



**UNIVERSITY OF  
ZULULAND**  
*RESTRUCTURED FOR RELEVANCE*

**CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE WHEN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FIRST  
ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE (FAL) READING IN RURAL SCHOOLS OF THE  
DZINDI CIRCUIT IN THE VHEMBE DISTRICT**

BY

ISRAEL CRELEANOR MULAUDZI

201640108

SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS

FOR THE DEGREE OF

**MASTER OF ARTS**

IN THE

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

FACULTY OF ARTS

**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND**

SUPERVISOR: DR B.X.S. NTOMBELA

## DECLARATION

I, Israel Creleanor Mulaudzi, am aware of the University's research and ethics policies and procedures and intend complying with the relevant requirements.

I hereby declare that this dissertation: *Investigating challenges teachers face when teaching Grade 4 English First Additional Language reading (FAL) in rural schools of the Dzindi Circuit in the Vhembe District*, which is submitted to the University of Zululand in fulfilment of the academic requirements for the award of Master of Arts Degree in English, is my work, both in conception and in execution. I also declare that the work is original and has not been presented for the award of any degree at any other university. All the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged both in the text and in the list of references.

Signature:  22/01/2021

## **DEDICATION**

I firstly would like to dedicate this study to my late mom Pastor Elisa Ntavhanyeni Chauke who spent sleepless nights trying to encourage me to complete my studies against all odds. The God she believed in gave me wisdom to accomplish what she prayed for. I am a Doctor of Education in Educational Psychology today who after DeD graduation, registered for Bachelor of Arts Honours in Language, Teaching and Learning and this Masters in English is my first degree without my beloved mom. BAHELT My husband Dr NJ Mulaudzi, children Ohula, Aрилwelaho, Udivhazwothe, Endanae, relatives, colleagues and friends inspired me to achieve my goals.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENT**

I acknowledge the following people who contributed to the completion of the study:

- I am grateful to God Almighty who made it possible for me to achieve one of my dreams. I learnt that my dream is valid no matter where I come from;
- A word of gratitude goes to all who rendered assistance and showed interest in the completion of this study in the likes of Dr N.M Nndwamoto;
- My spiritual parents, Dr Apostle V.W and Rev M.S Madzinge are highly appreciated for their spiritual guidance as I worked on this document;
- Dr B.X.S Ntombela – your enthusiasm, support, professional guidance, knowledge, and expertise in research have made the completion of this task easier for me.

My family members have created and maintained a setting where this work proceeded with minimum interruption but maximum support.

## **ABSTRACT**

English is the medium of instruction for most of the learners in primary schools in Vhembe District. Therefore, the ability to read is an indispensable foundation for all learning. Failure by learners to understand either concepts in lessons or questions in assessments, because of English poor reading skills, impacts on learner performance in other subjects. However, teaching reading is a major challenge in South African rural public schools today. A considerable number of schools in the Vhembe District have teachers experiencing such challenges. While the Department of Basic Education (DBE) is attempting to intervene in these schools to address this problem, the interventions and turnaround strategies have not been sustainable. In schools where interventions and turnaround strategies are provided, such interventions have been short-lived and were not sustainable. The aim of the study was to investigate challenges teachers face when teaching Grade 4 English First Additional Language reading (FAL) in rural schools of Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District to establish strategies to overcome those challenges. This study used a quantitative research design in which questionnaires and observation were used for data collection as a result quantitative approach was used. The sampling method used was probability where simple random sampling procedure was followed to select a sample of 20 respondents who completed questionnaires for quantitative method and 5 teachers were observed. Quantitative data was collected using questionnaires and structured observation schedules in this study. The DBE should take advantage of the high qualifications and vast experience held by most teachers in rural schools and empower such teachers through workshops on reading English FAL. It is recommended that teachers in rural schools must not be complacent about teacher-learner ratios that have become much lower, compared to the past, but should aim at the recommended ratio, that promotes individual attention to learners. Teachers in rural schools, most of whom are natives, are aware of words in their home language, that have the potential of interfering with words to be read by learners in English FAL. Special classes meant to focus on such words are crucial for learners to be alerted of such interference. Quantitative data were analysed using IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences Version 25 (IBM SPSS statistics). Theoretical framework used theories of reading which are: the bottom-up approach to reading called phonics, the cognitive view (top-down processing), constructivism and the metacognitive view.

## **ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMS**

|       |  |
|-------|--|
| SPSS  | Statistical Package for Social Sciences                          |
| PIRLS | Progress in International Reading Literacy                       |
| FAL   | First Additional Language  |
| SONA  | The State of the Nation Address of the President of South Africa |
| CAPS  | Curriculum Assessment Policy Statements                          |
| RNCS  | Introduction to the Revised National Curriculum Statement        |

