THE SUPPORT FOR LEARNING PROVIDED BY THE PARENTS OF FOUNDATION PHASE LEARNERS IN A TOWNSHIP SCHOOL

by

SWANKI STEPHINAH SENOSI

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The LORD is my strength and my shield;
my heart trusts in Him, and I am helped.
My heart leaps for joy
and I will give thanks to Him in song.
Psalm 28:7

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DECLARATION

I declare that **"The support for learning provided by parents to Foundation Phase learners in a township school"** is my own work and that all sources that have been used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

SWANKI STEPHINAH SENOSI

Submitted: April 2004

ABSTRACT

A qualitative and quantitative study was undertaken to understand the support for learning provided by African parents in the education of their children.

In this study we investigated the extent, level, form and content of the support of parents in the learning of their children during the Foundation Phase with special reference to a Tsonga community. Parents' support is regarded as an essential factor in children's learning, but more information is needed about the practices of such support for African children in the Foundation Phase. There are some parents (educated or not) who do not provide effective support. In some instances, parents do not stay with their children because of migratory labour practices and siblings have to carry the responsibility. Some of the parents leave early for work and return home late while children are asleep, which makes it difficult for them to provide optimal support. It was found in this research that the amount and nature of literacy materials did not differ much between the working families and those who were not working. It was again found during the work sessions with both the literate and illiterate parents that there was extremely little variation in support methods in as far as numeracy and language were concerned.

KEYWORDS

Parent
Parental involvement
Learning behaviour
Support for learning
Township school
Culture

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CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION, PROBLEM FORMULATION, AIM OF RESEARCH, RESEARCH STATEMENT, RESEARCH METHODOLOGY, DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS AND PROGRAMME OF STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The extent to which the school environment is successful in supporting the learning of its learners depends heavily on the foundation laid at home (Berger 1991:122). Parents are seen as primary educators who play a major role in academic education. The parents first provide the informal education at home, i.e. language and conceptual development before children can start school. During this stage, children acquire basic communication skills which improve through play activities. By the time children start school, that is, during the Foundation Phase, they are expected to develop the academic language needed for cognitive tasks and they must grasp abstract concepts during this stage (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002:49), which is now called formal education. Children in school are now in the stage of using language for learning (Owens 2001:381; Grolnick & Slowiaczek (1994:241). McCarthey (2000:148) declares that "… a learner in a formal situation has to learn culturally appropriate ways of using language and constructing means from texts for him to understand the exact meaning of long utterances, spoken over a short period of time." Learners have to have a good foundation in carrying out instructions in the classroom. According to Olivier (1998:1) for learners to succeed in the Foundation Phase school, they must have a good foundation in the school's language of instruction.

Extensive research has shown that the support for learning further encourages motivation of learners as well as of educators. For example, Berger (1991:123) emphasises that all parents should be encouraged to take part in helping their children with schoolwork. Marjoribanks (1993:441) also states that "… the family is a powerful determinant of children's learning and when the school and home have divergent approaches to life and to learning, children are likely to suffer in their school learning." This implies that when the school and home can equally motivate the child, there is likely to be success. Van Schalkwyk (1990:2) says that "… if parental-involvement were a worthless exercise it would have long stopped functioning and been forgotten." The support for learning is so important that it has an influence on the attitude, behaviour and performance of the child at school.

Like other countries in the Southern African region that gained democracy and independence, South Africa recognises and encourages parents to play a role in the

academic education. For the aim of this education to be fully achieved, a child needs the ongoing support of the parents. The role of parents is also important in the development of values, beliefs, interests and the identity of the child.

South Africa faces a change towards a new paradigm, as well as a new education system. The South African education system of the past was seen by many as an irrelevant content-based curriculum which did not reflect the life experiences, culture and traditions of the vast majority of the diverse learner population. There was an urgent need for change in education and training in South Africa. These perceptions resulted *inter alia*, in a new curriculum, Curriculum 2005 (C2005), underpinned by a philosophy which is labelled transformational Outcomes-Based Education (OBE). The new curriculum has been phased in from 1998 and is driven by the vision of lifelong learning for all South Africans, and is a shift from a content-based to an outcomes based curriculum. The aim is to equip all learners with knowledge, competencies and orientations needed for a successful future life. The vision for the future is to educate thinking competent citizens (South African Department of Education 1997a:1).

In the report of the National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI)(1992:120), parents were seen to be a focal point in the success of education in South Africa. According to the UNISA Life Project (1994:118) parents in South Africa will also have to take far more responsibility for the education of their children than in the past. In supporting the importance of the support for learning, the Minister of Education, Kader Asmal, announced recently that certain aspects of the new curriculum would be redefined, but stressed that the system of Outcomes-Based Education was not being abolished as the framework and principles upon which it is based, are considered sound. Writing in the *Pretoria News* (7 June 2000:9), Asmal contends that: "The challenge facing us in South Africa is to create an education system that liberates human potential and enables our citizens to take their rightful place in all spheres of life-economic, social and political. Lifelong learning for all is at the centre of our approach. In order to realise this vision on a highly educated citizenry participating in all spheres of life with the confidence derived from a complete education, we need approaches and methods which enable us to reach the goal. Outcomes-Based Education is that approach and method." On this note, the parental role is also emphasised and recognised. The South African Schools' Act (Act 84 of 1996:89) emphasises the role of the parents in the education of their children as a vital support for learning.

Parents who do not work harmoniously with the school could in many ways counteract what the educators expect of their children. This means that all parents in South Africa should be motivated and encouraged to give support in the education of their children.

Bush (1990:170) stresses that most parents are eager to help but need and appreciate direction and concrete suggestions.

The issue of parental support for learning obviously cannot be examined in isolation. In line with the orthodidactic theoretical framework one has to consider the possible correlations of any form of poor performance with shortcomings in the learning behaviours of the learner, guidance and facilitation by the educator and content-specific demands. Educators, parents and learners should work in close harmony with the inputs of each other and deal with content which is appropriate in terms of relevance and level of difficulty (Du Toit 1992:17). The child is never in isolation. He/she is always surrounded by the family system, classroom system which will later be embedded in the school system. The child in the family system is surrounded by his/her grandparents, parents and siblings who play a role in cognitive development. In the family system there may be a number of different roles that often overlap and are sometimes contradictory, for example, in a stressed family where a child is expected to take a role of both child and parent which might have an effect in his/her learning. Similar roles and contradictions might be seen in a classroom system where the teacher/educator over-burdens the child with work. For example, if the child is spotted a good performer he/she may be asked/expected to take a supervisory or even a teaching role from time to time. At school he/she will meet with other children in the classroom and in the school premises as a whole which might also affect the child either positively or negatively.

If learners do not participate adequately in the learning activities presented by the educator the reasons might include any number of home-related factors, such as that they lack language skills or come from a different background than the teacher or the majority of other learners in the class, or that the father is absent in the home, or that the parents leave for work early and return home late, which allows them little opportunity for cultivating a meaningful relationship with their children (Bouwer 1989:51). Educators must learn to harmonise the elements in the school-learning situation in many ways for learners to learn successfully. They must, for example, understand the learners' cultural and social background and strive for optimum co-operation from the parents.

It is of great importance that educators should communicate with parents to keep them informed about their children's progress. It is the desire of parents to see their children being successful in their school career. There must be a strong home-school relation and the child must not see a difference in intent between a parent and an educator. Improved communication would have a positive effect on children's learning as well as on their behaviour at school. Berger (1991:122) emphasises that "... the teacher is central to parental involvement in the educational process. The teacher's role includes those of facilitator, counsellor, friend, communicator, programme director, interpreter, and resource developer."

Many African parents, for various reasons, appear to fail in providing the support at home which is necessary for their children's cognitive development prior to school entry, and also later for their mastery and application of the content presented at school. Some of the problems that influence the performance of African learners are, amongst others, a lack of interest, poor motivation, and school facilities that are not up to standard. If the majority of African parents were actively involved in the education of their children one could surmise that many African children could then also be performing to their potential at school.

The staff of a particular school which is the location of a research project by the University of Pretoria, identified the lack of parental involvement as one of their primary concerns and a reason for the poor academic performance of many of their learners.

The support for learning is of special importance during the beginning years of a child's school career. The modern paradigm of the past is being replaced by a postmodern paradigm with profound implications for education. Parents are now expected to provide support in the education of their children, and are regarded as assets in their children's lives. Postmodern curriculum experts believe that a transformative curriculum model is necessary to deal with the postmodern learning environment (Umtapo Centre Literacy Unit 1993:3). A transformative curriculum is about learners acquiring insight which is achieved through activities that develop the abilities of the learner. This has implications for all curricula which parents have to be part of.

A study looking at the nature of the home environment of Grade Two learners in a Township school, more especially at the support for their education provided by the parents, could be expected to yield valuable insights in this regard. The learning gains and learning behaviours of the learners acquired in the previous year, during Grade One, might yield some information about the effect of the home environment on learning in school, which could remain hidden if the research addressed the period of school entry itself only in formative vein.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The specific problem to be researched is: *What is the extent, level, form and content of the support for learning of the parents of learners in Grade Two in a Township school in the learning of their children, and what effect does their support for learning have on the learning behaviours of the learners?*

The research problem can be unpacked to look at questions such as the following:

- How do the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school support the learning of their children?
- What resources are available to Grade Two learners of a Township school in their homes to support cognitive development and the learning of specific skills and content?
- What are the capabilities of the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school, to help their children with their schoolwork and their homework?
- Which problems and which forms of incapability occur and/or are experienced among the parents in the group defined above?
- What are the frequency, form, extent and content of the relationship of the parents with the educator of their children?
- What is the observable influence of the support for learning of the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school on the learning behaviours of their children in the classroom?

1.3 AIM OF RESEARCH

Based on the above problem identified in the Foundation Phase school setting in South Africa, the study aims to determine and examine the extent, level, form and content of the involvement of the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school in the learning of their children, and the correlation of their involvement with the learning behaviours of the learners.

An effort will be made to identify environmentally, systemically and culturally viable areas of enhancement of the support for learning in the learning of learners in the Foundation Phase in a Township school.

1.4 RESEARCH STATEMENT

As suggested in paragraph 1.1, inadequacies in or a lack of the support for learning might be expected to impact negatively on the learning of Grade Two learners in the classroom. In terms of the dynamics of problematic teaching and learning, the researcher would expect to find that learners do not participate optimally in the formal learning situation if they lack opportunities at home to assimilate the fundamental knowledge required to understand the new content and skill presented in school, in the sense that the subject material might be too advanced, or that they lack the frame of reference by which to associate the new content

with other fields of their knowledge, which in turn might result in their not following the explanation. They could also be expected to lack the motivation for learning which stems from a positive attitude to education and from self-confidence as learners which in turn might affect the pass rate.

1.5 RESEARCH PLAN

1.5.1 LITERATURE STUDY

A study of relevant literature will be undertaken regarding the effect of the support for learning by parents in the education of their children in the Foundation Phase and the Foundation Phase school learner will be considered.

1.5.2 SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

A questionnaire which will gather information from a small sample of African parents on how they are involved in the education of their children, will be developed, translated into Tsonga and piloted prior to the investigation. To accommodate the great illiteracy factor among the parents, the researcher will administer the questionnaire verbally as well as individually. Open-ended questions will be included. Additional questions will be posed by the researcher to ensure clarity in the understanding of the researcher regarding all responses of the parents.

1.5.3 PARTICIPATORY OBSERVATION OF PERFORMANCE ON A LEARNING TASK

In close collaboration with the educator, a learning task will be devised and updated daily in accordance with the content dealt with in class. After completing the questionnaire, the parents will be requested to assist their child in performing the task and the dynamics of the event will be recorded for qualitative analysis of method, level, skill and relationship. This procedure will also be piloted before engaging in the main phase of the research.

1.5.4 ANALYSIS OF COMMUNICATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND HOME

The educator will communicate weekly, in writing, with the parents. Each letter will be prepared in collaboration with the researcher to contain an item requiring some form of response from the parents. The responses will be analysed and will be related to the overall learning behaviours of the children.

1.5.5 CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

The purpose of the observation is to observe how the learners behave in class, for example, who raise their hands when questions are asked, after how long do the learners respond to questions, which learners always respond to questions, what is their attitude towards learning, do they have interest in the task, do they have confidence, do they ask questions where they do not understand, or do they have self-initiated remarks, how is their general learning behaviours and how is their reading competence in class.

1.5.6 RESULTS AND FINDINGS

The results and findings in paragraphs 1.5.2, 1.5.3, 1.5.4 and 1.5.5 will be described and later be given a full detailed discussion.

1.5.7 CORRELATIONAL ANALYSIS

Relationships will be drawn between data obtained in paragraphs 1.5.2, 1.5.3, 1.5.4 and 1.5.5.

1.6 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.6.1 PARENT

For the purpose of this study, a parent is any adult whose role is to guide and accompany the child towards responsible adulthood. According to the South African Schools Act of 1996c, Act 84 (RSA 1996:4), the term **parent** refers to:

"(a) the natural parent of a learner,
(b) the guardian of a learner,
(c) a person legally entitled to custody (physical control) of a learner, and
(d) a person who undertakes to act as a parent of a learner for the purposes of the learner's education at school."

1.6.2 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT / SUPPORT FOR LEARNING

According to Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994, in Grolnick, Benjet, Kurowski & Apostoleris 1997:538), parental involvement is the dedication of resources by the parent to the child within a given domain.

For the purpose of this study, parental involvement is viewed from a pedagogical perspective of the home as well as the school. The support for learning entails the supportive participation of parents in the learning activities of their children at home such as to contribute to basic skills education, supervision and helping of children when homework is given. Involvement of parents by the school entails informing parents about the behaviour and performance of their children at school and about school rules, for example by holding teacher-parent meetings.

1.6.3 THE TEACHER / EDUCATOR

The term teacher means "enabling or causing others to do by instruction and training" (Cowie 1995:1329). In terms of the South African Schools' Act, 84 of 1996, the term **teacher** is replaced by the term **educator**. In Outcomes-Based Education, the traditional role of the teacher as "instructor" has been replaced by the "educator", who acts as a "facilitator for learning and development" and is a major source of support for learners. The roles expected of the educator are learning mediator, facilitator, leader, administrator and manager, assessor, and discipline and phase specialist.

1.6.4 LEARNING BEHAVIOURS

Learning behaviours in this study denotes the behaviour of the learner in a situation where learning is deliberately and/or consciously taking place. The learner is called upon to pay attention to what is imparted to him/her. In such a situation the learner shows a level of interest and tries to reach an answer independently. Learning behaviours is again the behaviour of the learner in a situation where he/she can demonstrate an understanding of, and an ability to apply information and skills he/she has gained in order to complete a series of tasks successfully.

1.6.5 TOWNSHIP SCHOOLS

In the past, Africans attended schools only in the rural or township areas which were called African schools. Resources were not available in these schools. In some cases learners were taught under the trees. After the struggle against Apartheid, Africans are now allowed to attend white schools.

In the present situation there are many schools built in the African communities and the Department of Education and Training is busy providing schools with handbooks, prescribed books, writing books and stationary as well as chairs, chalkboards and buildings. Agreed,

many of the schools in the rural areas were not well provided with teaching materials. Furthermore, it should be taken into consideration that South Africa, just like any other African country, had a very high population growth that doubled (a doubling every 22 years of (+) plus million immigrants from surrounding countries) so that the economic growth and the provision of quality education cannot simply keep up, even today.

Irrespective of the fact that only about 10% of all schools in South Africa are white schools, the majority of African children will still be in African schools.

1.6.6 CULTURE

Culture includes all physical aspects and innovation by a person such as technology, architect, economy, mining, government inputs, etc. All the residents of the country take part in the modern technological culture. This social culture and lifestyle that unify us excel by far the ethnic cultural differences that divide us. Culture is a much broader concept than the terms ethnicity and race. Byrne (1996:47); Locke (1998:3) and Sue and Sue (1999:62) accept the definition of culture as a way of life of a particular social group: its customs, values, beliefs, patterns of behaviour, etc. It is important to align with the definition of culture at this stage, since the culture of a particular African group will be discussed.

1.7 PROGRAMME OF STUDY

This research will be executed according to the following programme:

1.7.1 CHAPTER ONE

Chapter One has served as general orientation, putting the problem in perspective and subsequently formulating the problem statement and aim of the research. The aim of the research is to determine and qualitatively examine the extent, level, form and content of the involvement of parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school in the learning of their children and the correlation of their involvement with the learning behaviours of the learners. A research plan has been proposed. Important concepts to be dealt with in the study have been defined. The methods of research were explained and the programme of the study was outlined.

1.7.2 CHAPTER TWO

Chapter Two will report on the literature review of the role played by parents in the formal education of learners and the effect of parental involvement on the learning behaviours of children in the Foundation Phase. The dimensions of child development in the Foundation Phase will be examined, namely, physical development, psycho-social development and cognitive development. The role of parents will be looked at generally with regard to problems which could arise in the facets of physical dimension, affective dimension, normative dimension and cognitive dimension.

1.7.3 CHAPTER THREE

Chapter Three will be devoted to the empirical study, to be undertaken. Relevant research methodology will be examined, before describing the research methods applied in the study. Each method will be discussed in terms of the data obtained.

1.7.4 CHAPTER FOUR

Chapter Four will give a detailed report on the results and findings per investigation. Results will be analysed and interpreted. Context of the empirical research, namely the school, the participants (learners, the educator and the parents) will be considered. Administration of each method will be outlined.

1.7.5 CHAPTER FIVE

Chapter Five will contain the summary of the study as well as the conclusions drawn from the research. Recommendations and suggestions for African parents' involvement and participation in the education of their children in the Foundation Phase and for further research will be highlighted in this chapter.

1.8 CONCLUSION

It is the wish of the researcher not to prescribe what should be done in order to enhance Foundation Phase education at the project school to be researched, but to make proposals and recommendations that could provide a sound basis as well as guidelines for joint decision-making by the parents, the community and educators for the enhancement of Foundation Phase education.

According to Topfner (1990:99) children need to spend time with adults. Utilising local people and institutions as sources of information is, therefore, important. A highly responsive system of education is needed, which can equip the youth with knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours required to consider the complex issues affecting contemporary life (Topfner 1990:100). Educators and parents should all encourage education that will prepare learners for the jobs of the 21st century.

This study will lead the researcher to redefine parental involvement. Measures will have to be taken to develop the concept of parental involvement for South African parents, particularly for those in the African communities.

Chapter Two will investigate the role played by parents in the formal education of learners and the effect of the support for learning on the learning behaviours of children in the Foundation Phase.

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CHAPTER 2
THE ROLE OF PARENTS IN THE FORMAL EDUCATION OF THEIR CHILDREN IN THE FOUNDATION PHASE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Van der Stoep (1984, in Baloyi 1997:18), formal education is the institutionalised, chronologically graded and hierarchically structured educational system, spanning lower primary school to university level. Coombs (1985:24) agrees by declaring that formal education involves fulltime, sequential study extending over a period of years, within the framework of a relatively fixed curriculum.

By and large, the perception that parents have of education and adulthood determines the role they play in their children's formal education. In the Tsonga community, as in many other African communities, formal education is regarded as a determinant factor of the level of prosperity, welfare and security which the individual will achieve. Formal education is seen as a means of getting a certificate which is a passport to a coveted job, status and an income.

Parents are the primary educators of their children. They should view themselves as being in partnership with the school, which is then a formalised extension of the family. The partnership has been emphasised by recent legislation such as the South African Schools' Act (Act of 1996:90). This partnership recognises the mission and responsibility of parents to educate their children and assist in their formal education.

This chapter deals with the role of parents in the formal education of their children during the Foundation Phase. Parents should prepare their children for the role of adulthood and for cultural, moral and spiritual matters. The duty of the parents in this regard goes together with the competency to arrange and influence different aspects of a child's education. According to Long (1982, in Matlou 1993:34), it has been proved that parental involvement improves children's school performance and he argues that anything that does so merits close attention.

The dimensions of child development in the Foundation Phase will be examined, namely, physical development, psycho-social development, and cognitive development. The role of parents will be looked at generally, but also with regard to problems which could arise

in the facets of the physical dimension, affective dimension, normative dimension and cognitive dimension. The African family context will be contemplated and the main focus will be on the Tsonga community.

2.2 THE CHILD IN THE FOUNDATION PHASE

2.2.1 INTRODUCTION

During the Foundation Phase, Curriculum 2005 aims at establishing the critical minimum level of literacy in the mother tongue, the learning of numeracy skills and life skills (Olivier 1998:2). The Foundation Phase begins with the child's school entry at approximately seven years of age. It ends at the end of Grade Three when the child is about nine years old.

During this phase, according to Maier (1978:223), each child is in a "constant state of developmental change." Although children differ from each other, the basic process of development is the same for every child and the child's chronological age is not the only factor used to judge what stage of development the child has reached.

All children, however, begin at the Foundation School Phase when entering the formal learning situation for the first time. This leads to increased separation from home and family and, as a result, growing independence on the part of the child (Jacobs 1980:52; Vrey 1979:85). Maier (1978:188) describes the early phase of schooling as involving a shift from dependency on parents to dependency on peers and other adults, including teachers. The child is seen by Maier (1978:190) and Olivier (1998:7) as pushing towards new horizons in the development of his skills, knowledge and emotions during the period now called the Foundation Phase. The child becomes part of a wider group and thus able to relate to an increasing number of people.

It is important to consider what self-concept entails before discussing the developmental stages of the child in the Foundation Phase. This is important because the development of the young child's self-concept is strongly affected by the constant feedback from his family and is a vital part of his development in totality. According to Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:193) the self-concept entails identity, action and self-esteem. Identity refers to "who I am." Action occurs as a result of identity ("I am a singer and I sing"), and self-esteem is the evaluative aspect of the self-concept, also known as self-worth ("I am an outstanding singer").

The term “self-concept” is, according to Raath and Jacobs (1993:12), treated synonymously with “self-image”, in that self-concept is defined as a “conceptualization or image of the self”. Van den Aardweg and Van den Aardweg (1993:214), in their discussion of the self-concept place “self-image” in brackets, also implying that these two concepts refer to the same phenomenon.

According to Warren (1992:21), self-concept is cognitively structured because it is a conception. But, because the self-concept includes attitudes and convictions about the self (which stem from a cognitive organisation of concepts), it is also affective by nature. Warren (1992:30) stresses that self-concept is a structure, that is “the system of concepts available to the person in attempting to define himself”.

Jacobs (1980:52) and Vrey (1979:85) argue in the same vein and declare that the child’s physical development, emotional development and cognitive development all affect his ability to meet the new demands made on him at school and that young children need to be well looked after.

The above-mentioned dimensions of child development will now be discussed in more detail, also considering the relationships of each with self-concept.

2.2.2 PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT

Vorster and De Meillon (1991:68) define physical development as the increase in height and body mass. Development is defined by Lerner and Hultsch (1983:6) as systematic intra-individual changes. Cooper (1991:7) emphasises that development is an organized process. Human development thus entails all the changes which take place in the human organism between conception and death.

Theorists on child development, such as Erickson (1963:69), Havighurst (1976:18), Hurlock (1978:141), Landreth (1993:21), Michael (1990:319), Piaget (1971:300) and Vrey (1990:99) point out that during the first four or five years of the child’s life, he gains control over his gross motor movements. He learns, for example, to use his body to walk, run and jump. As he develops physically, he is able to perform these movements with increasing speed, strength and accuracy. Hurlock (1978:145) emphasises that the child becomes able also to perform these movements more economically. He may, for example, use his whole body to throw a ball at first, but eventually will learn to perform this task more efficiently using only his arm.

According to Vrey (1979:88), after approximately the age of five, the child begins to gain increasing control over his fine motor co-ordination. This enables him to grasp objects, throw more accurately, catch, write and use tools such as a pair of scissors. He becomes able to use different groups of muscles in a more controlled way. According to Thomas (1990:326), accuracy and speed of movement as well as the ability to perform movements smoothly and automatically increase steadily. Thomas (1990:326) and Michael (1990:323) maintain that the strength of a muscle is related to its cross-sectional area and its composition. Therefore, the changes in strength that occur during early childhood follow the changes in body size. The steady gain in height and weight parallels the muscle mass and changes in strength between ages six to ten.

The child cannot learn the skilled movements discussed above unless his nervous system and muscles are sufficiently developed. Individual children differ markedly in the rate at which physical development occurs. The opportunity to practise the physical skills which the child is acquiring is also important. Hurlock (1978:139), Landreth (1993:21) and Thomas (1990:327) and point out that the child must be able to exercise physically and play actively in order to develop these skills.

According to Landreth (1993:28), children need to exercise and play because play is the child's natural medium of communication. When children exercise and play, they will understand and come to terms with their environment. Ramarumo (1992:20) emphasises that growing children also need to have sufficient physical vitality and reasonably normal health. Michael (1990:325) and Thomas (1990:327) hold the same vein and point out that, since one's level of fitness is retained for not more than a week or so, continued fitness requires exercise and proper nutrition. Good health will of course also foster resistance to illness. Food and other substances that humans ingest as the fuel for growth and action throughout life obviously exert a strong influence on motor skills.

The child in the Foundation Phase is seen by Vrey (1979:103) as achieving self-actualisation through the mastery of physical skills. Vrey (1990:100) and Nhlapo (1997:24) declare that good motor control makes the child feel physically secure and self-confident. Acceptance by the peer group depends on whether he can run, jump and climb like others in the group. Successful, active participation in games with his peers depends on skills such as throwing and catching (Landreth 1993:30).

Fine and gross motor control are also important to the child during the Foundation Phase as he enters the formal learning situation for the first time. The child must be able to use his left or right hand consistently, that is, he must by then have developed left or right-

handedness. He must be able to perform basic gross motor movements easily and have the fine muscle control necessary to use a pencil and a pair of scissors.

According to Hurlock (1978:155) and Rosa (1995:91), the psychological effects of problems in the area of physical development include feelings of inferiority, envy of others who can perform these physical tasks well and general feelings of unhappiness and rejection. Contact with the peer group is inhibited and social rejection may result from this. Vrey (1990:100) states that the child may become timid and afraid to try anything new. The researcher has observed that such children remain dependent on others for help in performing tasks which other children can already perform. Growing children, therefore, need the support of their parents for the establishment of the social context that facilitates meaningful learning as well as acceptance of important differences in not only intellectual, but also emotional, social and physical development within and among children. Matlou (1993:39) and Lambert and McCombs (1998:10) emphasise that learners have unique differences including emotional states of mind, learning rates, learning styles, stages of development, abilities, talents, feelings of efficacy and other needs. These must be taken into account if all learners are going to be provided with the challenges and opportunities for learning and self-development which they need.

2.2.3 PSYCHO-SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

Emotions play an important part in the young child's life. They provide the inner force that attracts one person to another, or that repels one person from another. Emotions provide a sense of feeling with and for others. When positive, they provide a sense of security, help persons cope with frustration, alert them to dangers and prod them into action (Lambert & McCombs 1998:9).

The pattern of emotional development is generally similar for all, but some factors in the child's life can produce different emotional responses in individual children. Nhlapo (1997:19) acknowledges that a child does not only need to feel safe physically, but he needs to feel sheltered emotionally. Draper (1990:415) and Meyer, Moore and Viljoen (1990:152) state that both the emotions themselves and their patterns of expression change with age, thus, during the child's overall development throughout infancy, childhood, youth and adulthood. The child increasingly gains control over his emotions as he matures. The most frequently expressed emotional reactions and expressions of feelings will generally settle into habits that become driving forces in a child's life.

Hurlock (1978:210), Lamprecht (1990:36) and Mathibe (1992:23) found that signs of emotional maturity in the child include self-control, acceptance and recognition of the emotions which the child is experiencing as well as the ability to express these emotions in a socially acceptable way. According to Draper (1990:417), affection involves the expression of feelings which reflect concern, warmth, regard, caring, sympathy and helpfulness. Young children are especially open about their feelings of affection toward others. As they reach preadolescence they show less physical affection but demonstrate their feelings through social interaction, confiding in one another and participating in activities together.

During the Foundation Phase significant changes occur in the way in which the child relates to others. As children leave the shelter of their homes and become part of a larger social group at school, they have the opportunity to relate to an increasing number of people outside their immediate families. Ramarumo (1992:19) describes the child as being thrust "… out of the home and into the peer group." Vrey (1990:101) points out that the child increasingly seeks relationships with his peers and these peer group relationships become more and more important as he gets older. Vrey (1990:101) sees this phase as the beginning of the process of the child's emancipation. The growth of the child's independence from adults begins in a slow and steady way and is seen by Vrey (1990:103) as one of the developmental tasks of childhood.

According to Mussen, Conger, Kagan and Huston (1990:535), school-going children influence each other by becoming models on which other children base their own behaviour and by the way in which they interpret and respond to each other's behaviour. Peers thus become increasingly influential in the socialisation process of the child in the Foundation Phase. Draper (1990:419) states that during this phase the child begins to rely on the self as the main source of possibility, energy and safety, yet remains emotionally grounded in the previous stages (infancy and early childhood). This is a period of search for self-identity and use of the body and brain together as a resource for functioning on a concrete level. Emotions are expressed under greater control as children seek to function as socially accepted human beings, interacting with others and interdependent in relationships.

Children's relationships with their parents are still, however, very important in that their parents can help them or hinder them as they become more independent. Parents' love and support enable children to venture confidently out of the secure home environment and meet the new challenges they face at school. The parents' unconditional acceptance and love will enhance children's self-concept, enabling them to accept themselves, their

successes and failures, adapt to new situations and enter into relationships with others. Conditional love and acceptance, on the other hand, will create negative relationships in children and in turn, they could become failures in life. Nhlapo (1997:25) states that when a child is not loved, he becomes anti-social, and may even become truant in order to get the attention of his parents.

Heystek (1998:15), Maier (1978:239), Matlou (1993:39) and Rosa (1995:4) and point out that the way in which parents relate to others also provides an example for children in their relationships. During this phase, the child becomes less subjective and is able to see other people's points of view. Lambert and McCombs (1998:21) and Vrey (1979:105) point out that the child becomes actively involved in playing with others and generally less egocentric in his approach to them. The child becomes more aware of and concerned with the rules of the particular game being played and fairness and justice become more important to him. Mussen *et al.,* (1990:426) stress this, saying "… through play the child learns to communicate with and relate to others."

Belonging to a group becomes more important to the child in the Foundation Phase and his need for acceptance by his peer group increases. Vrey (1990:102) and Mathibe (1992:7) emphasise that to gain acceptance, the child must meet the demands of the group. For example, he must be able to keep up with them in physical play and he must be able to wait his turn. The child becomes able to start new activities and persevere until they are completed. He becomes able to make decisions for himself and is thus less reliant on adults.

2.2.4 COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

Cognitive development can be defined as the growing ability of logical thought processes (Vorster & De Meillon 1991:69). These logical thought processes develop and improve as the child grows older. According to Murray (1990:205), cognition refers to the state of knowing. Gordon and Browne (1993:403) and Bjorklund (1995:3) accept the definition of cognition as "… the mental process or faculty children use to acquire and manipulate knowledge. To think is to be able to acquire and apply knowledge. By using conscious thought and memory, children think about themselves, the world and others." The followers of Piaget, such as McShane (1991:5), Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994:239) and Nelson (1996:5) agree that children undergo stages of cognitive development, namely, the sensory-motor stage where learning occurs through use of senses and motor activities; the pre-operational stage where the words or objects represent people and other objects; the concrete operational stage where real objects are needed by the child before he can

draw conclusions; and the formal operational level where the thinking of the child is abstract.

Nelson (1996:5) emphasises that the cognitive task of the human child is to make sense of his or her situated place in the world in order to take a skilful part in its activities. During the Foundation Phase the child shows increased interest in and comprehension of the world around him. He begins to see reality in a more objective way. At this stage the child explores his world actively and gains both new knowledge and skills. He begins to master the basic scholastic skills. Success in this area is very important to him and failure leads to feelings of inferiority.

Hammil and Bartel (1990:296), Mussen *et al.,* (1990:276), Nelson (1996:11) and Piaget (1971:300), emphasise that during the concrete operational stage, the child becomes able to carry out mental activities that demonstrate the properties of flexibility and reversibility. The child can now understand that the action of taking some of a given number of objects from a jar can be reversed by putting the same number of objects back into the jar. This kind of understanding is thought to be necessary for the child to understand the relationship between reverse operations such as addition and subtraction in numeracy.

Further characteristics of the child's thinking during the stage of concrete operations include decentration, which is defined by Mussen *et al.,* (1990:276) as the ability to "… focus attention on several attributes of an object or event simultaneously and understand the relationships among dimensions or attributes." There is also a shift from relying solely on that which is perceived to the use of logical principles. Children become able to understand that qualities of an object such as its mass remain the same even when changes are made in the shape of that object. They can also use the principle of conservation in order to understand that the number of objects in two equal groups remains the same even when one of the groups is arranged in a different way (Rosa 1995:52).

The child also becomes able to arrange a group of objects according to a given characteristic, for example, from heaviest to lightest. According to Mussen *et al.,* (1990:278), Rosa (1995:54), and Vrey (1990:115), when comparing objects, the child no longer thinks in absolute terms. He becomes able to compare two or more objects. When comparing three buildings, for example, the child is able to identify them as a tall building, a taller building and the tallest building.

Hammil and Bartel (1990:295) and Mussen *et al.,* (1990:230) agree that, during the stage of concrete operations, the child is also able to classify objects in a hierarchical way. In addition, the child is able to understand that an object may belong to more than one category at any given time.

According to Mussen *et al.,* (1990:280) and McShane (1991:7), the child in the Foundation Phase thus shows marked differences in the way in which he thinks when compared to the preschool child. He is still, however, reliant on concrete objects and the relationships between them rather than on abstractions. This implies that the child's thinking is, to a large extent, still restricted to the concrete level. Facilitation at home as well as at school to be aligned with the particular learning style and needs of children in this age group, is also advisable.

His ability to use language to express himself increases and language is seen as the medium through which thought and reasoning develop. According to Grolnick and Slowiaczek (1994:241) and Rosa (1995:53), the child also begins to learn the difference between right and wrong and values become more important to him. The example of others is seen as a critical factor in the development of the child's value system.

As the child develops, his cognitive skills also widen. He begins to see things differently. The self-concept is highly meaningful to the learner, whether it is based on high or low esteem. The teaching style selected by the teacher and the learning environment at home must be such that it enables the learner to see himself or herself as successful at this stage. The teaching style and learning environment must be oriented towards the development of a positive scholastic self-concept. Hartline (1993:19) maintains that the self-concept is wider than self-esteem. We may think of self-esteem as a circle enclosed within the wider circle of self-concept or we may think of self-esteem as the evaluative component of the self-concept.

2.3 THE PARENTS' ROLE IN THE LIVES OF THEIR CHILDREN DURING THE FOUNDATION PHASE

2.3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this section the researcher focuses on the role of parents in the lives of their children during the Foundation Phase. It is important that parents be valued by the school as primary educators of their children and as active partners with other family and community members in facilitating the process of learning during this phase. Parents are expected to

fulfil their obligations, co-operate and maintain certain values and standards in guiding the child's development to maturity. According to the Interim Policy for Early Childhood Development (ECD) (Department of Education 1996a:40), parental and community involvement is important in the lives of children during the Foundation Phase.

Van Schalkwyk (1991:145) declares that it is primarily the task of the family to undertake the initial education of children and later transfer the task to the school which must then further undertake it on behalf of the family. The education of the child is in the first place the task of his parents and secondly that of his teachers. Education is defined by Van Niekerk (1982, in Le Roux 1993:106) as the assistance given to a child so that he can become an adult. Gunter (1984, in Le Roux 1993:100) adds that education is the child's guided development from complete dependence at first to adulthood with complete self-reliance as the ultimate aim. From early childhood the family plays an important role in shaping the child's belief systems, value systems and code of behaviour. Le Roux (1994:188) echoes that the family plays a role in the child's identity so as to enable him to face and deal with crises successfully.

Because no person lives in isolation, it is, therefore, important to look at the contextual influences which might either impede or promote parental involvement. The contextual influences are considered important in this research because they could impact on the family even above and beyond factors such as culture and interpersonal relationships. Contextual influences on parental involvement will be discussed in some detail in paragraph 2.3.2, followed by a discussion of the various dimensions of the parental role in paragraph 2.3.3 onwards, in a consistent order of general principles, effect of problems/inadequacies, principles in the African community /culture and Tsonga culture.

2.3.2 CONTEXTUAL INFLUENCES ON THE DYNAMICS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT

2.3.2.1 Introduction

It may sound simple to practise parental involvement in the lives of children while they are in the Foundation Phase. However, there are some contextual influences which may hinder parents even then from being fully involved in the lives of their children. Felkins, Chakiris and Chakiris (1993:30) and Landman and Bodenstein (1994:449) accept the definition of context as "the set of circumstances, conditions and rules existing at any particular time that can affect the organism in relation to current and strategic goals." Context is a broader environment that affects family life, both positively and negatively. Positively, members of the family may be in a position to deal with stability and innovation

in the education system and negatively, context has a great influence on the interpretation and implementation of values. It is necessary that parents be in a position to deal with contradictions in the family situation and with whatever innovation is implemented by the education system.

The following are some of the contextual influences that may support or hinder parents from being fully involved in the lives of their children during the Foundation Phase:

2.3.2.2 Educational level and income of parents

According to Mashau (1989:41), the better educated parents normally interact with their children more frequently and endeavour to provide a high level of cognitive stimulation. On the other hand, the child raised in a home where especially the mother does not interact sufficiently with her children, has to fall back on his/her own devices in trying to figure out the meaning of the world.

According to the study undertaken by Fraser (1988:126), children of the parents of the middle-class tend to do well academically because they are motivated to be curious, responsible and autonomous and are encouraged to develop techniques of reasoning. Fraser (1988:127) found in his study that parental education, reading habits, income, occupation and living space are all related significantly to the intelligence quotient and academic performance of their children. In his study, Fraser (1988:126) used the expression “parental level of education” to refer to the education of any parent who has received functional education for at least four years and who can read and write. Jubber (1990:7) echoes that highly educated and occupationally well-positioned parents have the advantage of transmitting to their children the kind of skills, knowledge and attitudes which encourage and facilitate good school performance. Jubber (1990:8) concludes that such parents are generally further fortunate in being able to provide the kinds of equipment, resources, experiences and study environment that promote good schoolwork, and they are also able to send their children to the best schools.

The low educational level of parents also affects their socio-economic life. For instance, in homes where the wage is low, and especially in case of unemployment, the family does not always cater for the children’s needs. Jubber (1990:4) observed that “family income contributes to a child’s cognitive development directly and indirectly. Its more direct effects relate to such things as the relationship between income and nutrition, health, quality of school attended, preschool education, the quality of the home as an information environment, the value attached to education, and the ability of the family to supply the

kinds of educational support, equipment and experiences which foster school success." In the same study, Jubber (1990:5) found that children from the poorest homes have proportionately more of their number who are poor performers.

2.3.2.3 Culture of the community

(a) Introduction

Culture is not static. It is a changing entity, influencing the actions of its members and also being influenced by these actions.

Researchers such as Fyfe and Figueroa (1993:19), Kabagarama (1993:14), Lemmer and Squelch (1993:11) and Mabusela (1995:12) agree on the same definition of culture as a system of values and norms, beliefs, rules of conduct, communication, knowledge and dynamism which have been socially constructed and are socially transmitted as part of a group's heritage and as the framework and medium of its life. Lemmer and Squelch (1993:11) further indicate that culture has both implicit and explicit elements: "Implicit elements are discreet and hidden, such as attitudes, values and beliefs. Explicit culture is visible and easily recognisable in aspects such as food, dress and language." Sebidi (1999:54) concurs that culture is forged by human beings in a subject-to-subject relationship with one another and interacting with their environment in the pursuit of food, clothes and shelter.

Many definitions of culture point to the fact that culture is an identified common way of life. Culture, therefore, embraces all the aspects of life such as language, gender, roles, religion, behavioural norms and values. Culture is actually the way people live because whatever is contained within a culture constitutes a strategy for survival. It determines the identity of a person. Culture can, therefore, be regarded as a contextual influence in the lives of children during the Foundation Phase. According to Mncwabe (1990:56), in the South African context, culture "… tends to be defined in racial rather than in broader (e.g. social class) terms."

Culture could influence the dynamics of the support for learning by parents in the education of their children. The cultural bond offers the child a particular environment. It gives him values and norms according to which he can adapt his life. It also presents the child with the guidance of a cultural-social bond in which he can develop his abilities. It is the application of those abilities that will contribute to the development of his culture. According to Wyngaard (1994:61), cultural practices change continuously owing to the impact made by other cultural groups, welfare, economical and technological influences

which could sometimes be destructive to the norm and value conceptions of the culture concerned. Wyngaard (1994:62) emphasises that cultural deprivation takes place when the child is suppressed, when the conflict is between the parents and school and when the child is excluded from exposure to enriching cultural moulding influences. However, the learning of effective language usage and the understanding of language, promote the child's learning abilities.

(b) Language

Language is communication. Le Roux (1994:44) describes communication as the ability to listen, a means of self-expression and sensitivity to subtlety and nuances in meaning. Communication is, in fact, the "handle" by which people grasp and hold onto the world.

