneme–grapheme) relationships
4. print and word concepts
5. letter formation
6. environmental print
7. high-interest words.

These areas overlap and work together; they do not represent a hierarchy of skills, and learners may require more support for some aspects than for others.

Listening vocabulary

Listening vocabulary refers to the words a person recognises when they hear them in spoken language. A well-developed listening vocabulary is a fundamental requirement for literacy and language learning at any age. Without a good understanding of many words 'in the head', a person will not be able to begin to decode or encode written texts, and will not develop reading comprehension. The information provided here will apply mainly, but not exclusively, to speakers of languages other than English who are not already fluent in English. For speakers whose mother tongue is English and who have a limited vocabulary, listening vocabulary can also be explicitly taught.

Phonological awareness

Phonological awareness refers to a person's ability to hear, recognise and manipulate the sounds that make up spoken words. It is a crucial aspect of learning to read and write. Without this awareness, learners will not be able to move beyond simple recognition or reproduction of whole words from memory. They will not have the tools with which to 'crack the code' of written language. Phonological awareness is about **hearing** sounds, not about reading or writing them. It is therefore an essential precursor to recognising the connections between the sounds heard and the letters that represent those sounds. Many speakers whose mother tongue is English and who struggle with reading and writing have not developed phonological awareness. ESOL learners may or may not require support for phonological awareness, depending on their mother tongue and their ability to hear and produce the sounds of English.

Sound–letter (phoneme–grapheme) relationships

Sound–letter relationships involve an understanding of several related concepts or sets of knowledge to do with making connections between sounds and the letters that represent them (phoneme–grapheme relationships). This knowledge includes the alphabetic principle: that is, understanding that sounds (phonemes) in spoken words correspond to letters or groups of letters (graphemes) in the printed word. Reading and writing in English can present problems for both English mother tongue learners and ESOL learners because these phoneme–grapheme relationships are not always consistent. For example, there are several ways of representing the long 'a' sound (phoneme) with letters: *-ay* (eg. day), *-a-e* (eg. late), *-eigh* (eg. sleigh) and others.

Print and word concepts

Concepts about how print works and an understanding of the conventions commonly used at the word level also underpin reading and writing. Print and word concepts refer to the rules or practices that govern the use of print and the written language, such as that lines are read from left to right and from top to bottom of the page, that words are made of letters, and that spaces are used between words. Some learners will be able to work within the first step of the Language and Text Features reading and writing progressions, but print and word concepts are included here to emphasise the importance of using whatever knowledge learners have about reading and writing as an initial step for instruction.

Letter formation

Letter formation concerns a person's ability to form letters. Learners need to be able to form letters so they can write down the words they want to record for themselves or convey to others. Forming letters may be challenging for some learners with English as a mother tongue who have limited writing skills, and also for ESOL learners who have little or no experience with the Roman alphabetic script that is used for English. Some learners will need support with letter formation before they are able to work at the first step of the writing progressions.

Environmental print

Environmental print refers to the words and images found in the environment. It includes billboards, advertising, signs, icons and labels. Learners who have yet to develop basic reading skills may already have an extensive knowledge of environmental print (for example, they can recognise signs for McDonald's and other common businesses, brand names of familiar products and many traffic signs). Learners who recognise even a small number of words will most likely be able to work within the first step of the *Decoding* and *Vocabulary* reading progressions, but environmental print is included here to emphasise the importance of using whatever knowledge learners have about reading as an initial step for instruction.

High-interest words

Learners who are not yet able to read and write words independently may recognise some high-interest words. These typically include words that are personally significant (such as their own name) and other high-utility words (very common or useful words that they recognise on sight). Learners who recognise even a small number of words will most likely be able to work within the first step of the *Decoding* and *Vocabulary* reading progressions, but high-interest words are included here to emphasise the importance of using whatever knowledge learners have about reading as a starting point for instruction.

Listening vocabulary, phonological awareness and sound–letter relationships have been referred to as the 'building blocks' of reading and writing in phonemically based alphabets (in which the sounds of the spoken language are represented by letters) and they are not exclusive to English.[1] They are just as important in, for example, te reo Māori as they are in Vietnamese, Turkish or English. Turkish, for instance, has very systematic spelling, with sound correspondences that facilitate the development of sound–letter relationships.[2] Compared with other alphabetic languages, however, English is notoriously inconsistent in the ways in which sounds are represented.[3] This inconsistency presents particular challenges for English mother-tongue speakers, as well as for ESOL learners.

The challenge for learners with a background in a non-phonemic writing system will be even greater. For example, speakers of Mandarin (a non-phonemic script) will require explicit demonstration of how the sounds of English are (usually) represented by letters. They will need to recognise and understand the connections between the sounds (phonemes) and letters (graphemes) and how sounds combine to make words. Speakers whose mother tongue is English but who lack the knowledge and ability to form connections between sounds and letters may have struggled to master these connections for years without success.

1 Durgunoglu and Onëy, 2002; Ziegler and Goswami, 2006.
2 Durgunoglu and Onëy, 2002; Majeres, 2005.
3 Zeigler and Goswami, 2006.

Correlations with the reading and writing progressions

The following chart shows the first step of each of the reading and writing progressions. With each step it shows the relationship to the starting points that can be used either prior to working at that step or to support work in the step.

Learners can work within the first step of several of the reading progressions (Vocabulary, Language and Text Features, Comprehension, Reading Critically) without needing to draw on decoding. If they are not able to decode words, learners will be severely hampered in moving on in these progressions.

Learners can work on the first step of most of the writing progressions as they start to develop the skills for writing words and phrases.

Read with Understanding

PROGRESSION	MOST ADULTS WILL:	STARTING POINTS:	RATIONALE
Decoding	• have a bank of sight words (words they recognise automatically) • use a few reliable strategies for decoding regularly and irregularly spelt everyday words in short, simple texts.	• phonological awareness • sound–letter relationships • environmental print • high-interest words • print and word concepts.	Represent essential precursor skills or knowledge.
Vocabulary	• have a reading vocabulary of everyday words, signs and symbols.	• listening vocabulary • environmental print • high-interest words.	Represent essential precursor skills or knowledge.
Language and Text Features	• understand that groups of words work together in meaningful units.	• print and word concepts • environmental print.	Represent essential precursor skills or knowledge.
Comprehension	• have some awareness of their purpose for reading • expect that texts will make sense • use strategies to read short, simple texts with support.		Learners can work at some aspects of this step.
Reading Critically	• have some awareness of the different purposes of visual and written texts • be aware that all readers and all writers have a perspective (point of view).		Learners can work at this step.

Write to Communicate

PROGRESSION	MOST ADULTS WILL:	STARTING POINTS:	RATIONALE
Purpose and Audience	• have a simple purpose for writing, with one or more goals related to the text content (what the text will say).		Learners can work at some aspects of this step.
Spelling	• have a bank of high-frequency words they can write automatically and accurately • have in their spelling bank high-frequency words that have regular spelling patterns and irregular spelling patterns.	• phonological awareness • sound–letter relationships • letter formation • environmental print • high-interest words • listening vocabulary • print and word concepts.	Represent essential precursor skills or knowledge.
Vocabulary	• use a range of everyday, highly familiar words and phrases to write simple texts.	• listening vocabulary • environmental print • high-interest words.	Represent essential precursor skills or knowledge.
Language and Text Features			
Planning and Composing	• write single words and simple phrases to convey information in a readable draft • use a highly structured template or model to write a simple text on a very familiar topic.	• letter formation • high-interest words • print and word concepts.	Represent essential skills or knowledge, but learners can work at this step as they begin to write words and phrases.
Revising and Editing	• use basic revision strategies, with support, to edit their writing in response to feedback.	• letter formation • high-interest words.	Learners can work at this step as they begin to write words and phrases.

Knowing the demands: using the starting points

Some of the everyday demands that learners face, although they may be a long way from achieving them, could include:

- making a shopping list
- applying for a driver licence or a residency visa
- writing a letter to apply for a job
- reading power and telephone bills, bank accounts, supermarket receipts
- claiming a benefit
- reading children's school reports and letters
- writing a note to a child's teacher
- reading the labels on medicines
- writing and/or reading classified ads (or websites) to find a flat, house or car
- reading and filling in tenancy forms, and/or
- reading a summons or charge summary.

It is therefore vital to find out about the demands and contexts that are relevant for individual learners. Wherever possible, the materials (content) should reflect these real demands and contexts. It is highly likely that you will need to adapt and create materials, and to make use of materials the learners will actually need to read and write. This resource, together with the learning progressions, provides ideas for how to include these elements in the learning process, but they are a brief guide only: every learner and situation will be different.

Regardless of the learning environment, learning will be most effective and relevant when it is organised around a personalised study plan and goal-setting that has been negotiated between the learner and the educator, and where there is regular assessment and evaluation.

Knowing the learner: learning environments

Adults participate in literacy and language development in a range of learning environments. These environments may include:

- individual one-on-one learning with a home tutor
- community-based classes (usually part-time, often evening classes) held, for example, in a private home, on a marae, or in a school or community centre
- adult literacy courses (full- or part-time) in an adult literacy centre, such as a polytechnic, wānanga or community college
- prison literacy classes
- workplace literacy programmes
- ESOL classes that may be part-time or full-time, usually in high school adult education centres, private training establishments or polytechnics, or
- foundation learning programmes, such as those offered at a polytechnic or private training establishment.

Knowing the learner: learner profiles

Learners who would benefit from the support provided through these starting points may fit a variety of profiles. Some may have been alienated from the education system, resulting in limited reading and writing skills, some may be ESOL learners, some may have learning disabilities and some may have had limited exposure to reading and writing instruction. Still others may not have benefited from instruction for various reasons.

Any one of these factors, or a combination of them, could mean that you, as a tutor, need to find out what a learner can do and how you can help them to develop the knowledge and skills that are

fundamental to literacy development. Learners who have specific disabilities (such as physical, visual or intellectual impairment) that affect learning may require specialist resources or programmes. Deaf adults, for whom auditory input is largely unavailable, will probably lack phonological awareness, making the development of literacy even more challenging; specialist assistance will be needed.

Knowing the learner: assessment

The purpose of any assessment needs to be clear to both the tutor and the learner. Tutors also need to have a method for recording assessments and for making decisions based on their assessments.

If you are not sure where to start, the resources that support the learning progressions provide guidance for assessing learners' strengths and needs in literacy and language. They show how you can establish a learner profile that can then be used as the basis for teaching and learning. Specifically, see the "Knowing the learner" sections in:

- *Teaching Adults to Read with Understanding: Using the Learning Progressions*
- *Teaching Adults to Write to Communicate: Using the Learning Progressions.*

If you have already used these assessment tools and found that the Read with Understanding and Write to Communicate progressions do not adequately account for a learner's initial level of development (that is, the learner is not yet able to work at the first step of some of the progressions), then consider the starting points in this resource. You will find further suggestions for assessment with each of these to help you make decisions about instruction.

These are brief suggestions only: they are not intended to be used as assessment tools but should supplement other methods of assessment.

For some learners, mastery of some of these skills (the precursors to reading and writing) may make them appear to be more proficient than they really are, masking their reading difficulties. For example, some adults with learning difficulties often make use of compensatory strategies that draw on long-term memory of letters, words and signs, and that are more apparent in familiar contexts.[4] It is important to investigate closely and with sensitivity if you feel a learner may be using this kind of approach.

Knowing what to do: using this resource

There are suggestions for teaching for each of the starting points in this resource. These are brief outlines only. Literacy tutors will need to develop teaching activities relevant to individual learners. Many of the activities in the supporting books, *Teaching Adults to Read with Understanding: Using the Learning Progressions* and *Teaching Adults to Write to Communicate: Using the Learning Progressions*, can also be adapted for use alongside these suggestions.

ESOL learners

For some ESOL learners, it may be hard to know if their reading and writing difficulties are English learning issues or if there are underlying issues. As a general rule, if a person is able to read and write in their mother tongue, the starting points in this resource may not be appropriate for their needs although they may require support to develop phonological awareness in English. In other areas, the learning progressions (alongside continuing English language instruction) may be more suitable. If a person is learning the English language and has limited reading and writing in their mother tongue, this resource will provide you with support

4 Cardosa-Martins and Rodrigues with Ehri, 2003.

for meeting their literacy needs alongside their continuing ESOL instruction. Refer to the chart in Appendix A, which outlines the kinds of literacy knowledge that learners may have in their mother tongue and how this knowledge may affect literacy learning in English.

For detailed information about learners who are able to read in their first language and those who are not, see also the publications by Brod (2002), Silver (1998) and Roberts (2008).

See also references for resources and curricula developed to meet ESOL literacy needs on page 46.

Principles of adult learning

Starting Points: Using the Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy follows recognised thinking around adult learning principles and employs educational approaches and activities based on the ways adults learn. The principles of adult learning[5] that underpin this resource are as follows:

- Adults are self-directed learners and are capable of independent learning.
- Adult learners draw on their previous experiences of life and learning, and bring these experiences to bear on new learning.
- Learning needs to be directly related to the developmental tasks of an adult's social roles and directly applicable to real-life issues.
- Motivation factors for adult learners are deep-seated and internally derived.