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

|  |       |
|--|-------|
| <b>DECLARATION</b> .....   | i     |
| <b>DEDICATION</b> .....  | ii    |
| <b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENT</b> .....   | iii   |
| <b>ABSTRACT</b> .....  | iv    |
| <b>ABBREVIATION AND ACRONYMS</b> .....   | v     |
| <b>TABLE OF CONTENTS</b> .....   | vi    |
| <b>LIST OF TABLES</b> .....  | xv    |
| <b>APPENDICES</b> .....  | xviii |
| <b>CHAPTER 1</b> .....   | 1     |
| <b>ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY</b> .....  | 1     |
| <b>1.1 INTRODUCTION</b> .....  | 1     |
| <b>1.1.1 BACKGROUND</b> .....  | 1     |
| <b>1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT</b> .....   | 3     |
| <b>1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY</b> .....  | 4     |
| <b>1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY</b> .....   | 4     |
| <b>1.5 CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE</b> .....                           | 4     |
| <b>1.6 DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS</b> .....  | 5     |
| Chapter 1     Orientation .....  | 5     |
| Chapter 2: Literature study .....  | 6     |
| Chapter 3: Research design .....   | 6     |
| Chapter 4: Presentation of data, analysis of data collected and the results..... | 6     |
| Chapter 5: Results (Summary of findings, conclusion and recommendations).....    | 6     |
| <b>1.8 CONCLUSION</b> .....  | 6     |
| <b>CHAPTER 2</b> .....   | 8     |
| <b>LITERATURE REVIEW</b> .....   | 8     |
| <b>2.1 INTRODUCTION</b> .....  | 8     |

|  |           |
|--|-----------|
| <b>2.2 READING DEFINED</b> .....   | <b>8</b>  |
| <b>2.2 READING DIFFICULTIES</b> .....                                      | <b>11</b> |
| <b>2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS</b> .....                                    | <b>12</b> |
| 2.3.1 The traditional bottom-up view .....                                 | 12        |
| 2.3.2 The Cognitive View (top-down processing) .....                       | 13        |
| 2.3.3 The meta-cognitive view .....  | 14        |
| <b>2.4 FAL LEARNING METHODS</b> .....                                      | <b>15</b> |
| 2.4.1 Rote learning method .....   | 15        |
| 2.4.2 Meaningful learning method.....                                      | 15        |
| <b>2.5 READING CHALLENGES</b> .....  | <b>16</b> |
| 2.5.1. The home environment .....  | 16        |
| 2.5.2 Lack of resources.....   | 16        |
| 2.5.3 Cognitive factors .....  | 17        |
| 2.5.4 Overcrowded classrooms .....   | 17        |
| 2.5.5 Late introduction of English First Additional Language (FAL) .....   | 18        |
| 2.5.6 The rural set-up .....   | 18        |
| <b>2.6 LEVELS OF READING ACHIEVEMENT IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL</b> ..... | <b>19</b> |
| <b>LANGUAGE</b> .....  | <b>19</b> |
| 2.6.1 Comprehension and response.....                                      | 19        |
| <b>2.7 LEVELS OF LEARNERS' SPECIFIC READING SKILLS</b> .....               | <b>19</b> |
| 2.7.1 Phonological and phonemic awareness .....                            | 20        |
| 2.7.2 Alphabetic knowledge .....   | 20        |
| 2.7.3 Word recognition.....  | 20        |
| 2.7.4 Oral reading fluency.....  | 21        |
| <b>2.8 ROLE OF TEACHERS AND WHAT IS EXPECTED OF THEM</b> .....             | <b>21</b> |
| <b>2.9 THE ROLE OF PRIOR LEARNING</b> .....                                | <b>22</b> |
| <b>2.10 THE VALUE OF TEACHER TRAINING</b> .....                            | <b>22</b> |

|   |    |
|---|----|
| <b>2.11 TEACHING METHODS FOR READING</b> .....                | 24 |
| 2.11.1 Direct phonics instruction .....                       | 24 |
| 2.11.2 Whole language instruction .....                       | 25 |
| 2.11.3 The use of trade books .....                           | 25 |
| 2.11.4 The language experience method.....                    | 26 |
| <b>CHAPTER 3</b> .....  | 27 |
| <b>RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY</b> .....                  | 27 |
| <b>3.1 INTRODUCTION</b> .....                                 | 27 |
| <b>3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN</b> .....                              | 27 |
| <b>3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY</b> .....                         | 28 |
| 3.3.1 Population.....   | 29 |
| 3.3.2 Sample and Sampling Procedure .....                     | 29 |
| 3.3.3 Data collection method .....                            | 30 |
| 3.3.4 The questionnaire .....                                 | 31 |
| 3.3.5 The observation schedules .....                         | 32 |
| 3.3.6 Data analysis .....                                     | 33 |
| <b>3.4 MEASURES TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS</b> .....           | 34 |
| 3.4.1 Validity of the instrument .....                        | 35 |
| 3.4.2 Reliability .....                                       | 35 |
| <b>3.5 ETHICAL AND SAFETY ISSUES</b> .....                    | 35 |
| 3.5.1 Obtaining permission from the Ethics committee.....     | 36 |
| 3.5.2 Confidentiality .....                                   | 36 |
| <b>3.6 CONCLUSION</b> .....                                   | 37 |
| <b>CHAPTER 4</b> .....  | 38 |
| <b>PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS</b> .....          | 38 |
| <b>4.1. INTRODUCTION</b> .....                                | 38 |
| <b>4.2 DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH SITE AND CONTEXT</b> ..... | 38 |