The language of any tribe is a vehicle for transmitting its cultural heritage from generation to generation. According to Moseley (1996, in Davids 1997:101), "… each language is unique in a deep sense. It is the repository of accumulated thoughts and experiences of people, their metaphors and specialised knowledge, their unique experiences that developed over many lifetimes."

Children from a culture of poverty are impeded by a lack of ability to communicate in the dominant culture. This ability is limited by language deficiency. In addition, the interpersonal communication skills of these children are such that actualisation of their personal potential is also hampered. They are given scant encouragement and stimulation to develop their potential. Parents suffering poverty seldom play with and support their children; there is not much purposeful conversation to support their education and training. Holman (1979, in Le Roux 1994:44) states that the parents of these children typically talk to them less often and seldom ask them questions.

Language problems in such children could be the result of a poor linguistic example set by their parents. Because their use of language is of a poor quality, the pedagogic discourse lacks quality and scope. If the language used in the child's broader environment is also poor, the problem is compounded, and his or her language acquisition will be inadequate for academic demands. This again negatively affects the child's attainment of maturity. Le Roux (1994:45) declares that, since language development is determined socially, the inhibiting life-world of children in a **poverty-culture** has a direct and significant impact on their language usage. Their limited language ability is a reflection of their restrictive circumstances. Inadequate language usage and communication are detrimental to the child's development and again promote the culture of poverty. Language could, therefore, be regarded as one of the contextual influences that could most critically hinder parents

from being constructively involved in the education of their children during the Foundation Phase. Directly associated to language development is also the issue of literacy.

(c) Literacy

In all African cultures, education was in the past conducted in the oral method. Nothing was written. With the arrival of the missionaries, written text was introduced, but unfortunately most of the parents could not read nor write. Those who could continue their education were mostly men and the highest qualification was usually Standard Six (Grade Eight). The constraints of family illiteracy, semi-literacy and literacy on the academic development of many South African learners are in evidence to this day.

According to Langer (1987:4), literacy is an activity, a way of thinking, not a set of skills. It is a purposeful activity. People read, write, talk and think about real ideas and information in order to ponder and extend what they know, to communicate with others, to present their points of view, and to understand and be understood.

Singh (1996:312) declares that the term **illiteracy** indicates the inability to read or to write in any language whereas the term **semi-literate** denotes the ability to read and write in a very limited way. In the latter case the reading and writing skills are not permanently acquired and, therefore, can be easily lost. Singh (1996:312) adds that five years of formal schooling (Grade Five) are usually regarded as an indicator of basic literacy. **Basic literacy** is defined as the ability to read and write a short simple sentence in the mother tongue and is regarded as a prerequisite for the attainment of effective functional literacy. **Functional literacy** is understood to be the ability to engage in activities where literacy is required for effective functioning within a particular community, as well as enabling the individual to continue to use reading, writing and calculation for the individual's and community's development.

Just as culture affects the intellectual effects of literacy, so too does culture initially affect the process of learning to be literate. To promote the culture of literacy and thus the culture of learning, children need to be given an opportunity in the home to apply their skills and to solve problems. The new curriculum requires that the basic literacy skills and a resource-rich learning environment be made available for children. Hannon (1995:5-6) recognises this and argues that "… literacy is the key to the rest of the curriculum. Virtually all schooling after the first year or two, assumes literacy. This is particularly so to the extent that children are expected to work independently of teachers, for that requires them to read worksheets, written directions, reference materials, and so on." This style of learning needs to be reinforced in the home.

A resource-rich environment means a teaching and learning context that exposes learners to a range of diverse sources of information and representations of ideas and views in many forms and languages. It is about being creative to source-free or low-cost, appropriate and locally available learning resources and how they are used in the process of teaching and learning. In a resource-rich environment, learners, together with their peers, parents and siblings, can discuss their ideas and pitch their viewpoints in contest against one another. Given this context, learners can develop independent and critical thinking skills and evaluate matters in a more reasoned manner (Department of Education 1997a:51). To achieve these outcomes, is to be literate.

According to Wells and Chang-Wells (1992:149), learning is also more effective when:

- There is a collaborating group.
- There is discussion and debate so that ideas have to be contested.
- Learners organise and record their thinking in a logical, coherent and meaningful way.

Wells and Chang-Wells (1992:149) found writing to be more influential than reading because it is through writing, recording and re-presenting that learners process and evaluate information and begin to exercise their critical judgement. To be independent, critical thinkers, learners need to acquire basic information processing and application skills rather than organizing large quantities of content information that are quickly forgotten or become obsolete. Such skills involve selecting a suitable information source, accessing the relevant information and processing, sorting and organizing it so that it is appropriate to the problem. This process should be explicitly supported and encouraged in the home.

The RSA statistics for 1991 show that there were 3 million persons over the age of eighteen years who had had no schooling whatsoever. Of these, approximately 90% were Africans and a further 216,000 of Coloured origin (South African Department of Education 1992:120). We find that even today illiterate parents are often not overly involved in their children's education because they cannot read nor write. They do not see themselves as teachers. They leave everything in the hands of teachers.

The culture of literacy and learning in the family is not the only influence on parents' involvement in their children's education. Religion often plays a decisive role as well.

(d) Religion

The bond between man and God is known as " religion" and determines man's selfhood. Van Schalkwyk (1990:16) states that "… man's selfhood is the religious root of his existence and this personal one serves as the mainspring for all his other relations, determining the kind of person he is and the way in which he creates culture."

The parent who has his or her own religion introduces the child to the same belief. The young child will thus tend to follow the religion of the parent. The parent will teach the child according to his/her religion. What the parent adores or values, the young child will tend to follow suit. Religion influences the activities that one is involved in. According to Van Schalkwyk (1990:16) "… religion constitutes the deepest and most fundamental determining force or influence on all cultural activities of man and the community."

The child's need finds satisfaction not only in his personal religious experiences, but also in the common religious practice. According to Wyngaard (1994:60), religion provides the child with "…a large measure of security and, therefore, makes it possible for emotional stability and the creation of personal self-assurance, the moral values that give direction to the moral development and choices of the child and future expectations in the transcendental, that promote purposefulness and give meaning to his imminent existence." The religious experience of the child lends itself to educational activity because religion in itself moulds the character. Religion is advantageous to education in establishing positive views and positive personality characteristics. Therefore, the child's behaviour, thinking and attitudes could be positively influenced by his or her religion. The child whose parents are not religiously inclined could, on the other hand, tend to lack views and personality characteristics.

2.3.2.4 Family size

The size of the family has an influence on the scholastic achievement of children. The larger the family, the poorer the educational performance of children will be (Mwamwenda 1995:29). Mwamwenda (1995:30) emphasises that this is partly due to the necessary reduction that such increases imply in the attention that children receive from their parents as well as a reduction in living standard, living space, learning resources and privacy. Parents with one or two children will have an opportunity to lavish more love, care and attention on their children. They are likely to be able to provide their children with the necessary resources and take them on educational outings. Children from such families will benefit more and ultimately they will become independent and responsible adults.

Among Africans in South Africa, generally many families stay with their relatives such as grandparents, uncles, aunts, nephews, nieces and cousins. Children from such families do not enjoy many of the benefits of focused motherly/fatherly love. According to Nhlapo (1997:20), from the moment when children from large families start school, they appear to get less encouragement from their parents, which could eventually be one of the reasons why such children tend to do less well academically.

2.3.3 PHYSICAL DIMENSION

Physical care of the Foundation Phase learners by the parents should be considered since the children are still developing and it is their parents' role to help and support them during the development of new skills.

2.3.3.1 General principles

Generally speaking, the more practice and opportunity a child receives in a physical or motor skill, the more adept he is likely to become, so that every encouragement should be given to children in the development of new skills. According to Lally (1991:9), children are vulnerable and need support from both parents. Azar (1989, in Hiatt 1996:81) emphasises that young children are less able to communicate their needs, thoughts and feelings, thus leaving room for a variety of parental interpretations of what they seem to require. Physical care of children includes nutrition, health, safety and supervision by parents.

The need for food is among the most basic human needs. According to Barrett and Frank (1987, in Cooper 1991:7), adequate food is needed in order to survive, to grow and reproduce, to carry out physical work, and to learn from one's experiences. Children should be encouraged to use the senses to explore the way food looks, feels, tastes and smells. They should also be encouraged to eat all of the food provided and complete the meal. Food preparation is the responsibility of parents. Growing children need a balanced diet, sustaining breakfast and mid-morning snack to provide the necessary energy for optimum engagement and learning in school.

Children depend on adults to provide them with safe and healthy places to live. Whether at home or in community settings, sanitary conditions must prevail. Areas for acts such as food preparation and service, toileting and bathing, and sleeping must be kept clean and safe. Parents must see to it that the play area is free of all hazardous objects and check whether toys and equipment are in safe working order. According to Draper and Draper

(1987:84), toys and equipment should be stored in a closed and locked area when not in use and be kept away from the traffic pattern of children. Children must be prevented from playing in the streets and protected from child abuse in all its forms.

Healthy children are cheerful. In the Foundation Phase, they appear to enjoy being with others and cope with problems successfully most of the time. Such children like to explore and try out new ideas. Draper and Draper (1987:74) declare that such children show enough strength for body size while playing with push, pull, lift and carrying toys. They also enjoy activities which require lots of body movement. Nhlapo (1997:21) adds that a healthy child enjoys playing alone at times and smiles or responds in positive ways to other children and adults. The attention span is long enough to enjoy interesting activities.

2.3.3.2 Effect of problems/inadequacies

Children who are not taught the sensory and motor skills that are needed in their future life and given sufficient opportunity to practice these, may be affected. These children may then be unable adequately to perform the activities expected of them. Such neglect can affect children's school activities as well as learning performance. Children who are deprived of such activities may experience feelings of inferiority, unhappiness and rejection.

If children are not given enough and proper food to eat, or if they are otherwise neglected or physically abused at home, their emotional and cognitive growth will probably be affected. According to Ferron (1986:4) and Etaugh and Rathus (1995:288), there are two types of malnutrition, namely quantitative malnutrition, which refers to a lack of the right amount of food, and qualitative malnutrition, which refers to a lack of certain minerals and vitamins in the diet. A lack of vitamin B, for example, produces the disease known as Pellagra which permanently injures the central nervous system. Malnutrition also causes loss of energy and it is detrimental for brain development. Recent research has demonstrated that other things being equal, inadequately nourished mothers tend to give birth to less intelligent children than those who have well balanced diets (Etaugh & Rathus 1995:287).

According to Etaugh and Rathus (1995:288), many children and adults consume excessive amounts of sugar and salt, which can be harmful to their health. If children are repeatedly exposed to sweet and salty food, preference for both will increase during childhood. Etaugh and Rathus (1995:289) emphasise that children should be given food

in the way parents want them to accept it in the future. Parents serve as role models in the development of food preferences. Rozin (1990, in Etaugh & Rathus 1995:289) declares that if a parent displays an obvious dislike for vegetables, children may develop a similar dislike.

Insufficient and inadequate food will cause young children to fall ill easily, and this can in turn make them feel neglected and helpless. Life could even become meaningless to children who are not well nurtured. Nhlapo (1997:19) emphasises that a hungry, thirsty, tired or sleepy child, or a child in school who has been sitting quietly for too long, is not likely to learn adequately, nor is the child who has urgently to go to the toilet, or who is working in a classroom that is ill-ventilated or too hot or too cold.

2.3.3.3 Principles in the African community/culture

During the early years, the African child receives lenient and patient treatment. As the child grows older, he is made to be less dependent on the mother and other members of the family. The gradual gaining of independence by the child is encouraged by his/her increasing mobility and the weakening of the bond between mother and child.

Africans feed on maize-meal. This cereal is cultivated in almost all African communities, especially in rural areas. It is sown and harvested easily. At Christmas time, when the first cobs are edible, people joyfully feast on the new crop. They cook some of them in the ashes, but they allow some of the rest to ripen and dry upon the stalks to make mielie-meal. Children are fed on soft porridge from three months until they are eighteen months old. Next in importance comes the “mabele”, commonly known as “kafir corn”. It is pounded and may be eaten in the form of “bogobe”, known as “bupi” or flour. According to Sebidi (1999:39), “kafir corn” takes a longer time to prepare. The grains must first be soaked for several hours in water to soften them. They are then crushed, the husks being carefully removed by the winnowing process (fefera) in the basket, which is spasmodically shaken with sudden jerky movements. The kernel of the grain is then pounded until it forms a fine “bupi”, flour.

In the African communities, the vegetables are mainly “morogo” or spinach, sweet potatoes and pumpkins. According to Junod (1962, in Sebidi 1999:41), the leaves of the sweet potatoes are sometimes used as a vegetable. Meat, milk and eggs are seldom given to children. In some families meat is used once or twice a week which may cause inadequacies in the growing children. Diet and health are closely related. It can be argued that the diet of children is of direct relevance to their intellectual development and

capability. For this reason, Mwamwenda (1995:31) contends that the food consumed by children must contain all the essential food nutrients such as proteins, carbohydrates, vitamins, water, fat and minerals. All children must have a balanced diet.

African societies show an unusual problem with regard to health decisions, in that they have to consider whether to adopt a western or traditional health system, or a combination of both. This can leave the family in a state of conflict, because of the question whether the traditional or western approach would be the best to address a particular health problem. Pienaar and Spoelstra (1991:24) declare that, although Africans generally acknowledge the reality of the social forces that have set the stage for a more differentiated, more rationalised and a more individualised world, the continued vitality of traditional thought patterns about the meaning of health and illness cause some African families to experience uncertainty, confusion and conflict regarding choices between western and traditional methods of healing. Uncertainties, confusion and conflicts in the African community with regard to modern medicine, African herbal medicine or faith healing, may cause growing children to feel insecure and unsafe. Such treatment may ultimately act against each other, which in turn may cause misunderstanding in the healing, and be detrimental to the child.

The African's perceptions about health are based on a broad ecological framework. Such perceptions are often difficult to understand from the perspective of the western approach. The African worldview offers a metaphysical approach, which is shared by the traditional healer and his/her clients (Bodibe 1990:120). The western approach, on the other hand, is characterised by the ever developing and improving scientific approach to treatment and a highly competitive level observed within the medical environment (Schlebush 1990:145). The western approach often appears impersonal and bureaucratic to the African, thus making understanding it more difficult for the traditional family.

Just as the family relationships can be our greatest source of nurturance and support, they can also be a powerful source of anguish. For example, if in the home a parent loses a job, the children's education may be affected because there would be a lack of money to buy school material. Poor housing, overcrowding and frequent clashes in the family may also be a source of anguish. Uncertainties may result in children being abused, starved, suffocated and sexually molested, which in turn may result in children becoming HIV/AIDS positive. According to Shaffer (1993:612), other children in African communities are not targets of these "physical" forms of abuse but are victims of such psychological abuse as being rejected, ridiculed, or even terrorized by their parents.

The African child in the Foundation Phase demonstrates his semi-independence by doing things on his own, exercising his skills, refusing to be rigidly controlled and managed, exploring the environment and starting to form relationships with other people outside the family, such as the peer group. This stage is problematic for parents and other family members as they strive to exercise control over the child. The aim of parents at this stage is to teach the child to control his behaviour and emotions and to create a conducive environment for the child.

2.3.3.4 Physical dimension in Tsonga culture

Among the Tsongas, few men stay with their families. The role of the man with regard to children in the family is to be an identification figure, to exercise control over the children, to discipline and guide them and be a figure of authority. Unfortunately, most of the Tsonga families in the rural areas lack fathers, for the fathers stay with them for a shorter period because of migratory labour practices, divorce or desertion. Most of the men in Tsonga families marry more than one wife. If, for example, he marries three wives, two will be left in the rural area while the third one remains with him in the urban area.

In some families, the grandmother stays with the family and her influence is vast. Her influence over the child occurs in two ways: by indirectly influencing the attitudes and feelings of the parents towards the child, or by directly influencing the child. Outside the family, the peer group also influences the child. He learns to perceive the needs and responses of others and to respond to them accordingly. The responses may be positive or the child may show acquired negative attitudes, such as envy and rivalry. According to Mwamwenda (1995:34), the African boy (including the Tsonga) uses stick fights to be tested for leadership and courage while among girls the criterion is the ability to sing. The Tsonga women and girls are expected to learn domestic duties and become acquainted with agricultural work, while the boys at the age of seven to nine learn to tend the stock in the kraal and to herd them in the tribal lands.

The Tsongas give great attention to cooking. Of a woman who knows how to cook well, it is said: “A wa hisa”, she burns (but not meant negatively). Junod (1962 in Sebidi 1999:36) declares that a girl who knows how to “hisa” will have more chance of being married. As a rule, women cook only once a day, towards the end of the afternoon. This is a big meal which is eaten in the evening when everybody is expected to eat till satisfied, and what remains of it is generally finished the next day in the morning. This evening meal consists of cooked cereals (bupi) and the sauces (seshebo) seasoning them, consisting of “morogo”, tomatoes and salt boiled in water.

2.3.4 AFFECTIVE DIMENSION

2.3.4.1 General principles

From the time children are weaned until they go to school, roughly between the ages of two and seven, the main pressure upon them in all societies is to learn to take care of themselves, and not to expect the kind of attention they received as babies. Much of their time is spent playing with siblings in the house or close by, or in a child care centre. It is at this stage that children also learn to take care of physical routines independently.

Children in the Foundation Phase become less emotionally dependent and unstable. This is the time when they are ready for school, the time when they learn to deal with adults other than their parents. They feel safe at school even if their parents are not there and if a stranger scolds them, they are free to accept the situation. During the Foundation Phase, children grow into risk taking, they learn that at school there is no place for tantrums, and learn to be less dependent. They discover how they are accepted and how they perform compared with other children of their age.

Wyngaard (1994:58) declares that the child should be taught to understand the influence of emotions on his behaviour and his personal life, should learn how to control his emotions, and also be consciously aware of the dangers of uncontrolled emotional outburst. Wyngaard (1994:59) adds that it is especially the negative emotional manifestations such as anxiety, fear, antagonism, irritation, moodiness and tantrums, which have dangerous repercussions for the child and his society during childhood. If these manifestations are ignored or merely accommodated without constructive control, emotional and behavioural patterns will be established in the child which he will find difficult to overcome in his later life.

Certain dominant values of a culture influence the way in which a parent responds to his/her child. If love and warmth are important positive values for social interaction, these may govern a mother's behaviour towards her child, even though at the same time she may believe she is spoiling him.

Nhlapo (1997:19) declares that "… parents have to continuously strive to build emotional reserves in their children as it is of vital necessity for their education." Where children have a sense of security, they explore their world more confidently and consequently learn better. Parents are strong pillars for supporting the lives and education of their children. Parents have to make sure that children's needs are satisfied. According to Miller (1981 in

Cooper 1991:22), every child has a legitimate narcissistic need to be noticed, loved, understood, taken seriously and respected by his/her mother. Nhlapo (1997:19) adds that psychological needs are satisfied when children are aware that people have affection for them and accept them as members of the group. Nhlapo (1997:20) emphasises that the need to belong is a most powerful socialising force and compels the child to become agreeable to others and to assume an attitude of give-and-take in the group situation. Children also need proper housing conditions and food in order to feel loved and secure. During the Foundation Phase children socialise with other children at school and become able to form a support group. They have less fear that making mistakes others would laugh at them. They become free and are aware that other children do love them too.

2.3.4.2 Effect of problems/inadequacies

Emotional instability is the result of feelings of fear, tension and uncertainty and it can be characterised by sensitivity, inner tension, and the call for attention, help and sympathy, and might even lead to depression. According to Wyngaard (1994:58), emotional neglect can lead to:

- detrimental effects on bodily growth;
- detrimental effects on the digestive system;
- lowering of resistance to illness;
- increasing susceptibility to asthmatic illness and skin irritations; and
- speech difficulties, such as stuttering.

Unhealthy emotional reserves may cause children to become stubborn. If in the family such a situation arises, parents should take action and guide a child firmly to stop the habit. Parents who always take action against stubborn children, do so because they have love for them. If the child does not want to obey, the parent must firmly direct him to do the right thing. If the parent does not take action immediately, according to Cooper (1991:41), the child in this situation would probably grow up experiencing a deep sense of aloneness and a fear of intimacy. Cooper (1991:42) emphasises that in taking action against such behaviour, parents are shaping the development of the children's subjective and interpersonal world.

Children must be brought up in a stable and emotionally secure environment. One of the results of a child being deprived of affection in the early years is poor academic work at school (Cooper 1991:22). Such children may be very intelligent, but they lack interest and do not seem to care what others think of them. According to Etaugh and Rathus

(1995:19), those who have not been loved as children may be incapable of loving others as adults. They are said to be affectionless.

Failure of affective bonding interferes with basic tension control in very early infancy and results in either understimulation or overstimulation. Children who have experienced such damage, according to Cooper (1991:44), usually find productive or meaningful relationships very difficult and may display borderline personality structures. If children in the Foundation Phase are not given love and support by their parents, they may experience emotional problems. They might feel unsafe and start playing truant and throwing tantrums which in turn might affect their learning.

2.3.4.3 Principles in the African community/culture

Among the Africans, child-rearing is mainly the responsibility of the mother. The mother is always with the child from birth to maturity when the father is out at work. The child learns most from the mother.

According to Matlou (1993:35), the child learns the language of his/her mother and the moral authority of the mother remains considerable. During the Foundation Phase, that is 6-9 years, a child confides in his/her mother when in trouble, hence the saying in black culture that “The mother holds the knife at its sharp end.” This is why in the view of the African child, the mother is worth more than the father. She is the one who prepares her children for future life, the environment and the world they live in.

The mother, as explained earlier, is seen essentially as donor of life. The child becomes so close to his mother that an insult to her will be deeply felt. The relation of children to their mothers takes on a very different coloration than to their fathers. In the domain of modesty and language, one very often finds a very great reserve between the children and their father and a very close connection with their mother (Matlou 1993:33). Children in the Foundation Phase regard their mothers as their role models because of the intimate relationship they create for them. They enjoy the company of their mothers.

Children take particular pleasure in listening to their favourite stories presented by their mothers in the same terms, with the same gestures and modulations of voice. It is the responsibility of mothers to prepare children emotionally, physically and intellectually for entry into the school situation.

Going to school, which occurs when the child is about seven years old, marks a dramatic change in the lives of all African children. According to Mwamwenda (1995:21) this is the greatest change from the African child's previous life, for in many cases he/she has to learn in a strange language and his/her teacher is often a member of a different society.

2.3.4.4 Affective dimension in Tsonga culture

Among the Tsonga people, education is also mainly the responsibility of the mother. The Tsonga mother always makes the major child–rearing and disciplinary decisions when the father is absent from home.

With regard to children in the Foundation Phase, the affective upbringing is the same in Tsonga families as in African communities generally. In African culture, irrespective of being urbanised or not, impoverished or not, educated or not, the kind of warmth, love and support given by parents shows little difference.

2.3.5 NORMATIVE DIMENSION

2.3.5.1 General principles

The normative relationship between parents and children should be motivational rather than of a harsh disciplinary nature. Such a relationship in the family would enable parents to be kind and not harsh to children, to be strict but not authoritative, and children in turn would not like to shame their parents. If children are brought up in this manner, and if they want to do something, they would rather wait their turn. Principles of threat and physical punishment should not be regarded as a form of motivation because it can be cruel, harmful and damaging to growing children. In a situation where parents are mostly absent, the absences can constitute a form of neglect because siblings would not care whether the child does right or wrong. According to Chasdi (1994:121), the motivational value of personal interest, encouragement and praise should always prevail and be positive in the family.

Children in the Foundation Phase should be given praise when they have done the right thing and should be reprimanded when doing wrong. They are taught the rules, principles, morals and values that are important to the society in which they live. Chasdi (1994:135) emphasises that in those societies where parents believe that their own actions, rather than fate or heredity, have some effect upon the moral development of

their children, the value system of the culture will be an important part of what is consciously and intentionally transmitted to the child.

During the Foundation Phase, parents at home teach their children how to deal with conflicts and new situations and to take responsibility for their actions and their lives, for example, how to react when reprimanded, and how to communicate appropriately with people. Parents also teach their children about their religious faith. If religious faith is exercised and followed as required in the family, children will grow up obeying their faith. Rosa (1995:14) declares that personal religion means a faith and hope to which the child can cling during the uncertainties and vicissitudes of his development.

There must be a sound parent-child relationship in the family for children to learn that they are responsible for the fulfilment of their own and others' needs. Discipline is a means of teaching the child self-control and self-direction, which in turn sharpens the child's conscience regarding right and wrong. Chasdi (1994:136) emphasises that the nature and extent of normative upbringing provided by parents can affect the children's becoming, learning and self-concept.

2.3.5.2 Effect of problems/inadequacies

Parents should always strive for a healthy relationship in the family. If, for instance, parents quarrel in front of their children, the children may no longer have confidence in them and may experience a feeling of insecurity. If the children are not taught the good morals, they may not grow up in a norm-abiding way and if they are not disciplined when they have done wrong, they may become dishonest because of the negative upbringing.

The poor socio-economic status of some families in the African community tends to jeopardise the moral development of children. For example, material problems and retrenchments being experienced by their parents, could cause even less interaction within the family itself. Such conditions can literally cause misbehaviour in the growing children. It may cause children to become lazy about schoolwork and they may even become liars because of the situation which does not change. Sometimes children from such a family environment do not attend school regularly, at times they hide or return on the way because of the hopeless feelings they experience.

Some African parents work long hours and some do very hard physical labour which causes fatigue or a degree of despair. Such parents may not have the emotional energy to give support to their children, which in turn may cause the children to misbehave.

According to the researcher's observation, most children in the African community accept what comes from parents, as they do not question the instruction up to the age of ten.

Children in the Foundation Phase need to be taught to respect others and obey rules and regulations, because if the instruction is inadequate, poor performance may result. Inadequate normative guidance of the Foundation Phase children could strongly affect their learning in the sense that some values may be beyond the children's comprehension. Therefore, when dealing with religious aspects, they should not be too critical and judgemental.

2.3.5.3 Principles in the African community/culture

By nature man is a moral being (Mbiti 1975:116; Vilakazi 1998:27). Religious faith is important in the African community. According to Mbiti (1975:117), an African child not only continues the physical line of life, being in some societies thought to be a re-incarnation of the departed, but also becomes the intensely religious focus on keeping the parents in their state of personal immortality.

In the African community, the father's responsibility is to manage and oversee his family and to act as representative in the broader society, even though he may not be working from home. Lindgren (1969, in Nesengani 1990:15) declares that the African father is the most available model of what is expected from the child in the outside world. The father is the economic provider while the mother becomes the guide in the family. According to Rosa (1995:16), the father-absent child in the African family will be unable to bridge the gap between himself and society and he may feel alienated from the society of which he is a part. Rosa (1995:17) emphasises that paternal deprivation in the African culture can lead to conflicts and rigidities in the individual's sex role adjustment, which in turn is often related to deficits in emotional, cognitive and interpersonal functioning.

Just as God made the first man, a God's man in African culture, therefore, it is believed that man himself makes the individual who becomes the social man. For Africans, the individual is immersed in a religious participation which starts before birth and continues after his death. For him and for the larger community of which he is part, to live is to be caught up in a religious drama. It is, therefore, necessary in the African culture that, as soon as children start school, that is, during the Foundation Phase, they are taught to obey religious faith, and they learn that man lives in a religious universe. According to Mbiti (1975:15), both the world and practically all man's activities in it are seen as experienced through a religious understanding and meaning. Mbiti (1975:227)

emphasises that religious Africans do not know how to exist without religion. Revelation and healing play important roles in the lives of religious Africans. Central to the understanding of traditional beliefs is the understanding of traditional religion (Gumede 1990:208), which embodies the essence of all religions in its reference to God.

According to Gumede (1990:210) there are rules and regulations that are guidelines for living that permeate African culture. Vilakazi (1998:28) emphasises that these rules and regulations are unwritten laws handed down from father to son, from the dim past of African history by word of mouth. Taboos permeate every aspect of the African life from birth to death. Health and its significance is explained along life events and ill–luck that would befall the careless individual as, for example, in leaving one's hair to be blown about by the wind, eating while standing, or eating in the dark. According to Sebidi (1999:15), through taboos, African parents teach their children the African code of living.

Africans believe that there is a symbiotic relationship between the individual and his/her environment (Vilakazi 1998:32) and if an individual should travel to another region without being strengthened beforehand, he/she would become ill as he/she is not adapted to the new atmospheric and environmental conditions. If one travels to a strange place, one may cross a dangerous track or pathway which may result in illness if a person has not been strengthened or immunized.

2.3.5.4 Normative dimension in Tsonga culture

In some Tsonga families there is still an ancestral belief that the ancestors are like 'angels' who are allocated different duties by the Creator. The angels keep intimate relationship with their families and their primary concern is with the welfare of their descendants. According to Vilakazi (1998:16), these Tsonga families believe that the ancestors are omnipresent, although there is also the idea that they live in their own society, under the earth or in the sky. The belief held by these Tsonga families is that the ancestral family structure is formed in a hierarchy, which embodies a family lineage with the elders and seniors occupying the authoritative position.

It is the duty of parents to develop in their children a character that reflects their faith and also includes good manners, etiquette, politeness, hospitality, neatness and generosity. In the Tsonga families, just as in any African family, the time for teaching the children is non-structured. The Tsonga children are taught that as King, God is also Lord and Master. God is given these titles in many Tsonga families who are religiously inclined,

indicating that all respect and honour are due to Him and man's attitude to Him is one of humbleness and submissiveness.

Beatie (1960, in Vilakazi 1998:31) declares that in African families (also in Tsonga), men have traditionally assumed positions of power on the basis of being the traditional family heads, that they are bigger and stronger, and that the rights associated with their gender define a contract of enforced authority and decision-making in a relationship. According to Junod (1962, in Sebidi 1999:19), Tsonga women and children would be heard in the fields working with "marvellous rapidity." They would be heard singing and urging one another to still greater exertion and all hurrying to finish the job.

Tsonga fathers, in the past especially, would leave the home in the rural area to seek work on the mines. Because their wives and children were not permitted to join them in the city, many men formed liaisons with single women and set up their families in the cities. Many of these liaisons would not lead to marriage, and a great number of single parent and incomplete families became headed by women. The incomplete family consists of parents with their unmarried daughters who have children of their own, who never see their fathers. According to Rosa (1995:6), the single parent is then compelled to exercise discipline but may not be able to do so effectively. There are indications that ineffective discipline may influence academic motivation of children in the Foundation Phase negatively (Mwamwenda 1995:311). There is evidence of changes taking place in Tsonga families. Many people have moved to urban areas where they have established other social structures. Alliances through marriages of their own choice have been established and a different family structure has emerged. Just as society evolves, decision-making processes within the family unit also change. According to Dana and Williams (1989, in Vilakazi 1998:32) where decisional powers previously rested almost exclusively with a father or other adult male figure, lately wives, sons, daughters and even grandchildren are likely to take an active role in family decisions, as well as in community organisations."

2.3.6 COGNITIVE DIMENSION

2.3.6.1 General principles

Parents knowingly or unknowingly are constantly helping children to acquire an educational foundation. Parents do this by unfolding the reality of the living world for the child. The more the child is encouraged to follow through on his curiosity, the more likely it is that he will become an imaginative reader and learner. According to Meadows

(1996:22), the learning child learns not only how to do the particular task, but also how to observe, analyse, imitate, monitor and review other people and one's own activities. The child in the Foundation Phase should also learn when it is time to do homework, and when it is time to play.

Meadows (1996:23) declares that cognitive development is to be understood in terms of the child being implicitly and explicitly trained to behave in ways which the particular culture has developed as cognitively useful. By so behaving, and by practising and reflecting on what is being done, the child internalises the cognitive skills of the culture and can develop them and pass them on to the next generation. Children are helped by the adults in the appropriation of the knowledge and ways of thinking that preceding generations have constructed. Meadows (1996:23) emphasises that the skills required by the children include observation, imitation, generalisation and decontextualisation, all of which develop under the fostering support of social interaction.

According to Bruner (1990:31), some of the skills are called "cultural amplifiers", cognitive tools which make certain thinking jobs easier. Through the help of parents, these cognitive tools may structure children's language, their play, their schooling and their social interaction. Parents should, therefore, take an active part in their children's education.

Meadows (1996:46) draws attention to a strong and widespread belief that parental reading to children at home makes a major contribution to their later reading development. It is clear that the interaction which surrounds reading storybooks could contain many opportunities for growing children (in the Foundation Phase) to acquire knowledge about reading and books, to pick up positive attitudes towards reading, and even to practise some of the skills of literacy.

It is furthermore the role of the parents to encourage and support their children in doing their homework, and have discussions together. The positive and favourable environment will make children develop a positive attitude towards learning.

According to Slavin (1991:26), Piaget's theory of cognitive development comprises the schemata, assimilation, accommodation and equilibrium which play a major role in developing children. It is the duty of parents to help children to adapt to any situation in which they find themselves.

Owens (2001:382) emphasises that it is very important to understand children's cognitive level during the Foundation Phase school years. Without this understanding, children may be given information and assignments beyond their level which may create anxiety.

2.3.6.2 Effect of problems/inadequacies

If parents are deficient in their role of guiding their children's cognitive development, it may affect the progress of their children at school. On the other hand, unnecessary punishment, over-reacting and too much worrying about the future of their children, fearing that, if they get anything wrong in their books they might fail at the end of the year, continuous reminders that, if their children do not revise the work and do some corrections, they might have no future, could cause a virtually unbearable burden during the Foundation Phase. Some parents might even do the work for their children because of the fear that their children would fail. However, the parents' cognitive role should rather be to give cognitive support to their children by showing them how to solve problems and how to work with others in a group.

According to Kurtz, Gaudin, Wodarski and Howing (1993:588), cognitive development depends heavily on the ongoing quality of the parent-child interaction. The unavailable, neglectful parent presents a direct threat to the intellectual development of the child. Low educational aspirations, lack of encouragement to learn, a paucity of language stimulation, non-participation in school activities, and unresponsiveness to children's achievements affect success in school and further cognitive development. Wentzel and Erdley (1993:321) stress the importance of the parent-child relationship in influencing cognitive development, stating that parents' style of discipline affects children's social and emotional development, which again contributes to their academic, intellectual and cognitive development.

Meadows (1996:46) adds that children with less experience of being read to at home tend to exhibit somewhat poorer knowledge of literacy as they begin school and to make slower progress in learning to read. Scarborough and Dobrich (1994:245-347) reviewed a large body of research and found that there is a moderate and fairly consistent association between reading to Foundation Phase school children and the development of skills of literacy and of language.

Social structures play an important role in children's interpersonal relationships. Children who lack such necessary social structures may become predisposed to becoming social isolates. Such children may not have the necessary social cognitive structures that would

enable them to interact successfully with their peers and others. Children who lack the necessary social skills to enable them to accommodate and assimilate elements in a new social environment may experience what Piaget calls a social disequilibrium, resulting in social isolation. Strommen (1977, in Budhal 1998:22) declares that early peer relationships are a source of the development of social accommodation and social cognition, which in turn, are the basis for the changing quality of children's relationships. Children's inability to achieve decentration can restrict their social development. In a social situation, children who do not have the capacity to realise that other people's views can be different from theirs may find themselves in a conflict situation. It is the role of the parents to help children adapt to any situation.

2.3.6.3 Principles in the African community/culture

According to Berger (1990:103), parents are important teachers of their own children. Their involvement in the education of their children enhances the children's performance in their schoolwork. Jensen (1995) adds that parental involvement improves children's attitude towards education, reduces school failure and dropout rates and improves school attendance among children.

During the Foundation Phase, children in the African community interact less with their peers, but they spend more time playing with older children and sharing ideas with them. African children engage willingly and enthusiastically in discussing topics with older children. In this way, they learn to use different cognitive skills and learn more from older children. African children are taught not to ask adults too many questions. When watching TV or listening to the radio, the focus should be on what they see or hear and questions should follow later. Most of the African parents do not allow questions – often because some of them may be challenging.

The researcher has observed that a few African parents are not willing to contribute actively to their children's education. For example, they are unable to carry out schoolwork at home with their children, and very few spend a little time reading books and interpreting these to their children. Very few African parents can manage to buy magazines which contain educational activities. Finally, the minority of African parents ask their children about pictures in the books and things they have seen. Reading stories to their children and asking them to also read after them promotes cognitive development, especially, the development of language. Colletta (1977, in Kgasoe 1995:3) declares that if African parents could co-operate in supporting their children's education, the self-

concept of both children and parents would improve and children would become better achievers.

African children participate in learning mainly because of the great amount of interaction between them and older children. Owens (2001:383) emphasises that learner participation, no matter what the age or colour of the learner, is very important in all education.

2.3.6.4 Cognitive dimension in Tsonga culture

Cognitive skills development is important in the lives of all growing children. The Tsonga children receive their introduction to language as an instrument of communication and learning at the mother's knee. According to Kgasoe (1995:11), they learn the names of food, utensils and objects in the immediate home environment. During the Foundation Phase, the Tsonga children are introduced to the world beyond the homestead, so as to become active participants in the world in which they find themselves. In some Tsonga families some of the oral tradition could not be found any longer.

According to Mwamwenda (1995:109), it is a common practice among many Tsonga people that children use their right hands for greeting people, eating and passing objects to other people. According to the researcher's observation, such experience, it can be assumed, facilitates children's knowledge of the distinction between the right and left hand.

The following chapter will discuss the research design for data collection using qualitative and quantitative methods.

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CHAPTER 3
DATA COLLECTION ON THE SUPPORT FOR LEARNING PROVIDED IN THE HOME, FOR THE GRADE TWO TSONGA CLASS

3.1 THE AIM OF THE DATA COLLECTION

The primary concern of this research was to examine the extent, level, form and content of the support for learning of the parents of the Grade Two Tsonga class from a Township school in the learning of their children and to examine the relationship between the parents' support for learning with the learning behaviours of the learners at school.

The support for learning in schoolwork is important, especially in the sense that children get motivated in learning so that their learning performance as well as learning behaviours improve. Seefeldt, Denton, Galper and Younoszai (1998, in McCarthey 2000:148) agree that parental involvement in their children's education can positively affect educational outcome.

The research was done in one particular Tsonga school in the Foundation Phase school and involved one class of Grade Two learners, and their parents.

3.2 THE RESEARCH DESIGN FOR DATA COLLECTION

3.2.1 INTRODUCTION

According to Selltiz (1976, in Mouton & Marais 1994:32), a research design is the arrangement of conditions for the collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. Research design can also be defined as a phase of study which includes sampling plans and data collection techniques (Sander & Pinley 1983, in Govender 1995:85), and the analysis of specific data or information with the view to solving a particular problem (Vorster & De Meillon 1991:209).

The research was both qualitative and quantitative. It was partly qualitative because it was non-experimental and data were collected verbally and through observation. The research was also quantitative because some data were collected through structured observation and a questionnaire which was coupled with semi-structured interviews.

3.2.2 QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH

3.2.2.1 Qualitative research

Babbie (1992:6) describes qualitative analysis as the "non-numerical examination and interpretation of observations, for the purpose of discovering underlying meanings and patterns of relationships." The qualitative approach to design can be defined as a representation of facts in a narration with words (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:14). According to McMillan & Schumacher (1993:37), Patton (1990:13) and Tuckman (1988:383-389), qualitative designs are non-experimental and the data consist of words, that is, verbal description, rather than numbers.

According to Ary, Jacobs and Razavieh (1990:445), qualitative research designs are less structured by nature. This means that specific procedures which are followed are often identified during the research rather than specified ahead of time. Ary *et al.,* (1990:445) add that qualitative inquirers seek to interpret human actions, institutions, events and customs and in so doing, construct a "reading" of what is being studied in sufficient depth and detail so that one who has not experienced it, can understand it.

The purpose of qualitative research is not to discover how many and what kinds of people share certain characteristics. It is to gain access to the cultural categories and assumptions according to which one culture construes the world. Ary *et al.,* (1990:446) echo that how many and what kinds of people hold these categories and assumptions is not, in fact, the compelling issue. Qualitative research does not survey the terrain, it mines it. It is, in other words, much more intensive than extensive in its objectives.

In amplifying the process of qualitative research, Mouton and Marais (1994:160) argue that, for the qualitative researcher, **concepts** and **constructs** are meaningful words that can be analysed in their own right to gain a greater depth of understanding of a given concept. It is a frequent occurrence that qualitative researchers will conduct an etymological analysis of a concept as part of their description of a phenomenon. Such researchers will then interpret the phenomenon on the basis of the wealth of meaning of the concept. Qualitative researchers are more inclined to allow themselves to be led by meaningful sketches or by intuition.

The general characteristics of qualitative research include the fact that the approach is context bound, with the researcher immersed in the situation. The data collected rely more heavily on the researcher in person than on controlled clinical instruments. Opinions, feelings and perceptions are what the researcher wants to understand rather

than that which is quantifiable. "An articulate rationale for the use of qualitative methods is given so that sceptics will accept this approach. Data collection and analysis procedures are public, not magical" (Marshall & Rossman 1995:147).