Each of these principles has direct relevance to the development and use of *Starting Points: Supporting the Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy*. The principles are explained in Appendix B.

Social, cultural and historical perspectives

Starting Points: Supporting the Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy has been developed acknowledging the contributions of theorists, practitioners and commentators whose works have influenced the provision of education for people and peoples who experience disadvantage. These contributors include but are not limited to:

- Freire,[6] whose view of adult learning is transformative: adults need and use literacy to 'transform' or bring about change in their own lives and in society.
- Bourdieu,[7] who developed the concept of cultural capital: the knowledge, values and skills that are passed on from one generation to the next. Where the values of teacher and learner differ (with the teacher placing more value on their own 'culture' than that of the learner), disadvantage may be perpetuated.
- Vygotsky,[8] whose concept of scaffolding learning has had a wide influence on educators at all levels. Put simply, Vygotsky's theory is that learning occurs when the learner is engaged in challenging tasks that they can do with the support (scaffolding) of a person who has greater expertise. The scaffolding is removed as the learner masters the task.

5 Knowles, 1990. Knowles makes the distinction between pedagogy (or teaching oriented towards young learners) and andragogy (the study of how adults learn).
6 Freire and Macedo, 1987.
7 Bourdieu, 1973.
8 Vyotsky, 1978.

- Commentators and educators in New Zealand (for example, Jenkins, and Benton and Benton[9]) who have observed that the historical impact of colonisation and assimilation has meant that disadvantage and under-achievement have been experienced by Māori learners over several generations.

Content and contexts

Every learner is an individual, with their own strengths and needs. This resource provides an explanation of the skills required for literacy and language development. It does not determine either the context for learning or the content of the learning programme. The starting points are to be used as a framework or outline only; it is the tutor's role and responsibility to meet the needs of the learner first by getting to know the learner (their experiences of learning, their strengths and aspirations as well as their learning needs), then by building a relationship and developing a programme to meet those needs in ways best suited to that learner.

Central to meeting the needs of adult learners is the concept of functional literacy.[10] Learners will not develop literacy skills by simply 'doing reading and writing' if they have been unsuccessful in this area for most of their lives. They need highly contextualised instruction in skills that relate to their real-life needs. Even at beginning levels, therefore, it is important to integrate learning into a clear and meaningful context.

9 Jenkins, 1993; Benton and Benton, 1995.
10 Thornbury, 2006.

The starting points

Introduction:

- describes the starting point.

Background information:

- provides relevant research findings, explanations and other details necessary to help tutors understand the significance of the starting point for learners.

Print and word concepts

This starting point refers to the rules, conventions and practices that govern the use of print and the written English language. They include the following:

- Print (the written word) carries meaning.
- Written text in English is read from left to right.
- The lines of text in English are read from left to right, and from top to bottom of the page (a return sweep of the eyes is needed to move from the end of one line to the start of the next).
- Spaces between words signify the end of one word and the beginning of another.
- There are spaces to separate lines and paragraphs.
- The parts of a published book usually follow a pattern, although not all are always present (cover with title, title page, contents page, sections or chapters, index, back cover).

There are also rules or guidelines about words themselves that most literate English speakers take for granted. These conventions establish 'norms' for recognising words as words.
For example, in English:

- words are made up of individual letters
- the letters are formed from left to right
- words may be written in lower and/or upper case letters
- some words begin with an upper case letter (as determined by certain conventions)
- words with a hyphen in the middle are treated as a single word.
- There are spaces between words that signify each word's boundary, and much smaller spaces between the letters in a word (cursive handwriting may not leave any white space between joined-up letters).

Background information

From their work with young beginning readers, various researchers have drawn conclusions that we might reasonably assume will apply to adult learners who have had few experiences with print and the conventions of printed texts. These conclusions include the following:[44]

- Books are put together according to a set of conventions that can be understood without being able to read.[45]
- Knowing the conventions of print aids the learner in the process of learning to read.[46]
- Learners need to know the mechanics of print in order to be readers.[47]
- Concepts about print knowledge may facilitate subsequent reading-related skills.[48]

Learners who come from an oral tradition and who have not grown up with print around them may need to be taught some or all of these concepts explicitly (see 'Knowing what to do').

Knowing the demands

In a literate society, most people begin interacting with print at an early age and on a constant basis. Understanding the concepts about print makes the mechanics of reading predictable rather than random. Learners need to know these mechanics (such as which way to follow the print, where a word starts and ends) in order to read. Once learners have grasped the concepts about print, they can focus on the aspects of texts that carry the meaning, using their knowledge of decoding, vocabulary and comprehension to understand the text.

Knowledge of these conventions or norms is also important in the production of words (writing) as the identifiable building blocks of text (see also 'Letter formation', page 30).

Knowing the learner

A learner's concepts about print can be assessed by observing the learner and how they handle books and other texts, as well as by checking for knowledge on a one-to-one basis. If learners are not yet able to read texts in English and have limited experience with print, it may be useful for tutors to combine assessment with teaching activities, using an activity to see what the learner knows.
For example, when dealing with handling a book, select examples that have many clear illustrations, such as readers that learners' children may have brought home from school.[49] In addition, tutors may find it useful to model how to handle the book.

Adult learners will have knowledge of many words in spoken form, either in English or another language or both. They will also have exposure to written words in English. It is often possible (and desirable) to assess by observing and recording behaviours in the course of other activities.

Keep a record of what each learner knows and is able to do, using a checklist based on the list of print and word concepts above. This provides both you and the learner with a way to make decisions about the next learning steps.

44 List adapted from www.sedl.org/reading/framework/research.html#print.
45 Clay, 1979.
46 Clay, 1979; Tunmer, Herriman and Nesdale, 1988.
47 See, for example, Ehri and Sweet, 1991.
48 Weir, 1989.

49 Do not use children's books unless learners have a need to und

Knowing the demands:

- describes the skills, knowledge or awareness learners will need in order to master the starting point.

Knowing the learner:

- provides suggestions for assessing learners' current skills and knowledge in relation to the starting point.

Knowing what to do:

- provides suggestions for teaching the skills and knowledge of the starting point.

Knowing what to do

Much of our knowledge of what print does comes from familiarity with and exposure to it. Give learners practice in:

- handling books (opening them, turning pages)
- becoming familiar with parts of a book (cover, title, author, main text, illustrations)
- looking for specific items (a word, letter, picture) in different kinds of text, such as a newspaper, magazine, course book, brochure, forms and cards
- seeing and listening to many different text forms (such as letters, forms, newspapers, magazines, advertising flyers, signs and posters) and types (such as instructions, explanations, reports, narratives and persuasive texts)
- discussing/predicting a story from the picture or title on the front of the book, and
- matching words (for example, if the title is *Coffee time*, ask the learners to find the word *coffee* in the text).

Some useful strategies in undertaking these activities are to:

- read a text aloud from a projected overhead transparency (OHT) so that the whole class can focus on the same text, and the tutor can observe the learners' eye movements
- use a pointer with the OHT to guide learners' eye movements, and
- point out parts of the text, for example, "Show me a word", "Show me where I should start reading", "Show me where a sentence starts and finishes".

erstand what their own children are learning.

Also visit the local library and ensure that learners all have their own library card.

Provide opportunities for learners to check and consolidate knowledge of word concepts during other activities. Use directions such as, "Show me the next word", "Where does the next word start?", Can you find that word again?", "How many times is this word printed on the page?", "Which word starts with *b*?", "How many other words start with *b*?"

Teaching suggestions for Sharifa

- Look at the title of the book used in the assessment together and read it aloud to her.
- Encourage Sharifa to identify other occurrences of the name "Sadiya" in the book.
- Count the words on a page (there will probably be four to six words).
- Read the whole book with Sharifa.
- Encourage her to retell (reading when she can) parts of the book with a reading partner.
- Encourage Sharifa to identify other words in her environment that begin with "s".
- Encourage Sharifa to practise her new skills with her children and in class.

Case study

Sharifa lived at home with her family in Afghanistan until they had to flee to a refugee camp in Pakistan. The family stayed in the camp for several years before coming to New Zealand two years ago. Sharifa never went to school – there was no opportunity when she was growing up and she was busy helping at home. Nobody in her family could (or needed to) read or write when they were in Afghanistan. Now she and her husband are learning to speak, read and write in English, but they are finding it difficult. By contrast, their young children are progressing rapidly at school.

When Sharifa first joined a literacy class, she was given a diagnostic assessment. As part of the assessment, her tutor gave her a small book and asked Sharifa to indicate the front of the book, to open the book and to show the title of the book. Sharifa was able to open the book and point to the line of text on each page. She guessed (by looking at the pictures and reading the one or two words she knew) that the story was about a woman and her family. The name of the woman in the book was Sadiya, and Sharifa recognised the "S" as the same as her own name.

Case study:

- gives a real-life example of a learner who needs to acquire the skills and knowledge of the starting point, and some suggestions for teaching them.

Listening vocabulary

Listening vocabulary refers to the words a person knows (can understand) when they hear them in spoken English. As they begin to develop literacy expertise, most adults will build a listening vocabulary. That is, they will understand the meanings of a range of words and short phrases when they hear them. This starting point will apply mainly but not exclusively to ESOL learners who have not already gained some fluency in English. It may also be applicable to other learners with a limited listening vocabulary. Listening vocabulary provides the foundation for developing phonological awareness and building reading and writing skills.

Background information

Reading and writing are 'macro' skills, which are made up of complex sets of sub-skills. Two key aspects of reading acquisition are sight word recognition and decoding skills related to phonological awareness[11] (see page 18). Reading, also, most importantly involves understanding the meaning of written text. If decoding skills are overemphasised, the learner may develop the ability to read aloud without actually understanding the meaning of the text (sometimes referred to as "barking at print"[12]). To avoid this outcome, literacy development and the beginnings of phonological awareness must be linked to meaningful language. As adults, we use language to comprehend and express meaning related to real-life needs.[13] Learners acquire language when they understand the messages or meanings behind the language forms they are learning. This principle is behind the strategies suggested in 'Knowing what to do'.

Learning vocabulary is a complex and sometimes difficult task for adults. The fact that about 70 percent of English words have more than one meaning[14] adds to the complexity of the task. Learning new words takes time. A word is unlikely to become part of a learner's vocabulary after a single exposure to the word or to one definition of it; it can take multiple exposures to a word in different contexts to understand the full complexity of its meanings and applications. Knowledge of vocabulary therefore includes knowledge of how words work in relation to each other and within specific contexts.

If a learner's listening vocabulary is limited, a wider vocabulary must be explicitly taught before instruction in decoding (for reading) or spelling (for writing) can begin.

Knowing the demands

Learners who do not understand the meanings of spoken English words (a receptive listening vocabulary) will not be able to develop reading and writing skills in English. It is vital that first attempts at reading and writing revolve around language that is meaningful and familiar to the learner. Before learners begin to develop phonological awareness and decoding/spelling skills, they need to be familiar with the sounds of English.

The need to develop this familiarity applies particularly to those ESOL learners who are not literate in their mother tongue or who come from a language background that uses a non-Roman alphabet (for example, Arabic, Chinese, Thai, Tamil).

11 Hughes, 2000.
12 Broughton, 1993.
13 Hymes, 1972, Halliday, 1975.
14 Lederer, 1991.

We can realistically assume that learners who are bilingual in English and another language (for example, te reo Māori), or who have English as their first language will already have acquired sufficient receptive listening vocabulary to develop their reading and writing skills.[15] If they have not (that is, if a speaker whose mother tongue is English appears to have a limited listening vocabulary), then the suggestions in this starting point may be of use.

Knowing the learner

Suggestions for assessment procedures include the following.

- Say or read a series of words to the learner and, for each word, ask them to:
  - choose a matching picture, object or flashcard
  - draw a picture
  - show you the item in a larger picture.
- Ask the learner to follow simple, related instructions in a familiar context, for example:
  - Turn on the lights or turn off the heater.
  - Open the CD player and take out the CD.
  - Tell me about two things that you have in your bag.
- Encourage the learner to let you know whenever you (or other learners) use words they do not understand. This self-reporting will help you see how many words the learner needs to learn, as well as which words to target.
- Use a conversational framework to elicit personal information, for example: "I'm Dorothy, can you tell me your name? And your address? How do you spell that? Can you write your phone number down, please? Tell me about your family ...".

ESOL learners who require instruction to develop their listening vocabulary may be following an English language learning programme. Basic listening comprehension assessments may be available as part of the materials linked to a programme. See the list of ESOL resources on page 46.

Knowing what to do

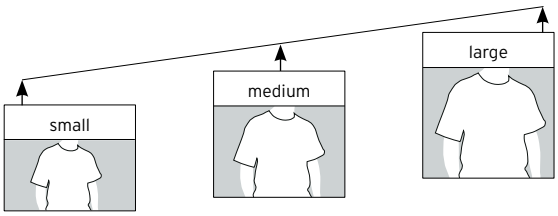
Adult learners need to build vocabulary in contexts and topic groups that are relevant to their lives. Many learners will build vocabulary through a language learning programme designed for their needs. The learning stages described here follow recognised adult language learning principles.[16] You can select vocabulary items for learning from a language programme or from an assessment of the topic areas the learner will need to operate in. You may also select them from materials the learner will study later as they further develop decoding skills. To prevent overload, a maximum of 10 items should be presented in a session. Allow for regular revision and practice. The steps for learning activities are listed below.