|  |    |
|--|----|
| <b>4.3 PRESENTATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS</b> .....   | 39 |
| <b>4.3.1 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION</b> .....   | 40 |
| 4.3.1.1 Gender .....   | 41 |
| 4.3.1.2. Age of respondents .....  | 42 |
| 4.3.1.3. Academic qualifications .....   | 43 |
| 4.3.1.4. Teaching experience .....   | 44 |
| 4.3.1.5. Teaching experience in a rural school.....  | 44 |
| 4.3.1.6 Teacher-learner ratio .....  | 45 |
| <b>4.3.2 CHALLENGES FACED BY TEACHERS IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL<br/>READING</b> .....                          | 46 |
| 4.3.2.1 Confusion on how best to teach reading in the classroom .....  | 47 |
| 4.3.2.2. Learners’ home language interference in the reading in English FAL.....                                     | 48 |
| 4.3.2.3 Effect of availability of a library on ability to read .....   | 49 |
| 4.3.2.4. Effect of overcrowded classrooms on individual reading .....  | 50 |
| <b>4.3.3 TEACHERS’ LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNERS’ SPECIFIC LINGUISTIC<br/>COMPETENCES IN ENGLISH FAL READING</b> ..... | 50 |
| 4.3.3.1 Ability to teach letters of the alphabet .....   | 51 |
| 4.3.3.2 Ability to teach single words .....  | 52 |
| 4.3.3.3. Ability to teach single sentences .....   | 53 |
| 4.3.3.4 Ability to teach paragraphs.....   | 53 |
| 4.3.3.5. Ability to teach phonemic awareness .....   | 54 |
| 4.3.3.6 Ability to teach syllable recognition.....   | 55 |
| 4.3.3.7 Ability to teach text comprehension .....  | 56 |
| 4.3.3.8 Ability to teach vocabulary .....  | 57 |
| <b>4.3.4 TEACHERS’ USE OF VARIOUS STRATEGIES TO OVERCOME TEACHING<br/>CHALLENGES IN READING</b> .....                | 57 |
| 4.3.4.1 Organising extra classes especially for learners who struggle on different<br>reading skills.....            | 58 |

|  |           |
|--|-----------|
| 4.3.4.2. Paying attention to learners' individual reading needs.....   | 59        |
| 4.3.4.3 Reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words.....  | 60        |
| 4.3.4.4 Emphasising the relationship between a letter and its sound.....   | 60        |
| 4.3.4.5 Making use of the learners' home language .....  | 61        |
| 4.3.4.7 Involving learners' parents in their children's reading.....   | 62        |
| 4.3.4.8 Encouraging learners to read what they have written.....   | 63        |
| 4.3.4.9 Giving learners time for reading.....  | 64        |
| 4.3.4.10 Involving authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce.....  | 65        |
| <b>4.4 PRESENTATION OF OBSERVATION RESULTS .....</b>   | <b>65</b> |
| <b>4.4.1 SCHOOL A .....</b>  | <b>66</b> |
| <b>4.4.1.1 CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL</b>  | <b>66</b> |
| <b>4.4.1.2 LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNER'S SPECIFIC READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH</b>   | <b>68</b> |
| <b>FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING .....</b>   | <b>68</b> |
| <b>4.4.1.3 STRATEGIES FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF READING BY GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS .....</b>                 | <b>68</b> |
| <b>4.4.2 SCHOOL B .....</b>  | <b>70</b> |
| <b>4.4.2.1 CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL</b>  | <b>70</b> |
| <b>4.4.2.2 LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNER'S SPECIFIC READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING .....</b> | <b>72</b> |
| <b>4.4.2.3 STRATEGIES FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF READING BY GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS .....</b>                 | <b>72</b> |
| <b>4.4.3 SCHOOL C .....</b>  | <b>73</b> |
| <b>4.4.3.1 CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL</b>  | <b>73</b> |
| <b>4.4.3.2 LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNER'S SPECIFIC READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING .....</b> | <b>75</b> |

|         |   |    |
|---------|---|----|
| 4.4.3.3 | STRATEGIES FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF READING BY GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS .....                 | 76 |
| 4.4.4   | SCHOOL D .....  | 77 |
| 4.4.4.1 | CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL 77   |    |
| 4.4.4.2 | LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNER'S SPECIFIC READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING ..... | 79 |
| 4.4.4.3 | STRATEGIES FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF READING BY GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS .....                 | 80 |
| 4.4.5   | SCHOOL E.....   | 81 |
| 4.4.5.1 | CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL 81   |    |
| 4.4.5.2 | LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNER'S SPECIFIC READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING ..... | 83 |
| 4.4.5.3 | STRATEGIES FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF READING BY GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS .....                 | 84 |
| 4.5     | CONSOLIDATION OF EACH CATEGORY IN A TABLE REPRESENTING ALL SCHOOLS.....                                 | 85 |
| 4.5.1   | DIFFERENCES .....   | 85 |
| 4.5.2   | SIMILARITIES.....   | 86 |
| 4.6     | CONSOLIDATION OF EACH CATEGORY IN A TABLE REPRESENTING ALL 5 SCHOOLS.....                               | 87 |
| 4.7     | DISCUSSION .....  | 91 |
| 4.7.1   | Challenges in teaching Grade 4 English FAL teaching reading.....  | 91 |
|         | Challenges experienced are explained in the next section. ....  | 91 |
| 4.7.1.1 | Number of learners in the observed class.....   | 91 |
| 4.7.1.2 | Length of a lesson .....  | 91 |
| 4.7.1.3 | Reading material.....   | 92 |