According to Bogden and Biklen (1992:121), the general characteristics of qualitative research are that:

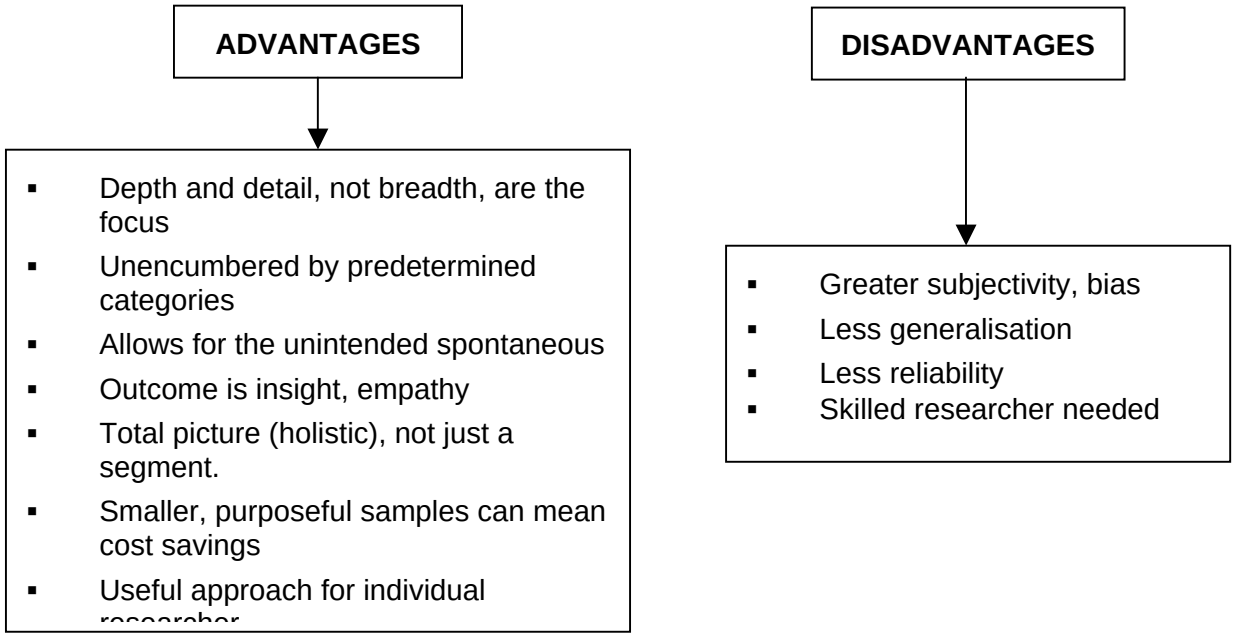
- The natural setting is the direct source of data and the researcher is the key instrument.
- Data are collected in the form of words, pictures and number.
- The process as well as the product is important.
- The data analysis is inductive, and the theory is constructed from the data.
- The perspective of the subject of a study is very important to the researcher.

Lippert (1994:205) adds that:

- Research questions are often not in the form of hypotheses but research goals.
- Implementation practices are evaluated.

Lippert (1994:205) outlines the advantages and disadvantages of the qualitative approach in figure 3.1:

FIGURE 3.1 ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF QUALITATIVE RESEARCH



3.2.2.2 Quantitative research

According to Makhanya (1997:109) and Goodwin and Goodwin (1996:71), quantitative study is a numerical method of describing observations or characteristics.
McMillan (1996:9) states that quantitative research generally derives from a logical-positivist philosophical position which holds that a single objective reality exists that can be discerned through scientific research. Such research strives to be value-free and deductive, to determine relationships (often causal) between variables, and to report outcomes in numerical, statistical form. It assumes that "there are facts with objective reality that can be expressed numerically. Consequently, there is a heavy reliance on numbers, measurement, experiments, numerical relationships and descriptions."

According to McCracken (1988:17), quantitative projects require investigators to construct a "sample" of the necessary size and type to generalize to the larger population. Quantitative researchers make use of numbers and statistical analysis to describe phenomena. Filstead (1979, in Makhanya 1997:109) and Mouton and Marais (1994:160) emphasise that quantitative researchers tend to translate their observations into numbers. Numerical values are assigned to the observations via counting and measuring.

Quantitative research attempts to generate knowledge from an objective detached perspective. It is predetermined and specific. Quantitative researchers can be both experimental and non-experimental, for example:

Experimental	Non-experimental
(a) True experimental	Descriptive (survey & developmental)
(b) Quasi-experimental	Correlational
(c) Single subject	Causal, comparative

The purpose of descriptive research is to generate knowledge that describes something. Goodwin and Goodwin (1996:34) outline the steps involved in this type of research as follows:

- Identify the target population
- Select the type of instrumentation needed
- Choose or construct the needed measures
- Collect data
- Analyse the data
- Report the results.

The purpose of correlational research is to determine the relationship between two or more variables. As in survey research, the investigator manipulates no variables. Variables are identified and measured as they exist.

According to Goodwin and Goodwin (1996:39), there are matters which require particular attention in this method:

- The variables to be related must be selected carefully as worthy of exploration and items on which the sample probably will vary.
- The sample of subjects must be carefully selected for the study, as it will frame the generalisability of the results observed.
- The researcher must strive to select or develop measures with good psychometric credibility in terms of validity, reliability and other crucial properties.

Correlational research has the following advantages:

- Since variables are not manipulated, they can examine a phenomenon, as it is, can address topics that would be impractical or even impossible using experimental methods, and can study directly non-manipulable variables.
- The relationship between a number of variables can be examined at one time.
- The correlational method allows for the preliminary identification of a relationship that may be cause and effect (Goodwin & Goodwin 1996:41).

Goodwin and Goodwin (1996:41) notice the following disadvantages of this method related to the advantages:

- The absence of variable manipulation often leaves the researchers with findings that are interesting but very difficult to explain and interpret.
- As the number of variables in correlational research increases, so does the cost of the research, particularly in the search for suitable measures and often in the amount of time required of subjects to respond.
- The temptation to view statistically significant correlational relationships as cause-and-effect linkages is often too strong to resist with researchers ignoring good practice in their interpretation of correlational research results.

The purpose of causal-comparative research is to identify possible cause-and-effect relationships in cases where experimentation is not possible. In this method, the subjects are not assigned to conditions by the researcher since they have already been “grouped by nature circumstances” into categories such as male-female, good-poor readers, high-low socio-economic status, etc.

Causal-comparative research has the following advantages:

- A causal-comparative method permits an examination of potential causes for outcomes that emerge from the environment as worthy of explanation after the fact.
- Variables that cannot be manipulated, due to ethical or feasibility reasons or both, can still be investigated as possible causes in a formal research undertaking.
- No manipulation of variables is involved and the outcome variable of interest typically is already available (Goodwin & Goodwin 1996:44).

The disadvantages of this method are as follows:

- The researcher lacks proactivity in identifying a causal relationship in that no manipulation or interventions occur.
- Some researchers believe that this type of research only flirts with cause-and-effect linkages, and encourage restraint by the researcher in reporting findings (Goodwin & Goodwin 1996:44).

In this study, the researcher used a small sample and collected data in a written form through structured observations and a very slight degree of intervention. The next section introduces the research instruments which were used to collect the data.

3.2.3 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

In order to gather data to construct a meaningful representation of the phenomena observed in the Grade Two class and at the homes of the Grade Two learners, the following instruments were developed:

- A questionnaire, for gathering information on how supportive African parents could be in the education of their young children in the home and at school.
- A semi-structured interview, addressing the dynamics of the support given by their parents to learners in a Grade Two Tsonga class. The questionnaire was used as a frame of reference for the semi-structured interview.
- An observation schedule on how the Grade Two learners behaved in respect of learning in class.
- Correspondence with the parents. This was in the form of five letters, containing rather bland information on classroom affairs and ending in a request. The purpose of the correspondence was to see which parents responded to the requests and whether the response pattern correlated with the learning behaviours of their children in class.

How the instruments were used will be explained in the discussion of the research methods.

3.2.4 RESEARCH METHODS

3.2.4.1 Introduction

According to Mouton and Marais (1994:161), the data collection process can be viewed as the overall scheme of scientific activities in which scientists engage in order to produce knowledge; it is the paradigm of scientific inquiry.

Before beginning the data collection, the parents of the Grade Two learners of the research school were invited to attend a meeting at the school. The meeting was held in one of the classrooms in the presence of the principal and the class teacher. Of the 39 families invited, only 29 families responded to the invitation. The principal introduced the researcher and the aim of the research was explained. The parents who were present were all willing to take part in the project. The parents who did not attend the meeting were sent letters informing them of the researcher's visit to their homes and the purpose of the research was highlighted.

Having obtained the parents' collaboration, the researcher used a number of complementary methods to obtain sufficient data to answer the research question. The research was four-pronged: questionnaire supplemented by semi-structured interviews, ethnographic description, an observation schedule, and an analysis of parent response patterns to correspondence from the school.

3.2.4.2 Questionnaire, extended into unstructured interview

(a) Definition, nature and characteristics of a questionnaire

According to Legotlo (1994:162); Baker (1988:16); and Guy, Edgley, Arafat and Allen (1987:229), a questionnaire is a data collection instrument containing a selected group of questions chosen because of their relevance and which are carefully worded for clarity. Plug, Meyer and Gouws (1989:39) define a questionnaire as a series of questions that cover a single subject or a group of related subjects. According to Tuckman (1994:217), questionnaires can be used to measure interests, attitudes, opinions and personality traits, as well as to collect biographic information. Legotlo (1994:162) emphasizes that questions are generally viewed as a relatively economical, standardized way of gathering information for descriptive and explanatory studies. Fox (1967, in Dube 1997:62) states

that a questionnaire involves an impersonal approach where the researcher puts his questions on paper and submits them to the respondents, asking them in turn to write their answers on paper. Walker (1985:91) considers it a formalized interview or interview by proxy.

(b) The construction of a questionnaire

A questionnaire is designed to meet particular research objectives. It is, therefore, important that every question be formulated with due care. The questionnaire must not only be judged for general appropriateness, but every question must be appraised to determine whether the answer to it will conduce to arrival at the answer to the problem forming the subject of the research concerned. According to Kruger (1992:181) and Olivier (1989:101), the following requirements must be met when constructing a questionnaire:

- The questionnaire must be concise. No question should be included unless it supports achievement of the researcher's purpose. Questions must not contain any extras.
- Every item must be clear and unambiguous.
- Question terminology must be aligned with the respondents' vocabulary – technical jargon should be avoided.
- Instruments must be as clear as possible.
- Short items are preferable, because they are easier to understand.
- Questions must be objective. Leading questions must be avoided.
- Questions must proceed inductively, that is, they must guide the respondents' thoughts from the general to the particular.
- Questions may be grouped into categories. This will guide the respondent and concentrate his mind on specific issues.
- Provision must be made for appropriate code numbers to facilitate data processing.

(c) Types of questionnaires

There are two types of questionnaires, namely the closed or structured questionnaire and the open or unstructured questionnaire (Gay 1990:421-422; Ary *et al.,* 1990:195-196). Under the closed questionnaire the researcher may give five or ten options per question for the respondent to choose from. The open questionnaire, on the other hand, possesses greater flexibility. It allows the respondent more leeway, for instance in stating his position.

(d) Advantages of a questionnaire

In using a questionnaire the influence of the interviewer can be obviated to a great extent. The questionnaire also allows for greater uniformity and ensures that answers are more comparable. There are also other advantages which are, however, not directly relevant to this study. According to Gay (1990:421-422) and Ary *et al.,* (1990:195-196), a questionnaire has an advantage in that it allows for wide coverage at a minimum expense of time and money. Through it the researcher can collect data which cannot be collected any other way. He can actually reach people and places that are difficult to contact. When people cannot be interviewed personally, for instance, the questionnaire becomes very handy. The results that are obtained by means of a questionnaire have greater reliability, because the representative sample can be sufficiently large.

In this study the structured questionnaire was used to gather information from a small sample of African parents on how they are involved in the education of their children. The questionnaire enabled the researcher to obtain information about an area of involvement concerning which many of the respondents might have felt too unsure to venture information on account of their limited levels of literacy and lack of confidence regarding education generally. This does not refer to the parents' ability to read the questionnaire, but to have an understanding of what is required of them.

(e) Disadvantages of a questionnaire

The advantages of a questionnaire outlined above should not overshadow the fact that it has disadvantages as well. The questionnaire's simplicity may be very appealing to the researcher but it may also easily be misused. There may be a high percentage of questionnaires that are not returned. Lack of understanding or misinterpretation of some questions by respondents may lead to bias in the results, which is sometimes difficult to detect. The respondents' ability or willingness to provide information may further affect the validity of the results. If the respondents have little or no interest in a particular problem, they may answer the questions indiscriminately (Gay 1990:421-4222; Ary *et al.,* 1990:195-196).

(f) Construction of the Parental Involvement in Learners' Education Questionnaire (PILEQ)

The Parental Involvement in Learners' Education Questionnaire (PILEQ) (refer to Appendix A) was designed to involve 39 parents of the Grade Two learners in one class in the Foundation Phase in a Tsonga school.

In the construction of the PILEQ, the researcher had to give special care to the phrasing of questions because many of the respondents were illiterate. The parents would in any case not be required to read the questionnaire, but they could listen carefully and provide information since the questionnaire was read to them. The PILEQ was first constructed in English, then translated into Tsonga by the educator (teacher) and retranslated into English to control for accuracy of the translation. The PILEQ is a structured questionnaire containing two sections (refer to Appendix A).

Section A (questions 1-12) consists of biographical data concerning matters such as names, ages, number of children in the family, rank of child and marital status of the parents, and, in questions 13-27, the qualifications and work life of the parents.

Section B addresses the support for learning by parents in the learner's education at school (B1, questions 28-35) and in the home (B2, questions 36-63).

The researcher administered the questionnaire at the respondents' homes on different dates as per appointment. It was explained to parents that the questionnaire was not a test, and as such, there were no right or wrong answers. The instructions to be followed when responding to the items were explained to parents. The researcher noted responses. The questionnaire took approximately 60 minutes to complete because it was coupled with a semi-structured interview.

(g) Extension of questionnaire by means of semi-structured interview

(i) Aim and definition of interviews

The aim of an interview is to secure what is within the mind of the interviewee, uncoloured and unaffected by the interviewer.

According to Behr (1973, in Pather 1995:335), and Borg and Gall (1989:446), the interview as a research method in descriptive research is unique in that it involves the collection of data through direct verbal interaction with individuals.

(ii) Types of interviews

There are three types of interviews: first, the structured interview which lends itself to systematic treatment; second, the unstructured interview whereby the questions emerge from the immediate context and are asked in the natural course of events, with no pre-determination of questions or phrasing; third, the semi-structured interview in which the aspects to be interviewed are selected in advance, but the researcher decides the

sequence and wording of the questions during the interview (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:426).

(iii) Requirements of a semi-structured interview

Interviews, specifically, can help to expand the interpretation of information obtainable from questionnaires by probing for deeper underlying information. The question(s) for the interview should be as carefully planned and as accurately worded as the items in a questionnaire. Interviews should be considered as professional situations that demand equally, professional planning and conduct on the part of the interviewer.

Woods (1994:314) and Leedy (1989:149) outline the following practical steps as necessary for interviews:

- Set up the interview well in advance.
- Short and simple questions are preferable.
- The agenda of questions to be asked should be sent to the interviewees.
- Leading questions should be avoided as this might spoil the outcome and skill in discovering and extracting what is in the interviewee's mind.
- The more natural the interviewer is, the more chances of success there will be in the interview.
- The interview date should be confirmed with the interviewees.
- Give a reminder a few days before the interview date.
- Establish rapport and put interviewees at their ease.
- Responses should be noted, preferably verbatim.
- Meaning must be clarified and data analysed.

In addition, technical requirements of an interview include a video machine, for taping and playing cassettes; a TV for eye contact; and an audio player for playing cassettes and CD's (compact discs). Since these appliances were not used, the researcher could not record everything. Therefore, limited data could be expected because no technology was used.

(iv) Advantages of interviews

According to Pather (1995:335), the main advantage of an interview is its adaptability, whereby the interviewer can make maximum use of the responses of the interviewee and even change the interview situation. The method allows for immediate feedback and permits the researcher to follow-up leads to obtain greater clarity and additional data. Through this method, the researcher is able to elicit descriptions of experiences, behaviours, actions and activities that have taken place in the absence of the researcher.

(v) Disadvantages of interviews

The interview method is prone to subjectivity and possible bias. Pather (1995:335) notes that interviews are expensive and demand much time, that some interviewees can resent the questions and that the wrong information could deliberately be given. Moreover interviewing calls for thorough preparation and considerable practice.

(vi) The semi-structured interview on parental involvement in learners' education

This research involved parents of the Grade Two learners of the research school and their children at their homes. After having filled in the questionnaire with each parent, the researcher went more deeply into issues which appeared unclear. The purpose was to obtain more descriptive information, to provide qualitative understanding of quantitative data. A record of the interviews was kept in the form of written notes.

The interview was concluded and led into participant observation by the researcher of a facilitated learning event between the parent and his/her child, as then set up by the researcher. The Grade Two learner in the family was given a learning task related to work done at school on that day in numeracy or language. The purpose was to get parents involved, for example, in reading together with their children, doing numeracy tasks together and holding discussions on what should be done for the improvement of their children's education.

3.2.4.3 Ethnographic observation

(a) Definition of ethnographic observation

According to Spradley (1982, in Andereck 1992:48), ethnography is the research describing a culture. This means that to understand the behaviour, values and meanings of any given individual or group, the cultural context must be taken into account. According to Walford and Massey (1998:5), a culture is made up of certain values, practices, relationships and identifications. Rather than studying people, ethnography means learning from people. Wolcott (1988, in Henning 1993a:111) declares that ethnography refers both to the research process and the customary product of that effort – the written ethnographic account. Walford and Massey (1998:5) emphasize that ethnography is a strategy especially well suited to the study of children's learning. Observation is a method used to gather a genuine report. According to Singh (1996:443), in this type of report the investigator is observing individuals and inferring attitudes from their behaviour.

Ethnographic observation takes place during the process of writing. According to Henning (1993b:114), it is in the write-up, rather than in the fieldwork, that the materials become ethnographic. Wolcott (1988 in Henning 1993b:114) emphasizes that ethnographic observations are, therefore, dependent on clear verbal formulation of data and of inference, both of which will enhance validity.

(b) Types of ethnographic observation

There are different types of observations. For example, we have what is called **just observing**, which is not scientific and not suitable for empirical and/or qualitative research. In this type of observation the observer tends to draw conclusions from his/her observations by merely looking at the events without considering any other forms of information and the issue is one of superficial assumption.

With regard to ethnographic observation, we have participant observation as well as non-participant observation, both of which can be systematic or not. Research is systematic when the researcher looks at the situation by means of questions, such as what, who, how and why. The results are analysed in terms of frequencies or patterns.

Researchers such as Saslow (1992:10) as well Shaughnessy and Zechmeister (1992:38), recommend systematic observation as an important tool of research when it serves a formulated research purpose; when it is planned deliberately; when it is recorded systematically and when it is subjected to checks and controls on validity and reliability.

(c) Requirements of ethnographic observation

According to Saslow (1992:10), systematic observation becomes empirical and/or qualitative research if the observers are able to answer questions such as the following before making their observations:

- What are they looking for?
- Whom are they going to observe?
- When and where are the observations to be made?
- How are the observations to be made?
- In what form are the observations to be recorded?

The role of the ethnographer is to set aside personal preconceptions and stereotypes about what is going on and then to explore the setting and the action as it is seen and experienced by the participants. According to Wolcott (1988 in Henning 1993a:113), the role of the ethnographer as an inference generating observer is emphasized as follows: “The culture of any society is made up of the concepts, beliefs and principles of action and

organization that the ethnographer has found could be attributed successfully to the members of that society in the context of his dealings with them."

Hammersley (1990:1) outlines the following features of ethnographic observation:

- The behaviour of people is studied in the context of everyday living, rather than under experimental conditions.
- Observation and informal conversations are generally used to gather data.
- Data are collected in as raw a form as feasible.
- Ethnography usually focuses on a single setting or group.
- Data analysis involves interpretation of human actions, with qualification and statistical analysis playing a subordinate role.

(d) Advantages of ethnographic observation

- It enables the ethnographer to formulate better questions with regard to his research and to pursue the answers with greater sensitivity.
- It is a pure and honest approach with an innovating influence on theory.
- It is helpful in an understanding why things take place as they do.
- It builds an abiding awareness that each child and/or learner has significant cultural knowledge that influences his learning (Hult 1996:70).

(e) Disadvantages of ethnographic observation

Hult (1996:70) and Singh (1996:443) notice the following disadvantages of ethnographic observation:

- Lack of control over the environment.
- Lack of quantifiable data.
- Small sample size.
- Biased attention.
- Cumbersome and time-consuming procedures.
- Heavy reliance on the assumed objectivity of the researcher.
- Attention on circumstances corresponding to the expected pattern only.

(f) The ethnographic observation of this research

The ethnographic observation of this research was executed in two sections; namely, with parents during the semi-structured interview and with learners in the classroom.

- **Ethnographic observation with parents**

According to Saslow (1992:13), observations are used to summarize the characteristics of different groups of people or to estimate their feelings and attitudes about issues. This

research applied overt observation with the researcher as observer-as-participant during the execution of a learning task (based on the class-work of the morning at school) by the learner under the guidance of the parents. As the observer was also the researcher and the designer of the learning task, she clarified what was needed in the learners' tasks.

The observation took place during the months of May and June of the practical research year, after the filling in of the questionnaire at the learners' homes. The researcher explained and read the task to the parents, with which they were then required to help their child. The activity was recorded in detail by the researcher. In the beginning of each task, the researcher was non-participating. Later, she participated and noted specifics in a systematic participation. There was no interpreter.

- **Ethnographic observation in the classroom**

Through the method of participant observation, the researcher is known to the participants and participates in some of the activities being researched. According to Goodenough (1984, in Lombard 1994:129), during the participant observation the researcher has to be willing to display whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to the members of the particular group and to do it in any role that they accept for any of themselves.

In this study the researcher participated in the classroom activities. The persons involved in the research process were obviously fully aware of the researcher and she interacted with the participants as indicated by the situation of the moment.

The ethnographic observation with learners took place during the months of May and June and continued in September to December of the practical research year. The researcher was always sitting in the back of the classroom so as to avoid unduly attracting the attention of the learners. The classroom consisted of three rows of three tables each. At each of the front tables there were five learners and at the middle and back tables, four learners each. All in all there were 39 learners.

At first the learners and their educator were a bit nervous about the researcher's presence even though they were aware why she was present. To avoid being regarded a stranger, the researcher took part in some of the lessons.

The main purpose was to observe how the learners behaved in class; for example who raised their hands when questions were asked; after how long did the learners respond to questions; which learners always responded to questions and what was their attitude

towards learning. Finally, the observations would be related to the data on the parents in an effort to understand the influence of the parents' actions on the learning of their children. The researcher observed the learners as a group in a classroom and kept detailed field-notes.

Ethnographic observation was not the only form of observation which was executed in the classroom. The data were extended by means of systematic observation using a behaviour schedule.

3.2.4.4 The Learners' Behaviour Schedule

(a) Definition of a schedule

Schedules are structured forms, which systematically record particular points, for example, behaviours that are noted every few minutes.

According to Friederichs and Ludtke (1975, in Wium 1994:32), the observation schedule is the plan that says "what" and "how" to observe. Such a schedule defines the number and kinds of observation units, the especially relevant dimensions of these units, and illustrates the language to be used in observing. It is important to note that although the schedule is in some instances referred to as a screening instrument, it is regarded as more concise than a screening and consists of various characteristics of an assessment. The different issues covered in the schedule designed for the Grade Two learners will be presented in (f) below.

(b) Types of schedules

Two extreme types can be observed, namely yes/no with regard to occurrence, frequency and intensity, and scales with any number of points. Many forms of behaviour cannot be described in terms of yes/no, but the more scale points there are, the more information is gathered.

In this study a five-point scale (1-5) is used in a descriptive manner. The following values were given to each numerical and these will be discussed in (f) below:

5 > Very good performance	(best)
4 > Good performance	(good)
3 > Above average	(fair)
2 > Below average	(poor)
1 > Poor performance	(poorest)

(c) Requirements of a schedule

The schedule must be very clearly defined. It must be consistent and simple to understand. The structure must be specific, not open to different interpretations.

According to Olechowski and Khan-Svik (1995:183), the activities in the schedule must be varied and spaced in such a manner as to establish a rhythm that will be meaningful. Transitions between activities must be smooth in order not to disturb the flow of events. Rules and procedures for participation must be established and maintained, as must be the logistics of learner movement.

Wium (1994:32) adds that the schedule has to be reliable and effective. If it has got to be applicable in a classroom context it must not be too time-consuming or lengthy. The items included in the schedule must be presented in an easily understood language and not be too technical to be observed.

Merriam (1992:105) suggests the following points in recording data while observing:

- Pay attention
- Look for key words in people's remarks that will stand out later.
- Concentrate on the first and last remarks in each conversation.
- Mentally play back remarks and scenes during breaks in the talking or observing.

Once the observation is completed, the researcher should incorporate pieces of data remembered at later times into the original field notes.

(d) Advantages of a schedule

- The researcher may observe and interact closely enough with the participants being observed.
- The researcher is able to record behaviour as it is happening while observing.
- The researcher is able to ask the participants what they were thinking with regard to specific behaviours witnessed in class.
- The researcher is able to gain access to the emotional reactions of the group introspectively; that is, in a real sense it permits the researcher to use himself/herself as a data source (Denzin & Lincoln 1998:89; Erlandson, Harris, Skipper & Allen 1993:95; Merriam 1992:103).

(e) Disadvantages of a schedule

Denzin and Lincoln (1998:88) and Merriam (1992:103) notice the following disadvantages of a schedule:

- Subjectivity and interaction are assumed. The interdependency between the observer and the observed may bring about changes in both parties' behaviours. The question is not whether the process of observing affects what is observed, but how the researcher can identify those effects and account for them in interpreting the data.
- The researcher might miss things while observing because he/she might be concerned about the effects he/she will have on the scene.

(f) The Learners' Behaviour Schedule used in this research

Appendix B contains the structured schedule, which was filled in on a daily basis for a period of twelve weeks. The schedule was always completed at the end of the school day. The reason for a period of a twelve consecutive weeks was that the researcher wanted the learners to get used to or to be desensitised to the situation.

Each learner had a nametag in his/her back. The learners were informed about the reason for the researcher's presence, that is, that she came from the University of Pretoria under the Department of Education as a visitor. At first the learners were not free but as they got used to the researcher, their behaviours normalised.

The researcher observed the behaviours of the learners while teaching and learning were taking place. The first week was scheduled for observation and note-taking only. From the second week of observation onwards, the researcher could begin to participate and ask a few of the learners some questions based on what was being taught. The behaviours of the learners were noted on the schedule.

The observation of the learners' behaviours covered the following:

- Interest in task
- Attention to task
- Confidence
- Restlessness in movement
- Skill displayed
- Knowledge displayed
- Speed at work
- Obedience
- Motivation
- Correctness of response
- Group behaviour
- Execution of instructions
- Reading competence
- Self-initiated remarks/suggestions
- Amount of effort exerted
- Knowledge displayed
- Response to questions
- Self-initiated questions

Five categories of qualitative evaluation were used, namely:

Best	Good	Fair	Poor	Poorest
5	4	3	2	1

The categorical guide (best, good, fair, poor & poorest) will aid the researcher to know each learner's learning behaviours with significant difference from general classroom learning behaviours, and as to whether there were any influences coming from the homes as well as from the school which might be the cause of such a behaviour.

Eventually, the results of this behaviour schedule will be triangulated with the data of the parents in an effort to understand the effect of the parents' actions on the learning behaviours of their children.

3.2.4.5 Correspondence with parents

(a) Definition and aim of correspondence

Communication between the school and parents is the foundation of a solid partnership. The National Standards for Parent/Family Involvement Programs (1996:10) view correspondence as a means of creating effective and positive relationships between parents and teachers. According to MacLeod (1996:123) and Overett and Donald (1998:353), correspondence with parents is a two-way sharing of information vital to learner success.

Parents should not only be seen as primary educators, but are also involved and engaged in the formal education of their children. The aim of correspondence with them is to have them working more closely with the school for the sake of their children and for the educators too. It helps the parents to understand how they could be more supportive of their children's work, which could yield beneficial effects for their children's education. Hornby (1999:69) adds that this does not only lead to more effective professional practice, but it also makes parents feel that an active interest is taken in their children.

Baker (1996:109) emphasizes that when correspondence is conducted with parents, the following questions should be taken into account:

- What types of tasks are learners expected to do?
- Is there any problem solving being done in class?
- Which problems seem the most difficult?
- Are there any parents who would like to contribute to the subject being covered?

For this research, the purpose of correspondence with parents was to find out operationally which parents of the target group would demonstrate involvement in the learning of their children by responding to correspondence from the school and whether their involvement had a positive influence on the learning behaviours of their children.

(b) Types of correspondence with parents

According to Hornby (1995:71), parents need to feel that they can contact the school at any time when they have a concern about their children. They all need to have effective channels of communication with the teachers who work with their children on a day-to-day basis. Therefore, educators need to develop effective written and oral communication skills and ensure that a wide range of communication options is open to parents. Examples of communication are the following:

- The newsletter, which is easily produced and can address current concerns and interests and can as well inform a select group of parents of the happenings that impact on their children's lives.
- Spontaneous notes which can be written on the spur of the moment to be carried home by the learners.
- Parents' meetings which give parents and teachers time to talk about individual children.
- Individual consultations between the parent and the teacher which probably provides the single most important opportunity for parents to find out about their children's progress and how best to help them.

In a school where some parents are illiterate, it is especially important to use a variety of communication types.

(c) Requirements of correspondence with parents

MacLeod (1996:129) outlines the following guidelines in connection with correspondence with parents:

- The emphasis should be on doing things with parents rather than doing things for them. This means that parents and educators must work in collaboration with one another so that both have a part in the resource used to support the work.
- Families and communities should be seen as equal contributors, not just in terms of providing knowledge, but of understanding and using knowledge in the education process. It is the process of understanding that will open up opportunities in their children's learning.
- Parents and children will need to be given a greater awareness of what their own capabilities as learners are and a greater awareness that what they learn can give

them more power to influence the decisions that affect their lives. This implies that parents and children should be given opportunities to learn to be self-reflective and to learn how they can deliberately construct learning situations to their own advantage.

In a disadvantaged community the school would do well to create an awareness in the parents that very simple resources, available to everyone, could be utilized in the learning of their children.

(d) Advantages of correspondence with parents

According to Van Vuuren (1990:91), the following advantages should be taken into account when correspondence is conducted with parents:

- When parents are treated as partners and given relevant information by teachers, they would put into practice the involvement strategies they already know are effective, but have been hesitant to contribute.
- Meaningful comments or messages to parents will preserve good relations.

In addition to Van Vuuren's points, the following should be added:

- When there is a frequent and effective correspondence with parents, their involvement will improve their attitudes towards the school and they will become more positive.
- The more the parents become involved in school matters, the higher the learner achievement (Hornby 1995:70).

The above-mentioned points are relevant to this research. As mentioned in (a) above, the purpose of correspondence with parents in this research was to find out operationally which parents of the target group would demonstrate involvement in the learning of their children by responding to correspondence from the school, and whether their involvement had a positive influence on the learning behaviours of their children.

(e) Dangers to be avoided in correspondence with parents

- Long messages might not be understood and become meaningless to parents.
- Too many suggestions at any one time might confuse parents.
- Meaningless comments could demotivate parents.

The researcher tried to avoid these threats in her correspondence with parents by sending short, simple and straightforward, meaningful and understandable messages with her requests (refer to Appendix C).

(f) The use of correspondence with parents in this research

Correspondence with parents took place during the months of October and November 1998, taking the form of one letter per week for five weeks. This happened during the second period of observations with the learners. Simple and straightforward letters were developed in English (refer to Appendix C). Each letter contained a request and the parents' responses could, therefore, be noted operationally, as an indication over time of the measure of collaboration with the school.

The letters were translated into Tsonga by the educator for the sake of the parents, and translated back into English to control for accuracy of the translation. These letters were given to learners to deliver to their parents. The responses of the parents in the form of the number of objects requested which were sent to school and the promptness with which the request was carried out, were recorded by the educator.

The research consisted of four methods. It was hoped that looking from so many angles, it would be possible to achieve triangulation of the findings of the sub investigations.

The findings of the various components of the research will be fully discussed in the next chapter, after which an effort will be made to achieve an integrated understanding.

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CHAPTER 4
RESULTS, FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION IN RESPECT OF SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS, ETHNOGRAPHIC OBSERVATION, LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR SCHEDULE AND CORRESPONDENCE WITH PARENTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The basis of the thinking on parental involvement in the learning of young children, which was presented in Chapter Two, was derived from an overview of relevant literature. The role of parents with regard to the physical development, psychosocial development and cognitive development of 7-9 year-olds and how it features in formal education was discussed. Contextual influences on the dynamics of parental involvement such as the educational level and income of parents, culture of the community and family size were recognised. For each dimension of parental involvement, Tsonga custom was finally considered.

The question always remains as to the real effect, form and level of parental involvement from a micro-contextual perspective and no overview of the literature can supply this answer. We need to understand in South Africa, in a particular community school system, what the nature and quality of parent-child relationships in learning situations are to determine how they could be utilised as assets in the education of young learners. Therefore, the researcher's real probing needed to be empirical.

In Chapter Three the aim of the data collection and the research methods used to examine the effect of the support for learning provided in the home of the Grade Two learners in a predominantly Tsonga school were described. The research methods discussed in 3.2.4 will provide the structure for the presentation of the findings in this chapter (Chapter Four).

The data sets collected by means of using a questionnaire, with semi-structured interview, ethnographic observation, a learners' behaviour schedule and correspondence with parents will each be analysed and discussed separately and then the findings will be synthesised in a final discussion.

The context was first considered since it plays a vital role in the education of children. Some descriptive data from the PILEQ will now be used.

4.2 CONTEXT OF THE EMPIRICAL RESEARCH

4.2.1 THE SCHOOL

The community depends on the teacher as a secondary educator to ensure that young children will learn effective group behaviour and cultural patterns which are necessary if they are to adjust in life in a particular community. The school offers formal education to learners with the aim of producing future adults, who are physically strong, mentally alert, emotionally stable, culturally sound and socially efficient. According to Ayres and Meyer (1992:31), the most important task of the school is to help emancipate children from the micro-milieu of the family to the macro-reality of the community at large, a community in which they will have to hold their own as adults. The school is expected to have well equipped educators with skills such as communication and imparting of knowledge to help them to obtain these objectives.

The research school is a Primary school in a township outside Pretoria. At the time of the research the school had a staff of 15 members, that is, twelve educators, one secretary and two cleaners and there were 250 learners. The school serves mainly the Tsonga community, with 64.1% of the learners coming from the township, 33.3% from the informal settlement and one learner living in an urban area. The research was undertaken in a Grade Two class of 39 learners in the year after Curriculum 2005 was implemented in the school for the first time. In the year before, there had been two Grade One classes, each containing 26 learners. At the end of that year, eight learners had failed Grade One. Because of a downsizing, one Grade Two class was formed, containing all of the remaining 44 learners. During the first term, five learners moved to other schools in a nearby area, leaving the sample size of 39.

The school strived for a good code of conduct. The educators appeared to care for the learners and demonstrated some understanding of the learners' home environment. The school was not well equipped with resources, but educators displayed their commitment by voluntarily making teaching aids more or less on a weekly basis to enhance their teaching. The culture of teaching was judged positive since most of the educators were willing to give individual attention to learners who were having problems. For example, learners with such problems would be given extra work to complete during break under the supervision of the educator.

4.2.2 THE PARTICIPANTS

4.2.2.1 Data sources and straightforward frequency analysis

Data to be discussed on learners (refer to paragraph 4.2.2.2) and parents (refer to paragraph 4.2.2.3) were derived from the Parental Involvement in Learners' Education Questionnaire (PILEQ) and are of a descriptive nature. Information on the educator (refer to paragraph 4.2.2.4) is based on observation and interaction with the educator.

4.2.2.2 The learners

All the data derive from one Grade Two class which comprised 39 learners, at school and in their homes with their parents. The biographical information on the learners is summarised in Table 4.1 and Figures 4.1-4.2, and comprises gender, home language, living area, age, the number of children in the family, and the chronological position (age-rank) of the child in the home.

The relevance of home language, living area and age of the learners for the learners' learning behaviours and/or the parents' influence on their learning behaviours merits consideration.

Table 4.1 indicates that in total there were more girls (56.4%) than boys (43.6%). Tsonga was the language most spoken, in 79.5% of the homes. Tswana was quite strongly represented (12.8%), leaving three learners fairly isolated in linguistic terms – one boy and one girl who spoke North Sotho at home and one girl from Zambia, speaking English. There were 64.1% of the learners living in the township whilst 33.3% were living in an informal settlement and only one learner, the English speaking girl from Zambia, was living in an urban area. The 15 girls living in the township (68.2% of the girls) represented 9.4% more of their total group than did the 10 boys of their group (58.8% of boys). There were 79.5% learners in the expected 7-8 years age range for Grade Two, leaving 10.3% under-age at six years, and 10.3% of the learners over-age at 9-13 years. Of the four over-age learners, three (7.7% of the total) were girls and one (2.6% of the total) was a boy.

Family size could be expected to play some role in the form and amount of time which parental involvement would take in the learning of their children.

TABLE 4.1 GENDER, HOME LANGUAGE, LIVING AREA AND AGE OF THE GRADE TWO LEARNERS IN THE RESEARCH SCHOOL

Gender	N	%	Home Language								Living Area					
			Tsonga		Tswana		N.Sotho		English		Urban		Township		Informal Settlement	
			N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Boys	17	43.6	13	76.5	3	17.6	1	5.9	0	0	0	0	10	58.8	7	41.2
Girls	22	56.4	18	81.8	2	9.0	1	4.6	1	4.6	1	4.5	15	68.2	6	27.3
Total	39	100	31	79.5	5	12.8	2	5.1	1	2.6	1	2.6	25	64.1	13	33.3

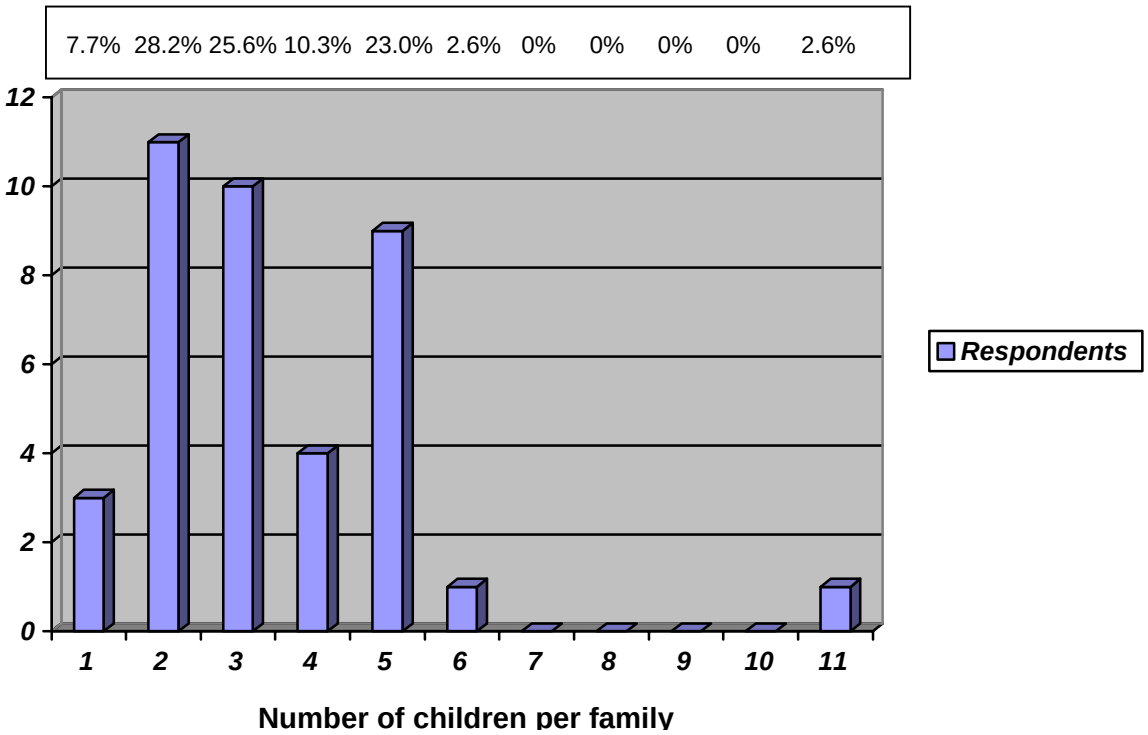
Gender	Age *											
	6		7		8		9		11		13	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Boys	2	11.8	8	47.0	6	35.3	0	0	1	5.9	0	0
Girls	2	9.1	10	45.5	7	31.8	2	9.1	0	0	1	4.5
Total	4	10.3	18	46.2	13	33.3	2	5.1	1	2.6	1	2.6

* Columns for 10 and 12 years contain no data and are omitted for considerations of space

Figure 4.1 illustrates the number of children per family. It indicates that the majority of the learners (61.5%) came from small families with only 1-3 children each: Three (7.7%) learners were the only child in their family; 11 (28.2%) of the learners came from families with two children each, and 10 (25.6%) of the learners from families with three children each.