15 Christie with Delaruelle, 2002.
16 Scrivener, 2004.

A. Presentation

Present the meaning of each item by:

- showing a real object
- drawing or showing a picture
- miming an action
- tasting (food or drink)
- translating (preferably by another speaker of the same language: beware of an over-reliance on dictionary translations, which may not be appropriate for the context), and
- using a cline or other visual technique (a cline situates a word with a meaning related to degree along a visual continuum, for example, for clothing sizes).



B. Practice

For listening practice of the vocabulary: say the word several times as the learner listens. Ask the learner to select an object, point to a picture or draw the word. As they become familiar with print, they can also point to the word in a list.

Ask the learner to repeat the word aloud two or three times so they focus on accuracy of pronunciation. It is important they have an aural memory of the sound of the word and can relate this sound to meaning.

C. Recording

Write the word or phrase and let the learner copy it onto a flashcard. It is a good idea for the learner to write the item on the front of the card and the meaning (for example, using a picture or translation) and pronunciation cues on the back.

D. Production

Learners will also need to be able to use (produce) most of the vocabulary presented to them, so it is a good idea to include a production phase in the lesson.

Provide multiple opportunities for you and the learner to use the word or phrase in meaningful ways (for example, roleplay shopping for clothes of different sizes).

Other teaching ideas include the following:

- Make recordings of speech (for example, a simple relevant conversational exchange) for learners to listen to. They can listen for a particular word or phrase and:
  - call out "Stop!" or raise a hand every time they hear the word
  - match, show or draw the word when they hear it
  - repeat the word as they hear it used.

Case study

Asha is a Somali woman in her fifties. She arrived in New Zealand as a refugee and has only recently begun full-time English language study in a beginner class at her local polytechnic. Her Somali cultural background is based on an oral tradition and she is not literate in her mother tongue. Her spoken English is now at a level where she can respond to questions and comments in a short conversation about everyday topics, but she is unable to speak at length or take the initiative in a conversation.

She can understand basic listening texts, such as announcements at the bus station and the Lotto draw on television. She can follow the gist of more complex texts (for example, she can listen for familiar place names in a weather report), but she cannot follow detail (she cannot extract details such as the forecast weather conditions for the place where she lives). She has made friends with an English-speaking neighbour and she wants to be able to have conversations with her.

Teaching suggestions for Asha

- Develop flashcards for weather conditions, using pictures and words.
- Follow the steps in 'Knowing what to do' above (present, practise, record, produce).
- Build language experience books (see page 40) about relevant topics or themes, or about her life stories during which you can introduce relevant new vocabulary.
- Read language experience books over and over again to reinforce the use of vocabulary.
- Plan for regular social chats to encourage Asha to speak and listen.
- Listen to, then talk about, short items on the television or radio, such as the news headlines.

Phonological awareness

Before they can start to work with print, learners need to be able to hear the sounds in spoken words. The ability to hear and work with the sounds in words is known as phonological awareness. It is an awareness that operates at different levels and becomes (as the chart below shows) increasingly finegrained, involving awareness at the levels of whole word, syllable, onset–rime and, finally, phoneme. Note that letters appearing between slashes (//) should be read as sounds (phonemes), not letter names, although standard letters are used here rather than phonetic notation.

Examples of the levels of phonological awareness

LEVEL	EXAMPLES		
word	bed	black	napkin
syllable	bed	black	nap-kin
onset–rime	b-ed	bl-ack	n-ap k-in
phonemes	/b/-/e/-/d/	/b/-/l/-/a/-/ck/	/n/-/a/-/p/-/k/-/i/-/n/

Levels of awareness

Syllable awareness

At the syllable level, phonological awareness is an awareness that words can be divided into syllables. A syllable is a unit of speech that has a vowel phoneme. Syllable awareness is identifying that, for example, the word *run* has one syllable, *paper* has two syllables (*pa-per*) and *remember* has three syllables (*re-mem-ber*).

Onset–rime awareness

The onset in a syllable is the consonant or consonants before the vowel, and the rime contains the vowel that follows the onset, plus any consonants. For example, in the word *cat, c-* is the onset and *-at* is the rime. The rime usually contains one or more vowels and consonants. Onset–rime awareness is "inside" the syllable and is usually shown through rhyming tasks because, in order to have an awareness of rhyme, there must be an awareness that words share a rime unit (for example, the *-ed* sound in *bed, fed* and *thread*).

Phonemic awareness

Phonemic awareness is the most finegrained level of phonological awareness.[17] A phoneme is the smallest unit of sound that can change the meaning of a word, but a phoneme has no meaning itself. There are approximately 41 phonemes in spoken English, represented by the 26 letters of the alphabet singly or in combinations. One letter may have more than one phoneme; for example, the letter *c* has two phonemes: /k/ (as in *cat*) and /s/ (as in *city*).[18]

Learners with phonemic awareness can hear that *bad* and *boy* begin with the same sound, /b/. They know from listening that *mad* and *bad* end with the same sound, /d/. They can substitute phonemes, for example, by changing the vowel in a word: *bed, bid, bod, bud, bead, bide*. They can rearrange phonemes; for example, they know that if you take the /b/ away from *bread* (or *bred*) you would be left with *red*.

17 Phonemic and phonological awareness are often confused with phonics. Phonics is an instructional approach that helps the reader map sounds (phonemes) with letters (graphemes), see page 23.

18 In addition, one phoneme can have more than one letter, for example, the sound /sh/ is written with two letters: together they represent a single sound.

Phonological awareness, particularly at the phoneme level, is a gradual attainment that continues to develop as decoding skills develop: it is not an all-or-nothing concept.[19] It is therefore important to find out just what a learner knows and can do, through careful assessment.

Background information

Research evidence supports the critical role of phonological and phonemic awareness in learning to read in an alphabetic writing system.[20] A *level* of phonological awareness, however, is critical to developing decoding skills. Although the great majority of research in this area has involved children, the few studies done with adult beginning readers seem to indicate that learners of all ages take the same steps through phonemic awareness towards reading.[21]

Adults who are non-readers may have no phonemic awareness.[22] Further, limited phonemic awareness is typical of adults with poor reading skills internationally.[23] Learners in these groups can hear the words but they may not be aware of the individual sounds (phonemes) within them.[24]

Once again, the research with adults (and, in particular, with ESOL adults) is limited. One study with 26 ESOL adults who had little or no formal education showed significant improvement in phonological awareness and decoding after a year of instruction in phonological awareness.[25]

If an ESOL learner has phonological awareness in their mother tongue, this ability will not automatically transfer to phonological awareness in the English language.[26] Learners need to develop phonological awareness in their second (or third or fourth) languages also. This need is particularly strong for learners from non-European language backgrounds. Children can acquire phonological awareness in a second language in a similar way to their acquisition of the first language, but most adults do not have this facility and will require explicit instruction.[27] See the suggestions for instruction in 'Knowing what to do'.

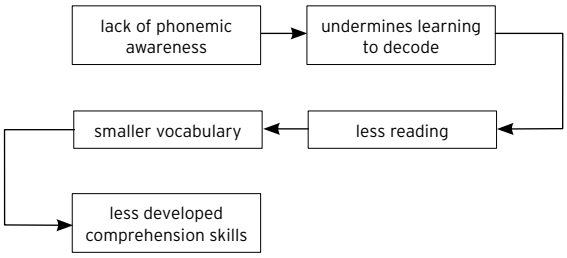
Knowing the demands

Although most people acquire awareness of these sound units without consciously thinking about them, many adults who are non-readers or poor readers will not have this ability. The connections between phonological awareness and reading are very strong; many researchers assert that, without phonological awareness (and, in particular, phonemic awareness), reading will not develop.[28]

The road to proficient reading requires all readers, regardless of their age, to develop decoding ('sounding out') skills,[29] but poorly developed phonemic awareness is a roadblock to developing decoding skills. Indeed, from research findings it appears that phonemic awareness continues to develop because it is used to aid decoding: the more it is used, the more it develops until decoding becomes well established.[30]

19 Brady et al 1994.
20 See, for example, Kruidenier, 2002; National Reading Panel, 2000.
21 Shaywitz, 2003; Durgunoglu and Onëy, 2002.
22 Kruidenier, 2002; DelliCarpini, 2006.
23 Adams et al, 1998, p 20.
24 Kruidenier, 2002.
25 DelliCarpini, 2006.
26 Durgunoglu and Onëy 2002.
27 Lightbown and Spada, 1992.
28 Ziegler and Goswami, 2005.
29 Adams et al 1998; Juel, 1988; Spear-Swerling and Sternberg, 1996.
30 Kruidenier, 2002.

Learners who do not develop or who lack phonemic awareness have great difficulty understanding letter–sound relationships[31] and therefore experience serious difficulty in learning to read and spell. Lack of phonemic awareness usually marks the start of a vicious cycle:[32]



Knowing the learner

Phonological awareness is assessed orally only; it is about hearing sounds, not making connections with written letters. Assessment is used to find out what level of awareness a learner has already. With this information, explicit instruction can then follow to extend their awareness by building on what they can do. The following notes indicate areas that can be assessed; they are not designed to be used as assessment tasks in this form.

Syllable awareness

To determine whether the learner can hear and count syllables, check if they can:

- tap out and count the syllables in words
- complete a word when only a part is given (for example, say *table* when the first part only is said, "ta-"), and
- identify syllables that are the same or different in words (for example, the "tel/e" in *television, telephone;* the "day" in *Monday, Saturday, birthday*).

Hearing rhyming words

To determine whether the learner can detect rhyme, check that they are able to:

- add a rhyming word to a list (for example, *hair, chair, bear, fair*), and
- identify the odd word out in a list of rhyming words (for example, *fit, hot, sit*).

Onset–rime awareness

The ability to detect rhyming words is part of onset–rime awareness. To check for further awareness of onset and rime, find out if learners are able to:

- play with (manipulate) the parts of words (for example, changing the /th/ of *thing* to /s/, /cl/, /w/, /sh/ to form *sing, cling, wing, shing*; changing the /ing/ of *thing* to /ick/, /ink/, /og/ to form *thick, think, thog*).

Phonemic awareness

Because adults who are non-readers will probably not be able to distinguish sounds at this finegrained level, it will be more useful to focus on syllables and rhyming words until you are sure that they are hearing the sounds. Next, check learners' ability to rearrange sounds at the onset–rime level. Finally, assess for phonemic awareness using contextualised tasks; for example, picking up on a word used during a shared reading lesson (see page 41). Use the activities described here as a general guide to check for phonemic awareness, substituting words that are familiar to the learners. Check one or two areas only in any one session.

31 Adams, 1990.
32 Stanovich, 1986.

The activities typically used to assess phonemic awareness include:[33]

- isolating phonemes: "What is the first sound in *bed*?" (/b/)
- identifying common phonemes: "What is the sound that is the same in *bed, boy* and *back*?" (/b/)
- categorising phonemes: "Which word does not belong?" *bike, car, bus* (*car*)
- segmenting phonemes: "What sounds can you hear in *bag*?" (/b/ /a/ /g/)
- blending phonemes: "What word is made with these sounds: /m/ /a/ /t/?" *(mat)*, and
- deleting phonemes: "Say *not*. Now say it again without the /n/." (/ot/).

Knowing what to do

Instruction (based on individual assessment) picks up on and extends the activities used for assessment. Bear in mind that, for some learners, phonemes may be too difficult. You may need to start with developing phonological awareness by working with syllable segmenting and rhyming, moving on to smaller units of sound within words when learners are able to distinguish sounds at the broader level.

Focus on one or two aspects of phonological awareness at a time. Although these are oral rather than written tasks, using letters occasionally as well can help to reinforce the connections between hearing sounds and recognising them in print. Teaching should be done within the context of real activities the learners are carrying out in their course rather than in isolated activities.

- Focus on rhyming words used during general discussions and instruction, and encourage learners to listen for the rhyming used in rap and hip hop music.
- Compose a group rap orally, playing with the options for rhyming the lines.
- Focus on syllable segmenting and blending activities, using words that are of high interest to the learners, such as *dinner, computer, newspaper, cafeteria, marae, mechanical, polytech, whakapapa, rapping, newspaper, hamburger*. Say a word as syllable segments (news/pa/per, com/pu/ter) and have the learners repeat the word back, first in the segments then as the whole word. Learners can take turns to think of and segment multisyllabic words for others to repeat then blend.
- Sound blending: using words that have come up during a lesson, say the sounds of a word and have the learners put them together as a single word; for example, "What word do these sounds make: /m/ /i/ /x/?". For this activity, use words that are regular – that is, words where the letter sounds are directly related to the spelling (/s/ /l/ /ee/ /p/ rather than /c/ /ou/ gh/).
- Notice learners' spelling attempts when they write and identify the sounds they are hearing as they approximate spellings. For example, if a learner writes *jumt* for *jumped*, it shows they are hearing and identifying four of the five phonemes in the word. Talk about the sounds the learner hears in the head when they are about to write a word – but don't worry about spelling at this point.