|   |    |
|---|----|
| 4.7.1.4 Reading skills covered in the lesson .....  | 92 |
| 4.7.2 Levels of teaching learner’s specific reading skills in English FAL language reading.....                             | 93 |
| 4.7.2.1 Teacher activities.....   | 93 |
| 4.7.2.2 Teacher feedback .....  | 94 |
| 4.7.3 Strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers .....                               | 94 |
| 4.7.3.1 Teaching approach .....   | 94 |
| 4.8 CONCLUSION .....  | 95 |
| CHAPTER 5 .....   | 96 |
| SUMMARY OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....   | 96 |
| 5.1 INTRODUCTION .....  | 96 |
| 5.2 SUMMARY OF RESULTS.....   | 96 |
| 5.2.1 A summary of results from responses to research questions .....   | 97 |
| 5.2.1.1 Teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers ....   | 97 |
| • Demotivated teachers .....  | 97 |
| • Home language interference in the reading in English FAL.....   | 97 |
| 5.2.1.2 Effects of availability of a library on ability to read .....   | 97 |
| 5.2.1.3 The effect of overcrowded classrooms on individual reading .....  | 98 |
| 5.2.2 Levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies .....  | 98 |
| 5.2.2.1 Ability to teach letters of the alphabet, single words, single sentences and paragraphs .....                       | 98 |
| 5.2.2.2 Ability to teach phonemic awareness, syllable recognition, text comprehension and vocabulary.....                   | 99 |
| 5.2.3 Strategies that can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers..... | 99 |
| 5.2.3.1 Organising extra classes for struggling learners .....  | 99 |
| 5.2.3.2 Paying attention to learners’ individual reading needs.....   | 99 |

|   |            |
|---|------------|
| <b>5.2.3.3 Reinforcement of learners’ ability to recite words.....</b>  | <b>99</b>  |
| <b>5.2.3.4 Emphasising the relationship between a letter and its sound.....</b>   | <b>100</b> |
| <b>5.2.3.5 Making use of learners’ home language.....</b>   | <b>100</b> |
| <b>5.2.3.6 Improvising for shortage of resources .....</b>  | <b>100</b> |
| <b>5.2.3.7 Involving learners’ parents in their children’s reading .....</b>  | <b>101</b> |
| <b>5.2.3.8 Encouraging learners to read what they have written.....</b>   | <b>101</b> |
| <b>5.2.3.9 Giving learners time for reading.....</b>  | <b>101</b> |
| <b>5.2.3.10 Involving authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce.....</b>  | <b>101</b> |
| <b>5.2.4 Presented in this subsection is a summary of results from observations made by the researcher in terms of the observation schedule .....</b> | <b>102</b> |
| <b>5.2.4.1 Challenges in teaching Grade 4 English FAL teaching reading .....</b>  | <b>102</b> |
| <b>5.2.4.2 Levels of teaching learner’s specific reading skills in English FAL reading.....</b>   | <b>103</b> |
| <b>5.2.4.3 Strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers.....</b>   | <b>103</b> |
| <b>5.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS ANSWERED BY THE RESEARCHER.....</b>   | <b>104</b> |
| <b>5.4 CONCLUSIONS .....</b>  | <b>105</b> |
| <b>5.4.1 Demographic factors.....</b>   | <b>105</b> |
| <b>5.4.2 Teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers .....</b>   | <b>105</b> |
| <b>5.4.3 Levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies.....</b>  | <b>106</b> |
| <b>5.4.4 Strategies that can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers.....</b>                    | <b>106</b> |
| <b>5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>  | <b>106</b> |
| <b>5.5.1 Demographic factors.....</b>   | <b>107</b> |
| <b>5.5.2 Teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers .....</b>   | <b>107</b> |
| <b>5.5.3 Levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies.....</b>  | <b>108</b> |
| <b>5.5.4 Strategies that can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers.....</b>                    | <b>108</b> |