In fact, family size would seem to be moderate in this predominantly Tsonga school since (with the exception of one 6-child and one 11-child family) five children per family (for 23.0% of the sample) constituted the largest families.

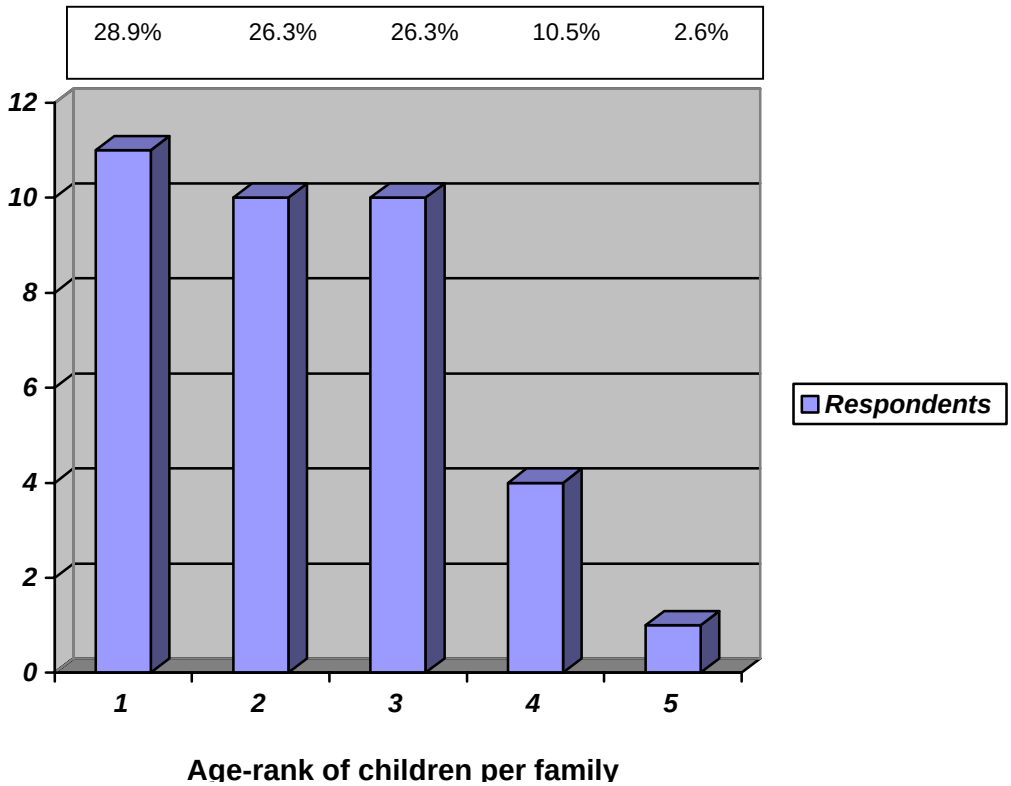
FIGURE 4.1 NUMBER OF CHILDREN PER FAMILY



The amount of focus and experience that the parents brought to their participation in their children's learning would expectedly be influenced by the age-rank of the child in the family.

Figure 4.2 shows that the vast majority of the learners (81.5%) occupied the first, second and third position in the child/rank. Eleven (28.9%) of the learners were the oldest (or only) child in their family. Ten (26.3%) each of the learners occupied the second and third position in the family. Very few learners (13.1%) were below the third position in the age-rank.

FIGURE 4.2 AGE-RANKS OF THE GRADE TWO LEARNERS IN THE RESEARCH SCHOOL (Data of three learners not supplied)



4.2.2.3 The parents

The Parental Involvement in Learners' Education Questionnaire (PILEQ) and the semi-structured interviews were conducted with parents of 38 learners, and one respondent who was a grandmother of one learner. Only eight fathers could be reached. The biographical information on the parents is summarised in Table 4.2-4.3, and comprises gender, age, qualifications and occupational status.

Gender and age of the parents were considered in an effort to understand the effect of parents' actions on the learning of their children.

Table 4.2 indicates that the age-range of 30 and below contained two fathers (25.0% of the fathers), aged 29 and 30 years. Although the number of mothers in this range (11 – 28.3% of the mothers) was comparable, the distribution differed in that the youngest mother was five years younger than the youngest father.

TABLE 4.2 GENDER AND AGE OF THE PARENTS WHO TOOK PART IN THE RESEARCH PROCESS

Gender	N	%	AGE																									
			24		26		28		29		30		31		32		33		34		35		37		38		40		41	
			N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Fathers	8	17.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	12.5	1	12.5	0	0	0	0	2	25.0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	12.5
Mothers	39	83.0	1	2.6	2	5.1	1	2.6	4	10.3	3	7.7	1	2.6	5	12.8	3	7.7	5	12.8	3	7.7	5	2.6	3	7.7	1	2.6	1	2.6
Total	47	100	1	2.1	2	4.3	1	2.1	5	10.6	4	8.5	1	2.1	5	10.6	5	10.6	5	10.5	3	6.4	1	2.1	3	6.4	1	2.1	2	4.3

Gender	N	%	AGE											
			43		44		46		47		49		52		58	
			N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Fathers	8	17.0	0	0	1	12.5	0	0	0	0	1	12.5	1	12.5	0	0
Mothers	39	83.0	1	2.6	1	2.6	1	2.6	1	2.6	0	0	0	0	1	2.6
Total	47	100	1	2.1	2	4.3	1	2.1	1	2.1	1	2.1	1	2.1	1	2.1

TABLE 4.3 QUALIFICATIONS, OCCUPATIONAL STATUS AND MARITAL STATUS OF PARENTS

Gender	N	%	Qualifications												Occupational status											
			Never in school		Junior Primary		Senior Primary		Junior Secondary		Matric		Diploma		Unemployed		Self-employed		Untrained Labourer		Trained Labourer		Admin.		Professional	
			N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Fathers	8	17.0	0	0	1	12.5	1	12.5	3	37.5	2	25.0	1	12.5	1	12.5	1	12.5	1	12.5	4	50.0	1	12.5	0	0
Mothers	39	83.0	4	10.3	14	35.9	9	23.0	7	17.9	4	10.3	1	2.6	12	30.8	8	20.5	15	38.5	1	2.6	2	5.1	1	2.6
Total	47	100	4	8.5	15	31.9	10	21.3	10	21.3	6	12.8	2	4.3	13	27.7	9	19.1	16	34.0	5	10.6	3	6.4	1	2.1

Marital Status	N	%
Married	26	66.7
Unmarried/Single	10	25.6
Living alone	1	2.6
Widowed	2	5.1
Total	39	100

The age-range of 31 to 40 contained 25.0% of the fathers (both aged 33 years). More than half of the mothers, 22 (56.5% of the mothers), fall in this range. There were no fathers from age 34-40 whereas the majority of the mothers (13 – 33.4% of the mothers) in this category range from 34 to 40 years old. Two fathers (25.0% of the fathers) were aged 41 and 44. The age- range of 49-52 contained 25.0% of the fathers (one aged 49 and one aged 52 years). There were relatively fewer mothers in the age-range of 41-47, (five – 13.0% of the mothers) and one grandmother aged 58 years.

The parents' experience of learning could be expected to have an impact on the form and amount of support in the education of their children, as some of them might feel too unsure to venture information or provide guidance and support on account of their limited level of literacy and lack of confidence regarding education generally.

Table 4.3 indicates that eighteen mothers (46.2% of the mothers) had qualified at the Grade Three level with only one father (12.5% of the fathers) who had qualified at the same level. Six fathers (75.0% of the fathers) had qualified at levels beyond primary school, in comparison to twelve mothers (30.8% of the mothers). There was no other after school training, above a diploma. There were a high percentage of unemployed mothers (30.8 % of the mothers) and only one father (12.5% of the fathers) was unemployed. Eight mothers (20.5% of the mothers) were self-employed whilst only one father (12.5% of the fathers) was self-employed.

A high percentage of the mothers (40.0% of the mothers) performed untrained labour and one father (12.5% of the fathers) was an untrained labourer. Half of the fathers (50.0% of the fathers) were employed at the level of trained labour in comparison to one mother (2.6% of the mothers). Three mothers (7.7% of the mothers) occupied administrative and professional posts and one father (12.5% of the fathers) was working in administration. There were 26 (66.7%) married families, 10 (25.6%) unmarried families, two widowed families and only one parent was living alone.

4.2.2.4 The educator

The Grade Two learners had a female Tsonga speaking educator, Mrs A, aged 40. She obtained a three-year diploma in education in 1992 at Thulamahashe Training College in the Northern Province. In 1993 she began teaching in a Sub A (Grade One) class at Bushbuckridge. She taught for a year and at the end of 1993, she moved to her home place in Giyani where she taught Tsonga and English in the three Sub A (Grade One) classes for two years.

Since the beginning of 1996 she had been teaching at the research school in Mamelodi in Pretoria, which made the research year (1998) her third year at the school and her sixth year in the teaching profession. The research year was her first year teaching the Grade Two learners in the new Curriculum 2005.

Mrs A was an educator who appeared to enjoy working with young children. At the time of the practical research year she was teaching one Grade Two class of 39 learners for all their work. She appeared to care for the learners and she displayed some understanding of their home environment. For example, at one time when Learner 8 had not attended lessons for three days, the educator showed concern, and two learners were sent to his home during break to see what the problem could be. It was found that the learner was not well. His parents were advised to take him to the health centre and in the following week the learner managed to return to school. The educator gave him some extra work to do at home to catch up on lost learning. Every morning his work was checked and where mistakes occurred, he was supported.

During the research period, the educator attended a workshop on Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) where the emphasis was on what should be done to facilitate learning. She demonstrated her commitment in teaching by voluntarily making teaching aids approximately four times a week, to make the lessons easier to understand. She was also willing to give individual attention to learners who were having problems.

The educator used the traditional methods of teaching for the greater part. For example, in reading education, at times she would read aloud from the book and learners would repeat in a chorus. She would first start with a sentence at a time, then repeat the process per paragraph. Thereafter, Learner A would be asked to read the first two sentences, followed by Learner B with the following sentences, until all the learners had had a turn to read two sentences. As time permitted, learners would be asked to read a paragraph at a time.

In her English lesson, for example, the educator explained new words to the learners by using flash cards and the chalkboard. She explained the meaning of the words and pronounced them for the class. She let the class as a group repeat the words aloud, and then asked one by one to read the words back to her aloud. If the learners had difficulty with the pronunciation, the educator corrected them. Then she divided them into their small groups and gave all of them the same English reading books as before (Clymer 1996:1-16) which contained the new words. The reason for the group (as indicated by the

educator) was that all the learners would have a chance to read aloud individually to the other learners.

Again, in teaching numeracy, Mrs A would write sums on the chalkboard for addition, subtraction and multiplication signs, using counters. The learners would be asked to do them in their exercise books after explanation, and a few learners would then be asked to supply the answers on the chalkboard.

In accordance with the principles of Curriculum 2005, she also tried to develop within learners the capability to think, reason, deliberate and socialise. Learners with problems would be given extra work to do during break under her supervision.

4.3 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN LEARNERS' EDUCATION AS REPORTED ON THE QUESTIONNAIRE (PILEQ) AND IN SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

4.3.1 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN LEARNERS' EDUCATION QUESTIONNAIRE (PILEQ)

4.3.1.1 Administration of the PILEQ

The questionnaire (refer Appendix A) was administered by the researcher at the respondents' homes on various dates as per appointment. Full co-operation was received from all parents, thereby expediting the research process. The parent of Learner 8 expressed his concern about the researcher's presence and raised a question as to whether the researcher was an ANC member who was sent by the Government to see how learning was conducted. The answer also stated to other parents subsequently, was that the Government was not involved and that the aim of the research was to determine and examine the extent, level, form and content of the support for learning of the parents of Grade Two learners in the learning of their children, and what influence does their involvement have on their children's learning. The parent of Learner 8 was satisfied with the explanation and said that he hoped that as parents they would always be involved in school activities.

Responses were noted by the researcher in written form. The questionnaire, which took 60 minutes to complete, was coupled with a semi-structured interview as well as ethnographic observation, where the learners were assigned some tasks to perform in the presence of their parents and the researcher made notes on the methods employed.

The responses to the questionnaire of the parents were statistically processed. The notes on the interviews were analysed qualitatively.

4.3.1.2 Results and findings derived from the PILEQ

(a) Descriptive analysis of PILEQ data

In this section a descriptive analysis and interpretation of the data with regard to various aspects of parental involvement, such as the parents' knowledge and liaison with the school, visits to the school, help with homework, monitoring the child's progress, utilization of resources and times when children were allowed to watch television or radio will be undertaken. The data are contained in Tables 4.4-4.9. The data represent the responses per family, not per parent, and for each item only the affirmative responses are recorded. The percentage per response category will, therefore, not always add up to 100%.

In addition to the frequency analysis which will be presented in this subsection to describe the various categories of responses, the relationship between sets of the variables was also examined. These relationships will be presented in subsection (b), to consider which are significant and which may be due to chance occurrences.

It should be noted that in some of the tables, the numbers of parents do not add up to the originally stated total sample. This is due to the fact that in spite of all the precautions taken, not all questions elicited responses from all the participants. However, such cases are so few that they are not judged to seriously affect the outcome of the findings and conclusions.

The parents' knowledge about the school and the measure of the extent of their participation in the school affairs could be expected to reflect the quality of focus in their involvement in their children's learning. Data on this issue are contained in Table 4.4.

TABLE 4.4 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING: KNOWLEDGE OF AND LIAISON WITH SCHOOL

Parents' knowledge of and liaison with school	N (affirmation)	% (of families)
Have met and talked to principal	9	23.1
Know name of class teacher	15	38.5
Know name of a member of Governing Body	8	20.5
Know some functions of Governing Body	15	38.5
Have problems with school	3	7.7

Table 4.4 shows that, in the course of more than five school terms after their child's school entry, only nine families (23.1% of the families) indicated that they had had opportunity to enter into conversation with the principal of the school. By May of the school year, only 38.5% of the families (15) knew the name of the class teacher. Concerning the school governance, eight families (20.5% of the families) knew the name of a member of the Governing Body of the school and 15 families (38.5% of the families) knew some of the functions of the Governing Body. On a positive note, very few families (only three – 7.7 % of the families) had any complaints about the school, but the low percentage of the families who had any knowledge or acquaintance with the school is a matter of concern.

More important than knowledge about the school is the direct interaction of parents with the educator of their children. Since the school cannot educate the child alone and the parent shares the responsibility, there should be a partnership between the two parties. Table 4.5 contains the data on the frequency of visits to the educator at school by parents.

From Table 4.5 it is clear that the majority of the families (61.5% of the families) did meet with the educators of their children on different occasions. Of these, 21 families (53.8% of the families) said that they visited the school only on parent meeting days while only three families (7.7% of the families) indicated that they frequently visited the school at own choice. Fifteen families (38.5% of the families) said that they had never visited the school.

TABLE 4.5 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING: VISITS TO THE EDUCATOR AT THE SCHOOL

Frequency of visitors	N (affirmation)	% (of families)
Only on parent meetings	21	53.8
Only when the child has problems	0	0
Frequently, at parent's choice	3	7.7
Parent never visits school	15	38.5
Total	39	100

The primary area of parental help in their children's learning, should obviously be the home. In this regard, real guidance and support in homework tasks could be expected to have some effect on the learning of the children. Table 4.6 provides some indication of the forms of engagement during homework which was undertaken. Since this item in the questionnaire required an open response, the parents' responses were categorized and counted. The fact that there was no variety and that every family gave only one response

with regard to helping a child with homework, suggests that there was a limited level of involvement.

TABLE 4.6 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING: HELP WITH HOMEWORK

Guidance given in homework	N (affirmation)	% (of families)
Explaining difficult words	23	59.0
Rectifying mistakes, e.g. in numeracy through use of counters	11	28.2
Reading sentence by sentence	4	10.2
Referring child to siblings for help	1	2.6
Total	39	100

Table 4.6 reveals that there was a very limited scope of help reported: All the family responses fell into only four categories and every family gave only one response. More than half of the families (59.0% of the families) explained language items to their children. The method for a particular task was addressed by 28.2% of the families – and then in a very particular way, for example, by correcting the error in a numeracy task through the use of counters (e.g. pebbles and matchsticks). In a small percentage of cases (10.2%), the work was read sentence by sentence by a parent, either in Tsonga or in English. The child had to read first and when mistakes were encountered, the parent helped with pronunciation of the word. Only one family sent their child to her siblings for help.

Helping with the children's problems is not the only form of involvement required. Even when parents do provide assistance, the child will not always ask for help. General supervision over homework is also required. Table 4.7 reveals habits and events by which parents keep a watchful eye over their children's progress.

TABLE 4.7 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING: MONITORING CHILDREN'S PROGRESS

Monitoring children's progress	N (affirmation)	% (of families)
Nearly every day	11	28.2
At least once a week	7	17.9
Only after attending parent meeting	3	7.7
Only at the end of each term	2	5.2
Only when the child has failed	1	2.6
Only when the parent has time	7	17.9
Never monitors child's progress	7	17.9
Missing (no responses)	1	2.6
Total	39	100

The two driving factors regarding the frequency of supervision which were explored in the questionnaire concerned habit and specific events. Table 4.7 reveals that only about half of the families (46.1% of the families) appeared to have some habit of checking their children's work: 11 families (28.2% of the families) nearly every day and seven families (17.9% of the families) at least once a week. The categories concerning events which drove parents to attend to a child's school work all represent a small number of families: Three families (7.7% of the families) paid attention to their children's progress only after attending a parent meeting, two families (5.2% of the families) only at the end of each term and one family only when the child had failed. Nearly $^{1}/_{5}$ of the families (17.9% of the families) checked their children's work only when there was time and an equal proportion (17.9%) never monitored their children's progress.

In addition to monitoring of children's progress, the utilization of resources and special learning opportunities could be expected to have some effect in children's learning. Table 4.8 explores resources which could be utilized, how they could be utilized and special learning opportunities.

TABLE 4.8 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING: UTILISATION OF RESOURCES AND SPECIAL LEARNING OPPORTUNITIES

Radio, Television and special learning activities	N (affirmation)	% (of families)
Do parents have a radio?	34	87.2
Do parents have a television set?	28	71.8
Do parents explain radio programmes to children?	11	32.4
Do parents explain TV programmes to children?	15	53.6
Do parents take children on outings?	17	43.6
Did the child attend an informal day care centre during the preschool years?	3	7.7
Did the child attend a Nursery school?	13	33.3
Has the child attended any enrichment class?	1	2.6

Table 4.8 indicates that, although the majority of the families had radios (87.2% of the families) and/or television sets (71.8% of the families) in their homes, the number of families who interacted about programmes presented on the radio or television was considerably less. Only 11 families (32.4% of the 34 families who had a radio) explained some of the programmes on the radio to their children while 53.6% of the 28 families who had a television set explained some of the programmes on television to their children. Seventeen families (43.6% of the families) took their children on educational outings.

Only 41% of the children appeared to have attended preschool institutions: Three learners (7.7% of the learners) had attended an informal day care centre and 13 learners (33.3% of the learners) had attended nursery school. Only one learner in the class attended any enrichment class.

In addition to the sharing of use and explanation with regard to radio and television, parents' control exercised over viewing times might also reflect some involvement in their children's learning. Table 4.9 describes the viewing times.

TABLE 4.9 PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING: TIMES WHEN PARENTS ALLOW CHILDREN TO WATCH TV

Times when children are allowed to watch TV	N (affirmation)	% (of the 28 families with TV)
Every weekday afternoon	11	39.3
Every weekday evening	6	21.4
One hour a day during the week	3	10.7
Two hours a day during the week	2	7.1
More than two hours a day during the week	2	7.1
Saturdays	25	89.3
Sundays	23	82.1

From Table 4.9 it is clear that there was a wide variety of choices with regard to children's television viewing. A high percentage of the 28 families allowed weekend viewing times: 25 families (89.3% of the families) allowed viewing times on Saturdays and 23 families (82.1% of the families) allowed Sunday viewing times. Seventeen families (60.7% of the families) allowed weekday viewing times: 11 families (39.3% of the families) allowed afternoon viewing times while six families (21.4% of families) allowed their children to watch television in the evenings. The categories concerning the amount of time permitted for viewing during the week all represent small numbers of families: Three families (10.7% of the families) allowed viewing times of one hour a day during the week and two families each (7.1% of the families) allowed two hours and more a day during the week.

The discussion of the descriptive data will be done in combination with the discussion of the relational analysis.

(b) Relational analysis of PILEQ data

To analyse relationships among the data, two-way frequency tables were drawn and examined for possible significant dependence between variables. The Wilcoxon Rank

Sum Test and Kruskal-Wallis Nonparametric Statistics were used to do the more in-depth analysis of significant relationships between variables. According to Reber (1985, in Hayward & Steyn 2001:83), nonparametric statistics is a statistical procedure to determine the relationship between variables without making assumptions about the normality of score distributions. The small number of respondents does not justify reliance on the results of the chi-square (Glass & Hopkins 1996:163).

Tables 4.10-4.16 contain data from the **Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test**, examining the relationships between a set of seven selected aspects of parental involvement in specific characteristics of the parents and learners (gender of children, number of children, marital status of parents, home language, work of parents, parents' type of work and number of years at work).

Table 4.10, containing the relational data about the gender of the learners and aspects of their parents' involvement, indicates that there was no strongly significant relationship between whether the particular learner was a boy or a girl, and the ways in which the parents were involved in their children's learning.

TABLE 4.10 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER OF CHILDREN AND ASPECTS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING

Parameter	Wilcoxon 2-sample test Prob >/Z/
Parents' engagement with school	0.8677
Parents' visits to school	0.7752
Parents' finding a problem with school	0.7358
Parents' help with homework	0.2707
Parents' buying resources for children	0.3733
Parents monitoring child's progress	0.9614

* = Significant on a 10% level
** = Significant on a 5% level
*** = Highly significant on a 1% level

Table 4.11 which contains the relational data about the number of children in the family and aspects of parental involvement, indicates that there was no significant relationship between how many children were in the family (1, 2, 3, 4 and 5) and how much involvement the parents had in the learning of their children, excepting for a significant relationship with the resources which parents bought on the 5% level of significant relationship. This will be followed up in the discussion of the interviews.

TABLE 4.11 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN NUMBER OF CHILDREN AND ASPECTS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING

Parameter	Wilcoxon 2-sample test Prob >/Z/
Parents' engagement with school	0.8554
Parents' visits to school	0.5914
Parents' finding a problem with school	0.2794
Parents' help with homework	0.5690
Parents' buying resources for children	0.0270**
Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.2547

* = Significant on a 10% level
** = Significant on a 5% level
*** = Highly significant on a 1% level

Table 4.12, containing the relational data about parents' marital status and aspects of their involvement in the education of their children, indicates that there was no significant relationship between whether they were couples, single or widows and the ways in which they were involved in their children's learning.

TABLE 4.12 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS' MARITAL STATUS AND ASPECTS OF THEIR INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING

Parameter	Wilcoxon 2-sample test Prob >/Z/
Parents' engagement with school	1.0000
Parents' visits to school	1.0000
Parents' finding a problem with school	0.2202
Parents' help with homework	0.8446
Parents' buying resources for children	0.7722
Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.9065

* = Significant on a 10% level
** = Significant on a 5% level
*** = Highly significant on a 1% level

Table 4.13, containing the data about the home language of the learners and aspects of their parents' involvement, indicates that there was a significant relationship between the home language (Tsonga, Tswana, North Sotho, and English) and the resources bought by parents and monitoring of their children's progress.

TABLE 4.13 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HOME LANGUAGE AND ASPECTS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING

Parameter	Wilcoxon 2 sample test Prob >/Z/
Parents' engagement with school	0.6689
Parents' visits to school	0.4702
Parents' finding a problem with school	0.3863
Parents' help with homework	0.1427
Parents' buying resources for children	0.0033***
Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.0302**

* = Significant on a 10% level
** = Significant on a 5% level
*** = Highly significant on a 1% level

Table 4.14, containing the relational data about the qualifications of parents and aspects of parental involvement, indicates that there was no significant relationship between whether a particular parent had been to school, had primary school education, had secondary school education or had obtained a diploma qualification, and the ways in which the parents are involved in their children's learning (Table 4.3)

TABLE 4.14 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN QUALIFICATIONS OF PARENTS AND ASPECTS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING

Parameter	Wilcoxon 2-sample test Prob >/Z/
Parents' engagement with school	0.3625
Parents' visits to school	0.6195
Parents' finding a problem with school	0.1690
Parents' help with homework	0.5123
Parents' buying resources for children	0.7414
Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.6559

* = Significant on a 10% level
** = Significant on a 5% level
*** = Highly significant on a 1% level

Table 4.15, which contains the relational data about parents' type of work and aspects of their involvement indicates that there was no significant relationship between their work (professional, administrative, untrained labourer) and the way in which they were involved in the learning of their children. However, a tendency is observable in that three aspects (0.0817*, 0.0805*, 0.0638*) reflected some significance on the 10% level.

TABLE 4.15 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS' TYPE OF WORK AND ASPECTS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING

Parameter	Wilcoxon 2-sample test Prob >/Z/
Parents' engagement with school	0.3230
Parents' visits to school	0.6822
Parents' finding a problem with school	0.0817*
Parents' help with homework	0.0805*
Parents' buying resources for children	0.5622
Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.0638*

* = Significant on a 10% level
** = Significant on a 5% level
*** = Highly significant on a 1% level

Table 4.16, containing the parents' number of years of work and aspects of parental involvement, indicates that there was a significant relationship between how long the parent had been working and whether he/she had a problem with the school. However, there was a tendency of a significant relationship on a 10% level (the three that proved significant are 0.0817*, 0.0805* and 0.0638*).

TABLE 4.16 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PARENTS' NUMBER OF YEARS OF WORK AND ASPECTS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING

Parameter	Wilcoxon 2-sample test Prob >/Z/
Parents' engagement with school	0.7627
Parents' visits to school	0.8006
Parents' finding a problem with school	0.0436 **
Parents' help with homework	0.5163
Parents' buying resources for children	0.0937*
Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.10000

* = Significant on a 10% level
** = Significant on a 5% level
*** = Highly significant on a 1% level

TABLE 4.17 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER OF CHILD, NUMBER OF CHILDREN, RANK OF CHILD, HOME LANGUAGE, ETC AND ASPECTS OF PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILDREN'S LEARNING

	Relation between aspects of parental involvement and:	Chi-square probability
Gender of child	Parents' visits to school	0.759
	Parents' finding a problem with school	0.709
	Parents' help with homework	0.255
	Parents' buying resources for children	0.405
	Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.407
Number of children	Parents' visits to school	0.574
	Parents' finding a problem with school	0.258
	Parents' help with homework	0.548
	Parents' buying resources for children	0.025**
	Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.118
Rank of child	Parents' visits to school	0.196
	Parents' finding a problem with school	0.374
	Parents' help with homework	0.327
	Parents' buying resources for children	0.087*
	Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.148
Age of parents	Parents' visits to school	0.214
	Parents' finding a problem with school	0.209
	Parents' help with homework	0.721
	Parents' buying resources for children	0.454
	Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.646
Marital status of parents	Parents' visits to school	1.100
	Parents' finding a problem with school	0.202
	Parents' help with homework	0.825
	Parents' buying resources for children	0.746
	Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.989
Home Language	Parents' visits to school	0.452
	Parents' finding a problem with school	0.360
	Parents' help with homework	0.130
	Parents' buying resources for children	0.011**
	Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.052*
Parents' qualifications	Parents' visits to school	0.892
	Parents' finding a problem with school	0.680
	Parents' help with homework	0.540
	Parents' buying resources for children	0.631
	Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.575
Parents Working	Parents' visits to school	0.603
	Parents' finding a problem with school	0.154
	Parents' help with homework	0.493
	Parents' buying resources for children	0.573
	Parents' monitoring child's progress	0.102

* = Significant on a 10% level
** = Significant on a 5% level
*** = Highly significant on a 1% level

Table 4.17 contains the relational data about gender of child, number of children, rank of child, home language, age of parents, marital status of parents, parents' qualifications, parents who were working and aspects of parental involvement in children's learning.

Recognising the fact that Chi-Square may not have been a valid test since a too high percentage (63%) of the cells had expected counts of less than five, it may still be meaningful to note that three possibly significant relationships of resources bought for children emerged from the analysis in Table 4.17 chi-square probability) (child rank: 0.087*, home language: 0.011**, number of children: 0.025**).

The discussion of descriptive data derived from the PILEQ in combination with interviews follows in paragraph 4.3.1.3.

4.3.1.3 Discussion: Relational data

Table 4.10 indicated that there was no significant relationship between the variables "gender of children" and "aspects of parental involvement in children's learning". In this study (refer to Table 4.1) there were more girls (22) than boys (17). Table 4.10 further indicated that there were 13 Tsonga boys, 18 Tsonga girls, three Tswana boys and two Tswana girls in the classroom, leaving three learners fairly isolated in linguistic terms – one boy and one girl who spoke North Sotho and one girl from Zambia, speaking English.

Earlier in the study it was noted that all Tsonga children are the responsibility of the mother while the father is away, for example, due to migratory labour practices, especially in rural areas. On the other hand it was also noted that Tsonga girls are expected to do household chores while the boys are involved in the afternoon activities at school. According to Swart-Kruger (1994:224) reporting on a South African study, parents want to invest in their sons and they burden their daughters with heavy responsibilities. The information above would have, therefore, led one to expect more involvement and more investment in boys than in girls. The findings in this study are contrary to the expectation and might suggest a shift in the urban African community to generally recognise the importance of education for boys and girls alike.

Table 4.11 indicated a statistically significant relationship on the 5% level between how many children were in the family and how much involvement the parents had in their learning (as suggested by the resources they bought). The data, therefore, suggest that the number of children the parents have has some bearing on the extent to which they invest in their children's education. The financial factor seems to play a role (refer to

Figure 4.1). The majority of the families (61.5%) had small families with only 1-3 children each. Eleven families (28.29%) of the sample were large, that is, had five and more children per family. In his research, Rambiyana (2001:173) found that the number of children parents have in school influences how much involvement they (the parents) have in school activities. In this study it was found that the fewer the children were in the family, the more resources were bought for them. Therefore, these findings corroborate Rambiyana's (2001) work and underline the financial factor in parents' support for their children's learning.

Concerning the marital status of parents, there was no significant relationship between whether parents were a couple or were single or widowed, and the amount in which they were involved in their children's education. It is usually thought that single parent families have obstacles, do not have much time, and have more worries and many other related problems which could hinder them from assisting their children with school work. In their research, Comer and Haynes (1991:273) found that the problem of single parent families features very strongly in non-involvement of parents, because the single or teenage mothers lack support to raise their children. In this study, however, it was found that single parents are doing a heroic job and are still concerned about the lives of their children whereas some of the couples give little attention to their children. The majority of the parents (65.0%) were found to be actively involved in their children's education while couples (33.5%) did not show too much involvement concerning their children's education.

Table 4.13 shows a highly statistically significant relationship between the variables "home language" and "resources bought by parents". Within the various home language categories (Tsonga, Tswana, North Sotho and English), Tsonga was spoken the most (79.5%) in the homes (Table 4.1).

Table 4.14 shows that there was no statistically significant relationship between "qualifications of parents" and "aspects of parental involvement". In this study (refer to Table 4.3) there were more mothers (38) than fathers (8). Nearly half of the mothers (46.2%) qualified at Grade Three level while only one father qualified at the same level. The majority of the fathers (75.0%) qualified at levels beyond primary school in comparison to 30.8% of the mothers. A small number (10.3%) of the mothers were totally illiterate, having never attended school. It was found in the interviews that some of the better qualified parents were especially willing to help their children with school work and some of them were members of the governing body, which could lead one, in spite of the quantitative data, to expect that parents' experience of learning has an impact on the form and amount of support in the education of their children.

In Chapter Two (refer to paragraph 2.2.3) it was noted that Jubber (1990:7) is of the opinion that highly qualified and occupationally well-positioned parents have the advantage of transmitting to their children the kind of skills, knowledge and attitudes which encourage and facilitate good school performance. This is in line with Teale's finding (1986, in McCarthey 2000:145) that home background does play a significant role in children's learning. The interviews and ethnographic observation show that some of the illiterate parents were very shy, whereas some of them had a strong drive in being involved in their children's education because they do not want their children to become like them.

Table 4.15 shows a slight relationship on the 10% level of significance between the "type of work" parents do and some "aspects of parental involvement". It concurs with Table 4.4 in a sense that very few families (of the literate and illiterate parents) had a problem with the school which reflected some significant relationship on a 10% level. With regard to helping a child with homework, there was a limited level of involvement (also significant on a 10% level). Furthermore, Table 4.15 indicates a tendency of a significant relationship on a 10% level in parents' monitoring the child's progress for both working and the jobless parents.

This section has discussed the findings from the relational data. The data show that some parents still do not fulfil their roles and responsibilities in their children's education. Another conclusion suggested by the findings is that family background deters some parents from being involved. However, the inferences that could be made from the quantitative data have been scanty and vague. More information is clearly needed to achieve any level of understanding of conditions which underpin the parents' support of the learning of their children.

4.3.2 SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEWS

4.3.2.1 Administration of semi-structured interviews

Semi-structured interviews were coupled with the Parental Involvement in Learner Education Questionnaire (PILEQ) and were administered on the same occasion by the researcher. It involved the parents of the Grade Two learners of the research school at their homes. The purpose of the interviews was to obtain more descriptive information and to provide qualitative understanding of quantitative data.

According to Stephens (1990:144), no researcher can demand to gain access to a community. When participants agree to help, they deserve to know what they will be

asked to do, how much time they need to invest and what the purpose of the programme is.

The time scheduled for the interviews was every afternoon from Monday to Thursday, at the parents' homes as per appointment, each immediately after the filling in of the questionnaire. For the parents who could not be reached on those days, appointments were made for the four consecutive Saturdays. All the parents responded to the interviews.

The 39 families and 39 children were all informed about the interviews beforehand, at a parents' meeting. The majority of the parents who participated in this study indicated that they were the child's care-giving parent (with the exception of one grandmother who was looking after the children when the parents went to work). After having filled in the questionnaire with each parent, the researcher went more deeply into issues, which appeared unclear. The researcher would, for example, further ask about the questionnaire item on resources (item 50, Appendix A): What kind of resources do you normally use when you help your child with numeracy? How often do you buy such resources?

Four areas of parental involvement were concentrated on in the interviews: Resources, literacy, television and radio, and homework. The analysis of parents' responses revealed a pattern of levels of concern, which ranges along a continuum: profession of an **active involvement** in the different areas of their children's learning, some **show of interest**, and a **lack of involvement**.

4.3.2.2 Results and findings derived from semi-structured interviews

In interviews with 39 families from diverse backgrounds it was found that most parents demonstrated their willingness to assist in their children's education in different ways, although some of them did not themselves have education at all.

Concerning the question of **resources**, 23 parents appeared to be actively supportive of their children's learning. Some indicated that they were able to buy the necessary resources such as numeracy instruments, drawing books, pictures, crayons, scissors and reading books. The question was asked on how they assist their children when numeracy exercises were given. Some of the responses were: "We use our fingers, pebbles, counters or matchsticks for counting." One of the parents (of Learner 25) added that at times he uses pens, pencils or even crayons for counting. Of the 23 parents who

professed active involvement, 20 were literate, two were semi-literate and one was illiterate.

Of the 39 families, 11 appeared to have some show of interest, despite the fact that they were suffering extreme poverty. They indicated that it would be difficult for them to buy the relevant resources since they did not have money, but knowing that education is important, they improvised, for example, by using their fingers and matchsticks to count. Of these 11 families who appeared to have a show of interest, seven parents were semi-literate and four were literate.

Only five parents appeared to have a total lack of involvement in the education of their children. Of these, four were illiterate and one was literate. They seemed to have little interest in assisting their children as other families were doing. When asked why they did not give support in their children's education, one parent (of Learner 18) said she does not know the value of being concerned since her parents too had never been exposed to education. Her only concern was to have food in the house. Parents (of Learners 11 and 22) who were also not actively involved in the education of their children added that they could not afford to buy school uniforms, so it would not be possible for them to buy resources. Since they could not find jobs, they had no money at all.

Among the parents who indicated that they use fingers, pebbles and matchsticks to count, there were 33 who said that they had been advised to do so by the class teacher when they had attended a meeting early in the year. It was found that of the five parents, who appeared to have no interest in the purchasing of resources for their children, four were illiterate and one was literate, and none of them had ever attended any parents' meeting.

It was found that the amount and nature of **literacy** materials and the goals for using literacy did not differ much between the working-class families and those who were not working. The majority of the parents demonstrated their interest and support for learning in their children's education. For example, of these 34 families (22 parents were literate and 12 semi-literate), 29 families declared that they were actively involved. The parents in 23 of these families were working and six families did not have jobs. The parents were questioned as to how they are involved in the reading and writing development of their children. Parents (for example, of Learners 4, 7, 11, 17, 25, 29 and 37) indicated that they always make it a point that every afternoon they spend a few minutes reading together with their children. One parent (of Learner 37) added that sometimes she allows time for silent reading and then after a few minutes asks her child to draw the relationship between her own background experiences and ideas from the text. She was asked how does the

child feel when asked to do that, and to give an example of how the activity is run. She cited an example of the birth of Christ, that after silent reading she asked her child to connect it with what happens in the family when they are blessed with a newborn baby. Her child mentioned the love and happiness they experience in the home and thereafter she emphasised to the child that Christ was born to love people and people in turn should love Him and love one another as well. One parent (of Learner 29) added that even though she has not had an education, she likes to be present when her child does her reading because she also learns from her child.

Ten families appeared to display some show of interest in reading together with their children. They indicated that even though they cannot afford to buy learning materials for their children, they borrow reading materials from relatives and most of the time they rely on school facilities. Seven of these parents were more interested in reading than in writing. The reading aloud of a few sentences, with children repeating after them, for a few minutes was mostly preferred. One parent (of Learner 21) indicated that he had never been exposed to writing, but he knows how to read, that is why he likes reading more than writing. He added: "I do not even know how to write my name, but I know how to read it." A few of the parents indicated that they do not know how to read nor write, but they are able to speak all of Tsonga, Afrikaans and English. Some parents (of Learners 1, 5, 12, 24, 36 and 38) indicated that although they are literate, they never do reading with their children, they are not actively involved since domestic chores need their attention, especially after long working hours. However, they give instructions that, when children come back from school, they must do their schoolwork before they play on the streets.

Very few parents seemed to have a total lack of participation in reading together with their children because of their own lack of literacy. Two parents (of Learners 20 and 39) indicated that their children are the first borns in the family and that there is no one to help them with schoolwork. These parents added that they cannot read or write themselves and that their children depend only on their educator. They were asked why they do not ask assistance from relatives or friends and the answer was: "We do not want to bother people. We normally ask for food from them and now we believe it will be too much inconvenience for them. We struggle to pay for the school fees and we feel it is okay." Questions were furthermore extended on watching **television** and listening to the **radio** programmes. Parents were asked what happens if their children wish to watch television or listen to the radio when parents do not want them to. A few parents appeared to be actively involved. They appeared to have discovered the value of television and radio. For example, the parents of Learners 16, 25, 27 and 37 indicated that they spend one to two hours per day either watching television or listening to the radio together with their

children, explaining some of the programmes as questions are raised. One parent (of Learner 37) added: "Television and radio are educational, so I thoroughly explain the programmes and sometimes ask my child to tell about any experience she has had or has heard which is related to the characters or feelings awakened by the programmes. She would, for example, then talk about the sadness she felt over a character's loss in some of the programmes she has watched or listened to." One parent (of Learner 25) added that her child obeys whatever she says. She keeps order in her family and tells her child, for example, that programmes will be watched only after the homework is done. She emphasised that she was not lucky enough to be educated, she now wants her children to regard education as priority number one.

Among the parents who appeared only to have a show of interest, one parent (of Learner 18) indicated that even if he does not have education, time is set aside for watching television or listening to the radio. He added that by watching television or listening to the radio he is able to explain some of the programmes to his child. Some parents (of Learners 1, 5, 8, 24 and 36) indicated that they do not have television and radios, and if their children want to go and watch television at the neighbour's place, they allow them because they know their children will gain knowledge and that their children will be able to describe some of the programmes to them.

Some parents (of Learners 13, 20, 21 and 38), however, appeared to have a total lack of involvement and support for learning. They indicated that on weekends they used to spend time together watching television and listening to the radio with their children, but now they no longer have interest since their children never ask questions about the programmes. One parent (of Leaner 20) added that she does not have time at all.