33 National Reading Panel, 2000.

- Note that there are many words in te reo Māori and other alphabetic languages that lend themselves well to phonological awareness activities and capitalise on learners' specific interests. The point of learning in this starting point is for learners to listen for and identify the units of sound in words. If learners have this skill in one language, show them they can transfer their awareness to English sounds.

For further examples of teaching activities, see the publications by Nicholson and Henry.[34] See also the appendix on teaching decoding in *Teaching Adults to Read with Understanding: Using the Learning Progressions*.

Case study

Jim is a 20-year-old man, attending basic reading classes at a community centre. He has a two-year-old daughter and wants to learn to read with her. Because of his unsettled family life, Jim missed out on a lot of schooling and has never learnt to read beyond a few high-interest words. He does not seem to have phonological awareness beyond the whole word and syllable level; he can tap out the syllables in familiar words such as people's names. Jim likes listening to music, especially rap music.

Teaching suggestions for Jim

- Use Jim's interest in music to develop stronger awareness of syllables and sounds in words by identifying specific words and building and manipulating the sounds in them.
- Explore the words in raps with him, identifying (by listening closely) the parts of words that rhyme and building more rhymes.
- Isolate some rhymes and use these to explore onsets and rimes; for example, move from brother to *br-o, br-a, br-eak*; then *br-eak, sh-ake, m-ake*.
- Give Jim opportunities to practise and reinforce his new learning using language experience (see page 40) and generative words (see page 43).

34 Nicolson, 2005; Henry, 2003.

Sound–letter (phoneme–grapheme) relationships

Sound–letter correspondences are the relationships between sounds (or phonemes) and letters (or graphemes). This starting point highlights the connections between the sounds in words and the letters that are used to represent those sounds. Included are two other related concepts: the alphabetic principle and letter recognition.

Knowledge of sound–letter relationships means knowing, for example, that the /t/ sound is represented by the letter *t*. It also means knowing that the sound /s/ can be represented by more than one letter, for example, *s* as in *soft* and *c* as in *city*. Many adults who are non-readers have trouble with identifying these relationships between sounds and letters.

An awareness of the alphabetic principle means knowing that speech can be turned into print, that print can be turned into speech, and that letters are used to represent sounds in the language.[35]

Letter recognition is the ability to recognise and name the letters of the alphabet. It includes recognising and recalling the shapes of letters, identifying lower and upper case letters, and recognising letters in isolation and within printed words even when they appear in different fonts and sizes. Instruction that focuses on letter–sound relationships is known as phonics.

Background information

Several research studies with adult learners have shown that adult beginning readers have trouble applying sound–letter knowledge to work out words.[36] To decode (sound out) words, learners need to have a level of phonemic awareness and to know the relationships between the sounds of letters and their written forms.

We know that good readers can recognise words by identifying the component letters,[37] and that for fluent readers this is not a conscious process. The converse applies for writing: to form words, writers need to be able to turn the sounds they wish to convey into letters.

There are complex relationships among language, literacy, exposure to education and the written systems of different languages.[38] Not all writing systems represent language in the same way. For example, in many scripts, the symbols represent meanings, not sounds; in Egyptian, the symbol for "sun" resembles the sun. Because English uses a phonemic (sound-based) script, the word *sun* has no relation to the actual sun other than its sound. Learners who are literate in their mother tongue, and whose mother tongue uses a non-phonemic (or logographic) script such as Chinese, will need instruction in letter recognition (the alphabet) and in the sound–letter relationships of English.

Knowing the demands

Learners who have grasped the alphabetic principle understand that spoken words consist of sounds and that sounds are represented in written text as letters. To reach this understanding, a level of phonemic awareness is necessary (see page 18). The alphabetic principle is sometimes referred to as the 'cornerstone' on which decoding (sounding out words) is built.

To become a proficient reader, the learner must learn how to 'crack the code' (decode). Learning to decode relies on the learner's ability to match letters to sounds, so it is essential to learn common letter–sound relationships.

35 Harris and Hodges, 1995.
36 See studies cited in Kruidenier, 2002, ch 5, p 6; Majeres, 2005; Cardosa-Martins and Rodrigues with Ehri 2003.
37 McKenna and Stahl, 2003.
38 Burt, Peyton and Adams, 2003.

For example, to decode the word *bed*, learners need to know that the written letter *b* makes a /b/ sound, *e* makes an /e/ sound and *d* makes a /d/ sound. For learners, knowing letter–sound relationships is not always helpful; words such as *cough, one, come* and *have* need to be learnt as sight words, or worked out by analogy (likening the new word to one the learner knows already) if the learner knows other, similar words. As an example, learners who know the word *sight* can use this knowledge when they come across the unknown word *bright*.

A learner who is unable to recognise the different letters of the alphabet will have difficulty in learning the sounds that the letters represent.[39] It is difficult for learners to understand that words consist of a sequence of letters until learners know the names of letters. To acquire this knowledge, learners need to be able to explain the differences between letters, for example, to know and explain what makes the letter *h* and the letter *b* different, or how *b* is different to *p*. Learners have to be able to recognise letters in different forms, for example, in upper and lower cases, in different fonts, sizes and spacing (see also 'Letter formation', page 30).

Knowing the learner

The following assessment suggestions can be used to ascertain the extent to which a learner is aware of the relationships between sounds and letters. They will also help to find out about learners' knowledge of the alphabet.

- Use a chart on which all the letters of the alphabet, both upper and lower cases, are arranged in a random order. Ask the learner to point to letters they know and give a sound and a word that starts with each of those letters.
- Use a chart on which all the letters of the alphabet, both upper and lower cases, are arranged in a random order. Point to the letters in turn, moving across each row then on to the next row. Vary your questions; for example, ask the learner to name a letter, to say the sound the letter makes, or to name a word that starts with the letter. You may want to use a card or ruler to focus on one row at a time. You can use another copy of the chart to circle any letters the learner does not know.[40]
- If you want to look more closely at the learner's letter–sound knowledge, record the result of the tests above by using a code to note the letters the learner can name (N), the letters for which the learner can give the matching sound (S) and the letters for which the learner can name a word that starts with the letter (W).[41]

Tutors may need to seek expert ESOL advice on how best to meet learners' needs in relation to letter recognition and letter–sound relationships.[42]

Knowing what to do

Teaching the alphabet

- Teach the names of the letters first (ABCs).
- Once students know the names of the letters they can progress to matching the *name* of the letter to the written letter (grapheme). For some letters, the letter name provides a clue to the letter sounds,[43] for example, /s/, /k/, /m/, /z/.
- Once the learner knows the letter names, switch to using a random order for teaching letters and their corresponding names (not ABC).

39 Chall, 1967.
40 Adapted from Clay, 1993.
41 Adapted from Clay, 1993.
42 Swan and Smith, 2001.
43 Ehri, 1987.

- Use letter flashcards, with separate cards for upper and lower case versions of a letter where they differ. For many letters, lower and upper case forms are the same (for example, *c, k, o, p, s, u, v, x, z*) so there is no need to present lower and upper forms of these letters.
- Teach letters that may be confused in a context where they are easier to differentiate; for example, in the word *bed* the shape of the word makes the shape of a bed.
- Teach simple reminders to deal with confusing letters; for example, *dish and spoon* indicates that the round part of the letter *d* (the dish) comes before the stroke (the spoon); *bat and ball* indicates that the stroke (the bat) comes before the round part (the ball).

Letter recognition

To raise a learner's awareness, 'noticing' type exercises are useful. Some examples are:

- games and activities where learners circle the target letters, or the upper case letters in a short text
- letter bingo using upper case, lower case or a mixture of forms
- eliciting knowledge of upper and lower cases from learners as they write (ask them to identify individual letters or words).

This kind of noticing lends itself well to pair work, with learners reinforcing one another's noticing.

Letter–sound relationships (phonics)

Learners tend to master the letter–sound relationships for consonant sounds relatively easily (*b, c, d, f, h, j* and so on).

Begin by teaching words that have a simple pattern of single consonants and short vowel sounds (as in c*a*t, p*e*t, s*i*t, c*o*t, c*u*t). Then explore variations such as:

- *sit* (remove *s* and replace with *b*)
- *bit* (remove *b* and replace with *f*)
- *fit* (remove *f* and replace with *n*)
- *nit* ... continue.

Encourage learners to notice that changing one letter or sound changes the meaning of the word. Wherever possible, base activities like this on words that are relevant and used by the learners.

When this pattern is well established:

- introduce initial blends (*st, sm, bl, pr*) and final blends (*st, sp, tch*)
- introduce long vowel sounds when the learner has grasped short vowel sounds (for example, *gate*, *Pete*, *site*, *code* and *cute*)
- introduce consonant digraphs (*with, rich, think*) and *r* and *l* controlled vowels (*her, hall*).

It is important when teaching letter–sound relationships to refer also to the names of individual letters. When you discuss letters, it can be helpful for learners to have a distinctive label for different forms (for example, the 'squiggle g' as distinct from the 'regular g' form).

Case study

Ray is in his thirties and has been driving buses for about five years. He missed out on learning to read at primary school because his family moved many times and he was shifted from school to school. Reading was not a regular activity at home. By the time he got to high school, Ray had given up on reading and he left with no academic qualifications. He had a succession of unskilled jobs before he became a bus driver. He has developed some sophisticated compensation and avoidance strategies when called on to read. For example, he asks others to read aloud for him, claiming he can't find his glasses. So far in his job he has relied on workmates to help him out with the reading and writing he needs to do.

He is keen to do well in his job, as it is the first time he has felt the real prospect of a long-term career. To progress to a more senior role he knows he will need to read and write more effectively. This realisation has prompted him to enrol in an adult literacy evening class at his local polytechnic. His tutor has established that he knows the names of the letters of the alphabet, but he has difficulty matching some upper and lower case letters. He knows some common sight words, for example the suburb names for the destinations on some of the bus routes he drives. He has limited phonemic awareness and is unable to 'sound out' unfamiliar words.

Teaching suggestions for Ray

- Use flashcards of upper and lower case letters and ask Ray to match upper and lower cases.
- As he matches the cases for a letter, tell him the sound that this letter represents then ask him to repeat it. Ask him to tell you a word that starts with or contains that sound.
- Repeat this activity until he is able to tell you the sound and an example word for each letter.
- Using materials he may need to read for work (or newspaper headlines), ask him to point to all the words that start with (or end with, or contain) a given sound.
- Use words from these texts to make flashcards of more complex words, for example, those beginning with consonant blends. Make separate cards for the initial blend and the remainder of the word (for example, one set of cards for the blends: *cr, fr, bl, tr, sl* etc; and another set for endings: *-y, -ue, -ash* etc). Ask Ray to put cards together and read the words they make (for example, *cr-ash, tr-ash, sl-ash*).

Print and word concepts

This starting point refers to the rules, conventions and practices that govern the use of print and the written English language. They include the following:

- Print (the written word) carries meaning.
- Written text in English is read from left to right.
- The lines of text in English are read from left to right, and from top to bottom of the page (a return sweep of the eyes is needed to move from the end of one line to the start of the next).
- Spaces between words signify the end of one word and the beginning of another.
- There are spaces to separate lines and paragraphs.
- The parts of a published book usually follow a pattern, although not all are always present (cover with title, title page, contents page, sections or chapters, index, back cover).

There are also rules or guidelines about words themselves that most literate English speakers take for granted. These conventions establish 'norms' for recognising words as words.
For example, in English:

- words are made up of individual letters
- the letters are formed from left to right
- words may be written in lower and/or upper case letters
- some words begin with an upper case letter (as determined by certain conventions)
- words with a hyphen in the middle are treated as a single word.
- There are spaces between words that signify each word's boundary, and much smaller spaces between the letters in a word (cursive handwriting may not leave any white space between joined-up letters).

Background information

From their work with young beginning readers, various researchers have drawn conclusions that we might reasonably assume will apply to adult learners who have had few experiences with print and the conventions of printed texts. These conclusions include the following:[44]

- Books are put together according to a set of conventions that can be understood without being able to read.[45]
- Knowing the conventions of print aids the learner in the process of learning to read.[46]
- Learners need to know the mechanics of print in order to be readers.[47]
- Concepts about print knowledge may facilitate subsequent reading-related skills.[48]

Learners who come from an oral tradition and who have not grown up with print around them may need to be taught some or all of these concepts explicitly (see 'Knowing what to do').

Knowing the demands

In a literate society, most people begin interacting with print at an early age and on a constant basis. Understanding the concepts about print makes the mechanics of reading predictable rather than random. Learners need to know these mechanics

44 List adapted from www.sedl.org/reading/framework/research.html#print.
45 Clay, 1979.
46 Clay, 1979; Tunmer, Herriman and Nesdale, 1988.
47 See, for example, Ehri and Sweet, 1991.
48 Weir, 1989.

(such as which way to follow the print, where a word starts and ends) in order to read. Once learners have grasped the concepts about print, they can focus on the aspects of texts that carry the meaning, using their knowledge of decoding, vocabulary and comprehension to understand the text.

Knowledge of these conventions or norms is also important in the production of words (writing) as the identifiable building blocks of text (see also 'Letter formation', page 30).