**5.6 CONCLUSION**.....109  
**REFERENCES** .....110  
**APPENDICES** .....127

## LIST OF TABLES

|   |                                     |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| Table 1: Gender.....  | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 2: Table 2: Age .....   | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 3: Highest Academic qualification .....   | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 4: Experience as an educator .....  | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 5: Teaching experience in rural school .....  | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 6: Teacher-learner ratio .....  | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 7: Confusion on how best to teach reading in the classroom.....                                     | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 8: Learners' home language interference in the reading in English FAL.....                          | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 9: Effect of availability of a library on ability to read .   | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 10: Effect of overcrowded classrooms on individual reading.....                                     | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 11: Ability to teach letters of the alphabet.....   | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 12: Ability to teach single words.....  | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 13: Ability to teach single sentences.....  | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 14: Ability to teach paragraphs .....   | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 15: Ability to teach phonemic awareness.....  | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 16: Ability to teach syllable recognition .....   | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 17: Ability to teach text comprehension .....   | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 18: Ability to teach vocabulary .....   | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 19: Organising extra classes especially for learners who struggle on different reading skills ..... | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 20: Paying attention to learners' individual reading needs.....                                     | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 21: Reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words.....   | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 22: Emphasising the relationship between a letter and its sound.....                                | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 23: Making use of the learners' home language .....   | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 24: Involving learners' parents in their children's reading.....                                    | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |

Table 25: Encouraging learners to read what they have written **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 26: Giving learners time for reading ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 27: Involving authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 28: Number of learners in the observed class ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 29: Length of a lesson ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 30: Reading skills covered in the lesson ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 31: Reading materials ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 32: Teacher activities ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 33: Teacher feedback ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 34: Seating arrangement ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 35: Reading approach ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 36: Number of learners in the observed class ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 37: Length of a lesson ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 38: Reading skills covered in the lesson ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 39: Reading materials ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 40: Teacher activities ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 41: Teacher feedback ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 42: Seating arrangement ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 43: Reading approach ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 44: Number of learners in the observed class ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 45: Length of a lesson ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 46: Reading skills covered in the lesson ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 47: Reading materials ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 48: Teacher activities ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 49: Teacher feedback ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 50: Seating arrangement ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 51: Reading approach ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 52: Number of learners in the observed class ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 53: Length of a lesson ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 54: Reading skills covered in the lesson ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 55: Reading materials ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

Table 56: Teacher activities ..... **Error! Bookmark not defined.**

|   |                                     |
|---|-------------------------------------|
| Table 57: Teacher feedback .....                        | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 58: Seating arrangement .....                     | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 59: Reading approach.....                         | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 60: Number of learners in the observed class..... | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 61: Length of a lesson.....                       | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 62: Reading skills covered in the lesson.....     | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 63: Reading materials .....                       | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 64: Reading materials .....                       | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 65: Teacher feedback .....                        | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 66: Seating arrangement .....                     | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 67: Reading approach.....                         | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 68: Number of learners in the observed class..... | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 69: Length of a lesson.....                       | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 70: Reading skills covered in the lesson.....     | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 71: Teacher activities .....                      | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 72: Teacher feedback .....                        | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 73: Seating arrangement .....                     | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 74: Reading materials .....                       | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |
| Table 75: Reading approach.....                         | <b>Error! Bookmark not defined.</b> |

## **APPENDICES**

**APPENDIX A: INSTRUMENT (QUESTIONNAIRE)**

**APPENDIX B: OBSERVATION SCHEDULE**

**APPENDIX C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE**

**APPENDIX D: PERMISSION APPLICATION LETTER**

**APPENDIX E: LIMPOPO PROVINCIAL RESEARCH LETTER**

**APPENDIX F: REQUEST FOR CONSENT**

**APPENDIX G: RESPONDENTS' CONSENT**

## CHAPTER 1

### ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

---

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces matters which are covered in this study. It starts with the general background that leads to the problem statement, aim of the study, objectives, research questions, intended contribution to the body of knowledge, research design and methodology, ethical and safety issues, data collection methods and procedures, instrumentation, data analysis, definitions of terms and lastly, the outline of the chapters.

##### 1.1.1 BACKGROUND

Literacy may be regarded as one of the indispensable elements in education. Without reading ability, people fail to have access to crucial information about cultural, political, social and health issues (Baatjies, 2003; Sørensen, Van den Broucke, Fullam, Doyle, Pelikan, Slonska, & Brand, 2012). "The ability to read opens a number of doors in one's life, inclusive of fulfilment and entertainment, as well as a very broad world of information." A person who can read effectively, therefore, can fit in perfectly in a world that is forever changing and can cope with the innovations and revolutions in the world.

Low literacy levels were revealed as a serious problem in international research for most of the developing countries, with figures of more than 50% of the population having no literacy skills in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia (Hugo, Le Roux, Muller & Nel, 2005; Abadzi, 2008). In the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) conducted in 2006 and 2016 where 40 countries were part of the study, South Africa scored the lowest. Only 13% of Grade 4 learners were able to reach the low international benchmark compared to the international figure of 94% (Thornhill & Le Cordeur, 2016). The findings raised concerns about the quality of teaching reading literacy in South Africa's primary schools (Hugo, 2010). Empowerment of teachers on teaching methods deemed to be effective is therefore mandatory, especially for English First Additional Language (FAL).

In a study by the Student's Service Bureau of the University of the Orange Free State, all 60 first-year students tested had an English FAL reading ability not higher than Grade 8,

whilst 13 of them had the reading ability of Grades 1 and 2 learners (Couper, Thurley & Hugo, 2005; Emdin, 2016). Such statistics are frightening, and no teacher who has the achievement of learners at heart can sit back and do nothing. The President of South Africa, Honourable Cyril Ramaphosa, in the State of the Nation Address (SONA) stated that in 10 years' time, all learners should be able to read with understanding (Beckmann, 2019).