With regard to how parents give support in their children's **homework**, a small number of parents (of Learners 15, 16, 25 and 37) appeared to be actively involved. They indicated that their children are aware that whenever they come from school, they must do their homework before they may become involved in other activities. One parent (of Learner 16) added that his child knows that even if her parents are not at home when she arrives, she must make it a point that she does her homework and that they will check her work when they return from work. If mistakes are encountered, these parents will rectify them, especially in numeracy where they regard the use of counters important. All these parents added that they do read together with their children.

A considerable number of parents appeared only to have a show of interest. Parents (of Learners 7, 10, 12, 18, 21, 26, 33 and 38) indicated that they would like to assist their

children with homework, but they have no time to assist or even check their children's work as they leave for work early and return home late. In most cases when they leave their children are still asleep, and when they come back in the evening, their children have already fallen asleep, so there is no direct supervision coming from them. They indicated that they ask older siblings and aunts to do the supervision. The grandmother (of Learner 7) added that she supervises the child and asks the older siblings to help since his parents come home only on weekends. The grandmother also indicated that she does offer help where she is able to.

A few parents indicated that they do not have patience for doing homework together with their children. For example, the parents of Learners 5, 8, 10, 33 and 36 indicated that they cannot concentrate after their long working hours. If they help with homework and children make mistakes, they become upset because they are tired. They added that it is better for them not to be involved because they are afraid of making more errors. On this note they ask the older siblings to help with homework.

4.3.2.3 Discussion: PILEQ and semi-structured interviews

(a) Parental Involvement in Learners' Education Questionnaire (PILEQ)

For the purpose of discussion, the data are divided into the following categories:

- Descriptive data on the learners.
- Descriptive data on the parents.

The discussion will first focus on the contextual information and address other aspects against the background of context, and finally try to develop more understanding of the dynamics of parents' involvement in the education of their children.

- **Data on the learners**

Table 4.1 indicated gender, home language, living area and age of the Grade Two learners in the research school. The fact that 20.5% of the learners did not have Tsonga as their home language will obviously require one to understand that the school, which was mainly for the Tsonga community, contained a significant number of learners who had to learn through an additional language at the early age of Grade Two. Tswana was quite strongly represented at 12.8%, even though no lessons were presented in Tswana. The fact that 20.5% of the learners were non-Tsonga learners implies that since the Foundation Phase education was not presented in first language, it would obviously hamper their performance. They might lose some of the relevant information because Tsonga was not their mother tongue.

The researcher retained the full sample size of 39 for analysis because the diversity of learners in the classroom was acknowledged. For the reason that non-probability sampling and proportional representation do not qualify any of the variables under consideration every child has a chance to be selected: There was no division of learners in terms of their different backgrounds, for example, culture, tradition, religious affiliation and gender. This type of selection may in turn be a limitation for this study since some factors such as language background were not given further attention.

In his research, Kitavi (1995:247) found that 61.5% of the learners in the rural areas of South Africa have to travel long distances from home to school, which may hamper their learning. In this current research a considerable proportion of the learners (64.10%) came from the township while a third came from the informal settlement, which would lead one to expect that a sizeable number were likely to experience problems such as the following: On rainy days they may not have come to school; they may not always have arrived at school on time, especially because they live far away from the school; the economic circumstances of the families may have compelled some parents to withdraw their children from school; a heavy load of chores at home may have been tiring, which could distract children from doing their schoolwork; and, finally, such chores may have prevented children from engaging in other activities such as sport and play, and they may have had to do their homework in the evenings after an extremely full day. It appears that girls are expected to do household chores. In some instances, girls must cope with running the household and must answer personally for the safety and care of siblings, which could become a stumbling block to good scholastic performance.

According to Alexander (2000:1101), the above problems are caused by poverty which is the result of unemployment and inflation. In his research on the country's market issues (Alexander 2000:1104) it was indicated that in 1996, about 34% of the South African labour force was unemployed.

Literature on the subject confirms that there is a tendency to rely heavily on children for help in running the house. Research by Liddell, Kvalsvig, Shabalala and Qotyawa (1994:4) has shown that urban children were involved in more chores than their rural counterparts – a phenomenon they could not explain. Dawes and Donald (1994:4) refer to Reynold's (1989) observation that teenage girls may be withdrawn from school in order to care for their younger siblings while their parents are at work. Swart-Kruger (1994:223) refers to circumstances that oblige parents to make arrangements that burden their children with heavy responsibilities.

Literature on the South African situation indicates that learner and parental involvement in school activities can really only occur if the school is close to the community from which it draws its learners. For this reason, Bot (1992:68-69) stresses the importance of schools' being situated in areas that are more easily accessible to the local community. Fredrikse (1992:32) quotes one interviewee in his study as saying that distance and transport make learners late for school and prevent them from taking part in sport.

In the research year there was still a clear effect of over- and under-age entry into schools. Entry age was not yet applied consistently. Table 4.1 indicated that there were four (10.3%) under-age learners (six years) and four (10.3%) over-age learners (two learners aged nine, one learner aged 11 and one learner aged 13) which would lead one to have many questions. For example, concerning the under-age learner: Did the parents regard the school as a childcare facility? Was any special attention given to the needs related to their under-age by either the parents or the teacher? About the over-age learners: Is there any history of neglect to address the special needs of these learners in the school? What was the cause of delay for these learners?

Figure 4.1 indicated that five children per family constituted a large family and that 61.5% of the families had only 1-3 children each, which would lead one to expect more active involvement by these parents of such small families than parents who have more responsibilities in larger families. Children from larger families may not receive much assistance from their parents. Pallas (2000:166) indicates that having many siblings limits an individual child's access to educational support materials. That is, coming from a family with many siblings may have a negative influence on the education of the children in some respects related to time and/or cash. As it is, family background is important for educational success (Pallas, 2000:167).

About 80% of the children occupied first, second and third position in the family as indicated in Figure 4.2. This could lead one to expect that the position of the child in the family may influence the extent to which parents are able to support the learning of their children. In many cases the first-born may have no one to look up to, especially where parents are illiterate. They may have to rely on their own resourcefulness in dealing with homework and other activities related to education. On the other hand, second and third borns may be in a better position because their older siblings would have gone to school earlier and so would be in a better position to assist them to complete their assignments and projects at home. Duminy (1991:49) found that older children in a family are in most cases given extra responsibilities and tasks which they, at that stage, might seriously resent and that resistance might be carried over into the school situation.

In some families the first-born may be dependent and spoiled. If there is a gap, for example between the first and second born, the first-born may feel strangely frustrated because suddenly, after three or four years of being on his/her own, another child arrives. This may mean that the warmth and attention the first-born has been receiving is now to be shared. According to Sommerfeldt, Troland, Ellersten and Markestad (1996:927) and Deshler (1996:69-71), the first-born may experience feelings of depression, shyness and anxiety. Their progress at school could also be affected. Therefore, the findings in this study are contrary to the expectation since some of the illiterate parents appeared to have willingness to help in the learning of their children which also did not affect the position of the child in the family.

- **Data on the parents**

According to the literature study and strongly endorsed in the White Paper on Education and Training (1995:53) it is important that all parents take part in the education of their children. Needless to say, parents exert a lot of influence on their children's cognitive development in the early years, thus close contact between home and school should be maintained if the child is to learn effectively (Munn 1993:1).

Table 4.3 indicated the parents' experience of learning which could be expected to have an impact on the form and amount of support for learning in the education of their children. Some of them might have felt too unsure to venture information on account of their limited levels of literacy and lack of confidence regarding education generally.

Initially, in the African culture, only men were to attend school whereas women were to do hard labour in the fields. Higher posts were also recommended for men only, for example, principals or inspectors. According to the Educators' Employment Equity Act of 1998:8, every person has the right to learn, and every person is trainable. In Table 4.3 it is indicated that 75.0% of the fathers in comparison to 30.8% of the mothers qualified at levels beyond primary school. From Table 4.3, one would conclude that even in this era, a considerable number of African mothers still experience illiteracy problems as compared to African fathers.

Table 4.4 indicates that the majority of the families (30 of the 39 families) are not involved with the education of their children in the sense that they have not met and talked with the principal. This may mean that those 30 families leave everything in the hands of the educators and are only interested in the results at the end of the year. As stated in the literature study (Letsie 1994;42; Van Schaik 1990:54-55,) parents regard the school as an autonomous institution, that teachers are sufficiently competent to work alone, and that

their participation as parents amounts to intrusion in the work of professionals. However, if parents do not take part in the education of their children, the children's results would be affected (Duminy 1991:197). Parents can only give meaningful support if they are familiar with what goes on in the school. Sixty one point five percent (61.5%) of the families have attended meetings at the school on different occasions, as indicated in Table 4.5. This means to some extent they know what is happening at school, and are in a better position to support the learning of their children. In his research on an educational home visiting scheme, John (1980:123) found that the relationship between the teacher, the parent and the child will not prevail if the three will not work together. According to the report by the South African National Education Policy Act 1996b (Act No. 27, 1996, Section 5(1)(d)), parental involvement is important concerning education policy decisions.

According to Pallas (2000:166) most theories agree that family support does have a great deal to do with scholastic achievement and success in learning. Cusick (1992:65) supports the views about the importance of the family outlook on life which will facilitate a child's learning at school. It is, therefore, important to note that education of a child should be viewed as a joint venture between the school and the child's family.

In Tables 4.6 and 4.7 it appears that some parents do assist their children with homework. Nearly 60.0% of the families helped out by explaining difficult words to their children. Eleven families (28.2% of the families) used manipulatives such as counters, pebbles and matchsticks to rectify mistakes in numeracy whereas 10.29% read sentence by sentence to their children. This may mean that despite the fact that some of the families are not literate and numerate, they do give support in the education of their children. Research by Taylor and Dorsey-Gaines (1988, in McCarthey 2000:145) found that the families used literacy for a variety of purposes, audiences and situations. They read to gain information to meet practical needs, to schedule daily functions and to learn about events. Reading was also used for recreational and educational purposes.

Fewer than 30.0% of the families monitored their children's work on a daily basis, and 17.9% monitored work on a weekly basis. The rest monitored work less regularly – only after attending a parent's meeting or even once per quarter, some parents resorting to monitoring only if they had the time or when the child had failed. One possible reason for the low rate of supervision may be that some parents work far away from home. They leave early in the morning when children are still asleep and return home when the children have already fallen asleep. Parents may be tired and stressed themselves and they may, therefore, not be in a position to give guidance and learning support to their children. This possibility is supported by literature consulted (Grolnick *et al.,* 1997:539;

Weeto 1997:52; Heystek 1999:109) which reveals that stressful events might take time from parents, drain energy and attention, or both, making parents less psychologically available for or aware of the requirement to render support in their children's education.

From Tables 4.8 and 4.9 it appears that few parents interact with their children regarding television or radio programmes. The fact that some children watch television in the afternoon or evening may deny them time to do their homework. This opinion is supported by Singh, Brickley, Trivette, Keith, Keith and Anderson (1995:301) that if parents' supervision regarding home rules for watching TV and for doing schoolwork are weak, their children's performance would be affected. The fact that most children are allowed to watch television on Saturdays (89.3%) and Sundays (82.1%) in comparison to only 39.3% on weekday afternoons and 21.4% on weekday evenings, would lead one to expect that ample time is given to homework during weekdays. Moeketsi (1998:41) brings together the findings of different researchers who all agree that the child's home environment and the support he/she gets from home can help to enhance learning and positively affect scholastic achievement or performance.

In summary it may be concluded from the quantitative data that, according to parents, despite their often-low level of literacy, tiredness from work, and lack of resources, some limited measures are in place to support the learning of their children. However, limitations and constraints seem rife.

(b) Semi-structured interviews

The interviews revealed that some parents appeared not to be actively involved in their children's education due to their poverty and illiteracy. For example, they were hesitant about providing and/or utilising educational resources for their children, helping their children with homework, and taking time to listen to the radio and/or watch television together with their children so as to discuss programmes where the need arose.

These findings partly explain why some parents do not take much active part in the education of their children. As a result of poverty and illiteracy, some parents find themselves too busy looking, amongst other things, for the next meal of the day, school uniforms and next term's school fees and thus neglect or fail to provide the necessary help to their children. The parents should know that the school supplements the home, so it is important to get involved in the education of their children in every small way possible.

The literature confirms that poverty and parental illiteracy cause parents to stay away from school activities (Oosthuizen 1992:61; Van der Linde 1993:40; Van der Westhuizen &

Legotlo 1996:73). It appears that due to poverty and illiteracy some parents feel inferior to visit the school (Heystek 1999:108) and feel uncomfortable when they are requested to get involved in their children's education (Van der Linde 1993:40). Several studies have reported that low-income minority parents often have different beliefs about parents' roles in school involvement and are less involved in school activities than higher income, non-minority parents (Chavkin & Williams 1993:78; Connell, Spencer & Aber 1994:495; Delgado-Gaitan 1991:27). Some parents believe that, since they already experience the difficulty of surviving, their time is spent in making ends meet and they do not feel adequately qualified to make valid contributions towards their children's education. They believe that their children should work hard and that educators and their siblings provide enough help.

According to Jacobs (1991:518), there is a growing body of literature establishing the importance of parents' beliefs in influencing their children's achievement attitudes and academic performance. Jacobs (1991:519) referenced studies that demonstrated that parents' beliefs and expectations are related to the child's self-perception of ability and achievement expectations. These studies further pointed out that parents' beliefs about their children's abilities have an even greater influence on children's achievement attitudes than does previous performance.

It is yet again emphasised that some parents do not find time to attend to their children's schoolwork because of their own work commitment. In his research, McLloyd (1990:320) found that economic hardship undermines parenting generally. Researchers such as Conger, Ge, Elder, Lorenz and Simons (1994:549) found that, beyond demographic measures *per se*, it is the parents' experienced inadequacy of resources that will be most likely to disrupt involvement in school activities.

The findings indicated (Table 4.5) that some parents have never visited the school. During the interviews with parents, some of them indicated that they leave early for work and come back home in the late afternoon or early evening which could be the reason for not having visited the school. The general unavailability of African parents to their children (mainly due to socio-economic reasons) greatly influences the emotional support which learners receive. Support for learning is not only cognitive, but children need to be supported emotionally, physically, socially, and motivation also plays a role in the growing children. The literature mentions that many parents are forced to choose between employment to ensure survival and attending to their children's emotional and intellectual needs (Ramphele 1992:23).

The description of parental involvement provided by parents who professed to be actively involved and those with a show of interest is likely to have positive effect in their children's education. It was found that some of the parents were able to buy the required resources for their children, were willing to spend some time reading together and helping or supervising their children with homework. These parents knew that they have a role to play in the education of their children and advocated cultural upbringing as a strong factor contributing to the educational success of their children. At the same time they encouraged independent reading to their children.

The findings in Table 4.8 indicated that the majority of the families had radios and television sets. Thirty-four families (87.2%) indicated that they had radios while 28 families (71.8%) had television sets. Even though the number of families who had radios or televisions in their homes is high, it was noticed that only 11 families (32.4% of the 34 families who had a radio) explained some of the programmes on the radio to their children while 53.6% of the 28 families who had a television set explained some of the television programmes to their children.

It was also found that watching television and listening to the radio was allowed in the majority of the families (refer to Table 4.9). A high percentage of the 28 families (89.3% of the families who have a television set) allowed viewing times on Saturdays and 23 families (82.1%) allowed Sunday viewing times which could suggest that viewing did not intrude much on school work during weekdays. When questioned, parents stated that although television and radio are educational, they want their children to spend much time on schoolwork, especially on weekdays so as not to be like their parents who have never been exposed to education.

The interviews have added to the understanding of the parent's motivation and orientation in their children's education. The purpose of the interview was to understand how parents help their children with regard to different learning tasks. They used a few methods of helping, for example, in reading they used drill (revision or repetition) and explanation methods while in numeracy tasks they resorted to pebbles and other counters. During the interviews parents said they enjoyed working with their children and some were also hungry for guidance. Eventually, upon receiving guidance from the researcher, parents said they were learning new ideas when helping their children; they were feeling more comfortable; they were having more self-confidence and interest, and developing a positive attitude and skills about being able to help their children. They expressed appreciation to the researcher, and most importantly they emphasised that they had never

felt that they knew how to help their children, but now they realised how important it was that they take an active role in their children's education.

4.4 ETHNOGRAPHIC OBSERVATION

4.4.1 ADMINISTRATION OF THE ETHNOGRAPHIC OBSERVATION

The ethnographic observation was conducted by the researcher in the homes of the learners as well as in their classroom.

4.4.1.1 Ethnographic observation with parents in their homes

Overt observation was applied with the researcher as observer-as-participant during the execution of a learning task by the learners under the guidance of their parents. The researcher designed all the learning tasks (based on the class work of the morning at school). The Grade Two learner in the family was given a learning task in numeracy or language (Tsonga or English) and each parent was asked to help his/her child.

The observation took place during the months of May and June of the practical research year, immediately following the interview with each parent. The purpose of the ethnographic observation was to clarify understanding about the interactions between the individual children and their parents in respect of a learning task. Special emphasis and time was given to numeracy and reading skills. The main emphasis was on getting parents involved, for example, in reading and doing numeracy together with their children. A detailed record of the interactions containing many verbatim remarks was kept.

4.4.1.2 Ethnographic observation in the classroom

The ethnographic observation in the classroom took place during the months of May and June and continued in September to December of the practical research year. The learners and their educator were obviously fully aware of the presence of the researcher. The researcher conducted participative observation and communicated with learners in various lesson activities. The educator at all times, nevertheless retained the teaching role.

The main purpose was to observe how learners behaved in class, for example, who raised their hands when questions were asked, after how long did the learners respond to questions, which learners usually or even always responded to questions and what was

their attitude towards learning, what appeared to be the feeling of those who seldom or never raised their hands, and which of the learners were motivated to take part.

Since by this time the learners were acquainted with the researcher, she was qualitatively trying to see how each learner was responding in class. The researcher also wanted to see if there was a culture of learning as well as culture of teaching in the classroom, which of the learners were interested in the lessons and whether the educator understood the behaviour of each child in terms of his/her background. Any form of behaviour, which could perhaps be related to the involvement of learners' parents in their learning, was recorded and will be discussed in paragraph 4.4.2.

4.4.2 RESULTS AND FINDINGS DERIVED FROM THE ETHNOGRAPHIC OBSERVATION

4.4.2.1 Introduction

During the observation of learners at home with their parents and at school with their educator, it was found that most parents as well as the educator, demonstrated their willingness to help the learners. Learners too demonstrated their interest in learning in many different ways. According to Gee (1990, in McCarthey 2000:146), social and cultural groups have unique and complex ways of integrating written language with daily social life and children have different ways of interpreting texts, telling stories, asking questions or given explanations. Parents too have different ways of assisting their children in schoolwork.

4.4.2.2 Ethnographic observations made at learners' homes

The ethnographic observations were conducted in 39 families with 47 parents (refer to Table 4.3). There were 38 mothers, one grandmother (of Learner 19) who was taking care of children while the parents were at work, and eight fathers (of Learners 4, 7, 8, 16, 24, 27, 29 and 37) who participated in the task. Of the 39 families, 26 (66.7%) reported to be married and living together, 10 (25.6%) were unmarried, two (5.1%) widowed and one parent was separated.

For the purpose of introduction, parents were asked if they liked reading and were requested to mention some of the texts they had read recently, and to say something on what they had read about. The responses included that they liked reading because it "refreshes" their memory, "prevents (them) from yawning", "drives away boredom", "keeps them active" and "prevents them from listening to gossip". One parent (of Learner 32)

mentioned some books she had read, for example, “Tale of Two Cities”, “Going to the Moon”, which she had also read to her child, and two stories from the Reader’s Digest, namely, “What Young South Africans Think” and “Magic Moment with my Son”. One parent (of Learner 10) remembered the story of an old Tsonga woman who used to teach her daughters domestic work while at the same time she was singing. Another parent (of Learner 24) added that she knew how to read but has never read any book because reading is not her hobby. She further exclaimed that it wastes her time of selling vegetables and sweets on the street so as to raise money for her children’s school fees. The parent of learner 20 said that she had never been exposed to reading and writing and she, therefore, did not have an interest in books.

The parents were further asked to come up with some specific activities they did with their children. One parent (of Learner 37) said that she loved baking and that she would encourage her daughter to love it too. She added that she liked spending Sunday afternoons singing songs and reciting rhymes and/or poems to her children while they were listening. One parent (of Learner 36) said that more than anything she liked to knit jerseys for small children and that she had encouraged her daughter to learn how to knit for her dolls. The parent of Learner 23 stated that he loved gardening and planting beautiful flowers together with his son. He added that his son had told him that one day he wants to have his own garden when he is a grown up.

Irrespective of whether the parents in the research group were educated or not, it was found that a considerable number displayed interest in the education of their children, even though at first there were a few who appeared to be reluctant and shy to do numeracy or language tasks with their children.

The interest was shown while the parents were actively helping their children in the numeracy and reading tasks. They generally spent the first few minutes using their fingers and counters such as pebbles to count out the number question or reread the sentences presented to their children until the children were able to do the task on their own. It was observed that the children were more free to do the work with their mothers than their fathers. This agrees with Matlou’s (1993:33) finding that in the domain of modesty and language, there is a great reserve between the children and their father and a very close connection with their mother. Most of the fathers did not respond due to work commitments.

As questions continued, those parents (19.1%, i.e. of Learners 2, 5, 12, 13, 20, 25, 28, 31 and 34) who could not read or write well but were willing to help, requested the older

siblings or adults (aunts) to assist with the learning task in their presence. The siblings and/or adults (aunts) did what was required of them, displaying pleasure at being entrusted with this role and there was ready acceptance of the task from their side. Some parents (of Learners 5, 20 and 31) instructed their children to listen carefully to the instructions given by these helpers to avoid making mistakes. If Learners 5, 20 or 31 happened to make a mistake, the sibling and/or adult patiently asked him/her to repeat the task and to do it aloud until he/she got it right. If the same learner was still encountering a problem, the sibling and/or aunt would persist reading together with him/her until he/she managed to do it on his/her own.

Some parents (of Learners 13, 25 and 34) on the other hand, speedily came up with warnings. For example, the parent of Learner 25 said that mistakes were not permitted. Another parent (of Learner 13) was harsh to her child, saying that if he kept making mistakes there would be no future for him. The parent of Learner 34 admonished the child to be quick and not to waste time. Some parents (e.g. of Learners 12 and 28) were more patient, stating that they believed that if children make mistakes and are allowed more time to correct those, they will become better learners in the future. One parent (of Learner 12) said she felt more comfortable by having been present when her child was doing a learning task and expressed her wish that they (parents) should be afforded an opportunity for literacy education that would enable them to help their children in school work. Parents were enthused by the kind of exercise presented and displayed growing eagerness to know more about the best ways to approach the learning tasks.

In the task of reading the sentences or paragraph or discussing the meaning of some words, some variety of actions was found. For example, some parents (of Learners 4, 6, 8 and 19) asked their children to repeat after them whereas other parents (of Learners 5 and 17) pointed a finger to a sentence for the children to read without help, even for the first time. Another parent (of Learner 22) asked her child to close her eyes while she was reading to her so that she could listen with full attention, to grasp the meaning of the text (Tsonga). For her to know that the child understood the meaning, she selected three words from the text, first in Tsonga and then in English, namely “milenge”, “tindleve” and “rhirhimi” to supply the meaning and wrote them on a piece of paper:

(a)	Milenge	feet
	Tindleve	ears
	Rhirhimi	tongue
(b)	Feet	milenge
	Ears	tindleve
	Tongue	rhirhimi

This same child (Learner 22) was also told to point a finger as she pronounced part-by-part of a word. Sometimes the reading of this learner would be fluent and soft and sometimes it would be more halting or loud.

The majority of the parents (24 – 77.4%) were more knowledgeable in Tsonga than in English. For example, in reading the sentence “Hi kombela xinkwe xa ku basa”, the parent of Learner 18 read fluently and he was quick to finish the sentence. This parent even explained further that in North Sotho it said “Ke kgopela senkgwe se se šweu” whereas in Tswana it meant “Ke kopa borotho jo bo sweu”. In the English task the same parent could not pronounce some words correctly, for example “Children, do not play with electrical wires”. The word “electrical” was difficult for him to pronounce, but he repeated it until he managed to give a clear pronunciation. The Tswana speaking parent of Learner 10 did not find any difficulty in reading the Tsonga task. For example, she knew that “Mi ba rhungula e kaya” meant “Ba dumele ko gae”. She explained that she grew up with the Tsonga people and attended the Tsonga school that is why she was so fluent in reading Tsonga.

If the child’s reading contained errors, some parents (of Learners 7, 16, 19 and 21) would repeat each sentence separately until the child got it right. Some of the parents (of Learners 23, 27 and 37) would try to explain the meaning of a word if they realised it looked unfamiliar to the children. For example, in English when they were reading about “The Mighty God who created heaven and earth”, the parent of Learner 23 realised that her child could not pronounce the word “Mighty” correctly. She then explained the whole sentence in Tsonga, saying it means “Xikwenbu Xi na Matimba”.

Some parents (of Learners 3, 11 and 20) praised and encouraged their children during reading. For example, the parent of Learner 3 said: “Good boy, you have done so well, keep it up”. Another parent (of Learner 11) said: “I know you can do it” and the parent of Learner 20 said: “Keep trying, you are getting there”. Three parents (of Learners 9, 16 and 36) patiently explained unfamiliar words to their children. The parents of Learners 5, 7, 27 and 37 encouraged and motivated their children to sometimes do their homework on their own so that when parents came back from work, they can only check and help correct items where mistakes were made. Some parents (of Learners 33 and 38) from both the informal settlement and the township area, were a bit uncomfortable with this type of exercise, but with time they generally demonstrated their participation. For example, the parent of Learner 33 was absolutely quiet at the beginning whereas the parent of Learner 38 immediately asked for help, she could not even provide extra ideas.

With time these same parents participated in a more lively way. If they knew something is right, they would, for example, wink their eyes to show their agreement.

By contrast some parents (of Learners 10, 18, 21, 26, 30 and 34) were not so willing to help their children. The parents of Learners 1, 4, 13, 32 and 35 were strict and even more impatient. They did not show much willingness to help reading together with their children. One parent (of Learner 13) said: "I am tired and I am not going to repeat if you make a mistake". The parent of Learner 32 said: "In my time there was nobody to supervise me, so I am only going to listen to you". Another parent (of Learner 1) said: "If you make a mistake, I will say 'again' or 'once more' until you get it right".

In numeracy tasks most parents helped their children by using counters (e.g. pebbles, beans and even apples) for counting. If the child happened to add incorrectly, the parent would tell him/her to repeat the work using fingers. Parents encouraged their children to speak out when counting so as to support or enhance concentration and avoid making mistakes again. One parent (of Learner 16, from Zambia) allowed his child to use a calculator instead of counters. He indicated that when the child was in Grade One he had encouraged her to make use of matchsticks, pebbles and fingers to count. He now allowed his child to use a calculator, but only in his presence. When the child worked incorrectly, he was observed to exercise patience and allow her more time until the sum was done in the correct way. The child did not yet have much knowledge about the use of a calculator, but gradually she appeared to be more willing to learn how to use it.

The parents' willingness to do numeracy and to read together with their children was encouraged by the researcher upon completion of the task. A question was asked: "What have you learned from participating in the learning task?" The parent of Learner 29 said: "I learned to be more patient with my child. Sometimes when we work together, my child teaches me since I do not speak English very well and I have discovered that when parents help, children will know that the school is important". To some parents, it was a rather new experience, for example, the parent of Learner 24 said: "I have never done this before. It is exciting and you get a wonderful feeling". The parent of Learner 37 said: "I learned about ways of helping like telling stories and reciting poems and drawing stories that I did not know about". The parent of Learner 28 said: "I have valued and enjoyed the whole exercise. Working together with my child has created an active attention in her school work for the future". Another parent (of Learner 15) added that it was fun and exciting to work with her child, that she had learned what to do.

Children learn by participating in meaningful activities and this proved true, also during the ethnographic observation. Generally the learners reported that they enjoyed doing numeracy and reading with a family member more than alone. In reply to the question: "What do you enjoy or like your parents to do when you do numeracy or when you read?," most responses indicated that they liked to have enough instruments for numeracy; drawing books with lots of pictures; being helped with difficult words; and any positive attention such as nods, encouraging remarks and treats. Some of the learners also indicated that this experience had been new to them. At the beginning of the exercise some of the learners were a bit uncomfortable and they looked tense. For example, Learner 4 looked tense when she was requested to do a reading task with her father. She said she was scared to work with her father because he was always impatient and he never wanted to help her, as he had pointed out that she must do her homework on her own. The parent was asked to give his child support by working together with her. With time, the learner became more comfortable and co-operated.

4.4.2.3 Discussion: Data regarding parents interacting with their children in learning tasks

Parents as primary educators play a vital role in the effective formal and informal primary education of their children throughout their lives. Their role is of inestimable importance in laying the foundation for learning to listen, speak, read and write, and above all, for supervising all learning. Kenway (1996:217) states that parents who speak and read to their children contribute to better performance in their reading in school, even when the parents cannot speak the language of learning and teaching in the school, for example, English.

In this study it was found that some parents' willingness to help their children with learning tasks opened good relationships. For example, in doing the work repeatedly and reading aloud they had engaged their children's active attention. Through this effort more correct responses were observed, for example, there was a close relation in some of the families in the sense that some of the children wanted to take a lead by reading to their parents instead. The parents of these children would also come up with some examples related to what the text was about.

However, it was also observed that some of the learners were not so free to do the work with their parents. They appeared to feel under threat, maybe because it was their first experience of working in someone's presence (the researcher), or maybe because they knew their parents were strict, which could lead one to conclude that a strict or neglectful

parent presents a direct threat to the cognitive development of the child. It could be argued that parents' involvement in learning is not just helping or providing knowledge in the education process, it is about quality and about what happens in this education process. MacLeod (1996:129) reflects this in saying "… involvement is the process of understanding that will open up opportunities for parents to become participants in their children's learning."

Some parents (of Learners 6, 17, 19, 23 and 28) actually learned during the session how to work together and to be patient with their children – they learned how to give their children support for learning and they also learned from their children. It was also observed that some parents asked for advice even before they could try the tasks which caused more sensitivity in the child's interest. Parents should know that a positive and favourable environment would make children develop a positive attitude towards learning. Meadows (1996:46) emphasizes parental reading to children at home, that children will acquire knowledge about reading and books, will pick up positive attitudes towards reading and will even practice some of the skills of literacy which could contribute to the development of other language skills.

Learning was not always effective and successful for some of the learners, since some of the parents were not literate, which could contribute to poor learning behaviours in school. Some of these parents immediately asked for help from the siblings and/or aunts. The siblings and/or aunts accepted the responsibility and helped the children while their parents were watching.

Some of the parents (of Learners 7, 8, 16, 29, 36, 37 and 39) asked their children to read a sentence more than once so as to achieve reading for fluency. If they realized that the pronunciation was not good or the child was hesitant, he/she was asked to read aloud. In some instances, when a mistake was encountered, parents (e.g. the parent of Learner 16) explained the meaning of the unfamiliar word to the child, for example, "A **huge** lion was chasing a hare": To give more clarification of the word "huge", he said it meant "big", and the child understood better. To some parents, the meaning of new words became important as they emphasized in the task, while some parents were more interested in reading fluently. In her research, Desimone (1999:22) found that the meaning and working together of parent and child differ systematically according to particular family characteristics.

It was also observed that some learners whose parents were illiterate and appeared to have feelings of inferiority, still became fluent in the reading of some text during the work

session, which could lead one to conclude that there was little difference between the influence of the assistance given by literate and illiterate parents. This is in line with Heystek's (1999:108) observation that, due to poverty and illiteracy, some parents feel inferior and uncomfortable when they are expected to get involved in the education of their children, though in some instances their children may actually do well academically.

Concerning numeracy tasks, the majority of parents used fingers and counters to count, except for one parent (of Learner 16) who allowed his child to use a calculator instead of counters. In the numeracy task also, some parents were patient to the extent that when a child made a mistake, she was allowed more time to repeat the work and at the same time to speak out when counting so as to do it with full concentration. It was also found that there were some parents (literate, semi-literate and illiterate) who reprimanded a child when a mistake was encountered.

However, some of these parents emphasized that they desired better education for their children than they had had themselves. They said that they needed to be empowered to be part of the education system of their children. Some of them needed the help of siblings and/or aunts to explain the task to their children. Parents indicated that they wanted to play a role in the education of their children, declaring that they should be trained in such a way that they will understand their cognitive role, to give cognitive support to their children by showing them how to solve problems and how to work with others in a group. However, South African research indicates that, while African parents value better education, increased expectations may not always be met (Bot 1992:79). These could be the reasons, that some of these parents are not always involved in the education of their children, which could in turn result in poor performance and some through their impatience, their lack of knowledge or their lack of literacy failed to support their children. The literature confirms that parental illiteracy and lack of knowledge about what a school is meant for, tends to cause parents not to help or supervise their children with schoolwork (Oosthuizen 1992:6; Van der Linde 1993:40; Van der Westhuizen & Legotlo 1996:73).

In his research, Cleaver (1994:12) found that many parents regard their children as extensions of themselves and dream that their children will succeed where they have failed. Cherian (1991:183-188) maintains that the interest parents have in education tends to be associated with their academic motivation and the willingness of their children to be active in learning. So it is important to note that the educational outcomes result from the reciprocal interaction between the qualities that the learner brings from home and the qualities of the school.

Again, it was found during the work sessions that there was extremely little variation in support methods in as far as numeracy and language were concerned. For example, parents did not bring other methods than drill and practice, e.g. problem solving, to enhance learning and/or understanding of the particular text. If the sentence was long, for example, it could have been broken up to bring easier understanding. The lack of variation in support strategies might be strongly related to the education the parents have themselves received, i.e. the parents' poor experience of education under the earlier political dispensation in South Africa. Parental involvement, chiefly in the formerly disadvantaged families, leaves much to be desired. Because of the Bantu education or no education at all of the past, the parents never knew that they are part of the education system. African parents, therefore, still need to be educated and to be encouraged to participate in the education of their children. Engaging in the learning of Grade Two children should include the challenge of problem solving and a broader knowledge of how to supervise them. Grolnick *et al.,* (1997:546) found that if efforts are aimed at increasing home involvement, parents need strategies to help them work with their children.

This may bring one to conclude that many African parents do not have the knowledge of how to supervise their children in schoolwork. Even those who may be literate, their depth of the culture of literacy and their scope of education and knowledge also may be limited, which means that they need to be well trained so as to fully participate in the education of their children. In her research, McCarthey (2000:146) found that parents with less education and lower income tend to emphasise drill and practice over more informal opportunities for literacy learning. In any case, motivation alone without full knowledge and understanding of how to facilitate learning will not be enough to make children want to learn.

However, some parents did report that it was not just reading and doing numeracy together with their children, or supervising them that was important in itself – it was enjoying, developing and supporting the children's curiosity about the text and the meanings it conveys and also showing the children that they value the skills and knowledge of numeracy. The amount of support in language and numeracy did not differ much among those parents who appeared to be empowered and those that lacked education. According to the South African researcher, Mawasha (1986:25), there is a problematic literacy and numeracy to an extent that parental guidance and support are "… often non-existent." If all parents are not involved in the education of their children, it is unlikely that the children will become competent and successful adults.

Finally, one would expect parents with higher education to have stimulated their children more than those that lacked education, as well as to have used the problem-solving method with a thorough checking of children's understanding of the texts in general. In this case, the presence of the researcher might have been a problem to the parents as it was their first experience of being requested to work together with their children in such a situation.

It should be borne in mind that not all children learn in the same way. They come from different homes with different backgrounds and different upbringing and the influence of the home will remain strong. However, not all behaviour can be directly related to the parents' involvement in their children's learning, because of the differences in ability, personality and learning style. Some behaviour may have a relationship in terms of learners' performance and learners' behaviour because children are different and their environments are different too. The relationship may also be different because immediately when the child enters the school environment, he/she meets with different people who may affect his/her behaviour. For example, perhaps some learners from strict and impatient parents tend to behave cognitively in the same way as their counterparts in the classroom.

4.4.2.4 Ethnographic observations made in the classroom

There were 17 boys and 22 girls in the classroom. The classroom consisted of three rows of three tables each. At each of the front tables there were five learners and at the middle and back tables there were four learners each. The learners were mixed in their groups, that is, boys and girls at each table. The classroom was manageable, it was not overcrowded for its size.

During the first few days of the observation the children looked very quiet and tense. They were anxious to know more about the researcher's presence. The first two days were spent without observation, to let the learners and educator become accustomed to the researcher's presence, so that spontaneous and authentic actions could later be observed – that is to observe how the educator taught reading and numeracy skills, but mainly how the learners behaved during these lessons.

During teaching, when a learner (for example Learner 14) was showing passive behaviour, the educator would call upon him and ask why such behaviour. Some learners would say they were hungry since they had not had any breakfast before they came to school, and some would say they were tired because they came walking from the informal

settlement (10 kilometres away from school) since they had no money to board a taxi. This is in line with what Nhlapo (1997:19) has observed, namely that a hungry, thirsty, tired or sleepy child, or a child who has been sitting quietly for too long, is not likely to learn adequately (refer to paragraph 23.3.2). The school had a feeding scheme for all learners to have food during first break but nothing could be done about their tiredness.

Some learners behaved and associated well in the classroom. They were active and used their own initiative, for example during reading period some learners (Learners 2, 7, 11, 15, 16, 25, 27 and 37) were curious and could not wait to turn to a new page. Learner 7 said: “Ma’am, can I read the new page to the class?” Learner 27 said: “Please, let me read the paragraph you have read, Ma’am”. Learner 37 asked self-initiated questions such as: “Can I fly up to the moon? How is it on the moon, cold or hot?” whereupon Learner 15 added: “I would love to go to the moon one day”. Learners 2, 11, 16 and 25 also asked questions such as: “Who taught you numeracy Ma’am? Can I clean the board? Can I write the answers on the board? Can a rabbit swim?”

The same learners enjoyed it to answer questions in full sentences. They were eager to participate in the conversations through these questions. For example, if during reading they were asked to say what they think is going to happen next or what is the picture about, they would think and use their existing knowledge to add what they think will happen or describe the picture to the class. They appeared to be good readers and also had insight in the meaning of the story and the educator’s questions. They appeared to be good in both English and Tsonga, except for Learner 16 (a Zambian girl) who was still struggling to learn Tsonga. Sometimes she would read a word fluently (e.g. tshama hanse) without knowing what it meant. Learner 27 explained to her that it means “sit down”. Some of the learners in this strong group (Learners 2, 11, 25 and 37) would ask to be given an opportunity to tell the class about the extra reading they had done. Learner 2 said: “After having done my homework, I read from a book about a big fat pig who liked swimming. One day when he was swimming, he fell deeper into the swimming pool and drowned”. Learner 11 said: “Have you heard of a cat who lived in a tree? He used to go out quietly at night and steal food from the house next door”. Learner 37 added: “I have read about ‘The giant Panda’. He was so huge that every animal feared him”. These examples created interest in the majority of the learners and they also wanted to add more examples.

Some other learners (Learners 1, 3, 11, 13, 18, 22, 30 and 39) would lose interest during the lesson, look around, look withdrawn, look shy or would not follow instructions or explanations correctly, and some would look bored and started making a noise. For

example Learners 8, 18, 24 and 39, who liked making noises, were called to order and told to concentrate and obey instructions carefully so that they could all benefit from the lesson. Some of the learners (Learners 10, 23, 24, 30 and 39) produced written language with some difficulty and they seemed to use limited skills and strategies while writing. For example, during an English task, Learner 1 wrote “childs” instead of “children”. Learner 10 wrote “tooths” instead of “teeth” and Learner 23 wrote “foots” instead of “feet”, whereas in some instances there were some pronunciation errors in some of the words. For example, “sip” instead of “zip”, “wilbarrow” instead of “wheelbarrow” and “grech” instead of “crèche”.

With regard to numeracy there were still some learners who were slow in writing and those who were still struggling to add, subtract or multiply. For example, Learners 9, 12, 21, 33 and 36 were unable to complete the numeracy tasks. None of them did ask any questions while doing the sums. The majority of the learners (Learners 5, 6, 7, 13, 16, 17, 19, 25, 27, 29, 34, 35 and 37) managed to finish on time (i.e. 20 minutes before time). During the first two weeks learners were busy doing addition sums, in the third, fourth and fifth week they were doing subtraction sums and from the sixth until the last week of the observation period they were busy with the multiplication sums. Some of these learners (Learners 7, 16, 17, 19, 29, 31 and 37) volunteered to give the answers to the sums on the board. On a few occasions, mental arithmetic was done and Learners 7, 16, 17, 19, 27, 35 and 37 would finish well ahead of time.

Finally it was observed that Learners 7, 16, 17, 27, 31, 37 and 38 were doing extremely well in both numeracy and language. Learner 16 was good in English and numeracy whereas Learners 7, 17, 27 and 37 were doing well in Tsonga, English and numeracy. Should they realise they had made a mistake they would immediately rectify it. They were chosen to be group leaders in their class. Learners 31 and 38 were observed to be doing well in Tsonga and numeracy.