Knowing the learner

A learner's concepts about print can be assessed by observing the learner and how they handle books and other texts, as well as by checking for knowledge on a one-to-one basis. If learners are not yet able to read texts in English and have limited experience with print, it may be useful for tutors to combine assessment with teaching activities, using an activity to see what the learner knows. For example, when dealing with handling a book, select examples that have many clear illustrations, such as readers that learners' children may have brought home from school.[49] In addition, tutors may find it useful to model how to handle the book.

Adult learners will have knowledge of many words in spoken form, either in English or another language or both. They will also have exposure to written words in English. It is often possible (and desirable) to assess by observing and recording behaviours in the course of other activities.

Keep a record of what each learner knows and is able to do, using a checklist based on the list of print and word concepts above. This provides both you and the learner with a way to make decisions about the next learning steps.

Knowing what to do

Much of our knowledge of what print does comes from familiarity with and exposure to it. Give learners practice in:

- handling books (opening them, turning pages)
- becoming familiar with parts of a book (cover, title, author, main text, illustrations)
- looking for specific items (a word, letter, picture) in different kinds of text, such as a newspaper, magazine, course book, brochure, forms and cards
- seeing and listening to many different text forms (such as letters, forms, newspapers, magazines, advertising flyers, signs and posters) and types (such as instructions, explanations, reports, narratives and persuasive texts)
- discussing/predicting a story from the picture or title on the front of the book, and
- matching words (for example, if the title is *Coffee time*, ask the learners to find the word *coffee* in the text).

Some useful strategies in undertaking these activities are to:

- read a text aloud from a projected overhead transparency (OHT) so that the whole class can focus on the same text, and the tutor can observe the learners' eye movements
- use a pointer with the OHT to guide learners' eye movements, and
- point out parts of the text, for example, "Show me a word", "Show me where I should start reading", "Show me where a sentence starts and finishes".

49 Do not use children's books unless learners have a need to understand what their own children are learning.

Also visit the local library and ensure that learners all have their own library card.

Provide opportunities for learners to check and consolidate knowledge of word concepts during other activities. Use directions such as, "Show me the next word", "Where does the next word start?", "Can you find that word again?", "How many times is this word printed on the page?", "Which word starts with *b*?", "How many other words start with *b*?"

Case study

Sharifa lived at home with her family in Afghanistan until they had to flee to a refugee camp in Pakistan. The family stayed in the camp for several years before coming to New Zealand two years ago. Sharifa never went to school. Now she and her husband are learning to speak, read and write in English and their young children are progressing rapidly at school.

When Sharifa first joined a literacy class, she was given a diagnostic assessment. As part of the assessment, her tutor gave her a small book and asked Sharifa to indicate the front of the book, to open the book and to show the title of the book. Sharifa was able to open the book and point to the line of text on each page. She guessed (by looking at the pictures and reading the one or two words she knew) that the story was about a woman and her family. The name of the woman in the book was Sadiya, and Sharifa recognised the "S" as the same as her own name.

Teaching suggestions for Sharifa

- Look at the title of the book used in the assessment together and read it aloud to her.
- Encourage Sharifa to identify other occurrences of the name "Sadiya" in the book.
- Count the words on a page (there will probably be four to six words).
- Read the whole book with Sharifa.
- Encourage her to retell (reading when she can) parts of the book with a reading partner.
- Encourage Sharifa to identify other words in her environment that begin with "s".
- Encourage Sharifa to practise her new skills with her children and in class.

Letter formation

Letter formation means the ability to write (form) letters clearly and efficiently. To write by hand, learners need to be able to form letters fluently and confidently.

Background information

Knowledge of letter formation is important for fluent writing, removing the 'cognitive load' from the writer and enabling the writer to focus on the message itself. Letter formation reinforces knowledge of letter names and recognition, and of upper and lower cases. In addition, it may be easier for learners to recognise letters in a word if they know how to form the letters – for example, knowing that a *b* starts with the down stroke may help a student distinguish it from a *d*, which starts with the curve.

Knowledge of the function of upper and lower case letters in reading and writing is important for identifying or marking the beginnings of sentences and for recognising or marking key information such as names and places. Writers who use a random mix of lower and upper case letters, or who use all upper case letters may be judged (often wrongly) as unsophisticated or unintelligent. Working with learners to standardise their handwriting and to use a word processor can greatly improve self-esteem and confidence. Neat handwriting is not an essential skill, however. Many adults have poor handwriting, and keyboard skills are more commonly used in a lot of cases. Nevertheless, being able to communicate in handwriting that is at least legible is an important skill.

Over many years of development, the elements of learning to write in English have included the skills mentioned already, such as working from left to right and from top to bottom of the page. These skills have become recognised as essential building blocks for writing. The correct and consistent formation of letters is an initial step in learning to write in English. It includes skills such as recognising patterns, knowing where to begin a letter, making shapes, knowing where a letter starts and ends, and getting the correct height, spacing, position and size; the attainment of these skills is often followed by joining letters (for cursive writing).[50]

As learners master these skills, their ability to write fluently and quickly increases and they are able to relate what they write to the meanings and sounds of the words they are forming from individual letters.[51] Readers and writers who form letters according to the established conventions are usually more fluent and confident than those who do not.

Knowing the demands

The letters of the Roman alphabet (used for English) can seem quite similar to one another and therefore confusing to some beginning readers. Typical areas of confusion include:

- straight-line letters: *i, l, t, v, w, x, y, z*
- circle letters and those with curves: *o, c, m, n, g* and others
- letters that face either left or right: *a, g, j, c, k, p, r* and others, and
- letters that extend below the line: *g, j, p, q;* or above the middle of the line: *l, t, f* and others.

50 Spiegel and Sunderland, 2007.

51 Brod, 2002; Department for Children, Schools and Families, 2001; National Association of ESOL Home Tutor Schemes (Inc), 2007; Spiegel and Sutherland, 2001.

The conventions of letter formation are that letters curve anti-clockwise, that strokes move from top to bottom and from left to right, and that most letters can be made without lifting the pen from the page (exceptions include the letters *f, i, j, k, t* and *x*, depending on a person's writing style). The writer can continue with another letter, or lift the pen between letters. These conventions will be new and different for some adults who are familiar with a language that has a non-alphabetic script, where the order of strokes may be important but there may be many strokes to make one character. For ESOL adults who have never, or rarely, encountered the written form of a language (such as adults from Somalia, with a mainly oral language), it will be entirely new learning.

Knowing the learner

Letter formation is most easily and obviously assessed by looking at the learner's handwriting. If you suspect learners are struggling with letter formation, observe the learners as they write. Look for any problems they may have with: physically holding a pen; knowing where (on the paper, line and actual letter) to start; knowing what shape a letter should be; size and placement of the letters on the page; or directionality. If learners are not yet able to write words independently, have them copy words that will give you an indication of the letters they can form well and those with which they are experiencing difficulty.

When you have a clearer idea of what the learners' needs are, make decisions about what you need to do next to find out more details. These next steps could include:

- asking learners to write specific letters from sounds (which will indicate if a problem is to do with letter formation or with sound–letter relationships)
- observing writing, when you provide supports such as paper or exercise books with well-spaced lines, or arrows to indicate direction, and/or
- having learners write all the letters of the alphabet (using both lower and upper case letters) to identify specific letters or forms that cause problems.

Some writers may have an awkward way of making certain letters, especially if they are left-handed. This style may affect the ease and fluency of their writing. It is a matter of professional judgement as to whether such adult learners should be encouraged to change their writing style.

Knowing what to do

- For those new to the Roman alphabet, provide practice in tracing letters before copying, followed by writing. Focus on a small number of letters and allow learners time to practise them intensively until formation is mastered.
- The size of the model print seems to be important at this initial stage. Use print that is significantly larger than usual – at least

  size 48

  font or equivalent.
- Model the accepted way of forming the letter. Many learners may need to be taught exactly where to begin a letter and in which direction to move the pen.
- Discuss and reinforce the established conventions for letter formation.

- Check for correct pen position. The correct position can enhance fluency, but be aware that many fluent writers use pen positions that may appear awkward.
- Context is always important. Whenever possible, provide opportunities for learners to practise letter formation in the context of short, personally meaningful words.
- Practise, practise, practise!

Case study

Mariam arrived in New Zealand from Africa about 12 years ago. She had never been to school. When Mariam married, she stayed at home, taking care of her family. When war broke out, they left everything they owned behind.

Now that she has settled her family here, Mariam is learning English, and to read and write. At first, she found it very difficult. It was hard to hold a pencil because pencils are so thin. It was hard to control the pen strokes to make letters. She found it difficult to know where to place her pen on the paper, and found it easier to begin some letters, like *f* and *e*, from the bottom up. It took a long time to begin to write. After two years in her part-time ESOL-literacy class, Mariam can write important things like her name and address, and the names of her children. What is more, she says, "I can write on the line."

Teaching suggestions for Mariam

Provide many opportunities for Mariam to practise writing letters. For example:

- give her paper or exercise books with wide lines, reducing to smaller lines as she becomes more proficient
- mark the start and end places for each new word or sentence
- provide her with plenty of model texts and templates to copy from
- practise making letters in the air, and/or
- use different media for practising making letters, such as a large pencil, a whiteboard, felt tip pens on large paper, the computer, sand, paints or other art materials.

Environmental print

Environmental print is the print that can be found in many public environments, such as roads (street signs, billboards, directions, bus and train destination signs) and shopping areas (shop and product names, public service signs, cafés and restaurants).

Most adults will recognise some print in their environments. Some of this environmental print will be generic (for example, *chemist, police*) and some will be specific (for example, *McDonald's* – where the 'golden arch' of the letter M is recognised, as well as the full name, *Pak'n Save, The Warehouse, Shell, Woburn, DON'T CROSS*). Other important parts of a person's environment include print that becomes familiar to the learner, such as food and drink labels, money and many other features. The amount of print recognised will grow as learners' needs and literacy expertise develop.

Background information

Recent research suggests that when adults are beginning to learn to read, they use more visual strategies than school-aged beginners, and rely more on memory and recognition than on decoding skills in the reading process.[52] This finding does not imply, however, that decoding skills are not important to adults; reading will not continue to develop if readers are not able to decode. Nevertheless, it would suggest that it is worth spending time with adult learners on developing word recognition skills. At the most basic level, adults who are learning to read need to be able to read very clear, simple notices and instructions,[53] such as those in public places.

Learning for adults must have immediate relevance,[54] so a study of familiar and meaningful print in the environment is a good place to start. We cannot assume, however, that environmental print leads to reading using decoding; research with adult learners in Brazil showed that, in practice, learners did not use letter knowledge to read signs.[55]

Knowing the demands

Adults develop strategies to survive in a literate world. At a very basic level, they can associate print with some of their day-to-day needs. For example, a learner may be able to recognise a *Pak'n Save* sign as a symbol for a supermarket in an unfamiliar suburb or town.

Recognising environmental print is an important initial step in reading and writing development; it means that learners have grasped the concept that print carries meaning that is directly relevant to daily living. If a learner does not have this concept, they will find it difficult to find the motivation to continue to develop literacy skills. Most adults will have this awareness to some degree. Some ESOL learners who are not literate in their first language and who are from primarily oral cultures may not understand the link between print and meaning.

52 Greenberg, Ehri and Perin, 2002.
53 Association of Language Testers in Europe, 2007a.
54 Knowles, 1990.
55 Cardosa-Martins and Rodrigues with Ehri, 2003.

Knowing the learner

Each learner will recognise different signs and notices and the number they can recognise will vary. Assessment is therefore best conducted one on one. Possible assessment activities include asking the learner to:

- tell you about signs they recognise
- pick out which signs they recognise from a set of flashcards
- read any flashcards they can
- talk about any similarities they see (such as the same letters or word shapes), and
- draw signs they know.

Knowing what to do

- Ask learners which signs they know (self-reporting).
- Get learners to bring in examples, such as logos, signs and advertisements they recognise.
- Help learners to build a collection of flashcards (for example, photos of signs, stick-figure logos and the labels on food packets) by pasting examples onto cards and laminating them.
- Make a duplicate set of flashcards for teaching, to use with other learners and for assessment activities.
- Use flashcards for recognition activities (ask learners to read the cards).
- Go for a 'sign walk' with learners – take a digital camera and photograph signs. Back in the classroom, use the photos to add to the flashcard collection.
- Gradually introduce new and unfamiliar signs and words from the environment, and add these to the store of flashcards.
- Help learners to make signs for the classroom, learning area or home.
- Make a set of matching cards with pictures and/or brief descriptions of the meaning of the signs and have learners match these to their flashcards.

Other ideas for using flashcards

- Sort into three groups (illustration only, print only, illustration plus print).
- Sort into meaning groups, such as notices that tell us to do or not to do something; signs that tell what something is (toilet, police station, bus stop); notices that tell us what is inside a packet (food labels, appliances, DVDs); words that give us warnings (*DANGER, POISON, Keep Clear, No Entry*).
- Point out similarities between flashcards (for example, the use of the same letters or words).

Case study

Jen is a mother of three young children, one aged five and twins aged seven. She has a part-time job in a food packaging factory. As a child she was frequently absent from school, and left with no qualifications and limited literacy skills. Soon after, she had the twins. She is able to read only the basic messages she needs to cope day to day, and struggles to write her name and address for basic form filling. Her tutor has followed some of the assessment procedures for environmental print and Jen demonstrated limited sight recognition of a narrow range of signs.