Reading is an everyday activity done by most people which they do not pay much attention to. However, it is probably the most useful skill that any learner can acquire, as it lays the foundation for all future learning. Most of our daily tasks require the ability to read and while those who have mastered the art of reading take such tasks for granted, someone who cannot read becomes frustrated by such tasks (Goleman, Boyatzis & McKee, 2013). It is, therefore, logically not advisable for anyone to ignore any available opportunity to learn how to read.

Success in life is dependent on the basic ability to read well, as reading is a necessary skill for all academic achievements (Nel, Nel & Hugo, 2012). It is crucial that teachers should be able to determine each learner's reading needs, as different learners will usually be at different levels of reading ability (Sadler & Zeidler, 2005). Teachers should not use force to compel learners to read when they are not yet ready, because this is likely to give rise to a negative attitude in the learner towards reading (Johns, 2009; Davis & Sumara, 2014).

The curriculum transformations and attempts to be innovative in South Africa, ranging from Curriculum 2005 to the Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS), which later became the National Curriculum Statement (NCS), followed by the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), resulted in most of the teachers becoming confused and unsure of what was expected of them. They were in doubt about their teaching of reading, leading to lowered levels of reading among their learners (Aud, Hussar, Johnson, Kena, Roth, Manning, Wang & Zhang, 2012; Ramokgopa, 2013). One of the most striking findings of the Annual National Assessment (ANA) conducted by the Department of Basic Education (DBE) in September 2012 was that learners failed to read with understanding (Aud et al., 2012; Abrami, Bernard, Borokhovski, Waddington, Wade, & Persson, 2015). This calls for ways to be sought, to make learners understand what they read. The analysis of the data in south Africa reveals that EFAL learners should be given

enough time to write while at school and at home, as most learners fail to achieve these skills in the classroom situation (Geske & Ozola 2008). Teachers, therefore, must be equipped with knowledge and understanding of what brings about text comprehension, to be able to prepare lesson plans for effective teaching on reading. South African schools should be well equipped with libraries (Pretorius & Mampuru, 2007; Nengomasha, Uutoni & Yule, 2012)

In another study conducted by the National Department of Education, the average score for reading and writing of 52 000 Grade 3 learners from predominantly urban schools was 39%. Such a score would probably be far less in rural areas (Aud et al., 2012). It is such startling statistics that should be taken into consideration by every stakeholder in the education sector concerned. Everyone should strive to be part of the solution, and this study aims to do that irrespective of how small its contribution might be.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

English is the medium of instruction for most of the Grade 4 learners in rural primary schools of Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District. The problem related to reading instruction are lack of training, workshop, libraries, teaching skills and lack of knowledge of literacy which embraces word list vocabulary which include difficult vocabulary terms, academic vocabulary, complexity of grammar, inappropriate texts, complexity of academic texts, reading habits and culture, lack of schema activation, lack of motivation to read and insufficient preparation in teaching reading which contribute towards learners' reading incompetence. This means that a learner must possess a good command of the English language to make sense of lessons in say Life Skills, Mathematics, Natural and Social Sciences offered in English. Failure by learners to understand either concepts in lessons or questions in assessments as a result of poor reading skills of English phrases or terms leads to poor learning and hence, poor performance in such subjects and the transition thereof. The reading levels of such learners are not known, and their poor academic performance is linked to their inability to read or poor reading skills.

### **1.3 AIM OF THE STUDY**

The aim of this study was to investigate challenges teachers face when teaching Grade 4 English First Additional Language (FAL) reading in Rural Schools of Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District

### **1.4 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

This study was guided by the following research objectives:

- To investigate teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers;
- To determine levels of teaching specific reading skills; and
- To establish strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers.

This study is guided by the following research questions:

- What are teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers?
- Which are the levels of teaching learners specific reading skills?
- What strategies can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers?

### **1.5 CONTRIBUTION TO THE BODY OF KNOWLEDGE**

This study significantly contributed new knowledge in the promotion of teaching and learning in the marginalised teaching profession on how:

- teachers with teaching challenges in reading can be assisted to reduce reading challenges;
- levels of learner's specific reading skills can be improved; and
- strategies to overcome teaching challenges impact teaching skills.

## 1.6 DEFINITIONS OF KEY TERMS

The following terms are defined in the context of this study.

**Competence:** It is the ability to do something successfully (Le Deist & Winterton, 2005.)

**Home language (HL):** It is the language to which children are exposed to in their homes and communities (Hoff, 2013), although In the South African educational context, there are nuances to Home Language. Learners could be learning English Home Language at school even though the language they are exposed to at home and community is say Xitsonga, Sepedi, or isiZulu.

**Learner achievement:** Measuring the amount of academic content, a student learns in a determined amount of time (Mukoroli, 2011).

**Learner:** A learner is a person who is learning a subject or skill to gain an understanding, (Quintana, Krajcik, Soloway, Fishman & O'Connor-Divelbiss, 2013).

**Learning:** Learning refers to the process of acquiring new or modifying existing knowledge, behaviour, skills, values or preferences (Brantes Ferreira, Zanela Klein, Freitas & Schlemmer, 2013).