The majority of the learners (34 – 87.2%) usually completed their homework at home. Even though the homework was done, however, there were some mistakes in some of the learners’ books (of Learners 1, 4, 18, 24 and 35). When asked about the mistakes in their books, Learner 18 said: “My mother did not come back from work so there was nobody to help me with my homework, I did it on my own”. Learner 1 said: “I was first asked to do the work on a piece of paper, but when I wrote it back on my homework book, I missed some of the words. My older sister did not check if the work was correct”. Learner 35 added: “I thought I had done it correctly because my mom was helping me”.

Homework books were sometimes forgotten at home by some of the learners (Learners 6, 10, 20, 31 and 35). Learner 10 said: "I was late for school and I forgot my homework book on the table". Learner 20 said: "I decided to leave it at home because my brother did not want to help me. I was afraid Ma'am will punish me". Learner 31 said: "I forgot my homework book in the classroom. I promise I will never leave it here again". Learner 6 said: "While I was doing my homework my friend visited me. We went outside to play and I forgot that I had to finish my work".

4.4.2.5 Discussion: Data regarding learners and their educator in the classroom

In order to contemplate accurately what the findings concerning the children's learning behaviours in class have revealed, it is important to briefly discuss the teaching situation because it largely determines the classroom behaviour of the learners.

The educator created a strong teacher influence in her classroom. In the end she had succeeded in motivating each individual learner to learn, to work hard and to ask questions where they do not understand. As the learners were from different environments with different upbringing, they could be expected to react differently in their classroom. Some of them (Learners 1, 3, 8, 9, 10, 13, 14, 18, 22, 26, 30 and 39) would show a negative behaviour and react in an unusual way even if they were told to ask questions where they seem not to follow, which could lead one to conclude that within this behaviour there might be negative results from home. Some learners (Learners 7, 15, 16, 17, 19, 25, 27, 29, 31 and 37) would show extremely positive behaviour and want to ask questions more than the others. For example, if there was an unfamiliar word in a sentence, Learners 16, 17, 25, 27 and 37 would ask for its pronunciation and would also ask for help if they found it difficult to pronounce, which could indicate a positive effect of the involvement from home, which in turn may create confidence in children's learning. In her research, MacLeod (1996:126) found that if parents already have reasonable confidence in their own educational capabilities and understand the educational value presented to them, then their children are likely to benefit.

One principle of the educator was to make the children reread a sentence until they got it right. Some would do it (Learners 2, 5, 6, 8, 14, 26, 30 and 36) whereas others would keep quiet (Learners 14, 13, 18, 32, 33, 34 and 35), which might be related to the situation at home where some parents appeared to be strict and impatient about their children's learning (refer to paragraph 4.4.2.2).

Another principle of the educator was to be supportive when mistakes kept occurring. She would point a finger to a word like “accident”, breaking it up so as to make it easier for the learners to read/pronounce. Some learners (Learners 8, 12, 24, 26 and 39) kept on making a mistake, but Learners 7, 16, 17, 27 and 37 were exceptional in doing the right thing and this brings to mind what parents of these same learners did when they were actively involved while helping their children with the learning tasks (refer to paragraph 4.4.2.2).

The learners’ efforts were rewarded by the educator, by being told that they had done well, to keep trying and sometimes there would be encouraging words like “nice try”, “good work” and “you make my day”, especially for Learners 16, 25, 35 and 37.

It was found that Learners 7, 16, 17, 27, 31, 37 and 38 were doing extremely well in both language and numeracy. They were always ready and quick to answer questions. The parents of these same learners had shown positive involvement during the learning tasks at home, except for the parent of Learner 38 who appeared to be strict and impatient. Some of them (Learners 7, 16, 17, 27 and 37) would even ask self-initiated remarks apart from their lesson which appeared to be the result of the positive participation from their parents. It suggests that positive parental involvement in children’s education is a recipe for successful learning. This is in line with Morrow and Young’s (1997:736) finding that a child’s success in learning often depends on the experiences he/she has at home.

It was found that these same learners motivated, and would even encourage, some of the other learners who looked shy in class. For example, when Learners 3, 13, 22 and 33 tried to participate, some of the achievers (Learners 16, 27 and 37) would make self-initiated remarks and say: “it is nice to do it that way”. It yet again suggests that what these learners did resembles what is happening at home unlike for the parents who never praised their children when they did what was right, or those parents who never moved into a problem-solving method to enhance learner participation. Those achieving learners appeared to have the ability positively to take part in class. This confirms Camp’s (1993:19) and Cicogzani and Zani’s (1992:7) findings that the ability to answer questions or to participate in class reflects parental involvement.

It was observed during the learning tasks performed at home that some parents (of Learners 7, 16, 17, 27, 31 and 37) had shown positive involvement while parents of Learners 1, 4, 10, 13, 18, 21, 26, 30 and 34 had shown negative involvement in the education of their children, which could lead one to conclude that some learner’s behaviour could be indeed influenced by their parents’ attitude, not only by the formal

teaching in the classroom alone. Learner 38 was found to be a good achiever despite the negative behaviour of his parents.

The feeling and attitude of Learners 1, 6, 10, 20 and 32 who never raised their hands were observed to normalise during the 12 weeks of observation, which could lead one to conclude that not all learner behaviour can always be related to the home, as it was observed that some of these learners' parents appeared to be less willing to help and were strict and impatient. In time, Learners 1, 6, 20 and 33 asked to be given the opportunity to read a whole paragraph and tell the class what they were reading about, while Learners 10 and 33 volunteered to write the answers for numeracy on the board which could make them become successful adults in future.

More possible considerations of learners' behaviour in class will be discussed in the next section on the Behaviour Schedule.

4.5 THE LEARNERS' BEHAVIOUR SCHEDULE

4.5.1 ADMINISTRATION AND ANALYSIS OF BEHAVIOUR SCHEDULE

The researcher, on a daily basis, filled in the structured behaviour schedule (refer to Appendix B) about the behaviour of the 39 Grade Two learners, for the period of ethnographic observation, which was 12 weeks. A 5-point scale was used. The schedule was always completed at the end of each school day, reflecting on overall impressions of the learners' learning behaviours on the relevant points. At first, the learners and their educator seemed to be unsettled by the presence of the researcher, but eventually they got used to the researcher and their behaviour was thought to normalise. To accommodate a period of desensitisation to the researcher's presence in the classroom, the data collected during the first week was discarded, leaving a maximum of 55 score points per behaviour.

The main purpose of the schedule was to observe particular learning behaviours more systematically, to inform the qualitative description: Which children had interest in tasks; which of them had confidence and which were passive in class; how was their response when questions were raised; which children were restless in class; what was their reaction in carrying out instructions; who were competent in reading; which children were attentive and obedient in class; how was their speed in writing; who were motivated and how was their effort to participate in the lessons; what was their correctness of responses, including

their group behaviour; who had self-initiated questions or self-initiated remarks, and how did they display their skill and knowledge in class.

In the analysis use was made of non-parametric testing methods since the data do not assume some sort of normal distribution. The aim was firstly to see whether there was a significant upward movement in the learners' learning behaviours between the first five weeks and the last five weeks of the observation period. The reason was to see whether there was educator influence on the learning behaviours. If there were no significant upward movement, it would show that the effect of the educator on the learning behaviours was not strong, although much growth could still have occurred in the acquisition of skills and knowledge.

It could be argued that other factors have shaped the learning behaviours in a fairly stable profile such as within-child factors including the intelligence, learning ability and personality. The external influences could include the support from parents. For the comparison, week six was removed to get two extremes and these were treated as a two-sample case each time. The weeks where a learner was absent might obviously have an effect on the results.

Secondly, we looked at each learner's 18 dimensions of learning behaviours to see which differed significantly from the mean of the group, either positively or negatively, to see how specific learners' learning behaviours related to parents as observed in the learning task. The testing procedure used in this instance was the Wilcoxon Rank-sign test where the differences were used and assigned ranks.

4.5.2 RESULTS AND FINDINGS DERIVED FROM BEHAVIOUR SCHEDULE

Appendix B contains the weekly scores for each learner, coded 1-5 for every dimension of behaviour, the learner's total and mean % score for each dimension, and the group mean % for each dimension. Table 4.18 contains the data for Learner 1 as a frame of reference for description of the trends observed in the data.

TABLE 4.18 BEHAVIOUR SCHEDULE OF LEARNER 1

Dimensions Learner 1 (L1)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.7
Confidence	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	42	76.4	75.9
Restlessness	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.8
Skill	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	40	72.7	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	42	76.4	76.8
Motivation	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	39	70.9	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	36	65.5	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.2
Response	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	4	39	70.9	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												692	69.9	

With regard to learners' learning behaviours, there was no significant upward trend between the first five weeks and the last five weeks of the observation period. The table indicates that there were only 3's and 4's scored for Learner 1. There was no allocation of 1-, 2- and 5-codes. For the rest of the sample contained in Appendix B, there was also an exceedingly limited scoring in the 1-, 2- and 5-codes. The researcher could have been unsure to allocate such scores.

The mean percentage of the group in some dimensions of learning behaviours was high, that is, reading comprehension (76.8%); knowledge displayed during the morning periods (74.9%) and knowledge displayed in the last periods of the day (75.2%). It would seem that the learners in this group were feeling comfortable in the classroom, were learning and performing well and seemed to have positive behavioural and group norms. The mean percentage of the group in some dimensions of learning behaviours was low, i.e. restlessness in movement (61.8%); self-initiated remarks (58.8%); amount of effort exerted (61.3%); self-initiated questions (58.8%) and execution of instruction (61.9%). It would seem that in this group there might be developmental factors in that learners were not paying close attention and were not showing intense effort in their work. No significant difference was found between the first and last five weeks, which would mean the educator's influence might not have been strong.

TABLE 4.19 DIMENSIONS OF BEHAVIOUR WITH SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE FROM MEAN OF CLASSROOM BEHAVIOUR (1% level of significance)

Dimensions	Learners																																									TOTAL +	TOTAL –
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39		
Interest in task	+		–	–	–	+		–	–				–	–		+	–	–	+	–				+	+	–	+	+	+		–	+		+		+	+	+		14	12
Attention to task			–					–					+			+														–						+	+			4	3
Confidence	+			+		+	–	–	+	–			+	+	–	+	–		–	+	+			+		–	+	+	+		+	+	+	+		+	+	+	+	21	7
Restlessness in movements				–	–	–			–	–				–	–		–	–	–	–		–	–		–			–		–	–							–		0	18
Skill displayed			+												+	+								+	+		+		+					+		+	+	+		11	0
Knowledge displayed (morning per.)	+	+			+	–	–	–	–				–	+	+	+	+		–	–	–	–		+	+	–	+		+			+	–	+		+	+	+		16	11
Speed of work			+				–					–		–			–	–											–	–		+			–			–		2	9
Obedience	–	–			–	–	+	–	–	+	–	–			–	+	–		–	+	+	+	–	+	+	+	+	+	+	–	–	+	+	+	+	+	+		–	18	15
Motivation										–				–	–					–														+		+				2	4
Correctness of responses			+																+		+		+	+			+					+		+		+	+			10	0
Group behaviour	+	+	–	+	–	+	–	–	+	+	–	+	+	–	–	+	+		+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	–	–	+	+	–	+	–	+	+	+	+	27	11
Execution of instructions		–		–						–		–			–		–	–	–	–	–	–	–			+	–	–	–	–	–				–	–	–	–	–	1	22
Reading competence	+	–	–		–	–			–	–		–	+	–	+	+	–		+	+	+	–	–		+	+	+	+	–		–	+				+	+	+		15	13
Self–initiated remarks	+	+	+	–		–	+	–	–	–	–	–	+	–	–	+					+	–	–	+		–	+	–	+	–	–	+	–	–	–	+	+	+	+	15	18
Amount of effort		–	–	–		–				–	–	–	–	–	–		–	–		–	–			–				–	–	–	–		–		–				+	1	21
Knowledge displayed (aftern. per.)	+	+	+		–		–	–		–				+	+	+	+		–	–	–	–		+	+	+	+	+	+			+	+	+		+	+	+	–	19	9
Reponses to questions		–			–					+						+		–							+		+					+				+	+			7	3
Self–initiated questions	+		+	–	–	+	+	–	–	–	+	–	–	–	+	+		–	+		–	–	–	+	+	–		+	+	+	–	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	21	14
TOTAL +	8	4	6	2	1	4	3	0	2	3	1	1	5	3	5	12	3	0	5	4	6	2	2	10	9	5	11	7	8	1	2	12	4	10	2	14	13	9	5		
TOTAL –	1	5	5	6	8	6	5	9	7	9	4	7	4	9	8	0	8	7	6	7	5	7	6	1	1	5	1	4	5	8	8	0	4	1	5	1	1	3	3		

Table 4.19 indicates each learner's positive and negative significant differences from the mean percentages of the classroom learning behaviours on a 1% level of significance.

In looking at the learning behaviours of the learners, the scatter of significantly positive and negative behaviours within the group is going to be addressed, in rank order. With regard to group behaviour, all but one demonstrated significantly varied behaviour: 27 learners demonstrated significantly more positive behaviour in comparison to the mean percentage of the total class and 11 learners demonstrated significantly negative behaviours. Twenty one learners were found to be actively involved in lessons, coming up with self-initiated questions, whereas 14 learners appeared to be shy and appeared to have significantly negative questioning behaviour, totalling a scatter of 35. In a scatter of 33, there were 18 learners who demonstrated significantly positive obedience and 15 learners appeared to have significantly negative obedience.

A total of 28 cases of scatter, but in greatly different proportions, emerged from three dimensions of learning behaviours. With regard to reading comprehension in class, 15 learners demonstrated significantly positive reading skill in comparison to the mean standard and 13 learners demonstrated significantly negative reading skill. There were 21 learners who appeared to be significantly more confident in the classroom, whereas seven learners appeared significantly less confident. Nineteen learners looked significantly more knowledgeable during the first half of the school day, whereas nine learners appeared to have little knowledge early in the day. The display of knowledge differed greatly in the latter part of the day. Then, there were 16 learners who appeared to be significantly more knowledgeable whereas 11 learners displayed little knowledge in the lessons.

On the other hand, there were also some dimensions which demonstrated low scatter, starting with the lowest one: There were only two learners who demonstrated significantly positive motivation and four learners displayed significantly negative motivation (totalling a scatter of six). There were four learners who demonstrated significantly positive attention to the task, more than the average mean percentage of attention (to task) whereas three learners paid notably poor attention in class (scatter seven).

A total of 10 cases of scatter, but in greatly different proportions, emerged for two dimensions of learning behaviours: With regard to correctness of responses in class, 10 learners were significantly more often correct in their responses, but not one of the learners made a significant number of errors in response to the educator's questions. Seven learners answered significantly more questions than the general response pattern

in the class, whereas three learners looked more reserved and appeared significantly less responsive to questions.

In addition to looking at the trends concerning the dimensions of learning behaviours in relation to the group mean percentage, it is also necessary to consider trends observable in the dimensions of learning behaviours of individual learners.

The main purpose is to try and relate the learning behaviours of each learner as reflected in specific dimensions of his/her learning behaviours, to support which parents gave to their children during the learning task observed during the home visit, looking at learners who differed significantly from the group scores, in the positive respect and in the negative respect. These cases will be discussed in rank order, looking at learners with a significantly positive difference in > 10 dimensions of learning behaviours and a significantly negative difference in > 8.

Learner 36 demonstrated significantly positive learning behaviours in 14 dimensions with significantly negative learning behaviours in only one dimension, followed by Learner 37 with significantly positive learning behaviours in 13 dimensions and significantly negative learning behaviours in one dimension.

Learners 16 and 32 demonstrated significantly positive learning behaviours in 12 dimensions, both displaying no significantly negative learning behaviours whatsoever. Learner 27 appeared to display significantly positive learning behaviours in 11 dimensions and significantly negative learning behaviours in one dimension. Learners 24 and 34 displayed significantly positive learning behaviours in 10 dimensions and significantly negative behaviour in one dimension.

The following learners displayed the most significantly negative dimensions in learning behaviours: Learner 8 demonstrated significantly negative learning behaviours in nine dimensions, displaying no significantly positive learning behaviours whatsoever. Learners 10 and 14 also displayed significantly negative learning behaviours in nine dimensions, but both displayed significantly positive learning behaviours in three dimensions.

Learners 5 and 30 demonstrated significantly negative learning behaviours in 8 dimensions, both displaying significantly positive learning behaviours in one dimension. Learner 31 also displayed significantly negative learning behaviours in eight dimensions and significantly positive learning behaviours in two dimensions. Learner 17 demonstrated significantly negative learning behaviours in eight dimensions and

significantly positive learning behaviours in three dimensions. Learner 15 demonstrated significantly negative learning behaviours in eight dimensions, balanced markedly by significantly positive learning behaviours in five dimensions.

4.5.3 DISCUSSION: BEHAVIOUR SCHEDULE

During the observation of the learning behaviours in the classroom, seven learners (Learner 16, 24, 27, 32, 34, 36 and 37) demonstrated a good many dimensions of significantly positive learning behaviours in comparison to the mean percentages of the total class. The parents of some, but not all, of these learners (Learners 16, 27, 32, 34 and 37) had appeared to be supportive during the learning tasks observed by the researcher in their homes. This could suggest that the support for learning which these parents provide may have contributed to the positive learning behaviours of their children in school.

During the learning task observed by the researcher, the parent of Learner 24 (who also displayed many dimensions of significantly positive learning behaviours) was not so willing to help, even though she knew how to read and write. She appeared to regard learning support as a waste of time, as she had indicated that most of the time she was on the street selling vegetables for her children to have food.

The parents of Learner 34, again, were observed to be even less willing but were strict and impatient and urged their child to work faster during the learning task. Despite the variously negative behaviour of the parents, Learners 24 and 34 showed significantly positive learning behaviours, which may, therefore, not be strongly associated with their parents. In the absence of clear, strong influence of the parents of these learners, they still demonstrated significantly positive learning behaviours in the following dimensions: interest in task, confidence, skill displayed, knowledge displayed, correctness of responses, group behaviour and self-initiated questions. This could suggest that there might be some other factors which may have positively influenced the learning behaviours of these learners, for example, interest, personality, motivation from within, perhaps even self-respect, and/or motivation or teaching skill from the educator.

Looking at the parents' side again, however, one could suspect that covert positive aspects of their treatment of their children somehow did influence the learning behaviours in a positive direction. However, it is notable that the same learners (Learners 24 and 34) displayed significantly negative learning behaviours, failing to put much effort into their work whereas other learners (Learners 16, 27, 32, 36 and 37) did not show any effort

either significantly positive or significantly negative. During the learning tasks at home, the parents of Learners 16, 27, 36 and 37 were observed to be patient, willing to help and explained some unfamiliar words to their children.

Looking from the other side, there were seven learners (Learners 5, 8, 10, 14, 17, 30 and 32) who demonstrated a good many dimensions of significantly negative learning behaviours in comparison to the mean percentages of the total class. The parents of two learners (Learners 10 and 32) had appeared to be less willing to help during the learning tasks observed by the researcher. The negative behaviours of these parents could lead one to suspect that they may have influenced the learning behaviours of their children in a negative direction. There could also be other factors which may have influenced the learning behaviours of Learners 5, 8, 14, 17 and 31, for example, aggressiveness, shyness or intellectual disabilities and/or education factors such as teaching methods.

During the learning tasks observed by the researcher, the parents of Learners 5, 8, 14, 17 and 31 appeared to be patient, willing to help, they encouraged their children to work hard and explained difficult or unfamiliar words to them. The parent of Learner 14 even went to an extent of using special counters in numeracy for more clarification. Therefore, the poorer learning behaviours may not be related to these parents. On the one hand one would suspect that these parents may not have shown a true picture during the learning tasks. On the other hand, there may be other factors that could have affected the learning behaviours of these learners, for example, that they lacked self-discipline, that they were the less gifted learners or that they lacked cognitive developmental skills. One more possible reason may be that there was educator influence in this respect.

4.6 CORRESPONDENCE WITH PARENTS

4.6.1 ADMINISTRATION OF CORRESPONDENCE WITH PARENTS

Correspondence with the parents took place during October and November of the practical research year, while observation was taking place in the classroom. This took the form of one letter per week. In October two letters were sent to parents and in November three letters were sent (refer to Appendix C). In addition to general information (included somewhat to mask the intention of the correspondence), each letter contained a request. The purpose was to find out operationally which parents of the target group would demonstrate support for learning in the learning of their children by responding to correspondence from the school, and then to ascertain whether their support for learning generally related to the learning behaviours of their children.

Simple and straightforward letters were developed in English. These letters were then translated into Tsonga by the class educator and translated back into English to check for accuracy of the translation. Each learner was given a letter to deliver to his/her parents.

TABLE 4.20: PARENTS' RESPONSE AS PER REQUEST

Parents	Letter 1 (4 cans)	Letter 2 (4 counters)	Letter 3 (Toothpaste box & tube)	Letter 4 (Newspaper)	Letter 5 (4 Pictures)	More than requested	Number requested	Fewer than requested	No response
Learner 1	7	0	2	1	1	1	2	1	1
Learner 2	10	0	2	1	1	1	2	1	1
Learner 3	2	0	2	1	6	1	2	1	1
Learner 4	4	0	2	1	0		3		2
Learner 5	0	5	1	1	0	1	1	1	2
Learner 6	3	0	2	1	5	1	2	1	1
Learner 7	18	17	2	1	3	2	2	1	
Learner 8	1	0	1	0	0			2	3
Learner 9	0	0	0	1	2			2	3
Learner 10	0	0	0	0	0				5
Learner 11	0	0	1	1	1		1	2	2
Learner 12	2	0	1	1	0		1	2	2
Learner 13	3	0	1	1	4		2	2	1
Learner 14	0	0	0	0	0				5
Learner 15	4	10	0	1	6	2	2		1
Learner 16	0	11	1	0	0	1		1	3
Learner 17	6	7	1	1	2	2	1	2	
Learner 18	2	0	0	0	0			1	4
Learner 19	4	0	0	0	2		1	1	3
Learner 20	1	0	1	0	2			3	2
Learner 21	0	0	2	1	2		2	1	2
Learner 22	3	10	1	0	6	2		2	0
Learner 23	0	7	0	0	2	1		1	3
Learner 24	3	3	0	0	2			3	2
Learner 25	31	32	2	1	5	3	2		
Learner 26	0	2	2	1	1		2	2	1
Learner 27	0	0	0	0	0				5
Learner 28	2	3	1	1	2		1	4	
Learner 29	11	10	2	1	1	2	2	1	
Learner 30	10	0	1	1	1	1	1	2	1
Learner 31	4	0	2	0	2		2	1	2
Learner 32	0	0	0	1	1		1	1	3
Learner 33	0	0	0	0	0				5
Learner 34	2	0	0	1	1		1	2	2
Learner 35	3	10	1	1	2	1	1	3	
Learner 36	5	3	2	1	3	1	2	2	
Learner 37	14	8	1	1	2	2	1	2	
Learner 38	0	0	0	0	0				5
Learner 39	2	2	2	1	2		2	3	
More than requested	9	11	0	0	5				
Number requested	4	0	13	25	1				
Fewer than requested	13	5	13	n.a.	22				
No response	13	23	13	14	11				

The number of objects sent in relation to the number requested measured the responses of the parents which were sent to school. The promptness with which the request was carried out, was also recorded by the class educator.

4.6.2 RESULTS AND FINDINGS DERIVED FROM CORRESPONDENCE WITH PARENTS

Table 4.20 represents the parent's responses as per object: The first letter requested each family to help their child find four empty cooldrink tins, since the following day learners were going to build **big towers** and had to learn more about planning and numeracy. It was found that 13 families (33.3 %) did not respond to the request.

Of the 26 families (66.7%) who responded, one family (of Learner 25) appeared to be very actively involved and helped their child find 31 cooldrink tins. Two families (of Learners 7 and 37) also demonstrated very active involvement by helping with 18 and 14 cooldrink tins respectively and the parents of Learner 29 helped their child to find 11 cooldrink tins. Learners 2 and 30 were helped with 10 tins each and the parents of Learner 1 helped their child to find seven cooldrink tins each. Learner 17 was helped with six cooldrink tins and the families of Learners 4, 15, 19 and 31 helped their children with four tins. Fourteen families (of Learners 3, 6, 8, 12, 13, 18, 20, 22, 24, 28, 32, 34, 35 and 39) were found to be slightly concerned and assisted with three, two and one cooldrink tins. The parents of Learners 5, 9, 10, 11, 14, 16, 21, 23, 26, 27, 32, 33 and 38 did not respond to the request.

The second letter requested each family to give their child four counters to bring to school for **use in sums**. It was found that nearly 60.0% of the families (23 families) did not take part. Sixteen families responded to the request. Again, parents of Learner 25 showed very active involvement and helped their child with 32 counters. Parents of Learner 7 also managed to give their child 17 counters to take to school, while parents of Learner 16 provided their child with 11 counters. Learner 15, 22, 29, and 35 were helped with 10 counters each and Learner 37 was provided with eight counters. Learner 23 was helped with seven counters and Learner 5 with five counters. Learners 24, 28 and 36 were helped with three counters each, and lastly, two families (of Learners 26 and 39) helped their children with two counters each.

The third request concerned one empty toothpaste box and one empty toothpaste tube since the following day learners were going to learn how to **brush their teeth.** Thirteen families (33.3%) had demonstrated active involvement and helped their children find both a toothpaste box and a toothpaste tube each. Another thirteen families (33.3%) had a

show of concern and helped their children with either a box or a tube. It was found that of the 39 families, 13 families (33.3%) did not take part.

Another request was to give children one newspaper each as they were going to **ring similar words** they had seen in their English lessons. It was found that 14 families (35.9%) did not respond to the request. More than 60.0% of the families responded positively to the request.

The last request was that each family help its child look for four pictures of different types of transport as learners were going to **learn the importance of transport**, how they differ and how reliable they are. The parents of Learner 13 helped their child to take four pictures of different types of transport to school. Parents of Learners 3, 15 and 22 helped their children with six pictures each. Parents of Learners 6 and 25 helped their child to look for five pictures of different types of transport. Eleven families (28.2%) assisted their children with two pictures each and Learners 1, 2, 11, 26, 29, 30, 32 and 34 were helped with one picture each to take to school. Eleven families (28.5%) could not respond to this request.

4.6.3 DISCUSSION: CORRESPONDENCE WITH PARENTS

At the end of the research period, it was found that five families (12.8%) (of Learners 10, 14, 27, 33 and 38) had never taken part in any of the requests. Of these, four families (10.3%) were living in an informal settlement and one family (of Learner 27) was living in a township.

The parents of Learners 10, 14, 33 and 38 appeared not to have been so willing to help their children with the learning task observed by the researcher, whereas the parents of Learner 27 demonstrated their involvement by being patient and motivating their child to learn. Apparently these same parents (of Learner 27) showed positive involvement in the researcher's presence, but there was no link when coming to the school since they did not respond to any of the educator's requests.

It appears that some parents from the informal settlement do not actively support the school as an organisation. This could suggest that the literacy factor, poverty factor and deficient culture of learning cause parents to distance themselves from the education of their children, or from being supportive to the school's requests. Mnisi and Shilubane's (1998:6) finding reveal that some learners indeed have non-supportive homes, little

parental care and involvement, few resources in their homes, little intellectual stimulation and illiterate parents.

Two of the learners who had not brought any of the objects requested to school (Learners 10 and 33) initially appeared to have little confidence in the classroom, showed little interest in tasks, were slow in reading and writing and they seldom raised their hands when questions were asked (see paragraph 4.4.2.4). The negative behaviour of the parents of these learners could lead one to suspect that they may have negatively influenced the learning behaviours of their children. Because of the extra time spent by the educator during breaktime, for them to catch up in lessons in class, these same learners, with time, became better motivated, felt more comfortable and eventually participated more actively.

The findings also showed that some learners (Learners 7, 17, 25, 28, 29, 35, 36, 37 and 39) whose parents were supportive in all of the requests, both from the poor socio-economic background and those from the well-to-do families, had significantly positive learning behaviours. Some of them (Learners 7, 17 and 37) were frequently observed to be confident, had a lot of interest in their work, were generally attentive, and their reading and writing skills were good. This could suggest that no matter how poor the family background, as long as parents show a positive attitude and are supportive toward their children's education, children's learning behaviours would normalise. In their research, Cusick (1992:63) and Pallas (2000:168) found that the higher socio-economic status of the parents, the greater the tendency for them to be involved in their children's learning. However, it was found in this research that it is significant that the positive attitude of some parents reflect the positive learning behaviours of their children and the negative attitude of some parents reflect the negative learning behaviours of their children.

4.7 SUMMARY

Chapter Four concerns the results, findings and discussion of the support for learning given by the parents of the Grade Two learners in a Township school. The data sets collected by means of using a questionnaire, with semi-structured interview, ethnographic observation, a learner's behaviour schedule and correspondence with parents were each analysed and discussed separately and in combination.

In this study it was found that, educated or not, some parents regard education as important in the lives of their children whereas some think that providing support in their

children's education is a waste of time. Some demonstrated their willingness to do the learning tasks with their children in their homes and some were less willing to help.

During the observation of the learning behaviours in the classroom, some learners demonstrated a good many dimensions of significantly positive learning behaviours whereas some learners displayed a good many dimensions of significantly negative learning behaviours in comparison to the mean percentages of the total class. The learning behaviours of the learners was related to their parents' behaviour, but it was not always the case that the parents who demonstrated positive involvement all had children with a significantly positive learning behaviours, or that all the parents who were strict, impatient and less willing to help had children who displayed a significantly negative learning behaviours. There were other factors which were found to have had influence in the learners' learning behaviours, either positively or negatively.

Finally, it was found that some learners whose parents were supportive in all of the requests, from correspondence made with them, performed well in the classroom and displayed a good many dimensions of significantly positive learning behaviours. They were found to be confident, attentive and had interest in the work. Some learners whose parents did not respond to the requests displayed a good many dimensions of significantly negative learning behaviours. They did not put much effort in their work and did not pay much attention to the tasks.

Chapter Five concludes this study with the summary, limitations of the research, final conclusions and recommendations for further research.

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CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, FINAL CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARY OF RESEARCH

5.1.1 ORIENTATION

The aim of this research was to determine and examine the extent, level, form and content of the learning support by the parents of the Grade Two learners in a predominantly Tsonga school in the learning of their children, and the relationship of their involvement with the learning behaviours of the learners. This aim was achieved by directly and indirectly involving parents through a questionnaire using a semi-structured interview, ethnographic observation at home during learning tasks and at school in the classroom, and through an analysis of the response made by parents to correspondence from the school.

The following research sub-questions were investigated:

- How do the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school support the learning of their children?
- What resources to support cognitive development and the learning of specific skills and content are available to Grade Two learners of a Township school in their homes?
- What are the capabilities of the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school, to help their children with their schoolwork and their homework?
- Which problems and which forms of incapability occur and/or are experienced among the parents of Grade Two learners?
- What are the frequency, form, extent and content of the relationship of the parents with the educator of their children?

- What is the observable influence of the support for learning of the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school on the learning behaviours of their children in the classroom?

5.1.2 REVIEW OF CHAPTERS

The research attempted to understand the nature of the support for learning. This study comprises of five chapters as briefly summarised in the following paragraphs:

The opening chapter introduced and formulated the research problem. The aim of the study was outlined. The theoretical frame and the key concepts that featured prominently throughout the study were defined. The research plan was proposed. The methods of research were explained and the programme of the study was outlined in this chapter.

Chapter Two reported on the literature review of the role played by parents in the formal education of their children and the effect of parental involvement on the learning behaviours of children in the Foundation Phase. The dimensions of child development in the Foundation Phase were examined, namely, physical development, psycho-social development and cognitive development. Theorists on child development, such as Havighurst (1976:18), Hurlock (1978:141), Landreth (1993:21), Michael (1990:319) and Vrey (1990:99) agree that as the child develops physically, he learns to use his body more economically and more efficiently.

Concerning the psycho- social development of the child, Lambert and McCombs (1998:9) state that this is the stage when emotions play an important role in the young child's life. According to Meyer, Moore and Viljoen (1990:152), both the emotions themselves (positive and negative) and their patterns of expression change with age, but as the child matures he increasingly gains control over his emotions. According to Nelson (1996:5), the cognitive task of the human child is to make sense of his/her situated place in the world in order to take a skilful part in its activities.

During the Foundation Phase the child shows increased interest in and comprehension of the world around him. He begins to see reality in a more objective way. At this stage the child explores his world actively and gains new knowledge and skills and also begins to master the basic scholastic skills.

Contextual influences on the dynamics of parental involvement such as the educational level of parents and the culture of the community whereby language, literacy and religion

play a role were considered. Family size and the role of parents was looked at generally with regard to the problems which could arise in the facets of the physical dimension, affective dimension, normative dimension and cognitive dimension.

Chapter Three was devoted to the empirical study. Qualitative and quantitative research methods were executed. The research is considered qualitative because it was non-experimental and some data were in the form of verbal description. The research was also quantitative because some data were collected through structured observation and a questionnaire. The following four research methods were applied:

- **Questionnaire**, extended into unstructured interviews.

The Parental Involvement in Learners' Education Questionnaire (PILEQ) (Appendix A) was designed to involve 39 families of the Grade Two learners in one class in the Foundation Phase in a Tsonga school. The PILEQ was first constructed in English, then translated into Tsonga by the educator and retranslated into English for accuracy of translation. The PILEQ contained two sections: Section A consisted of biographical data concerning matters such as names, ages, number of children in the family, rank of child and marital status of parents (questions 1-12) and the qualifications and work life of the parents (questions 13-27). Section B addressed parental involvement in the learners' education at school (questions 28-35) and in the home (questions 36-63).

The researcher administered the questionnaire at the respondents' homes on different dates as per appointment. The interview questions following on the questionnaire were carefully planned and accurately worded. The purpose was to obtain more descriptive information to provide qualitative understanding of quantitative data. A record of the interviews was kept in the form of written notes.

- **Ethnographic observation**

The ethnographic observation took place during the execution of a learning task (based on the classwork of the morning at school) by the learner under the guidance of the parents. As the observer was also the researcher and the designer of the learning task, she clarified what was needed in the learners' tasks. The purpose was to clarify understanding about the interactions between individual children and their parents in respect of a learning task. The activity was recorded in detail by the researcher.

The ethnographic observation was also executed with learners in the classroom. The purpose was to observe how the learners behaved during lessons. The observation in the

classroom would be related to the data on the parents in an effort to understand the influence of the parents' support on the learning of their children.

- **The learners' behaviour schedule**

The behaviour schedule was developed to look into the cognitive behaviours of the learners. It was filled in on a daily basis by the researcher for a period of 12 weeks. A 5-point scale was used (see Appendix B). The first week was scheduled for observation and note-taking only. The learning behaviours of the learners were noted on the schedule. The main purpose was to observe particular learning behaviours more systematically, to identify behaviours with significant difference from the general classroom behaviour and to examine whether there were any effects coming from the home which might be the cause of such behaviours.

- **Correspondence with parents**

Correspondence was used with parents in the form of one letter per week for five weeks (Appendix C). Simple and straightforward letters were developed in English. The letters were translated into Tsonga by the educator for the sake of the parents, and translated back into English to control for accuracy of the translation. In addition to information of a general nature, each letter contained a request for objects to be used in a future lesson.

The responses of the parents in the form of the number of objects sent to school and the promptness with which the request was carried out, were recorded by the educator. The purpose of the correspondence was to find out which parents of the target group would demonstrate involvement in the learning of their children by responding to correspondence from the school and to ascertain whether their specific degree of involvement generally related to the learning behaviours of their children.

Chapter Four gave a report on the results and findings per research activity. The results were analysed and interpreted. A straightforward frequency analysis as well as relational analysis were developed which, individually and collectively, contributed to the investigation of the main problem, that is: *What is the extent, level and form of involvement of the parents of learners in a Grade Two class in a Township school in the learning of their children, and what effect does their support for learning have on the learning behaviours of their children*? The findings derived from the results are summarised below.

5.1.3 FINDINGS

The responses on the Parental Involvement in Learners' Education Questionnaire (PILEQ) (Tables 4.4 – 4.9, representing the responses per family, not per parent), revealed that, in the course of more than five school terms after their child's school entry in Grade One, only 23.1% of the families had had opportunity to enter into conversation with the principal of the school. By May of the school year, only 38.5% of the families knew the name of the class teacher. Eight families (20.5%) knew the name of a member of the Governing Body of the school and 38.5% knew some of the functions of the Governing Body. On a positive note, very few families (only three – 7.7%) had any complaints about the school.

The majority of the families (61.5%) met with the teacher of their children on some occasions. Twenty-one families (53.8%) had visited the school only on parent meeting days and only three families (7.7%) visited the school at own choice. Fifteen families (38.5%) had never visited the school.

In case of a difficulty being experienced, more than half of the families (59.0%) explained language items to their children. The method for a particular task was addressed by 28.2% of the families. The work was read sentence by sentence by a parent, either in Tsonga or in English, in 10.2% of the families.

About half of the families (46.1%) had a habit of checking their children's work, i.e. 28.2% checked nearly every day and seven families (17.9%) checked once a week. On specific occasions, the following were found: Three families (7.7%) paid attention to their children's progress only after attending a parent meeting, 5.2% checked only at the end of each term and one family only checked when the child had failed. Nearly $^{1}/_{5}$ of the families (17.9%) checked the child's work only when there was time and an equal proportion (17.9%) had never monitored their children's progress.

Thirty-four families (87.2%) had radios while 28 families (71.8%) had television sets in their homes. Only 11 families (32.4%) who had a radio explained some of the programmes on the radio to their children, while 53.6% of the 28 families who had a television set explained some of the programmes on television to their children. Seventeen families (43.6%) took their children on educational outings.

Twenty-five families (89.3%) allowed viewing times on Saturdays and 23 families (82.1%) allowed Sunday viewing times. Seventeen families (60.7%) allowed afternoon viewing times while six families (21.4%) allowed their children to watch television in the evenings.

Tables 4.10 – 4.16 containing data on the relationships between a set of selected aspects of parental involvement revealed the following findings: There was no strongly significant relationship between the variables "gender of children" and "aspects of parental involvement". The amount of help was equally the same to both children, a boy or a girl.

There was a statistically significant relationship on the 5% level between how many children were in the family and how much involvement the parents had in their learning (as suggested by the resources they bought). It was found that the fewer the children were in the family, the more resources were bought for them.

There was no significant relationship between whether parents were a couple or were single or widowed and the amount in which they were involved in their children's education.

There was no statistically significant relationship between "qualifications of parents" and "aspects of parental involvement". When asked about their support for their children during the interviews following the questionnaire, it emerged that some of the better qualified parents were especially willing to help their children with schoolwork and some of a small number (10.3%) of the illiterate parents were willing to help, while some were less willing. Poverty and illiteracy appeared to be the main causes of non-involvement of some of the parents in the education of their children.

There was a slight relationship on the 10% level of significance between the "type of work" parents do and "aspects of parental involvement". The amount and nature of literacy materials and the goals for using literacy did not differ much between the working-class families and those who were not working.

The parents' number of years of work and aspects of parental involvement indicated that there was a significant relationship level between how long the parent had been working and whether he/she had a problem with the school.

In the interviews with the families following up the questionnaires, it was found that most parents demonstrated their willingness to assist in their children's education in different ways, although some of them did not themselves have education at all.

Concerning the question of **resources**, 34 parents professed to be actively supportive of their children's learning. Some indicated that they were able to buy the necessary resources such as numeracy instruments, drawing books, pictures, crayons, scissors and reading books. It was found that some use fingers, pebbles, counters, matchsticks, pens, pencils and crayons for counting. Of the 39 families, 11 claim to have some show of interest, despite the fact that they were suffering from extreme poverty. It was difficult for them to buy the relevant resources, but they improvised by using their fingers and matchsticks to count since they recognised the value of education. Only five parents appeared to have a total lack of involvement in the education of their children. It was found that of these, four were illiterate and one was literate. When asked about their support for their children, it emerged that they do not know the value of being supportive since they have never been exposed to education, and some said as they could not find jobs, they had no money to buy resources for their children.

It was found that the amount and nature of **literacy** materials of the goals for using literacy did not differ much between the working families and those who were not working. The majority of the parents demonstrated their interest and involvement in their children's education. It was found that 22 of the literate parents and 12 of the semi-literate parents demonstrated their interest and involvement in their children's education by spending a few minutes in the afternoon reading together with their children. One parent added that she sometimes allows silent reading and then after a few minutes asks her child to draw the relationship between her own background experience and ideas from the text. It was also found that some literate parents have never done reading with their children because of domestic chores. Some parents who could not read nor write depended on the siblings for help.

Concerning watching **television** and listening to the **radio** programmes, it was found that a few parents appeared to have discovered the value of these media. One parent indicated that television and radio are educational and pointed out that she thoroughly explains the programmes, and sometimes asks her child to tell about any experience she has had or has heard which is related to the characters or feelings awakened by the programmes. Some parents who did not have television or radio, indicated that they allow their children to go to the neighbours because they know that their children will gain knowledge and will be able to describe some of the programmes to them. Very few parents were found to have a total lack of involvement and support for learning since their children never ask questions about programmes or never describe the programmes to them.