Teaching suggestions for Jen

- Use packaging and advertising from the food products she packs at work, particularly at times when her tasks change and she will need to learn new words.
- Encourage her to go on sign walks with her children, and make flashcards later (the children could draw the signs).
- Make a photo record of environmental print in her neighbourhood, then further afield. Use these to extend her repertoire of familiar words.
- Ask Jen to describe the places she would like to visit or needs to find, then find or make signs that will help her. For example, make or photograph signs that will help her navigate into the city and find a specific place.

High-interest words

High-interest words include words that are personally significant (such as names, addresses) and words that are of high utility (such as numbers, prices and words related to everyday needs or actions) for learners. These words are often recognised on sight by the learners for whom they are significant or important for everyday life.

Background information

Although the pathways into reading are similar for learners at whatever age they start, it appears that, in some respects, adults who are learning to read develop their skills in different ways from children. Adults with limited reading depend far more on sight recognition[56] of words and phrases as units than do children, who tend to rely more on phonological knowledge and decoding skills.[57] Adults bring world knowledge and experience to literacy development (see Appendix A on the principles of adult learning), and those with limited reading skills may have many years' experience of relying on sight recognition to function in society. Research further suggests that those with a lower level of sight recognition have poorer comprehension levels overall.[58]

Adult literacy learners therefore need to develop both sight recognition and phonological awareness. Starting with personally significant words provides relevance to the learning and builds on skills and knowledge the learner has already begun to develop.

Knowing the demands

Recognising words automatically in written English is a key skill in literacy development. For adults, literacy skills must relate directly to their personal needs. Selecting and focusing on essential words as a learning/teaching strategy will build motivation to develop further skills.

Personally significant words

As they begin to develop literacy expertise, most adults will be able to recognise a few personally significant words and symbols. Examples include their own name and address, their children's names, and words associated with the places they visit and the activities they engage in. Many of these words will be specific to individual learners.

High-utility words

The day-to-day literacy needs of adults begin with the need to read and write words and symbols that are personally essential to them: these are high-utility words. For example, a person may need to recognise numbers and prices, ATM instructions, their home destination and departure times in a bus timetable, and the words or signs that help with finding a place. Many of these words will be common to a group of learners but some will relate to specific learners and situations.

The ability to recognise even a few words automatically gives the learner a point from which to increase the number of words they know. It also helps with the development of phonological awareness.

Knowing the learner

Because each learner will have a unique set of words that are personally significant or useful to them, assessment must be individualised. Some suggested assessment activities include:

- asking the learner to tell you about words they need to read (you may need to prompt with examples)
- writing these words as the learner tells you (use lower case printing or, better still, word-process them)

56 Words that are recognised 'on sight' (without pausing to decode) are known as sight words.
57 Greenberg, 1997, cited in Durgunoglu and Onëy, 2002.
58 Perin, 1988 and Curtis, 1980, cited in Durgunoglu and Onëy, 2002.

- checking – ask the learner to read the words aloud
- discussing the significance and use of the words with them
- using flashcards or charts of these words to check which words the learner can recognise on sight, and
- using a wider set of words that are relevant to the learner, reading them aloud. Ask the learner to select (or select them yourself) words they need to know.

Knowing what to do

Make decisions based on the individual learner's interests and needs. The following suggestions can be adapted and used for whatever words the learner needs or wants to know.

- Discuss important reading and writing needs with the learner; identify themes and words that you could use for instruction.
- Help the learner build their own collection of flashcards of personally significant and useful words and symbols, including practical items such as prices, and ATM instructions (write them for the learner if they are unable to write independently).
- Ask the learner to read aloud the flashcards they recognise and aim to gradually increase the number of words by a target you set with the learner.
- Get the learner to match flashcards of words they do not recognise and their corresponding word shapes for example, *Enter PIN* and

- Point out similarities between words on the flashcards – similar words, letters, spelling patterns.
- Play word games to reinforce learning such as Bingo, Memory, Snap and similar games that use the words identified for instruction.
- Ask the learner to identify more of the words they need to recognise as they build their sight vocabulary and add these to the flashcard collection.
- Get the learner to sort the flashcards into groups that relate to family, work, banking or other appropriate categories. (This activity could also build reading strategies, such as by sorting into words that begin with the same letter of the alphabet, or that contain the same vowel sounds or consonant blends.)
- Help the learner to develop a personal dictionary or collection of words they know.
- Make language experience books with the learner (see page 40).
- Use a shared writing approach with a group of learners who have similar needs (see page 42).
- A powerful way of using personally significant words for developing literacy (which has been supported by extensive practice) is the 'generative words' approach (see page 43), in which key words are selected from contexts that are personally meaningful and that provide opportunities for the learner to build vocabulary and decoding skills.

Case study

Mei Ling has recently arrived in New Zealand from China. Last year, her husband died and she moved to live with her son and his young family. She is literate in Chinese but only has very basic conversation skills in English. She has never learnt the English alphabet, and is a beginning reader and writer and an English language learner. She wants to be able to read street names in her neighbourhood and prices in shops and to help her grandchildren with their homework.

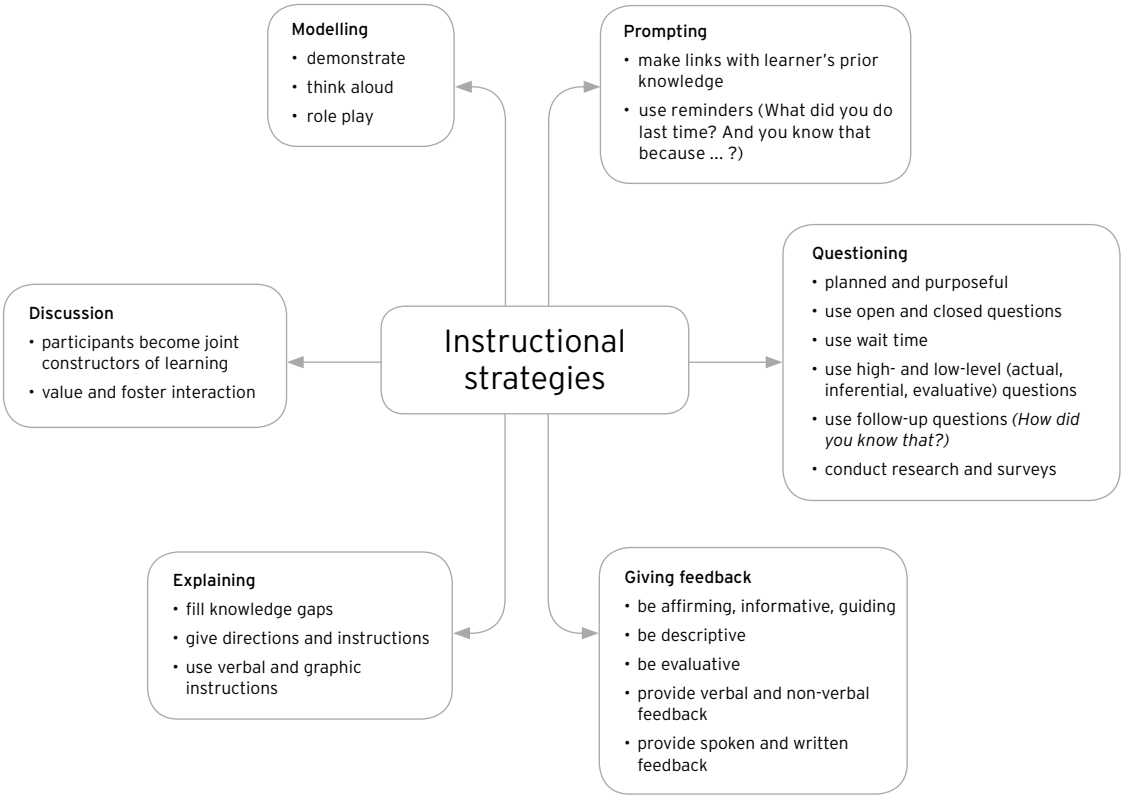
Teaching suggestions for Mei Ling

- Focus on the most important words that she needs, related to her grandchildren (for example, words she will need to recognise in school newsletters, reports, children's books).
- Focus on important street names and, if possible, have her children take her on a walk where she can match cards with street names against the actual street signposts.
- Use advertising flyers (for example, catalogues from Farmers, The Warehouse and Briscoes) for prices as well as words.
- Help her to make a collection of flashcards for the words she is learning. Each session, she can sort them into words she recognises immediately, words she is learning, and words she does not yet know. Chart the changing numbers in each category.

Instructional strategies and approaches

As described in the resources that support the learning progressions, there are many instructional strategies and approaches that can be used effectively to teach particular skills, understandings and knowledge. Whereas instructional approaches are the ways tutors organise instruction (see page 40), instructional strategies are the tools that tutors use, and are summarised in the diagram below.

Using instructional strategies



Instructional approaches

Instructional approaches are the **ways** in which tutors organise instruction. They include group and individual approaches. As you use these approaches, you also use the kinds of instructional strategies listed on page 39. For example, in a shared reading approach, your instructional strategies may include **modelling** good reading, **prompting** learners to look for a word and **explaining** why the writer used a particular kind of sentence.

The approaches described in this section are particularly effective for learners who are beginning to develop literacy skills. The first three approaches (language experience, shared reading and shared writing) can be used with groups or in one-on-one sessions. The fourth approach (generative words) relies on group work to generate ideas. Each approach is described here in general terms, showing how it can be used over several sessions to increase the depth and breadth of learning that can be gained from it.

Before using any approach or activity, ensure you are clear about the purpose (the learning intention) and how you will share this purpose with the learners. Use the information in the books that support the learning progressions for further advice and for activities that can be adapted for a wide range of learners.

Language experience

The purpose of this approach is to develop a reading and writing activity from the personal experiences of the learner or learners. Language experience[59] begins with an individual or group discussion in which you elicit language about an experience (shared, if you are working with a group), a news item, an object that has special significance for the learners or a specific piece of information.[60] The 'experience' on which language is to be built needs to be of high interest to the learners.

In its simplest form, language experience may involve just one learner telling you about an important or significant event or experience. This story may be prompted by a photograph the learner has shared, an incident the learner has been involved with or a recent event. Write the learner's story down in a book or on paper as it is told, capturing the content in the learner's own words. The story may be one sentence or several, which you read back to the learner as many times as needed for the learner to remember it. Where possible, help the learner to connect the written words with the spoken words as they read it back to you (one-to-one matching of spoken and written words is an important concept for beginning literacy). Some educators suggest talking through corrections (such as sentence structure) with the learner as the story is being planned orally. It is important not to correct grammar or vocabulary without involving the learner because the power of the approach is that the story is the learner's own.

When using language experience with a group, ensure the experience or topic to be discussed is one that everyone in the group has shared. You may wish to supply a topic or object to start the discussion, or base it on an experience that you know all the learners have had. Use this topic (or experience) to motivate the learners into a rich discussion. During the discussion, draw out and teach language (vocabulary, sentence structures) related to the topic. As learners make statements about the topic, write them onto chart paper so everyone can see and read the story back to, and with, the learners.

59 " ... [F]irst developed for Māori-speaking children by (Ashton-Warner, 1963) and native-English-speaking children (Spache and Spache, 1964; Stauffer, 1965), [it] has also been used successfully with learners of all ages." Taylor, 2000.

60 Spiegel and Sunderland, 2007.

The written record of the discussion can be as short as one sentence (for example, a caption for a picture) or a 'book' of several one- or two-sentence pages. In the first session, do not correct vocabulary or grammar unless the learners notice and correct errors themselves. As with the one-on-one example, it is important to use the learners' own words. Use large, clear print and keep the story brief. As each sentence is written, read it back to, and with, the learners, repeating it as long as their interest lasts with the aim of 'securing' the meaning in their minds. Learners may or may not be able to re-read the story in the first session but they should be able to retell it easily.

For individual or group work in subsequent sessions, read the story with the learner(s) many times. Each time focus on a different aspect of the content (what the story is about), structure (for example, word order, the use of consistent tense and agreement), vocabulary, spelling or other features the learners need to focus on.

Language experience activities

These written records (stories) become learning resources that learners can talk about and read many times, reinforcing the language, sentence constructions and structures of individual words for decoding purposes. Cut up copies of the stories into separate sentences for sentence identification or jigsaws, phrases or words for learners to re-construct and re-read. You can also make cloze activities from the story. As learners begin to develop writing skills, they can copy words, phrases or sentences.

Learners can illustrate the stories using photographs, drawings or pictures cut from magazines. Powerful language experience sessions may centre on learners' own life stories, or on one aspect of their lives that is highly relevant at that moment, such as finding a job, moving house or the arrival of family members from overseas.

For example, learners can use photos of their family or photos taken during shared outings to make books. Talk about the photos with the learners and ask for captions that you can write under each picture. Read the book to the learners – you may need to re-read it several times before the learners memorise and internalise the captions. Then begin to point out similarities between captions – same letters, words, spelling patterns. The learners can also copy the captions.