**Reading:** Reading is a combination of decoding written text, with efficient processing of the information acquired (Hellekjær, 2009). It is further on defined as an occasion at which pieces of literature are read (Kuhn, Schwanenflugel & Meisinger, 2010).

## 1.7 CHAPTER DIVISION

The layout of the different chapters of this study are as follows:

Chapter 1    Orientation

This chapter lays the foundation for the study, and contains the introduction, background to the study, problem statement, aim and objectives, significance of the study, ethical considerations, major research questions and the rationale of the study.

## Chapter 2: Literature study

Chapter 2 focuses on the literature review which includes reading defined, reading difficulties, FAL learning methods, reading challenges, levels of reading achievement in English First Additional Language, levels of learners' specific reading skills, role of teachers and what is expected of them, the role of prior learning, the value of teacher training and the theoretical framework of the study which are the traditional bottom-up view, the Cognitive View (top-down processing) and the meta-cognitive view.

## Chapter 3: Research design

This chapter presents the research design and the methodology used for data collection which includes instrumentation, sampling strategy, ethical measures and data analysis which are central to this study.

## Chapter 4: Presentation of data, analysis of data collected and the results.

This chapter provides the discussion of presentation of data, analysis of data collected and results. Quantitative results are presented and discussed in this chapter.

## Chapter 5: Results (Summary of findings, conclusion and recommendations)

This chapter focuses on giving of results, summary of findings, compiled with drawing of conclusion and making of recommendations based on such findings.

### **1.8 CONCLUSION**

The chapter served as the foundation for the study which contains the introduction, background to the study, problem statement, aim and objectives of the study, significance of the study and ethical considerations. The chapter also provides the layout of the entire

dissertation. The next chapter discusses the literature review and opinions; research done by other scholars on the topic of research is covered.

## CHAPTER 2

### LITERATURE REVIEW

---

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the literature review including the challenges teachers face when teaching Grade 4 English First Additional Language (FAL) reading in Rural Schools of Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District which includes reading defined, reading difficulties, FAL learning methods, reading challenges, levels of reading achievement in English First Additional Language (EFAL), levels of learners' specific reading skills, role of teachers and what is expected of them, the role of prior learning, the value of teacher training and the theoretical framework of the study which are the traditional bottom-up, the cognitive (top-down processing) and the meta-cognitive views.

#### 2.2 READING DEFINED

Reading is a combination of decoding written text with efficient processing of the information acquired (Hellekjær, 2009). This means that the ability to extract meaningful words from written symbols (i.e. decoding) on its own is not tantamount to efficient reading, but should be complemented by the understanding of what has been decoded, to make efficient reading complete. Reading may be an interactive relationship between a reader and a text, with the reader trying to make sense of the text. This view obviously also supports the importance of understanding what one reads about. Teachers should, therefore, not be satisfied when their learners are only able to read a given text but should ensure that they understand the information that it conveys to them.

If the inability to read can be so frustrating for learners; even worse frustration can be expected from a learner trying to understand subject content of subjects offered in English. Inference can be made that it would be difficult for any learning to take place for such a learner. The extent of the reading challenge among learners is evident in the finding that indicates that many learners struggle to read and that for some, letters and words confuse them, rather than give them meaning.

The ability to read is an indispensable contributor towards school success, and inability to read is closely linked to school failure (Appleton, Christenson & Furlong, 2008). A learner who has properly mastered the skill of reading in a home language in the first three grades in Foundation Phase will have to master the skill of reading in English from the fourth grade onwards, to have any prospects of success in school.

Reading is a receptive language skill, but the audio-lingual method is a teaching method which evolves from the so called “army method”; it was a method used to teach soldiers the languages of their allies and their enemies during World War 2 (Chun & Plass, 1997; Mansor, 2017). The “army method” consisted of oral drills, inclusive of pronunciation (Chun & Plass, 1997; Roby, 2004). This method was adopted by educational institutions and came to be known as the audio-lingual method in the 1950s.

The definition of reading is discussed to shed light on how reading is viewed in this study whereas decoding refers to the translation of printed symbols into language which can become exhausting (Pretorius, du Plooy, & Bester, 2016). Decoding consists of four subcomponents, which are phonological and phonemic awareness, alphabetic knowledge and phonics, word recognition and oral reading fluency which are part of levels of learners’ specific reading skills.

The audio-lingual method has the following linguistic competences and characteristics summed up as follows (Chun & Plass, 1997; Sun, 2017):

Use of dialogue form to present new material;

Use of repetitive drills to teach structural patterns;

- Restricting the learning of vocabulary only to context;
- Limiting the use of the first language to a bare minimum;
- Immediate reinforcement of successful responses;
- Extensive use of tapes, language tabs, and visual aids;
- Extensive efforts to eliminate errors in students’ utterances;

- Manipulation of language and lack of regard for content;
- Dependence on parroting and memorisation of given phrases; and
- Grammatical explanation is either lacking or minimal.

The individual method of language teaching was popular for many years. Although its popularity has faded over the years, several characteristics alluded to above, are still witnessed in the teaching of language today.