With regard to how parents give support with their children's **homework**, a small number of parents appeared to be actively involved. It was found that their children are aware that whenever they come from school they must do their homework before they become involved in other activities. A considerable number of parents appeared to have a show of interest, but because of time constraints they are not actively supportive. They leave early when the children are still asleep and there is no direct supervision coming from them. It was found that a few parents do not have patience for doing homework together with their children since they say that they cannot concentrate after their long working hours.

The ethnographic observations made at learners' homes revealed that, in numeracy and reading tasks, the parents spent a few minutes using their fingers and counters such as pebbles to count out the number question or reread sentences presented to their children, until the children were able to do the task on their own. Some parents like reading because, according to them, it refreshes their memory, it prevents them fro yawning, it keeps them active and prevents them from listening to gossips. The parents who could not read nor write, instructed their children to listen carefully to the instructions given by siblings and/or aunts. If some learners happened to make a mistake, the sibling and/or aunt patiently asked him/her to repeat the task and to do it aloud until he/she got it right. If the same learner was still encountering a problem, the sibling and/or aunt would persist in reading together with him/her until he/she managed to do it on his/her own.

Some parents, on the other hand, were observed to be impatient and harsh to their children once they realised there was a mistake. One parent said mistakes were not permitted, another parent said if her child kept on making a mistake there would be no future for him and one more parent admonished the child to be quick and not to waste time. Some parents were more patient and allowed their children more time to correct mistakes. At the end of the exercise, they indicated that they felt more comfortable by having been present when their children were doing a learning task.

The majority of the parents were more knowledgeable in Tsonga than in English. Some were fluent and quick in reading Tsonga and some mistakes were encountered in reading English. Generally, parents were enthused by the kind of exercise presented and displayed growing eagerness to know more about the best ways to approach the learning tasks.

In numeracy tasks, most parents helped their children by using counters (e.g. pebbles and beans) for counting. If the child happened to add incorrectly, the parent would tell him/her

to repeat the work using fingers. Parents encouraged the children to speak out when counting to enhance concentration and to avoid making mistakes again.

The ethnographic observations made with learners and their educator in the classroom revealed that some learners were active and used their own initiative by asking their own questions apart from their classwork. Some learners enjoyed it to answers questions in full sentences and were eager to participate in the conversations through questions. If, during reading, they were asked to say what they think is going to happen next or what is the picture about, they would think and use their existing knowledge to add what they think will happen or describe the picture to the class. These learners appeared to be good readers and also had insight in the meaning of the story and the educator's questions. Some were good in both Tsonga and English. Some of the learners, however, would lose interest during the lesson, would look around, appear withdrawn, look shy or would not follow instructions or explanations correctly while some would even look bored and start making a noise. These learners frequently had pronunciation problems in English and they seemed to use limited skills and strategies while writing.

With regard to numeracy, there were still some learners who were slow in writing and those who were still struggling to add, subtract or multiply. The majority of the learners were able to finish the work ahead of time and some even volunteered to give the answers to the sums on the board.

The findings on the behaviour schedule revealed that some learners demonstrated a good many dimensions of significantly positive learning behaviours in comparison to the mean percentage of the total class. Some parents of some of these learners had appeared to be supportive during the learning tasks observed by the researcher in their homes, which could have led to the positive learning behaviours of these learners in school. The parents of some of these learners were found to be strict and impatient during the learning tasks observed in their homes, but despite their variously negative treatment, their children showed significantly positive learning behaviours which may therefore have stemmed from other supportive factors. The same learners each time displayed significantly negative learning behaviours in only one dimension (e.g. execution of instructions or amount of work or self-initiated remarks).

The findings from the Learning behaviours Observation Schedule again revealed that some learners demonstrated a good many dimensions of significantly negative learning behaviours in comparison to the mean percentage of the total class. Some parents of some of these learners indeed appeared to be strict, impatient and less willing during the

learning tasks observed by the researcher in their homes, which could have contributed to these learners' significantly negative learning behaviours. Since some of these learners demonstrated significantly positive learning behaviours in two, three and five dimensions e.g. confidence, skill displayed, knowledge displayed, group behaviour, self-initiated remarks and self-initiated questions), the findings suggest that the degree of negative learning behaviours was less than the degree of positive learning behaviours.

The findings which were derived from correspondence with parents revealed that of the 39 families, nine families responded to all the letters, 25 responded but not fully and five families responded to none of the letters. The positive response was extremely high in five families (Learners 2, 7, 25, 29 and 37) in that the learners brought considerably more objects than required.

The parents of Learner 2 sent more than what was required in the first letter, and the exact number in the third, fourth and fifth letters. However, they did not respond to the second letter. During the ethnographic observation made by the researcher in their home, these parents could not read nor write but were found to be willing to help and asked the sibling to help while they were present. Learner 2 was observed to be trying hard in class which could be the results from his parents' positive behaviours.

The parents of Learners 7, 25, 29 and 37 played a highly positive participatory role by responding highly to all the letters. The same parents were found to be fully supportive during the ethnographic observation made in their homes. The learners of these parents showed extremely positive behaviours and wanted to ask more questions than the others in class. In some cases these learners (Learners 7, 25, 27 and 37) would, for example, want to know more about an unfamiliar word in a sentence, which they found difficult to pronounce, which could indicate a positive influence of the support for learning from home.

The parents of Learner 39 were among those who responded to all the letters, but in some cases their son brought fewer objects than what was requested. These same parents (of Learner 39) were also observed to be patient and supportive in the learning task, whereas their child at times showed a negative learning behaviours and reacted in an unusual way in the classroom, which could have been contributed to by other factors outside the home.

The parents of Learners 10, 14, 27, 33 and 38 did not respond to any of the letters. It is surprising to find the parents of Learner 27 in this group since, during the ethnographic

observation made in their home, they demonstrated their positive involvement by being patient and motivating their child to learn. These same parents perhaps showed positive involvement to capture the situation when there was no link between them and the school. Despite the incidence, Learner 27 was found to be doing well in both language and numeracy. She also displayed significantly positive learning behaviours in many dimensions on the learning behaviours observation schedule filled in by the researcher in the classroom.

The parents of Learners 10, 14, 33 and 38 were found to be less willing, strict and impatient during the ethnographic observation made in their homes. It was found that Learners 10 and 33 initially appeared to have little confidence in the classroom, showed little interest in tasks, were slow in reading and writing and they seldom raised their hands when questions were asked, which might have been contributed to by the parents' actions. In contrast, learner 38 was found to be a good achiever despite the negative behaviours of his parents, whereas Learner 33 became motivated and his learning behaviours were thought to normalise.

Finally it was found that some of the parents who responded to some of the requests, claimed to be actively involved in their children's education, and their children displayed significantly positive learning behaviours in some dimensions, whereas some other children displayed significantly negative learning behaviours in some dimensions.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

5.2.1 ORIENTATION

The focus of this study has been on the support for learning provided by African parents to Foundation Phase learners in a Township school. The support for learning is generally influenced by the skill and knowledge which parents have and on the relationship between parents and children which is also shaken up by the child. The main research question has been: *What is the extent, level and form of the support for learning provided by the parents of learners in Grade Two in a Township school and what influence does their support have on the learning behaviours of the learners*? The main research question was unpacked into six subquestions of which the conclusions are discussed in paragraphs 5.2.2.1 - 5.2.2.5; and synthesised in paragraph 5.2.2.6, all investigated with regard to one Tsonga school in Mamelodi, Pretoria.

5.2.2 ANSWERING THE RESEARCH QUESTION

Subquestions 1 and 3 are answered in association with paragraph 5.2.2.1, followed by the conclusions concerning subquestions 3 to 6 in paragraphs 5.2.2.2 – 5.2.2.5. The overall conclusions concerning the main question are contained in paragraph 5.2.2.6.

5.2.2.1 What are the capabilities of the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school, to help their children with schoolwork and their homework? How do these parents support the learning of their children?

It was stated in the literature review that by being helped with schoolwork and homework, the learning child should not only learn how to do the particular task, but also how to observe, analyse, monitor and review one's own learning activities (see paragraph 2.3.6.1). The literature review again revealed that cognitive development depends heavily on the ongoing quality of the parent-child interaction (see paragraph 2.3.6.2).

The literature review, as discussed in Chapter Two, revealed that the support for learning should be accompanied by the motivational value of personal interest, encouragement and positive praise in the family (see paragraph 2.3.5.1). The literature review again revealed that the support for learning makes a major contribution to the children's later reading development (see paragraph 2.3.6.1). In paragraph 2.3.6.2, it was found that children with less experience of being read to at home tend to exhibit somewhat poorer knowledge of literacy as they begin school and also to make slower progress in learning to read.

It was found in this research that some parents are capable to provide in the learning of their children, support, for example, by reading to their children, telling them stories about the books they had read, reading together with them, and by asking them questions on what they had been reading about or by even asking them to come up with or create their own stories which may be related to the text. Some parents, for example, interpreted the lesson or task to their children and checked their schoolwork and homework nearly every day, whereas some parents check once a week or when there is time. Some parents, for example, have no time to do the work with their children or to even check whether the children have done the work or not.

It was found in this research that some parents support their children's learning, for example, by explaining language items to them. Some, in a very particular way, corrected errors, for example in numeracy tasks, through the use of counters (pebbles and

matchsticks). A very few parents read the work sentence by sentence, either in Tsonga or in English. Some parents used examples related to what the text is about. Those who cannot read nor write asked the siblings and/or aunts to help. The forms of support are reflected in Table 4.6 and in paragraph 4.3.2.2.

There wasn't any remarkably rich variety of ways in which parents helped their children. Their assistance focused somewhat on understanding, but the practice was not of a good value since they chiefly resorted to only one method of helping, i.e. drill and practice. There was hardly any striking experience like that of bringing in other methods such as problem solving.

The majority of the mothers had education from junior primary school (35.9%) up to senior primary (23.0%). A limited number had qualified at matric level (10.3%) and an equal proportion (10.3%) had never attended school. Some of the fathers who responded had qualified at junior secondary school (37.5%) and matric level (25.0%) while one qualified at junior primary and one at senior primary. In addition to the generally low level of the parents' qualifications, the kind of education under the earlier Bantu Education may further have influenced their lack of depth of a culture of literacy and their limited scope of education as well as lack of educational knowledge and skills in so much that their support for learning appeared to be stereotyped.

The show of praise was constrained, perhaps also by a lack of knowledge and skills. A culture of literacy appeared limited in most of the parents. Even those who had a potential level of efficient literacy on account of their school qualifications, life experience and exposure to task and were employed did not do much in support of their children's reading and writing. Their level of schooling and training did not appear to contribute much to the support, neither did the difference between the literate parents and those who were not highly literate.

Some parents appeared to be strict, impatient and less willing to help during the observation of the learning tasks in their homes. Some claimed that their children never ask for assistance (see Tables 4.6 and 4.7).

It is clear that some of the participating parents indeed regard the school as an autonomous institution, that educators are sufficiently competent to work alone and that their participation as parents amounts to intrusion in the work of professionals (Letsie 1994:42; Van Schaik 1990:54-55). One possible reason for the low rate of support may

be that some parents lack motivation themselves which may be caused by the illiteracy and semi-literacy factors.

It may be concluded that the knowledge and capabilities of the parents do not seem to be challenging in support of their children's reading and writing. The methods used appeared to be repetitious and how they were applied was not satisfactory. The parents' poor experience of education under the earlier political dispensation in South Africa appears to have caused them to have very limited knowledge on how to provide support for learning.

5.2.2.2 Which problems and forms of incapability occur and/or are experienced among the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school?

The literature review, as discussed in Chapter Two, revealed that there are contextual influences (for example, educational level and income of parents, culture of the community and family size), which may hinder parents from being fully supportive in the learning of their children, but these in turn may affect family life both positively and negatively. Positively, members of the family may be in a position and have the time and desire to nurture and to deal with the problem or the task for the child to learn effectively. The parents cannot teach the children things they do not know, but they have the potential to improvise and set a very high ideal and values in the education of their children. If parents are devoted, value education and apply disciplinary methods and routine, this will enhance independence in children. The unavailability of assets in the community and the socio-economic factors may, however, also negatively affect the family.

It was found in this research that some families, for example, find it difficult to provide support for learning in the education of their children. One possible reason may be that parents work far away from home. They leave early when the children are still asleep and return home when the children have already fallen asleep again. Parents may be tired and stressed themselves and they may, therefore, not be in a position to give guidance and learning support to their children. This possibility is supported by literature consulted (Grolnick *et al.,* 1997:539; Heystek 1999:109 and Weeto 1997:52) which reveals that stressful events might take time from parents, drain energy and attention, or both, making parents less psychologically available for or aware of the requirement to render support in their children's education.

Another possible reason that further deters parents from being supportive may be that some parents, for example, are illiterate and lack motivational skills themselves which again makes it difficult for them to apply problem-solving methods.

The support for learning, chiefly in the formerly disadvantaged families, leaves much to be desired, and the lack of variation in support strategies might be strongly related to the education these parents had received. They never knew that they are part of the education system, even the literate and semi-literate parents, they were never involved in the education of their children.

It is important for parents, employed or not, literate or not, to be motivated to encourage their children to work hard and if possible, ask assistance from people who can be of help to their children. Moeketsi (1998:41) brings together the findings of different researchers who all agree that the child's home environment and the support he/she gets from home can help to enhance learning and positively affect scholastic performance.

5.2.2.3 What resources to support cognitive development and the learning of specific skills and content are available to Grade Two learners of a Township school?

Educational resources are important since they enhance the children's learning. It was found in this research that the majority of the parents, for example, rely on the use of fingers, counters and pebbles for counting. It was again revealed that although the majority of the families had radios (87.2%) and television sets (71.8%) in their homes, the number of families who interacted about programmes presented on the radio or television was considerably less. Only 11 families (32.4% of the families who had a radio) explained some of the programmes on the radio to their children while 53.6% of the 28 families who had a television set explained some of the programmes on television to their children (see Table 4.8 and paragraph 4.3.2.2).

In this study it was found that the vast majority of the learners (81.5%) occupied the first, second and third position in the child rank. Eleven (28.9%) were the oldest (or only) child in the family, 26.3% occupied the second and third position in the family whereas 13.1% were below the third position in the age rank.

It was revealed that the position of the children in the family did not affect the way the resources were bought for them. It was again found that the fewer the children were in the family, the more resources were bought for them. With the various home language categories (Tsonga, Tswana, North Sotho and English) Tsonga was the most spoken (79.5%) in the homes and a high percentage (84.0%) of the Tsonga parents bought resources for their children. Some of the minority groups (Tswana and North Sotho parents) also bought resources for their children.

Most children were allowed to watch television on Saturdays and Sundays in comparison to only few on weekday afternoons and on weekday evenings. Some parents stated that although television is educational, they want their children to spend much time on schoolwork, especially on weekdays so as not to be like them (parents) who were never exposed to education. It appears that television would be well used educationally if parents could sit together with their children and explain the pragrammes to them.

It appears that there were insufficient resources in the families. However, the absence of resources is not the end of learning and does not in any case deny the child to learn. It does not limit the support parents can provide, for example, some parents cited the books they had read to their children, some asked siblings to help with reading while some used counters to count.

5.2.2.4 What are the frequency, form, extent and content of the relationship of the parents with the educator of their children?

It was stated in the discussion of the data regarding parents interacting with their children in learning tasks that parents who participate in school activities and speak and read more to their children, contribute to better performance in their reading in school. It was further disclosed that the parents' role is of inestimable importance in laying the foundation for learning to listen, speak, read and write, and above all, in supervising all learning (see paragraph 4.4.2.3).

It was found in this research that some parents' willingness to help their children with learning tasks opened good relationships. For example, Table 4.5 indicated how parents visited the educator of their children on different occasions: A good number of parents (53.8%) met with the educator on parent meetings, whereas 7.7% frequently visited at own choice. Nearly 40% of the parents, however, had never communicated with the educator of their children.

In this research it was also found that the majority of the parents, mainly from the township area, responded to the letters which contained information from the educator of their children, which would mean that there was a willingness in some parents to cooperate with the educator of their children (see Table 4.20).

It appears that some parents from the informal settlement do not actively support the school as an organisation. For example, four families never took part in any of the requests as opposed to only one from the township, which could also suggest that the

literacy factor, poverty factor and deficient culture of learning cause some parents to distance themselves from the education of their children or from being supportive to the school's requests which in turn may affect children's learning (see paragraph 4.6.3). This is supported by Mnisi and Shilubane's (1998:6) finding which reveals that some learners indeed have non-supportive homes, little parental care and involvement, few resources in their homes, little intellectual stimulation and illiterate parents. It is stated in this research that close contact between school and home should be maintained if the child is to learn effectively (see paragraph 2.3.1 and 4.3.2.3).

5.2.2.5 What is the observable influence of the support for learning of the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school on the learning behaviours of their children in the classroom?

The findings from the Learning behaviours Observation Schedule revealed that some learners demonstrated a good many dimensions of significantly positive learning behaviours in comparison to the mean percentages of the total class. The parents of some, but not all, of these learners had appeared to be supportive during the learning tasks observed by the researcher in their homes which may lead one to say that the support for learning which these parents had provided, may have contributed to the positive learning behaviours of their children in the classroom.

The parents of some of these learners were observed to be less willing, but were harsh and impatient in supporting their children with the learning tasks. Despite the various negative behaviours of the parents, their children showed significantly positive learning behaviours which may, therefore, not be exclusively associated with their parents. In the absence of clear, strong influence of the parents of these learners, one could suggest that there might be some other factors which may have positively influenced the learning behaviours of these learners, such as interest, personality, motivation from within, perhaps even self-respect, and/or motivation or teaching skill from the educator.

It was again observed that some learners demonstrated a good many dimensions of significantly negative learning behaviours in comparison to the mean percentages of the total class. The parents of some, but not all, of these learners had appeared to be less willing to help during the learning tasks observed by the researcher. The negative behaviours of these parents could lead one to conclude that they may have influenced the learning behaviours of their children in a negative direction. There could also be other factors which may have influenced the learning behaviours of some of these learners, for

example, aggressiveness, shyness or intellectual disabilities and/or education factors such as teaching methods.

In conclusion, one my state that, even if some parents appeared to be supportive during the observation of the learning tasks in their homes, some of their children appeared to display a significantly negative learning behaviours in class, which would mean that the negative influence might have been contributed by other factors as the children lacked discipline, that they were less gifted or that they lacked cognitive developmental skills, or that there was educator influence and/or even peer influence in this regard.

5.2.2.6 The main research question: *What is the extent, level and form of the support for learning of the parents of Grade Two learners in a Township school and what effect does their support for learning have on the learning of the learners*?

Having looked at all the research subquestions, it may be concluded that the improvisation of the means used, even though methods were the same for the majority of the parents in their support for learning, is an indication that the majority of the parents were willing to play a role in the education of their children.

The majority of parents had qualified at early school levels, some at junior and senior primary school and some at junior secondary school. A limited number of parents had qualified at matric level, that is, two fathers and four mothers, but an equal number of the mothers had never attended school. The majority of the literate and some of the semi-literate and even the illiterate parents, were able to engage in the education of their children, whereas some parents at all the levels of literacy were not ready to provide support.

The factors of knowledge, experience and literacy in the parents do not contribute singularly because there are perhaps many overlays of attitude which also contribute to influence. There are other factors that may bring influence. For instance, learners with many significantly negative learning behaviours on the observation scale were sometimes found to come from the homes of literate parents and some with many significantly positive learning behaviours had illiterate parents.

One of the other considerations influencing parental involvement concerns the **time** factor. Some parents spoke of time constraints because of their work commitments. Distance from work and leaving early for work might prevent parents from being supportive. The

parents' emotional feelings when tired might cause lack of support for learning, for instance, stress and many other related factors might lead to such a situation.

The problems encountered by parents concerning the form, level and content of support of their children for learning, might actually be one result of the type of education they had had themselves. Under the earlier political dispensation in South Africa, parents received poor quality education (Mawasha 1986:26), which now in turn has left them with very limited knowledge of how to provide their own children with support for learning. What parents did during the observation of their learning tasks in their homes, typically reflects how they were taught themselves.

The parents' **attitude** towards the learning of their children has been a dominant theme throughout the data and is not associated exclusively with the level of their learning and literacy. The majority of the parents were positively inclined and made ready use of positive words of encouragement in as far as the education of their children is concerned. Much positive attitude was expressed in detail by the literate parents. Although some of the illiterate parents also demonstrated concern, this was expressed generally and not in specifics.

An excess amount of strictness and/or harshness in terms of remarks was observed among some of the better qualified and even some illiterate parents. Strictness might in some parents have signified their focus for learning, as could be seen from their children's significantly positive learning behaviours on the observation scale.

The positive expressions from the majority of the parents show that, despite the poverty factor, illiteracy factor and many other related factors, the parents were generally willing to provide support in the education of their children. The degree of seriousness in their statements that they need to be trained in such a way that they will understand their cognitive role and how to give cognitive support to their children also indicates their willingness of the support for learning in the education of their children.

A relevant component of learning support is the parents' **liaison** with the school. About ¼ of the parents' responses on the questionnaire showed that they have met and talked with the principal of the school which would mean that $^{3}/_{4}$ of the parents do not show concern, and that they leave everything in the hands of the educators. This picture is not clearly reflected on the learning behaviours of the children. It does not influence the learning behaviours of the child singularly because some or the learners with many significantly positive learning behaviours come from the illiterate parents and some of those with

significantly negative learning behaviours come from the parents who were positively inclined.

Concerning cooperation with the school's request for lesson items, nine families responded to all the letters, 25 responded though not fully and five responded to all of the letters. A few of the learners whose parents responded positively were observed to have demonstrated many dimensions of significantly positive learning behaviours, whereas some of the learners whose parents were not so willing to help displayed a good many dimensions of significantly negative learning behaviours.

Visits by parents to the school and the educator of their children also demonstrated a positive relationship between the two parties. Some of these children also demonstrated a positive relationship between the two parties. Some of these parents also knew the name of their children's educator. Some of the parents had never communicated with the educator of their children which may lead one to conclude that they need to be taught on how to consult the school, not only when their children have failed or have encountered a problem, but any time they feel the need.

It must finally be concluded that, despite the variously inadequate learning support by some parents, their children displayed significantly positive learning behaviours which may not be strongly associated with their parents. Some learners whose parents were more positively inclined, demonstrated a significantly negative learning behaviours, which suggests that there are multiple factors which may have influenced the learning behaviours of these learners.

5.3 METHODOLOGICAL ISSUES

The data sets by means of using a questionnaire, with semi-structured interview, ethnographic observation, a learner's behaviour schedule and correspondence with parents as methods of this research, were each analysed and discussed separately. The aim, administration and the use of each method were outlined.

The questionnaire was highly structured, but there was no room for any additional comments. The respondents were channelled into answering what was required without being allowed a chance to come up with their views or suggestions. The respondents could have provided more information if more probing was made.

The questionnaire is observed to have been relevant and has provided meaningful information in a descriptive way. Relational data did not show much because no strong relationships were found. There was hardly any relationship of significance difference which could lead one to say maybe a questionnaire is not the way it should have been done. Another reason could also be the uniqueness of the sample (39 families) that international findings and theory have so far failed by and large to accommodate the South African township, informal settlement and rural population.

The purpose of the interview was to obtain additional descriptive information and to provide qualitative understanding of the quantitative data. It was found to have provided relevant information on how parents could be supportive in the education of their children. The majority of the respondents applied revision or repetition and explanation methods while in numeracy they resorted to pebbles and other counters.

Parents said they enjoyed working with their children and some said they were learning new ideas when helping their children during the learning tasks even though they applied one and the same method of support.

The purpose of the ethnographic observation was to clarify understanding about the interactions between the individual children and their parents in respect of a learning task in their homes and to observe the learning behaviours of the learners in the classroom.

The ethnographic observation is regarded as the crucial method in this research. However, although it provided significant information, it should have been field noted in more detail. The ethnographic observation of parents participating in their children's learning might be a fruitful way of knowing skills and knowledge they have. This method can be interrelated with the behaviour schedule or correspondence with parents where each is interpreted with regard to the attitude of the parents. The ethnographic observation of parents particularly indicated that some of them are more enthusiastic about their children's education and that there is a need for them to be offered a better education so as to be more supportive of their children's education. It was truly possible to see the parents in authentic action, and thus to breakthrough beyond the point of verbal report and description.

The purpose of the schedule was to observe particular learning behaviours more systematically to inform the qualitative description. It could be argued that failure to award scores of 1, 2 and 5 to the majority of the learners affected the results. Careful

interpretation is required because some other factors outside the family might also have influenced the learning behaviours of the learners.

The purpose of correspondence with parents was to find out operationally which parents of the target group would demonstrate support for learning in the learning of their children by responding to correspondence from the school, and then to ascertain whether their support for learning generally related to the learning behaviours of their children.

This method strongly reflected that the negative behaviours of some of the parents observed during the learning task were related to failure to respond fully to requests from the school and thus might have negatively influenced the learning behaviours of their children. Some parents who were supportive were also those who responded positively in sending the required objects and thus might have influenced the behaviours of their children in a positive way.

Finally, one would say the Parental Involvement in Learners' Education Questionnaire (PILEQ) which was coupled with the semi-structured interview, together with the ethnographic observation made with the parents in their homes as well as in the classroom with the learners and their educator, were found to have produced much information in this research. Taking the Learners' Behaviour Schedule and correspondence with parents into consideration, one would conclude that they somehow repeat what the former set have produced. The support for learning can always be seen as a crucial factor in the children's learning.

5.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH

Like most other current studies concerning barriers to learning in South Africa, this research does not claim to provide final answers in this field, but it raises some issues concerning the amount of the support for learning provided by parents in the education of their children. Admittedly, there are limitations that stem from the course of the research.

This study was limited to the parents of the learners in only one Grade Two class in only one township school, with the result that in only the particular community system will we understand what the quality of parent-child relationships in learning situations is, to determine how they could be helpful in the education of young learners.

The researcher acknowledges the fact that learners in such a small sample were not divided in terms of their different backgrounds, for example culture, tradition, religious

affiliation, and language background and that these various influences were not given further attention. The effects obviously cannot be denied.

As previously mentioned in Chapter Four, the researcher acknowledges with regard to the statistical issues of this research that only a small number of participants have been involved in this study. The descriptive as well as relational information was contemplated with regard to a small sample size, with the hope that more relevant information would be found. Only trends could be described and interpreted for this particular sample. For example:

- In the Learning Behaviour Schedule, only codes of 3 and 4 were found to be dominating.
- Questionnaire, coupled with semi-structured interviews: The questionnaire did not allow parents to come up with their own suggestions and/or ides.
- This technique might have contained a form of bias because it was done in the community where everybody was not in a position to understand.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the above findings and conclusions drawn from the research, the following recommendations for parents' support for learning by their children in the Foundation Phase and for further research could be considered:

5.5.1 RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING PARENTS' SUPPORT FOR LEARNING BY THEIR CHILDREN IN THE FOUNDATION PHASE

- **Recommendation 1**

Since the research results show that many of the parents' own learning experiences were limited to drill and practice methods, they did not have a rich control of reading with understanding and were not quick and creative to show their children alternative ways how to do the schoolwork, which was also carried over in numeracy tasks. It is recommended that programmes be run by schools for parents to get training in methods of learning and support. Parents should be enriched with knowledge and skills that will help them provide the necessary support in the education of their children.

- **Recommendation 2**

It is recommended that the Government should take the responsibility in training the educators and principals who in turn will provide better training to parents. There is

already an indication that this is possible through the training provided by non-governmental organisations such as the Management of Schools and Training programmes. Such training should aim at motivating and encouraging parents to provide support in the education of their children.

- **Recommendation 3**

It is recommended that programmes be expanded in such a way that parent enrichment courses are included where parents will be taught desirable and/or effective methods of talking and playing with their children and to teach them through play.

- **Recommendation 4**

There must be regular contact of the school with the parents so that they will feel free to discuss matters concerning their child. The parent must be kept informed regularly of the child's scholastic progress. If the child does not show sufficient progress, the educator ought to give certain additional exercises to the parent that the child can practice at home, which will also involve the parent. Written communication between the school and the home can be valuable if one or both parents are unable to attend the discussion evening, sports meetings, and fund-raising projects. At these meetings, educators should "sell" their school to parents in order that they may regard it as their school too.

- **Recommendation 5**

It is recommended that universities and other tertiary institutions include parental involvement as a course in the training of all principals and educators. In doing so, they will be able to impart better knowledge to parents who will also be able to provide better learning support to their children. The parents who have a higher level of literacy on account of their school qualifications, life experience and exposure to tasks will be able to provide more support of their children's learning.

5.5.2 RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

It is recommended that due to the deficient culture of support for learning in the home of an African child as it emerged from this research, a further study be undertaken on how to help non-reading parents to support their children in their learning. Even those who have a potential level of functional literacy on account of their school qualifications, life experience and exposure to tasks should also be involved in the research because their experience of schooling and training did not appear to contribute richly to the support of their children's education.

The research should address how parents could become critical thinkers, use different methods in guiding their children to learn so as to enhance their partnership with the school.

It is also recommended to implement ways of changing habits of reading and learning in the homes of these children. Extensive and profound research is necessary, specifically with the disadvantaged families. Therefore, the situation of parents (illiterates, semi-literates and literates) needs to be researched.

5.6 FINAL CONCLUSION

5.6.1 In the South African education policy, the Government endorses that parental involvement is important in the education of the children.

5.6.2 Findings from the literature study as well as empirical study of this research indicated that a child who is raised in a poverty stricken environment finds a school environment strange, as he/she has to learn and conform to strange norms and values which are not in line with what is taking place at home. On the other hand, a child who grew up in a well to do environment tends to have less problems conforming to the school environment to what the school expects of him/her and what he/she has been taught to practice at home. The literature study and this research concur that because of illiteracy and low level of education that prevail among African parents, some of them seem not to be willing to take part in the education of their children, and that there is a higher level of improvement in children whose parents are actively involved.

5.6.3 In addition to the generally low level of the parents' qualifications, the kind of education under the earlier Bantu Education may further have influenced their lack of depth of a culture of literacy and their limited scope of education as well as lack of educational knowledge and skills in so much that their support for learning appeared to be stereotyped.

5.6.4 Both the literature and many empirical studies cite the family as the most important entity in any child's life. It is, therefore, clear that any learner's extent of coping in the classroom and the value he/she attaches to schooling is to some extent dependent on the learner's home background. The schools need to gain greater understanding of the communities in which they function. In doing so, they may be able to provide support to parents that is relevant to them. This

support should in turn provide parents with the window currently required to actively engage in their children's education. It is important that educators and parents work together to shape the future of the learners and to inculcate in them the desire to learn.

5.6.5 The researcher believes that this study has shed some light into the understanding of parental involvement in the education of their children in their early schooling. It is hoped that stakeholders will formulate policies and develop practices which will motivate parents to be supportive in their children's education. This will help African learners, particularly the Foundation Phase learners, to achieve competence in learning and greater confidence and motivation to use their problem-solving skills in order to learn more and to become part of a life-long learning process. This process can result in a culture of learning which is much needed in a democratic South Africa, where all races must have an equal chance of becoming better contributors to the world.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A English & Tsonga Questionnaires

Appendix B Behaviour Schedule

Appendix C Correspondence with parents

PROJECT: PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT - GRADE 2 LEARNERS,
HISTORICALLY BLACK SCHOOL

FOR OFFICE USE				
Learner's number	V1			1-2
Card number	V2	0	1	3-4
Repetition number	V3		1	5

SECTION A : BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1 Name of your child _____

2

Boy	1	V4	6
Girl	2		

3 Age of child: _____- years V5 7-8

4 Number of children: _____ V6 9-10

5 Rank of child: _____ V7 11-12

6 Your name: _____

7 Marital status: V8 13

* Married or living together	1
* Unmarried and living alone	2
* Separated and living alone	3
* Divorced and living alone	4
* Widow/Widower and living alone	5

8 Your age: _____ years V9 14-15

9 Are you: V10 16

* Father	1
* Mother	2
* Caregiver	3
* Grandmother	4
* Other (specify): _____	5

10 Address: _____

_____

* Informal settlement	1	V11	17
* Mamelodi	2		
* Shack in Mamelodi	3		
* Other (specify): _____	4		

11 Home language: V12 18

* Tsonga	1
* Tswana	2
* N.Sotho	3
* Ndebele	4
* Other (specify): _____	5

12 Chief religion of the family: V13 19

* Christian	1
* Traditional African	2
* None	3

The mother/primary female caregiver:

13 Your highest qualification:

* Never attended school	0	0	V14	20-21
* Grade 1-12	1	2		
* ABET certificate	1	3		
* Post secondary certificate	1	4		
* Diploma	1	5		
* B-degree	1	6		
* M-degree	1	7		
* D-degree	1	8		

14 Are you working?

Yes	1	V15	22
No	2		

15 If no at 14, give the reason: V16 23

* Cannot find a job	1
* Language problem	2
* Ill health	3
* Must care for the children	4
* Not interested	5
* Other (specify): _____	6

16 If yes at 14, state the type of work: V17 24

* Professional	1
* Administrative work	2
* Trained labourer	3
* Untrained labourer	4
* Self-employed	5

17 For how long have you been working at your present job? _____ years V18 [ ][ ] 25-26

18 At what time do you leave for work? [:] V19 [ ][ ][ ][ ] 27-30

19 At what time do you return home from work? [:] V20 [ ][ ][ ][ ] 31-34

20 Who looks after your children when they return from school?

* Neighbour	1	V21	35
* Relative	2		
* Big sister	3		
* Big brother	4		
* Grandmother	5		
* I do	6		
* Nobody	7		

The father:

21 Your highest qualification: V22 [ ][ ] 36-37

* Never attended school	0	0
* Grade 1-12		
* ABET certificate	1	3
* Post secondary certificate	1	4
* Diploma	1	5
* B-degree	1	6
* M-degree	1	7
* D-degree	1	8

22 Are you working? V23 [ ] 38

Yes	1	
No	2	

23 If no at 22, give the reason: V24 [ ] 39

* Cannot find a job	1
* Language problem	2
* Ill health	3
* Must care for the children	4
* Not interested	5
* Other (specify): _____	6

24 If yes at 22, state the type of work: V25 [ ] 40

* Professional	1
* Administrative work	2
* Trained labourer	3
* Untrained labourer	4

* Self-employed 5

25 For how long have you been working at your present job? _____ years V26 [ ][ ] 41-42

26 At what time do you leave for work? [ ]:[ ] V27 [ ][ ][ ][ ] 43-46

27 At what time do you return home from work? [ ]:[ ] V28 [ ][ ][ ][ ] 47-50

SECTION B: PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT IN CHILD'S LEARNING

B.1 SCHOOL

28 Have you taken the trouble to enter into any conversation with the principal of the school? Yes 1 / No 2 V29 [ ] 51

29 What is the name of your child's class teacher? V30 [ ] 52

* Knows 1
* Doesn't know 2

30 Please name one person who represents your (school committee) at Masingita Primary school _____ V31 [ ] 53

* Knows 1
* Doesn't know 2

31 What are the functions of the School Committee? _____ V32 [ ] 54

_____

* Parents knows at least 2 1
* Parent doesn't know 2

32 How often do you visit Masingita Primary School? V33 [ ] 55

* Only on parent meeting days 1
* Only when my child has problems 2
* Frequently, at my own choice 3
* Never or hardly ever 4

33 Do you as parent/guardian have any problem with the school? Yes 1 / No 2 V34 [ ] 56

34 If yes at 33, please mark only your reasons:

* Class teacher lacks teaching skills 1 V35 [ ] 57
* She is not devoted to her work 2 V36 [ ] 58
* She doesn't pay individual attention 3 V37 [ ] 59
* She is always late for school 4 V38 [ ] 60
* She is often absent from school 5 V39 [ ] 61
* She maintains poor discipline 6 V40 [ ] 62
* She is too strict 7 V41 [ ] 63

* Other (specify): _____ | 8 | V42 | | 64

35 How can your problems be solved?

_____ V43 | | 65 | | 66

_____ V44

_____

B.2 HOME

36 Do you help your child when homework is given? V45 | | 67

* Yes | 1

* No | 2

* No homework is ever given | 3

37 If no at 36, give your reasons: _____ V46 | | 68 | | 69

_____ V47

38 If yes at 36, how do you help? _____ V48 | | 70 | | 71

_____ V49

39 What type of resources do you buy for your child to develop his/her learning? V50 | | 72 | | 73

_____ V51

_____

Learner's number	V52			1-2
Card number	V53	0	2	3-4
Repetition number	V54		1	5

40 How often do you monitor your child's progress? V55 | | 6

* Nearly everyday | 1

* Only after attending a parents' meeting | 2

* Only at the end of each term | 3

* At least once a week | 4

* Only when she has failed | 5

* Only when I have time | 6

* Never | 7

41 How do you feel about the education of your child? _____ V56 | | 7 | | 8

_____ V57

42 How often does your child ask you questions about his schoolwork? V58 9

* Nearly every day	1
* Once a week	2
* Seldom	3
* Never	4

43 If yes at 42, what kind of question does he ask? _____ V59 10 11

_____ V50

44 What do you do when your child asks a question about schoolwork? V61 12 13

_____ V62

_____

45 What do you do when your child has made a mistake in his schoolwork? V63 14 15

_____ V64

_____

46 Do you have a radio? V65 16

Yes	1
No	2

47 If yes at 46, mark the programmes that you encourage your child to listen to:

* Stories	1	V66	17
* Music	2	V67	18
* Africa	3	V68	19
* English	4	V69	20
* Educational	5	V70	21
* None	6	V71	22

48 Do you explain some of the radio programmes to your child? V72 23

Yes	1
No	2

49 Mark all the time slots when you allow your child to listen to the radio.

* Every weekday afternoon	1	V73	24
* Every weekday evening	2	V74	25
* One hour a day during the week	3	V75	26
* Two hours a day during the week	4	V76	27

* More than two hours a day during the week	5	V77		28
* Never on weekdays	6	V78		29
* On Saturdays	7	V79		30
* On Sundays	8	V80		31

50 Do you have a TV set?

Yes	1	V81		32
No	2			

51 If yes at 50, mark all the TV-programmes that you encourage your child to watch:

* Stories	1	V82		33
* Music	2	V83		34
* Africa	3	V84		35
* English	4	V85		36
* Educational	5	V86		37
* None	6	V87		38

52 Do you explain some of the TV-programmes to your child?

Yes	1	V88		39
No	2			

53 Mark all the time slots when you allow your child to watch TV.

* Every weekday afternoon	1	V89		40
* Every weekday evening	2	V90		41
* One hour a day during the week	3	V91		42
* Two hours a day during the week	4	V92		43
* More than two hours a day during the week	5	V93		44
* Never on weekdays	6	V94		45
* Saturdays	7	V95		46
* Sundays	8	V96		47

54 How do you feel about the behaviour of your child's friends? V97 48

* No approval	1
* Little approval	2
* Moderate approval	3
* High approval	4

55 Do you ever take your child on an outing?

Yes	1	V98		49
No	2			

56 If no at 55, give reasons _____ V99 50 51

_____ V100

57 If yes at 55, where do you normally take him? _____ V101 52 53

_____ V102

58 Did your child attend an informal daycare centre before entering school? V103 54

Yes	1
No	2

59 Did your child attend formal nursery school in his/her preschool year? V104 55

Yes	1
No	2

60 Has your child ever attended any extra learning enrichment classes since entering school? V105 56

Yes	1
No	2

61 What is your child's performance like this year in reading? V106 57

* Good	1
* Average	2
* Poor	3

62 What is your child's performance like this year in writing? V107 58

* Good	1
* Average	2
* Poor	3

63 What is your child's performance like this year in maths? V108 59

* Good	1
* Average	2
* Poor	3

PROJECT: PARENTAL INVOLVEMENT *continued*

Mrs S Senosi

Learner's number	V109			1-2
Card number	V110	0		3-4
Repetition number	V111		1	5

SECTION C: OBSERVATION OF LEARNING BEHAVIOUR SCHEDULE

NAME: _____

64	Interest in task	V112 19/5`	V113 20/5	V114 26/5	V115 27/5	V116 2/6	V117 3/6	V118 4/6	V119 9/6	V120 17/6	V121 17/6	V122 18/6	V123 22/6	V124 24/6
		6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
65	Attention to task	V125 19/5	V126 20/5	V127 26/5	V128 27/5	V129 2/6	V130 3/6	V131 4/6	V132 9/6	V133 17/6	V134 17/6	V135 8/6	V136 22/6	V137 24/6
		19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
66	Confidence	V138 19/5	V139 20/5	V140 26/5	V141 27/5	V142 2/6	V143 3/6	V144 4/6	V145 9/6	V146 17/6	V147 17/6	V148 8/6	V149 22/6	V150 24/6
		32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44
68	Restlessness in movements	V151 19/5	V152 20/5	V153 26/5	V154 27/5	V155 2/6	V156 3/6	V157 4/6	V158 9/6	V159 17/6	V160 17/6	V161 8/6	V162 22/6	V163 24/6
		45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57
68	Skill displayed	V164 19/5	V165 20/5	V166 26/5	V167 27/5	V168 2/6	V169 3/6	V170 4/6	V171 9/6	V172 17/6	V173 17/6	V174 8/6	V175 22/6	V176 24/6
		58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70