Shared reading

The purpose of shared reading is to provide strong support to reading through modelling what good readers do. In this approach, the tutor reads a short text that all learners can see and gives specific instruction around a particular learning goal. Select a text that has relevance or that the learners need to understand as part of their course. It does not have to be a text they can read themselves, but every learner needs to be able to see it. By reading the text aloud to the learners as they follow along, you take away the effort of reading and enable learners to focus on the meaning of the text. In subsequent readings of the same text, you may want to focus on a specific aspect such as the use of upper case letters and full stops to indicate the start and end of a sentence.

You can ensure everyone can see the text by:

- using a poster or large-print text
- copying the text onto an OHT, then using an overhead projector
- using a computer and a data projector or an interactive whiteboard (such as a SMART Board), or
- making a photocopy for each learner.

On the first reading, introduce the text by telling the group what it is about and why you are reading it to them. Ask them to follow with their eyes as you read – you may want to use a pointer to help the learners follow the direction of reading and the return sweep to the next line. Read clearly and at a steady pace, modelling reading fluently and with appropriate intonation. After reading the text, discuss it with the learners to check for overall understanding. Re-read any parts that were confusing, giving explanations if necessary. With the learners, you can summarise or paraphrase the text, for example by having the learners retell the story or information.

In subsequent sessions, tell the learners what your purpose is for re-reading the text (for example, you may want them to listen for certain words or sounds, or to look out for the use of capital letters and full stops that indicate the boundaries of a sentence). Read the text aloud again and discuss the focus points.

Almost any kind of text can be used for shared reading. In choosing one, the important considerations include:

- Will this text be relevant and interesting to the learners?
- How could this text help meet a specific teaching and learning need?
- Can this text be enlarged so all can see it?

Shared reading can be used for purposes related to any of the starting points. Suitable texts could include simple instructions and notices, forms that learners need to use, medical information (such as the directions on a bottle of pills), posters, advertisements and brief, topical newspaper articles. Remember that graphic features (photos, diagrams, illustrations) are important parts of texts too and learners may need support (explanation, discussion) to fully understand them and the information they convey.

Shared writing

The purpose of shared writing is to model writing a short text with learners. Shared writing enables learners to write a text with support. As tutor, you hold the pen and do the actual writing, but the ideas are generated by the learners. As with shared reading, by taking over the most difficult part of the process, you free the learners to focus on specific aspects of writing. These aspects will be determined by the specific teaching and learning purposes you have chosen.

Ideas for shared writing can come from many different sources, including an event or experience, a news item or a topic learners are studying, or it can be an extension or follow-up to using generative words (see next page).

One way to start is to have the learners suggest a topic that is significant to the group (for example, housing). Agree on a topic then ask learners:

- What kind of writing do you want to do? (text type)
- Why do you want to write this? (purpose)
- Who do you want to write for? (audience)

Write the topic and the responses to these questions on a whiteboard or chart.

Brainstorm some of the words associated with the topic (for example, *rent, landlord, council, bond, deposit, mortgage*). Next, use these words to compose sentences about the topic. You may need to start the learners off by modelling (thinking aloud) how to create a sentence yourself or, if learners can do this already, ask them to suggest sentences. As each sentence is formulated, spend a few moments saying it aloud to ensure the group is happy with the content and that the structure is sound. In shared writing, it is appropriate for the tutor to guide this shaping because part of the teaching purpose is usually to demonstrate the ways in which writers construct meaning with words and sentences.

Write each sentence on the whiteboard. Build up a story, argument or set of statements as determined by the text type, purpose and audience the learners identified. Read the sentences back to the learners as you record them on the whiteboard. This record can be used as a written text (copied into a book or as a poster) for teaching and learning the key words, then extending the learning beyond those words. If you have access to a computer and a data projector or an interactive whiteboard, use this tool to build shared writing.

Before beginning shared writing, select one or two teaching and learning purposes. Depending on the learners' needs, these purposes may include:

- selecting some target words (based on and extending the learners' listening vocabulary)
- letter formation (not for every single letter: select one or two letters to demonstrate carefully) and concepts about print
- using phonological awareness to identify the sounds of some words before writing them, and/or
- using letter–sound recognition to determine which letters are needed to represent the sounds.

A wide variety of other purposes is possible, depending on the learners' needs and related to the early steps in the learning progressions for writing.

Avoid overloading the session, but use the writing tasks as an opportunity to model and teach the skills and awareness learners need.

Texts created with shared writing can become valuable resources for further writing (for example, expanding a sentence by adding details), as well as for use when working with the starting points. These texts are also valuable reading texts for the group that helped to create them, and will help increase learners' confidence in their growing abilities to read and write.

Generative words

This approach is loosely based on the work of Freire.[61] Its purpose is to develop vocabulary and other reading skills by tapping into learners' interests and concerns. It is an effective approach to use with groups in order to motivate learners.

As you build relationships with the learners, use careful questioning to find out what their concerns are (for example, finances, family, education or finding work). From this discussion, words will be generated that have strong meanings for the learners. These will usually be words that relate to their experiences, particularly those that have involved overcoming problems. Select one word that, as well as being powerful for the learners, is phonologically and/or morphologically rich; a word from which you can explore sounds for phonological awareness, as well as exploring a word or concept family. Some examples could include *benefit* (see next page), *discrimination, employment, literacy* or *community*.

61 Freire, 1972; Freire and Macedo 1987.

Activities based on the generated word

Break the word down into syllables and analyse the sounds into rimes or phonemes.[62] Write the syllables on separate cards or on a whiteboard. The word *benefit* has three syllables: *be/ne/fit*.

Learners can discuss other words they know that include some of these syllables, rimes or phonemes, listening for the sounds and learning to manipulate them in various ways (for example, *ben, ban, bon, bin; fit, fat*). Keep this activity oral to emphasise listening for and saying sounds rather than written words and, wherever possible, focus on words the learners use or hear frequently.

Facilitate a discussion among the learners of the significance of the word to them. This discussion can move into deeper issues; for example, the literacy demands society places on its members and who controls these demands. Use a brainstorm or chart to record the ideas generated. Introduce the focus word as a sight word by writing it in large letters on a chart or whiteboard. For example, the word *benefit* can be used to develop discussion around the learners' experiences of welfare benefits and their perceptions of literacy demands in the welfare system. The word is then explored through group discussion of its meaning in different contexts (the differences, say, between "domestic purposes benefit" and the "benefits of being a car owner").

Explore the connotations of the word for the learners, the media and the public. For example, discuss some of the ways in which benefits (and the people who give or receive them) are seen by different people.

Focus on words that use the target word as a root. With the group, explore the other forms the word can take when you add a prefix or suffix, for example, *beneficiary, beneficial, benefits, benefited*. (Note that the grammatical function may change with each addition, forming a noun, verb, adjective or another part of speech.)

Explore collocations (common combinations of words) that match with the target word, for example, *apply for a benefit, claim a benefit, receive a benefit, domestic purposes benefit, sickness benefit, unemployment benefit*.

62 This approach was developed by Freire who was working in Spanish. Spanish words have very regular syllable structures, unlike English. This important difference means that syllable analysis does not always work well in English.

Web resources

General literacy resources

www.workbase.org.nz
New Zealand Centre for Workforce Literacy Development: includes local assessment and learning materials.

www.dol.gov/agencies/eta/reports/adult-literacy-education-initiative
Overview of US programmes to strengthen adult literacy and employment outcomes.

www.ncsall.net
National Center for Adult Learning and Literacy (USA).

www.tki.org.nz
Online Learning Centre (NZ): the main portal for educational resources and information from the Ministry of Education and other educators, mainly for the school and early childhood sectors.

www.tec.govt.nz
Tertiary Education Commission Te Amorangi Mātauranga Matua.

www.literacy.org.nz
Literacy Aotearoa, a provider of adult literacy and numeracy tuition.

ESOL resources

www.esolht.org.nz
The National Association of ESOL Home Tutor Schemes (NZ): includes teaching and assessment resources.

www.cal.org/caela/esl_resources
Center for Adult English Language Acquisition (USA): offers resources for assessment and teaching strategies, as well as research materials. Examples include:

- *What Beginning Teachers and Tutors of Adult ESOL Learners Need to Know*
- *Beginning to Work with Adult ESOL Learners: Some Considerations*
- *Practitioner Toolkit: Working with Adult ESOL Learners*
- *How Should Adult ESL Reading Instruction Differ from ABE Reading Instruction?*
- *Critical Literacy for Adult ESOL Learners (1999) (language experience approach)*
- *Reading and Adult English Language Learners.*

Appendices

Appendix A: Types of L1 literacy and effects on L2 literacy learning

L1 LITERACY	EXPLANATION	SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS
Preliterate	L1 has no written form (eg. many American indigenous, African, Australian and Pacific languages).	Learners need exposure to the purposes and uses of literacy.
Nonliterate	Learners had no access to literacy instruction.	Learners may feel stigmatised.
Semiliterate	Learners had limited access to literacy instruction.	Learners may have had negative experiences with literacy learning.
Non-alphabet literate	Learners are fully literate in a language written in a non-alphabetic script such as Chinese.	Learners need instruction in reading an alphabetic script and in the sound-syllable correspondences of English.
Non-Roman alphabet literate	Learners are literate in a language written in a non-Roman alphabet (eg. Arabic, Greek, Korean, Russian, Thai).	Learners need instruction in the Roman alphabet in order to transfer their L1 literacy skills to English. Some (eg. readers of Arabic) will need to learn to read from left to right.
Roman alphabet literate	Learners are fully literate in a language written in a Roman alphabetic script (eg. French, German, Croatian, Spanish). They know to read from left to right and recognise letter shapes and fonts.	Learners need instruction in the specific letter-to-sound and sound-syllable correspondences of English.

L1 mother tongue or first language

L2 second or other language

Appendix B: Principles of adult learning

Adults are self-directed learners and are capable of independent learning

Learners will want to develop reading and writing skills for their own purposes. For example, a person may need these skills to access the banking system or a prison inmate may need to understand the justice system as it relates to them. As educators, we need to be aware of the needs of our learners and, as far as possible, select and/or design learning activities and materials around topics that relate to their needs.

Adult learners can develop strategies for independent learning. We can support learners by helping them develop study habits, such as recording their learning, taking responsibility for practice and review in their own time, evaluating and assessing their own learning and goal setting. The learner is a partner in the learning process and needs to be a participant in all aspects, from programme design through to learning activities and materials assessment and evaluation procedures.

Adult learners draw on their previous experiences of life and learning and bring these to bear on new learning

Adult learners almost always bring previous experiences of learning with them. For many learners who have limited literacy, previous educational experience is likely to have been difficult and unsuccessful. If they have become disengaged from education, this disengagement probably started early and, as a result, they may be disaffected with and afraid of learning in formal educational contexts. Some learners who have come from other countries may have had limited opportunities for formal schooling and their experiences may be non-existent rather than negative. They may also be unaware of the concept of 'learning to learn' (and reading to learn) that is part of the New Zealand educational experience.

It may be useful to ask the learner about their previous learning experiences and to clarify that you are concerned with meeting their needs as an adult learner on their terms.

We also need to find out what learners already know about reading and writing. Their knowledge will vary depending on their background. For example, a learner who is bilingual in English and another language (such as te reo Māori or Samoan), or a learner who has English as a first language, will have a large resource of spoken English to draw on as they develop reading and writing skills. Conversely, for an ESOL learner who is learning the English language, opportunities for developing reading and writing skills may be limited until they have acquired a certain level of spoken language.

Learning needs to be directly related to the developmental tasks of an adult's social roles and directly applicable to real-life problems

To make learning as relevant as possible to the learners' lives, we need to take account of their chosen and required roles as adults, the problems they face and the contexts in which these arise. For example, some of the social roles that a learner may fulfil include: parent; caregiver; employee; beneficiary; inmate; business leader; employer; student; member of community organisation; member of a whānau, hapū and iwi; member of a religious organisation.

Some of the contexts in which a learner needs to operate as a literate adult may include: housing, health, employment, welfare and education services; marae, church, mosque and other community organisations; and the banking and justice systems.

It is important to find out this information as part of a needs analysis, because these roles and contexts will determine the planning and design of learning programmes, materials and learning activities. The suggested learning materials

and activities in *Starting Points: Supporting the Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy* can be adapted to relate to an individual learner's needs and should be used in this way.

Motivation factors for adult learners are deep-seated and internally derived

When a tutor finds out the learner's reasons for wanting to read and write and addresses these reasons in a jointly negotiated learning programme, they maximise the learner's motivation. Motivation is important in adult learning and can be affected by many factors outside the tutor's control. Nevertheless, the tutors play a vital role in maintaining high expectations, providing successful learning experiences and building self-esteem.

It is important to acknowledge that some adult learners (such as refugees) may have had experiences prior to arriving in New Zealand that affect their motivation and concentration to the point where it will be difficult for them to value literacy, formulate goals or understand the use of learner feedback. It may take time for these learners to be able to think about and engage in developing personal learning goals.