Learner's number	V117			1-2
Card number	V178	0		3-4
Repetition number	V179		1	5

		V180 19/5	V181 20/5	V182 26/5	V183 27/5	V184 2/6	V185 3/6	V186 4/6	V187 9/6	V188 17/6	V189 17/6	V190 8/6	V191 22/6	V192 24/6
69	Knowledge displayed													
		6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18

		V193 19/5	V194 20/5	V195 26/5	V196 27/5	V197 2/6	V198 3/6	V199 4/6	V200 9/6	V201 17/6	V202 17/6	V203 8/6	V204 22/6	V205 24/6
70	Speed of work													
		19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31

		V206 19/5	V207 20/5	V208 26/5	V209 27/5	V210 2/6	V211 3/6	V212 4/6	V213 9/6	V214 17/6	V215 17/6	V216 8/6	V217 22/6	V218 24/6
71	Obedience													
		32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44

		V219 19/5	V220 20/5	V221 26/5	V222 27/5	V223 2/6	V224 3/6	V225 4/6	V226 9/6	V227 17/6	V228 17/6	V229 8/6	V230 22/6	V231 24/6
72	Motivation													
		45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57

		V232 19/5	V233 20/5	V234 26/5	V235 27/5	V236 2/6	V237 3/6	V238 4/6	V239 9/6	V240 17/6	V241 17/6	V242 8/6	V243 22/6	V244 24/6
73	Correctness of responses													
		58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70

Learner's number	V245			1-2
Card number	V246	0		3-4
Repetition number	V247		1	5

		V248 19/5	V249 20/5	V250 26/5	V251 27/5	V252 2/6	V253 3/6	V254 4/6	V255 9/6	V256 17/6	V257 17/6	V258 8/6	V259 22/6	V260 24/6
74	Group behaviour													
		6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18

		V261 19/5	V262 20/5	V263 26/5	V264 27/5	V265 2/6	V266 3/6	V267 4/6	V268 9/6	V269 17/6	V270 17/6	V271 8/6	V272 22/6	V273 24/6
75	Execution of instructions													
		19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31

		V274 19/5	V275 20/5	V276 26/5	V277 27/5	V278 2/6	V279 3/6	V280 4/6	V281 9/6	V282 17/6	V283 17/6	V284 8/6	V285 22/6	V286 24/6
76	Reading competence													
		32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44

		V287 19/5	V288 20/5	V289 26/5	V290 27/5	V291 2/6	V292 3/6	V293 4/6	V294 9/6	V295 17/6	V296 17/6	V297 8/6	V298 22/6	V299 24/6
77	Self-initiated remarks/ uggestions													
		45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57

		V300 19/5	V301 20/5	V302 26/5	V303 27/5	V304 2/6	V305 3/6	V306 4/6	V307 9/6	V308 17/6	V309 17/6	V310 8/6	V311 22/6	V312 24/6
78	Amount of effort exerted													
		58	59	60	61	62	63	64	65	66	67	68	69	70

Learner's number	V313			1-2
Card number	V314	0		3-4
Repetition number	V315		1	5

		V316 19/5	V317 20/5	V318 26/5	V319 27/5	V320 2/6	V321 3/6	V322 4/6	V323 9/6	V324 17/6	V325 17/6	V326 8/6	V327 22/6	V328 24/6
79	Knowledge displayed													
		6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18

		V329 19/5	V330 20/5	V331 26/5	V332 27/5	V333 2/6	V334 3/6	V335 4/6	V336 9/6	V337 17/6	V338 17/6	V339 8/6	V340 22/6	V341 24/6
80	Respons to questions													
		19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31

		V342 19/5	V343 20/5	V344 26/5	V345 27/5	V346 2/6	V347 3/6	V348 4/6	V349 9/6	V350 17/6	V351 17/6	V352 8/6	V353 22/6	V354 24/6
81	Self-initiated questions													
		32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44

PROJEKE: YO HLANGANISA VATSWARI NI VANA VA+A21

NTANGHA B (GRADE 2)

FOR OFFICE USE				
Learner's number	V1			1-2
Card number	V2	0	1	3-4
Repetition number	V3		1	5

SECTION A : BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION

1 Vito ra n'wana _____

2

Mufana	1	V4	6
Nhwanyana	2		

3 Malembe ya n'wana: _____- years V5 7-8

4 Nhlayo ya vana ekaya: _____ V6 9-10

5 Ntirho wa n'wana ekaya: _____ V7 11-12

6 Vito ra wena_____

7 Swa vukati: V8 13

* U tekiwile kumbe mi tshama swin'we	1
* A ndzi tekiwanga ndzi tshama ndsexe	2
* Hi hambanile ndzi tshama ndzexe	3
* Hi hambanile ndzi tshama ndzexe	4
* Ndzi feriwile ndzi tshama ndzexe	5

8 Malembe ya wena: _____ years V9 14-15

9 U: V10 16

* Tatana	1
* Manana	2
* Muhlayisi	3
* Kokwana	4
* Swinwana (hlamusela)_____	5

10 Adirese: _____

_____

* Ndzhawu leyi u tshamaka kona	1	V11		17
* Mamelodi	2			
* Tindlu to fana ni tizozo (mikhukhu e Mamelodi	3			
* Swinwana (hlamusela)_____	4			

11 Pirimi ra le kaya: V12 18

* Tsonga	1
* Tswana	2
* N.Sotho	3
* Ndebele	4
* Swinwana (hlamusela) _____	5

12 Laha va khongelaka kona: V13 19

* Vapfumeri	1
* Xintima	2
* Ku hava	3

Manana/Mutswari wa xisati la hlayisaka

13 Leswi u swi dyondzeleke:

* A ndzi ngnenango xikolo	0	0	V14	20-21
* Ntangha 1-12				
* ABET certificate	1	3		
* A ndzi hetanga e xikolweni xa-le henhla	1	4		
* Diploma	1	5		
* B-degree	1	6		
* M-degree	1	7		
* D-degree	1	8		

14 Wa tirha xana?

Hi swona	1	V15	22
A hi swona	2		

15 Loko swi nga ri tana eka nomboro 14 hlamusela V16 23

* A ndzi kumi ntirho	1
* Ku ka unga koti xilhungu	2
* Mavabyi	3
* Ku hlayisa vana	4
* A ndzi swi tsakeli	5
* Swinwana (hlamusela)_____	6

16 Loko swi ri swona eka nomboro 14 hlamusela leswaku u tirha ntirho muni: V17 [ ] 24

* Ndzi dyondzekile	1
* Ndzi tirha ehofisini	2
* Ndzi dyondzisiwile ntirho	3
* A ndzi dyondzisiwanga ntirho	4
* Ndza ti tirha	5

17 I nkarhi wo tani hi kwihi u tirha laha u ngakona? _____ years V18 [ ][ ] 25-26

18 U suka hi nkarhi muni ku ya entirhweni? : V19 [ ][ ][ ][ ] 27-30

19 U vuya hi nkarhi muni entirhweni? : V20 [ ][ ][ ][ ] 31-34

20 I mani a hlayisaka vana loko va vuya xikolweni?

* Va akelani	1
* Maxaka	2
* Va sesi lavakulu	3
* Va buti lavakulu	4
* Kokwana	5
* Ndza ti hlayisela vona	6
* Ku hava munhu	7

V21 [ ] 35

Tatana:

21 Leswi u swi dyondzeleke: V22 [ ][ ] 36-37

* A ndzi ngnenango xikolo	0	0
* Ntangha 1-12		
* ABET certificate	1	3
* A ndzi hetanga e xikolweni xa-le henhla	1	4
* Diploma	1	5
* B-degree	1	6
* M-degree	1	7
* D-degree	1	8

22 Wa tirha xana? V23 [ ] 38

Hi swona	1
A hi swona	2

23 Loko swi nga ri tana eka nomboro 22 hlamusela V24 [ ] 39

* A ndzi kumi ntirho	1
* Ku ka unga koti xilhungu	2
* Mavabyi	3
* Ku hlayisa vana	4
* A ndzi swi tsakeli	5
* Swinwana (hlamusela)_____	6

24 Loko swi ve tirha eka nomorho 22 hlamusela ku u tirha-yini?: V25 [ ] 40

* Ndzi dyondzekile [1]
* Ntirho wa le hofisini [2]
* Ndzi dyondzisiwile ntirho [3]
* A ndzi dyondzisiwanga ntirho [4]
* Ndza ti tirha [5]

25 I nkarhi wo tani hi kwihi u tirha laha u ngakona? _____ years V26 [ ][ ] 41-42

26 U huma hi nkarhi muni ku ya entirhweni? [:] V27 [ ][ ][ ][ ] 43-46

27 U vuya hi nkarhi muni entirhweni? [:] V28 [ ][ ][ ][ ] 47-50

KU HLANGANA KA VATSWARI NI VANA E TIDYONDZWENI

B.1 XIKOLO

28 Ke u hlangana na Nhloko ya xikolo mi vulavula xana? Hi swona [1] V29 [ ] 51
principal of the school? A hi swona [2]

29 I mani vito ra Mudyondzisi wa n'wana wa wena? V30 [ ] 52

* Ndza n'wi tiva [1]
* A ndzi n'wi tivi [2]

30 Vula vito ra wun'we wa vakulukumba va xikolo xa Masingita? V31 [ ] 53

* Ndza n'wi tiva [1]
* A ndzi n'wi tivi [2]

31 Ntirho wa xikolo Komiti (School Committee) i yini? _____ V32 [ ] 54
_____

* Parents knows at least 2 [1]
* Parent doesn't know [2]

32 U vhakacha ka ngani exikolweni xa Masingita? V33 [ ] 55

* Only on parent meeting days [1]
* Only when my child has problems [2]
* Frequently, at my own choice [3]
* Never or hardly ever [4]

33 Wena Muhlayisi Kumbe Mutswari u na ku tikeriwa hi xikolo? Hi swona [1] V34 [ ] 56
A hi swona [2]

34 Loko u pfumela eka nomboro 33 nyika nhlamusela:

* Class teacher lacks teaching skills	1	V35	57
* She is not devoted to her work	2	V36	58
* She doesn't pay individual attention	3	V37	59
* She is always late for school	4	V38	60
* She is often absent from school	5	V39	61
* She maintains poor discipline	6	V40	62
* She is too strict	7	V41	63
* Swinwana (hlamusela)_____	8	V42	64

35 Swi vilelo swa wena swi nga pfuneka hi ndlela yihi?

_____ V43 65
66

_____ V44

_____

B.2 EKAYA

36 Xana wa nwi pfuna n'wana hi ntirho wa le kaya? V45 67

* Yes	1
* No	2
* No homework is ever given	3

37 Loko swi nga ri swona eka nomboro 35 hlamusela: _____ V46 68
69

_____ V47

38 Loko swi ri swona eka 36 U pfunisa ku yini?_____ V48 70
71

_____ V49

39 Hi swihi leswi uswi xavaka ku pfuna kumbe ku kurisa dyondzo ya n'wana? V50 72
73

_____ V51

_____

Learner's number	V52			1-2
Card number	V53	0	2	3-4
Repetition number	V54		1	5

40 Xana u kambela ka ngani ntirho wa n'wana wa wena? V55 [ ] 6

* Nearly everyday 1
* Only after attending a parents' meeting 2
* Only at the end of each term 3
* At least once a week 4
* Only when she has failed 5
* Only when I have time 6
* Never 7

41 U ti twa njhani hi dyondzo ya n'wana wa wena? _____ V56 [ ] 7 [ ] 8

_____ V57

42 N'wana wa wena u ku vutisa ka ngani hi ntirho waxikolo? V58 [ ] 9

* Nearly every day 1
* Once a week 2
* Seldom 3
* Never 4

43 Loko u pfumela eka nomboro 42, swivutiso swa njhani leswi a ku vutisaka? [ ] 10

_____ V59 [ ] 11

_____ V50

44 Xana u endla yini loko n'wana wa wena aku vutisa hi ntirho wa xikolo? V61 [ ] 12 [ ] 13

_____

_____ V62

45 U endla yini loko n'wana a hoxile eka ntirho wa xikolo? _____ V63 [ ] 14 [ ] 15

_____ V64

46 Xana u na xona xi ya ni moya (radio) kee? V65 [ ] 16

Hi swona	1
A hi swona	2

47 Loko u pfumela eka nomboro 46 khwatihata leswi u lavaka nwana wa wena a yingisela swona:

* Mitsheketo	1	V66	17
* Vuyimbeleri	2	V67	18
* Xintima	3	V68	19
* Xinghezi	4	V69	20
* Dyondzo	5	V70	21
* Ku hava	6	V71	22

48 Xana wa n'wi hlamusela n'wana wa wena swin'wana swa nongonoko wa xiyana moya (radio) xana?

Hi swona	1	V72	23
A hi swona	2		

*49 U pfumelela n'wana wa wena ku yingisa Radio kangani?

* Masiku hinkwawo ni uhlekanhi	1	V73	24
* Masiku hinkwawo ni Madyambu	2	V74	25
* Awara yinwe a xikarhi ka vhiki	3	V75	26
* Tawara timbirhi axikarhi ka vhiki	4	V76	27
* Ku tlula tiawara timbirhi hi vhiki	5	V77	28
* A ndzi n'wi pfumeleli exikarhi ka vhiki	6	V78	29
* Muqivela	7	V79	30
* Sonto	8	V80	31

50 Xana mi na yona Televixini xana?

Hi swona	1	V81	32
A hi swona	2		

51 Loko swi ri swona eka nomboro 50 vula-hinkwaswo leswi u swi tsakelaka leswaku-nwana wa wena a swi languta:

* Stories	1	V82	33
* Music	2	V83	34
* Africa	3	V84	35
* English	4	V85	36
* Educational	5	V86	37
* None	6	V87	38

52 Xana wa b'wi hlamusela swinwana swa nongonoko wa Televixini?

	1	V88	39
	2		

53 U n'wi pfumelela ka ngani n'wana wa wena ku langula'televixini?

* Every weekday afternoon	1	V89	40
* Every weekday evening	2	V90	41
* One hour a day during the week	3	V91	42
* Two hours a day during the week	4	V92	43
* More than two hours a day during the week	5	V93	44
* Never on weekdays	6	V94	45

	* Saturdays	7	V95		46
	* Sundays	8	V96		47
54	U ti twa njhani hi Mahanyelo ya vanghana va n'wana wa wena?		V97		48
	* No approval	1			
	* Little approval	2			
	* Moderate approval	3			
	* High approval	4			
55	Xana u tshama u teka riendzo ni n'wana wa wena?	Hi swona 1 / A hi swona 2	V98		49
56	Loko swi nga ri swona eka nomboro 55 hlamusela _____		V99		50
					51
	_____		V100		
57	Loko u pfumela eka nomboro 55 un'wi yisa kwihi? _____		V101		52
					53
	_____		V102		
58	Xana n'wana wa wena u nghenile khirexe leyi nga ri ki enawini kee?	Hi swona 1 / A hi swona 2	V103		54
59	Xana n'wana wa wena u nghenile khirexe leyi nga enawini kee?	Hi swona 1 / A hi swona 2	V104		55
60	Xana n'wana wa wena u ke a nghena tlilasi leyi ngetelelaka vutivi mpfhuka a nghena xikolo kee?	Hi swona 1 / A hi swona 2	V105		56
61	Xana n'wana wa wena eku hlayeni u tirha njhani?		V106		57
	* Good	1			
	* Average	2			
	* Poor	3			
62	Xana n'wana wa wena eku tsaleni u tirhisa ku yini?		V107		58
	* Good	1			
	* Average	2			
	* Poor	3			
63	Xana n'wana wa wena eka tinhlayo u tirha njhani?		V108		59
	* Good	1			
	* Average	2			
	* Poor	3			

Appendix B : Behaviour Schedule of 39 Learners in 11 Weeks

Dimensions Learner 1 (L1)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.7
Confidence	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	42	76.4	75.9
Restlessness	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.8
Skill	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	40	72.7	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	42	76.4	76.8
Motivation	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	39	70.9	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	36	65.5	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.2
Response	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	4	39	70.9	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												692	69.9	

Dimensions Learner 2 (L2)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	39	70.9	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.7
Confidence	3	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	41	74.5	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	38	69	61.8
Skill	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	41	74.5	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	43	78.2	74.9
Speed	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	36	65.5	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	42	76.4	76.8
Motivation	3	3	4	5	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	65.7
Correctness	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	37	67.3	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	43	78.2	75.2
Response	3	3	2	1	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	29	52.7	68.4
Questions	3	1	1	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	26	47.3	58.8
												675	68.2	

Dimensions Learner 3 (L3)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	40	65.5	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	36	65.3	61.8
Skill	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	72.2
Knowledge	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	35	63.6	74.9
Speed	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	41	74.5	63.7
Obedience	3	3	4	5	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	39	70.9	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	65.7
Correctness	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	70.7
Group behaviour	3	3	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	31	56.4	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	39	70.9	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	43	78.2	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	75.2
Response	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	39	70.9	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												684	69.1	

Dimensions Learner 4 (L4)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	2	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	68.7
Confidence	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	38	69	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	74.9
Speed	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	36	65.5	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	40	72.7	76.8
Motivation	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	36	65.5	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	36	65.5	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	61.9
Reading comp	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	39	70.9	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	75.2
Response	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	37	67.3	68.4
Questions	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
												670	67.7	

Dimensions Learner 5 (L5)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.7
Confidence	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	39	70.9	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	40	72.7	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	42	76.4	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	34	61.8	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	42	76.4	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	34	61.8	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	36	65.5	70.7
Group behaviour	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	42	76.4	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	58.8
Effort	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	42	76.4	61.3
Knowledge	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	38	69	75.2
Response	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	68.4
Questions	2	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	31	56.4	58.8
												672	67.9	

Dimensions Learner 6 (L6)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	42	76.4	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.7
Confidence	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	61.8
Skill	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	72.2
Knowledge	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	41	74.5	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	34	61.8	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	38	69	70.7
Group behaviour	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.9
Reading comp	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	75.2
Response	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												678	68.5	

Dimensions Learner 7 (L7)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	74.7
Attention	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	35	63.7	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	41	74.5	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	36	65.5	61.8
Skill	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	40	72.7	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	35	63.6	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	36	65.5	70.7
Group behaviour	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	36	65.5	61.9
Reading comp	3	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	4	38	69	78.9
Remarks	2	3	2	3	3	3	2	4	4	4	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.3
Knowledge	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	40	72.7	75.2
Response	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												670	67.7	

Dimensions Learner 8 (L8)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	A	A	3	A	A	4	4	A	4	4	4	23	76.7	74.7
Attention	A	A	4	A	A	4	3	A	4	4	4	23	76.7	68.7
Confidence	A	A	4	A	A	4	4	A	4	4	4	24	80	75.9
Restlessness	A	A	3	A	A	4	3	A	3	3	3	19	63.3	61.8
Skill	A	A	3	A	A	4	3	A	3	3	4	20	66.7	72.2
Knowledge	A	A	4	A	A	4	3	A	4	3	4	22	73.3	74.9
Speed	A	A	3	A	A	4	4	A	3	3	3	20	66.7	63.7
Obedience	A	A	4	A	A	4	4	A	3	4	4	23	76.7	76.8
Motivation	A	A	3	A	A	5	3	A	3	3	4	21	70	65.7
Correctness	A	A	3	A	A	3	4	A	4	3	3	20	66.7	70.7
Group behaviour	A	A	4	A	A	4	4	A	4	4	4	24	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	A	A	3	A	A	3	3	A	3	3	3	18	60	61.9
Reading comp	A	A	4	A	A	4	3	A	4	3	3	21	70	78.9
Remarks	A	A	3	A	A	3	3	A	3	3	3	18	60	58.8
Effort	A	A	3	A	A	3	3	A	3	3	3	18	60	61.3
Knowledge	A	A	4	A	A	4	4	A	4	3	4	23	76.7	75.2
Response	A	A	3	A	A	4	3	A	3	3	4	20	66.7	68.4
Questions	A	A	3	A	A	3	3	A	3	3	3	18	60	58.8
												375	69.4	

Dimensions Learner 9 (L9)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	2	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	36	65.5	68.7
Confidence	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	2	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	4	3	36	65.5	72.2
Knowledge	2	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	40	72.7	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	37	67.3	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	39	70.9	70.7
Group behaviour	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.9
Reading comp	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	5	4	4	4	43	78.2	78.9
Remarks	2	3	3	4	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	4	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	2	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	40	72.7	75.2
Response	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.4
Questions	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
												672	67.9	

Dimensions Learner 10 (L10)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	40	72.7	74.7
Attention	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	4	38	69	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	37	67.3	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	39	70.9	74.9
Speed	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	36	65.5	63.7
Obedience	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	44	80	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	42	76.4	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	41	74.5	75.2
Response	5	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
												682	68.9	

Dimensions Learner 11 (L11)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	A	4	3	4	37	74	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	A	3	3	3	34	68	68.7
Confidence	3	4	4	5	4	4	4	A	3	3	4	38	76	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	A	3	3	3	31	62	61.8
Skill	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	A	4	4	4	37	74	72.2
Knowledge	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	A	4	4	4	37	74	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	A	3	3	3	32	64	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	A	4	4	4	38	76	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	A	3	3	4	34	68	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	A	4	4	4	36	72	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	A	4	4	4	38	76	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	A	3	3	3	31	62	61.9
Reading comp	3	4	4	4	4	5	4	A	3	3	4	38	76	78.9
Remarks	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	A	3	3	3	29	58	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	A	3	3	3	30	60	61.3
Knowledge	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	A	4	4	4	37	74	75.2
Response	2	4	4	4	4	4	3	A	3	3	3	34	68	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	A	4	4	3	32	64	58.8
												62.3	69.2	

Dimensions Learner 12 (L12)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	3	A	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	37	74	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	A	4	3	3	3	4	3	4	34	68	68.7
Confidence	3	3	3	A	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	35	70	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	A	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	31	62	61.8
Skill	3	3	3	A	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	37	74	72.2
Knowledge	3	3	3	A	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	37	74	74.9
Speed	2	3	3	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	29	58	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	A	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	38	76	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	A	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	31	62	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	A	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	34	68	70.7
Group behaviour	3	4	4	A	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	39	78	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	60	61.9
Reading comp	3	4	4	A	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	39	78	78.9
Remarks	2	3	3	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	29	58	58.8
Effort	2	3	3	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	29	58	61.3
Knowledge	3	3	3	A	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	37	74	75.2
Response	2	3	4	A	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	34	68	68.4
Questions	2	3	3	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	29	58	58.8
												609	67.7	

Dimensions Learner 13 (L13)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4		74.5	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	4	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	39	70.9	72.2
Knowledge	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.9
Speed	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	37	67.3	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	40	72.7	76.8
Motivation	3	3	4	4	5	4	3	3	3	3	3	38	69	65.7
Correctness	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	38	69	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	5	5	3	4	4	4	5	46	83.6	78.9
Remarks	2	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	75.2
Response	4	4	4	4	4	4	2	4	3	3	3	39	70.9	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
												693	70	

Dimensions Learner 14 (L14)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	38	69	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	2	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	40	72.7	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	40	72.7	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	65.7
Correctness	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	37	67.3	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	42	76.4	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	36	65.5	61.9
Reading comp	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	43	78.2	78.9
Remarks	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.2
Response	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	37	67.3	68.4
Questions	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
												678	68.5	

Dimensions Learner 15 (L15)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	40	72.7	74.7
Attention	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	68.7
Confidence	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	41	74.5	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	72.2
Knowledge	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	74.9
Speed	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	35	63.6	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	41	74.5	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	37	67.3	70.7
Group behaviour	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	78.9
Remarks	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	75.2
Response	2	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	35	63.6	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												672	67.9	

Dimensions Learner 16 (L16)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	43	78.2	74.7
Attention	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	75.9
Restlessness	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	61.8
Skill	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	37	67.3	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	45	81.8	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	37	67.3	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	40	72.7	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	3	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	37	67.3	61.9
Reading comp	4	3	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	35	63.6	61.3
Knowledge	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	75.2
Response	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												716	72.3	

Dimensions Learner 17 (L17)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	41	74.5	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	4	4	39	70.9	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	42	76.4	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	65.7
Correctness	3	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	39	70.9	70.7
Group behaviour	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	4	5	3	4	3	4	4	40	72.7	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.2
Response	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	38	69	68.4
Questions	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	37	67.3	58.8
												685	69.2	

Dimensions Learner 18 (L18)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	40	72.7	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	36	65.5	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	40	72.7	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	63.7
Obedience	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	35	63.6	70.7
Group behaviour	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	38	69	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	40	72.7	78.9
Remarks	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	29	52.7	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	40	72.7	75.2
Response	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	36	65.5	68.4
Questions	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	27	49	58.8
												647	65.4	

Dimensions Learner 19 (L19)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	36	65.5	68.7
Confidence	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	41	74.5	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	72.2
Knowledge	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	34	61.8	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	42	76.4	76.8
Motivation	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	65.7
Correctness	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	42	76.4	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	45	81.8	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	34	61.8	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.3
Knowledge	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	75.2
Response	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	36	65.5	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												688	69.5	

Dimensions Learner 20 (L20)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	3	38	69	68.7
Confidence	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	42	76.4	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	38	69	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	35	63.6	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	43	78.2	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	39	70.9	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	78.9
Remarks	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	29	52.7	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	41	74.5	75.2
Response	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	39	70.9	68.4
Questions	2	2	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	29	52.7	58.8
												674	68	

Dimensions Learner 21 (L21)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	40	72.7	74.7
Attention	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	34	61.8	61.8
Skill	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	39	70.9	72.2
Knowledge	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.9
Speed	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	35	63.6	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	76.8
Motivation	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	36	65.5	65.7
Correctness	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	42	76.4	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	4	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	75.2
Response	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.4
Questions	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	54.5	58.8
												684	69	

Dimensions Learner 22 (L22)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	39	70.9	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.7
Confidence	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	40	72.7	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	39	70.9	72.2
Knowledge	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.9
Speed	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	33	60	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	65.7
Correctness	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	38	69	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	78.9
Remarks	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	54.5	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	34	61.8	61.3
Knowledge	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	75.2
Response	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.4
Questions	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	54.5	58.8
												668	67.5	

Dimensions Learner 23 (L23)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	2	3	4	37	67.3	74.7
Attention	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	35	63.6	68.7
Confidence	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	38	69	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	3	31	56.4	61.8
Skill	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	39	70.9	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	39	70.9	74.9
Speed	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	35	63.6	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	42	76.4	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	65.7
Correctness	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	70.7
Group behaviour	4	5	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	5	4	4	4	43	78.2	78.9
Remarks	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.3
Knowledge	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	75.2
Response	3	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.4
Questions	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
												666	67.3	

Dimensions Learner 24 (L24)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	42	76.4	74.7
Attention	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	40	72.7	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.9
Restlessness	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	37	67.3	61.8
Skill	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	42	76.4	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	74.9
Speed	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	36	65.5	63.7
Obedience	4	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	46	83.6	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	65.7
Correctness	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.9
Reading comp	3	4	5	4	5	5	5	4	4	3	4	46	83.6	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	75.2
Response	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	39	70.9	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												713	72	

Dimensions Learner 25 (L25)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	43	78.2	74.7
Attention	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	38	69	68.7
Confidence	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	39	70.9	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	35	63.6	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	76.8
Motivation	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	36	65.5	65.7
Correctness	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	40	72.7	70.7
Group behaviour	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	77.8
Ex of instructions	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	5	4	5	5	50	90.9	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	34	61.8	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.3
Knowledge	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	44	80	75.2
Response	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	41	74.5	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												708	71.5	

Dimensions Learner 26 (L26)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	2	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	38	69	68.7
Confidence	2	4	4	5	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	4	3	3	2	3	3	3	4	34	61.8	61.8
Skill	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	40	72.7	72.2
Knowledge	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	43	78.2	74.9
Speed	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	36	65.5	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	37	67.3	65.7
Correctness	2	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	4	4	38	69	70.7
Group behaviour	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	77.8
Ex of instructions	2	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	35	63.6	61.9
Reading comp	3	5	4	4	3	4	4	4	5	5	5	46	83.6	78.9
Remarks	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	31	56.4	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	34	61.8	61.3
Knowledge	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	43	78.2	75.2
Response	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	39	70.9	68.4
Questions	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
												694	70.1	

Dimensions Learner 27 (L27)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	4	4	4	5	3	4	4	3	4	43	78.2	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	39	70.9	68.7
Confidence	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	5	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	35	63.6	61.8
Skill	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	74.9
Speed	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	37	67.3	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	43	78.2	76.8
Motivation	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	38	69	65.7
Correctness	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	5	5	49	89	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	35	63.6	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.2
Response	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	42	76.4	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	35	63.6	58.8
												720	72.7	

Dimensions Learner 28 (L28)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	74.7
Attention	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	38	69	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	42	76.4	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	39	70.9	72.2
Knowledge	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	40	72.7	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	35	63.6	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	35	63.6	65.7
Correctness	4	4	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	40	72.7	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	75.2
Response	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	35	63.6	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												683	68.9	

Dimensions Learner 29 (L29)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	42	76.4	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	36	65.5	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.9
Restlessness	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	61.8
Skill	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	41	74.5	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	74.9
Speed	2	3	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	43	78.2	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	65.7
Correctness	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	40	72.7	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	42	76.4	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	5	4	4	4	5	4	4	3	3	3	43	78.2	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	75.2
Response	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	36	65.5	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												685	69.2	

Dimensions Learner 30 (L30)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	2	3	4	38	69	74.7
Attention	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	68.7
Confidence	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	36	65.5	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	32	58.2	61.8
Skill	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	37	67.3	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	42	76.4	76.8
Motivation	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	34	61.8	65.7
Correctness	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	32	58.2	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	39	70.9	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	32	58.2	61.3
Knowledge	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	38	69	75.2
Response	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												639	64.5	

Dimensions Learner 31 (L31)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	35	63.6	68.7
Confidence	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.9
Restlessness	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	61.8
Skill	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	37	67.3	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	40	72.7	74.9
Speed	2	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	35	63.6	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	42	76.4	76.8
Motivation	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	36	65.5	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	37	67.3	70.7
Group behaviour	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	77.8
Ex of instructions	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	61.9
Reading comp	2	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	78.9
Remarks	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	3	3	31	56.4	58.8
Effort	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	61.3
Knowledge	3	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	34	61.8	75.2
Response	2	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	4	37	67.3	68.4
Questions	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
												660	66.7	

Dimensions Learner 32 (L32)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	43	78.2	74.7
Attention	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	41	74.5	68.7
Confidence	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.9
Restlessness	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	36	65.5	61.8
Skill	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	42	76.4	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	74.9
Speed	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	42	76.4	63.7
Obedience	4	4	5	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	47	85.5	76.8
Motivation	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	41	74.5	65.7
Correctness	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	43	78.2	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	61.9
Reading comp	5	4	5	5	5	5	4	5	5	4	4	51	92.7	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	75.2
Response	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	43	78.2	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												740	74.7	

Dimensions Learner 33 (L33)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	41	74.5	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	40	72.7	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.9
Restlessness	4	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	61.8
Skill	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	39	70.9	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	3	4	41	74.5	74.9
Speed	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	43	78.2	76.8
Motivation	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	4	36	65.5	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	4	42	76.4	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	61.9
Reading comp	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	40	72.7	78.9
Remarks	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	75.2
Response	3	4	4	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												683	69	

Dimensions Learner 34 (L34)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	74.7
Attention	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	40	67.3	68.7
Confidence	4	4	5	5	5	5	3	4	4	4	4	47	85.5	75.9
Restlessness	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	61.8
Skill	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	74.9
Speed	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	39	70.9	63.7
Obedience	5	4	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	44	80	76.8
Motivation	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	42	76.4	65.7
Correctness	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	42	76.4	70.7
Group behaviour	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4	46	83.6	78.9
Remarks	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	58.2	58.8
Effort	3	2	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	75.2
Response	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	40	72.7	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												725	73.2	

Dimensions Learner 35 (L35)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	4	38	69	74.7
Attention	3	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	68.7
Confidence	3	4	3	4	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	38	69	75.9
Restlessness	3	4	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.8
Skill	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	72.2
Knowledge	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	36	65.5	74.9
Speed	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	63.7
Obedience	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	76.8
Motivation	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	36	65.5	65.7
Correctness	3	3	3	4	3	3	4	3	4	3	4	37	67.3	70.7
Group behaviour	3	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	3	4	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	78.9
Remarks	2	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	31	56.4	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.3
Knowledge	3	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	75.2
Response	2	3	3	4	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	35	63.6	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												643	64.9	

Dimensions Learner 36 (L36)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	74.7
Attention	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	4	4	45	81.8	75.9
Restlessness	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	61.8
Skill	3	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	72.2
Knowledge	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	74.9
Speed	3	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	37	67.3	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	76.8
Motivation	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	65.7
Correctness	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	5	4	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	52	94.5	78.9
Remarks	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	4	37	67.3	61.3
Knowledge	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	75.2
Response	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	42	76.4	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												731	73.8	

Dimensions Learner 37 (L37)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	74.7
Attention	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	43	78.2	68.7
Confidence	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	75.9
Restlessness	3	4	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	61.8
Skill	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	72.2
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	74.9
Speed	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	34	61.8	63.7
Obedience	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	43	78.2	76.8
Motivation	3	3	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	37	67.3	65.7
Correctness	3	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	41	74.5	70.7
Group behaviour	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	61.9
Reading comp	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	46	83.6	78.9
Remarks	3	2	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
Effort	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	4	35	63.6	61.3
Knowledge	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	44	80	75.2
Response	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	4	3	4	41	74.5	68.4
Questions	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	33	60	58.8
												720	72.7	

Dimensions Learner 38 (L391)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	A	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	39	78	74.7
Attention	A	3	3	4	4	4	3	3	3	3	4	34	68	68.7
Confidence	A	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	39	78	75.9
Restlessness	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	60	61.8
Skill	A	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	39	78	72.2
Knowledge	A	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	39	78	74.9
Speed	A	2	2	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	3	26	52	63.7
Obedience	A	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	32	64	76.8
Motivation	A	3	4	3	4	4	3	4	3	3	3	34	68	65.7
Correctness	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	32	64	70.7
Group behaviour	A	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	40	80	77.8
Ex of instructions	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	60	61.9
Reading comp	A	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	40	80	78.9
Remarks	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	60	58.8
Effort	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	4	3	3	31	62	61.3
Knowledge	A	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	39	78	75.2
Response	A	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	3	3	36	72	68.4
Questions	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	60	58.8
												620	68.9	

Dimensions Learner 39 (L39)	Weeks											Score	L.A.%	G.A.%
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11			
Interest	A	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	3	4	3	34	68	74.7
Attention	A	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	4	4	36	72	68.7
Confidence	A	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	39	78	75.9
Restlessness	A	3	3	4	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	30	60	61.8
Skill	A	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	4	33	66	72.2
Knowledge	A	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	37	74	74.9
Speed	A	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	33	66	63.7
Obedience	A	4	4	4	3	3	4	4	4	4	4	38	76	76.8
Motivation	A	3	3	4	4	3	3	4	3	3	3	33	66	65.7
Correctness	A	3	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	4	37	74	70.7
Group behaviour	A	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	39	78	77.8
Ex of instructions	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	60	61.9
Reading comp	A	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	3	38	76	78.9
Remarks	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	60	58.8
Effort	A	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	31	62	61.3
Knowledge	A	3	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3	4	37	74	75.2
Response	A	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	34	68	68.4
Questions	A	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	30	60	58.8
												619	68.8	

Appendix C

Masingita Primary School
P.O. Box 79195
Rethabile

22-October 1998

Dear Parents

Do you remember Mrs Senosi who came to visit you about your child in May and June? She sends you her regards. She is now looking at the responses on the questionnaire so that she can advise us about how best to help children with their homework. I hope that we can call a meeting to discuss the questionnaire sometime in November.

Please help your child find four empty cooldrink tins to bring to school tomorrow. We are going to build big towers, to teach the children about planning and mathematics.

Yours sincerely

MRS N.M. MALULEKE

Masingita Primary School
PO Box 79195
RETHABILE

22 October 1998

Eka Vatswari

Ma ha hleketa Manana Senosi loyi a teke a mi, vhakachela manyelana n'wana wa n'wina hi mudyaxihi na khotavuxika? Wa mi rungula. Sweswi u langutele nwina ku twa ku mi ri yini hi wivutiso kumbe mayelana na swivutiso, leswaku a ta mi pfuna kumbe ku hi pfuna ku ndlela yo antswa ku pfuna vana hi mintirho xikolo kambe va yi endla ekaya.

Na tshemba hi ta vitana nhlengeletano hivulavula hi swivutiso leswi hi hlangula.

Mi komberiwa kupfuna n'wana ku kuma swithinani swa swona tikholodirinki leswaku a swi tisa exikolweni mundzuku. Hi ya aku akeni ti tower leswaku hi dyondzisa vana hi ki plana na tinhlayo.

Hi mina

MANANA N.M. MALULEKE

Masingita Primary School
PO Box 79195
RETHABILE

29 October 1998

Dear Parents

The radio, TV and all newspapers and magazines in your home can be valuable aids for your child's learning. If parents talk to their children about only one programme they watch or listen to together as a family every day. Just think how many valuable opportunities the children will get to learn something extra!

Please give your child four ice-cream sticks to bring to school tomorrow. The class is going to use them in sums.

Yours sincerely

MRS N.M.MALULEKE

Masingita Primary School
PO Box 79195
RETHABILE

29 October 1998

Eka Vatswari

Xiyana moya, ti nwuziphepha na tibuku tinwana na tinwana to hlaya ekaya ti nga kumeka ti ri xikombiso lexi nene eka tidyondzo kumbe eku dyondzeni ka n'wana wa n'wina. Loko vatswari va vulavula na vana va vona mayelana na nongonoko wun'we lowu va wu langutaka kumbe va wu yingiselaka ekaya masiku hinkwawo, hleketani leswaku inkateko lowukulu hikuva vana va dyondza swin'wana leswi nga ta va pfuna.

Sweswi, ndzi kombela leswaku mi yuika n'wana wa n'wina swimhandana swa mune swa ayisikhirimi va ta na swona exikolweni mundzuku. Hi ta swi tirhisa etlilasini eka tinhlayo.

Hi mina

MANANA N.M. MALULEKE

Masingita Primary School
PO Box 79195
RETHABILE

03 November 1998

Dear Parents

I think you will all know that our school has begun to work in Curriculum 2005 from Grade 1 upwards. One of the best things about Curriculum 2005 is that children will now learn about the same thing in different activities, so that their knowledge can become more useful and practical.

Please help your child look for one empty toothpaste box and one empty toothpaste tube. Tomorrow they are going to learn how to brush their teeth and how to keep them in a healthy condition - in English!

Yours sincerely

MRS N.M. MALULEKE

Masingita Primary School
PO Box 79195
RETHABILE

03 November 1998

Eka Vatswari

Mi komberiwa ku pfuna n'wana ku lava bokisi rin'we ra xisibi xo hlantswa meno na chubu ro pfumala nchumu ra xihlantswa meno.

Mundzuku va ya dyondza ku hlwantswa mena ni mahlayiselo lamanene ya meno.

Hi mina

MANANA N.M. MALULEKE

Masingita Primary School
PO Box 79195
RETHABILE

10 November 1998

Dear Parents

I wish to thank the parents who helped their children to find the empty toothpaste box and tube to bring to school. We had an interesting lesson about health in English. I hope the children learned some new English words about things they already know in their mother-tongue.

Please give your child a piece of an old newspaper tomorrow. They are going to ring similar words they have seen in their English lessons.

Yours sincerely

MRS N.M. MALULEKE

Masingita Primary School
PO Box 79195
RETHABILE

10 November 1998

Eka Vatswari

Mi komberiwa ku nyika n'wana phepha-hungu ra khale mundzuku. Hikuva va ya tsondzela marito eka rona you fana ni lawa va wa dyondzeke eka dyondzo ya Xinghezi.

Hi mina

MANANA N.M. MALULEKE

Masingita Primary School
PO Box 79195
RETHABILE

17 November 1998

Dear Parents

If there are bigger children in your family than your child who is in my class, you will know that it is nearly exam time. Luckily Grade Two do not write formal exams and we can go on learning new things to the end of the year.

Please help your child look for four pictures of different types of transport to bring to school tomorrow. We are going to learn the importance of transport, how they differ and how reliable they are!

Yours sincerely

MRS N.M.MALULEKE

Masingita Primary School
PO Box 79195
RETHABILE

17 November 1998

Eka Vatswari

Mi komberiwa ku pfuna n'wana ku lava swifaniso swa mune swo hambana-hambana swa swifambo ku ta na swona mundzuku. Hi ya dyondza nkoka wa swifambo, ku hambana ka swona ni ku tshembeka ka swona..

Hi mina

MANANA N.M. MALULEKE