Glossary

Automatically	Without having to think about it; for example, decoding whole words or phrases without needing to sound out individual letters or syllables.
Collocation	A combination of words that commonly fit together; for example, *take a shower*, *catch a bus*.
Decode	To read words by translating the written symbols into the sounds of spoken language (often silently).
Encode (in writing)	To write (that is, spell) words and common symbols from spoken language in the symbols (letters and punctuation marks) of written language.
Fluent, fluency	A speaker, reader or writer is fluent (demonstrates fluency) when they can speak, read or write rapidly and accurately, focusing on meaning without having to give laborious attention to the individual words or the common forms and sequences of the language.
High-frequency words	The 2,000 words most commonly used by English language speakers.
Letter–sound relationships	The way that certain letters or letter combinations in written language relate to certain sounds in spoken language.
Non-phonemic script	A writing system in which the symbols represent meaning rather than phonemes (sounds). Chinese languages provide examples of non-phonemic script.
Onset and rime	The initial sound (the onset) and the following sound (the rime) in a syllable; for example, *sh/op, th/ink* and *scr/ap*. Note that *rime* differs from *rhyme*, which is when two words share the same rime in their final syllable; for example, *sh/op, dr/op and lo/lli/pop*.
Phoneme	The smallest segment of sound in spoken language, for example, *pot* and *knife* have three phonemes each.
Phonemic awareness	The awareness of individual sounds in spoken language and that these sounds can be represented by letters or groups of letters in written language.
Phonemic script	A writing system in which the symbols represent phonemes (sounds). In English, the letters of the alphabet are the symbols that represent phonemes.
Phonological awareness	The awareness of different levels in the sound system of spoken language – word, syllable, onset and rime and phoneme.
Phrase	A group of words that forms part of a sentence but does not express a complete thought; for example, *as happy as anything* (adjectival phrase) or *a unique and unexpected experience* (noun phrase).
Rime	See *Onset and rime*.
Rhyme	(Of two or more words.) To share the same or a very similar final syllable; for example, *pill, will* and *still*. Sometimes words that rhyme may only share the same rime (final sound) in their final syllable; for example, *lollipop* and *drop*.

Root word	The original base word from which one or more other words have been formed; for example, the root of *original* is the Latin word *origo, origin-*, meaning "to rise".
Sentence structure	The arrangement of words and phrases to create sentences. Sentences may be simple ("I am a Kiwi"), compound ("I'm a Kiwi but I come from Australia") or complex ("I'm a Kiwi from New Zealand, which is a small country in the South Pacific").
Sight words	Words that a reader knows and can read automatically, rather than needing to decode them.
Syllable	A segment of a word, often a vowel sound with initial or final, or initial and final consonant sounds. Words may consist of one syllable, for example, *dog, on, brought, play*, or more than one syllable, for example, *to/day, de/ci/sion, ce/le/bra/tion*.
Symbol	A graphic image that represents a particular concept; for example, a picture of a skull and crossbones often represents poison or another form of danger.
Text	A piece of spoken, written or visual communication that is a whole unit; for example, a conversation, a speech, a poem or a poster.
Vocabulary	The words in a language. There are different ways to count vocabulary items, but the vocabulary of a language is often based on the number of words or phrases with specific meanings. For example, different forms of a verb (word family) are equal to one vocabulary item, as is a compound word or an expression such as *shoot the breeze*.
Word family	A group of words that share a common base or root word; for example, *run, ran, runner, running* or *care, careless, carefree, uncaring*.

References

Adams, M. J. (1990). *Beginning to Read: Thinking and Learning about Print*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Adams, M. J., Foorman, B. R., Lundberg, L. and Beeler, T. (1998). The elusive phoneme. *American Educator*, 22, 18–22.

Association of Language Testers in Europe. (2007a). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, Teaching, Assessment*. Retrieved 19 September 2007, from www.alte.org.

Association of Language Testers in Europe. (2007b). *The Can Do Statements*. Retrieved 19 September 2007, from www.alte.org/can_do/study.php.

Benseman, J. and Sutton, A. (Ed.). (2008). *Facing the Challenge: Foundation Learning for Adults in Aotearoa New Zealand*. Wellington: Dunmore Press.

Benton, R. and Benton, N. (1995). *Māori Learning and the National Qualifications Framework*. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Bourdieu, P. (1973). Cultural Reproduction and Social Reproduction. In R. Brown (Ed.). *Knowledge, Education, and Social Change: Papers in the Sociology of Education*. London: Tavistock.

Bradley, L. and Bryant, P. (1983). Categorising sounds and learning to read – A causal connection. *Nature*, 301, 419–421.

Brady, S., Fowler, A., Stone, B. and Winbury, N. (1994). Training phonological awareness: A study with inner-city kindergarten children. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 44, 26–59.

Brod, S. (2002). *What Non-Readers or Beginning Readers Need to Know: Performance-Based ESL Adult Literacy*. Retrieved 28 February 2008, from www.springinstitute.org/Files/whatnonreaders2.pdf.

Broughton, G. (1993). *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*. London: Routledge.

Burt, M., Peyton, J. K. and Adams, R. (2003). *Reading and Adult ESOL learners: A Review of the Research*. Washington, DC: National Center for ESL Literacy Education, Center for Applied Linguistics. Retrieved 28 February 2008, from www.cal.org/caela.

Cardosa-Martins, C. and Rodrigues, L. A. with Ehri, L. C. (2003). Place of environmental print in reading development: Evidence from nonliterate adults. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 7(4), 335–355.

Chall, J. S. (1967). *Learning to Read: The Great Debate*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Christie, J. with Delaruelle, S. (2002). *English Language and Literacy Assessment Placement Kit* (2nd Edn). Surry Hills, NSW: NSW Adult Migrant English Service.

Clay, M. M. (1979). *The Early Detection of Reading Difficulties*. Auckland: Heinemann Education.

Clay, M. M. (1993). *Reading Recovery: A Guidebook for Teachers in Training*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

DelliCarpini, M. (2006). Early reading development in adult ELLS. *Academic Exchange Quarterly*. Retrieved 28 February 2008, from www.thefreelibrary.com.

Department for Children, Schools and Families. (2001). *The Adult ESOL Core Curriculum*. Retrieved 11 March 2008, from www.dfes.gov.uk/readwriteplus/teachingandlearning.

Department for Children, Schools and Families. (n.d.). *What do we know about dyslexic adult learners and their approach to learning?* Retrieved 6 January 2008, from www.dfes.gov.uk/.../introduction/whatdoweknowaboutdyslexicadultlearnersandtheirapproachtolearning/.

Durgunoglu, A. and Onëy, B. (2002). Phonological awareness in literacy acquisition: It's not only for children. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 6(3), 245–256.

Ehri, L. C. (1987). Learning to read and spell words. *Journal of Reading Behaviour*, 19, 5–31.

Ehri, L. C. and McCormick, S. (1998). Phases of word learning: Implications for instruction with delayed and disabled readers. *Reading and Writing Quarterly: Overcoming Learning Difficulties*, 14, 135–163.

Ehri, L. C. and Sweet, J. (1991). Fingerpoint-reading of memorized text: What enables beginners to process the print?. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 24, 442–462.

Freire, P. (1972). *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Education.

Freire, P. and Macedo, D. (1987). *Literacy: Reading the Word and the World*. London: Routledge.

Gough, P. B. and Tunmer, W. E. (1986). Decoding, reading, and reading disability. *Remedial and Special Education*, 7, 6–10.

Greenberg, D., Ehri, L. C. and Perin, D. (2002). Do adult literacy students make the same word-reading and spelling errors as children, matched for word-reading age?. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 6, 221–243.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1975). *Learning How to Mean: Explorations in the Development of Language*. London: Edward Arnold.

Harris, T. L. and Hodges, R. E. (Eds). (1995). *The Literacy Dictionary: The Vocabulary of Reading and Writing*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Henry, M. (2003). *Unlocking Literacy: Effective Decoding and Spelling Instruction*. Baltimore, MD: H. Brookes Publishing Company.

Holt, G. (1995). Teaching low-level adult ESL learners. In *ERIC Digest*. Washington, DC: National Clearinghouse for Literacy Education.

Hughes, A. (2000). *Testing for Language Teachers*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride and J. Holmes (Eds). *Sociolinguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

Jenkins, K. (1991). *Te Ihi, Te Mana, Te Wehi o Te Ao Tuhi: Māori Print Literacy from 1814–1855: Literacy, Power and Colonisation*. MA thesis, University of Auckland, Auckland.

Juel, C. (1988). Learning to read and write: A longitudinal study of 54 children from first through fourth grades. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 80, 437–447.

Klein, C. and Millar, R. (1990). *Unscrambling Spelling*. London: Hodder and Stoughton.

Knowles, M. (1990). *The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species* (4th Edn). Houston: Gulf Publishing.

Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*. San Francisco: Pergamon.

Kruidenier, J. (2002). *Research-based Principles for Adult Basic Education Reading Instruction*. Partnership for Reading, National Institute for Literacy. Retrieved 15 February 2008, from www.nifl.gov.partnershipforreading.

Lederer, R. (1991). *The Miracle of Language*. New York: Pocket Books.

Lightbown, P. and Spada, N. (1993). *How Languages are Learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Majeres, R. L. (2005). Phonological and orthographic coding skills in adult readers. *Journal of General Psychology*, 132(3), 267–280.

McKenna, M. C. and Stahl, S. A. (2003). *Assessment for Reading Instruction*. New York: Guilford Press.

Moore, S. H. (2007). Researching appropriate assessment for low/pre-literacy adult ESL learners. *Prospect*, 22, 2.

National Association of ESOL Home Tutor Schemes. (2007). *ESOL-Literacy Programme Assessment Kit*. Wellington: National Association of ESOL Home Tutor Schemes Incorporated.

National Reading Panel. (2000). *Teaching Children to Read: An evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instructions. Reports of the subgroups*. (NIH Publication No. 00-4754.) Washington, DC: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.

Nicholson, T. (2005). *At the Cutting Edge: The Importance of Phonemic Awareness in Learning to Read and Spell*. Wellington: New Zealand Council for Educational Research.

Roberts, M. (2008). ESOL-literacy: Teaching learners with language and literacy needs. In J. Benseman and A. Sutton. (Eds). (2008). *Facing the Challenge: Foundation Learning for Adults in Aotearoa New Zealand*. Wellington: Dunmore Press.

Scrivener, J. (2004). *Learning Teaching* (2nd Edn). London: Macmillan Heinemann.

Shaywitz, S. (2003). *Overcoming Dyslexia*. New York: Random House.

Shaywitz, S. E. and Shaywitz, B. A. (2004). Reading disability and the brain. *Educational Leadership*, 61, 6–11.

Silver, M. (1998). 17 guiding principles for working with seniors. Reprinted from *Compass Points 3, English Language Training Technical Assistance Project*. Denver, Colorado: Spring Institute for International Studies. Cited in Brod (2002), page 6.

Spear-Swerling, L. and Sternberg, R. J. (1996). *Off-track: When Poor Readers Become "Learning Disabled"*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Spiegel, M. and Sunderland, H. (2007). *Teaching Basic Literacy to ESOL Learners*. London: London Language and Literacy Unit.

Stanovich, K. (1986). Matthew effects in reading: Some consequences of individual differences in the acquisition of literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 21, 360–407.

Strucker, J. (2004). *Reading Profiles of US ABE and ESOL Students: Results of NCSALL's Adult Reading Components Study (ARCS) and NCSALL/ETS Level 1 Study*. Retrieved 11 March 2008, from www.researchtopractice.org/files/H_pdfs_abstracts/101_Strucker.pdf.

Swan, M. and Smith, B. (Eds). (2001). *Learner English* (2nd Edn). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Taylor, M. (2000). The language experience approach and adult learners. Retrieved 13 March 2008, from www.cal.org/caela/esl_resources/digests/LEA.html.

Tertiary Education Commission. (2008). *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy*. Wellington: Tertiary Education Commission.

Tertiary Education Commission. (2008). *Learning Progressions for Adult Literacy and Numeracy: Background Information*. Wellington: Tertiary Education Commission.

Tertiary Education Commission. (2008). *Teaching Adults to Read with Understanding: Using the Learning Progressions*. Wellington: Tertiary Education Commission.

Tertiary Education Commission. (2008). *Teaching Adults to Write to Communicate: Using the Learning Progressions*. Wellington: Tertiary Education Commission.

Thornbury, S. (2006). *An A–Z of ELT*. London: Macmillan Education.

Tunmer, W. E., Herriman, M. L. and Nesdale, A. R. (1988). "Metalinguistic abilities and beginning reading". *Reading Research Quarterly*, 23, 134–158.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Weir, B. (1989). A research base for pre kindergarten literacy programs. *The Reading Teacher*, 42(7), 456–460.

Ziegler, J. and Goswami, U. (2005). Reading acquisition, developmental dyslexia, and skilled reading across languages: A psycholinguistic grain size theory. *Psychological Bulletin*, 131, 3–29.

Ziegler, J. C. and Goswami, U. (2006). Becoming literate in different languages: Similar problems, different solutions. *Developmental Sciences*, 9(5), 429–453.

Notes

Notes

Published 2008 by the Tertiary Education Commission.

All text and illustrations copyright © Crown 2008.

All rights reserved. Enquiries should be made to the publisher.

Catalogue number TE190
ISBN 978-0-478-32010-7

Tertiary Education Commission
Te Amorangi Mātauranga Matua
National Office
44 The Terrace
Wellington 6011, New Zealand
P O Box 27048
Wellington 6141, New Zealand
© The Crown 2008

www.tec.govt.nz

New Zealand Government