The ability to read is described as a crucial pillar in learner success (Oberholzer Souza, Tschoeke, Abouhamze, Pribble & Moldawer, 2005; Thompson, 2013). This is echoed by Bohlmann and Pretorius (2002) and Allen (2016) who consider the ability to read as “an indispensable learning tool, without which a learner’s prospect of achieving any learning is greatly compromised.” This however may be the result of teachers experiencing challenges in teaching Grade 4 English FAL to learners who learnt Tshivenda as home language for 4 years of their schooling and must transit to English FAL.

A learner who is not competent in reading the English language can not only be expected to struggle in the learning of English as a language, but also in the learning of other subjects that are offered through the medium of English. Reading encompasses comprehending, interpreting and applying textual material. This means that for any learning to take place in any subject offered in English, there should be understanding and appropriate interpretation and application of the given text. This cannot be possible without a reasonable ability to read the English language.

Contrasting views exist from various studies on the use of English as a FAL, as a language of learning and teaching. According to the Month, (2018), there is confusion among Foundation Phase teachers on how best to introduce English as the Second Language (FAL) in the classroom set-up. In a study by Singh, Rahman and Hoon (2010) and Rashid, Abdul Rahman, and Yunus, (2017), most teachers in Malaysia were not happy with the use of English as a medium of instruction. On the contrary, mother tongue used as a

Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) was not preferred by most parents in countries like South Africa, Zimbabwe and Namibia, but English was favoured instead (Ndamba, 2008; Makeleni & Sethusha, 2014).

In the South African set-up, however, English is introduced as a medium of instruction in Grade 4, and learner competence in English should thus be enhanced to ensure that effective learning takes place. As Elliot and Dweck, (2013) posit, competence in reading is amongst the basic requirements for quality learning to take place.

Word recognition through teaching of commonly used English words should be given due consideration as it was shown in the study to be instrumental in giving rise to reading fluency, and in the long run to text composition. Teachers must, therefore, try to boost the learners' vocabulary to develop them into good readers. This can be done through introduction of interference classes, where special attention must be given to the words that suffer or are viewed to have the potential of suffering from the effect of interfering of the home language.

Teachers' lesson plans must focus on the different reading skills, and much time should be allocated to reading skills that possess a more serious challenge for most learners. Where individual attention can be given to the learners, teachers should use the opportunity to address the learners' individual needs. When such time does not become available during lessons, extra classes should be arranged, especially for learners who struggle on different reading skills.

## **2.2 READING DIFFICULTIES**

Reading difficulty is defined as an unexpected barrier in reading for learners in possession of the necessary education, intelligence and motivation, needed for one to be developed as an exact and fluent reader, whereas it has also been defined as one's inability to acquire word identification skills at a rapid pace (Nation, 2001; Rivers, 2018). Learners who have a limited vocabulary are slow in their reading progress (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002;

Milton, 2012). There is a very strong correlation between vocabulary and all dimensions of proficiency in a language, inclusive of speaking, listening with understanding, reading comprehension and the ability to write (Pretorius et al., 2016). It is logical that learners with a rich vocabulary will meet more familiar words in the reading process than those with a limited vocabulary; their vocabulary branching is to their benefit and they are able to communicate more fluently drawing on their personal repertoire.

Learners' ability to understand the passage they are reading is influenced by their recognition of words, and the linking of various phrases and sentences thereby enhancing comprehension of the text in question (Donald et al., 2002; Klauda & Guthrie, 2008). Letters with similar shapes, like 'b' and 'd' tend to give some learners difficulty in identifying the difference (Donald et al., 2002; Klauda & Guthrie, 2008) leading to a challenge in interpreting words with 'b' and 'd'.

## **2.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS**

Pardede's (2010) theories, models or types of reading are mainly founded on the following theories of reading which are: the bottom-up approach to reading called phonics, the cognitive view (top-down processing), constructivism and the metacognitive view.

### **2.3.1 The traditional bottom-up view**

The traditional theory approach to reading is based on behaviourist psychology, and has its roots in the 1950s, and followers of this method posit that learning has to do with repeated stimulus and response to form a habit (Kolb, 2014). This shaping of behaviour laid the foundation for the audio-lingual method, which brought about the formation of habits through drills (Harmer, 2001; Sakinah, 2017).

The method that is associated with this bottom-up approach to reading is called phonics, which trains learners to develop the skill to be able to correctly match letters with their corresponding sounds. In phonics, reading is viewed as a linear process used to decode all the words in a text, and ultimately linking them to phrases and sentences (Sousa, 2014).

To make sense of a given text, in phonics, the various meanings of the words are added together, to establish the meanings of the various clauses (Armbruster, 2010; Short, 2018). The bottom-up model, therefore, has to do with progression input and conveys it to the subsequent stage, without having the latter stages impacting on the initial stages (Javitt, 2009; Lister, 2016).

The bottom-up model is also referred to as the text-based model. It focuses on analysing smaller units in the text and constructing meaning from such smaller units ranging from letters to sounds to words at the bottom, to phrases, clauses and connections between sentences as larger units occupying the top positions (Chun & Plass, 1997; Hedgcock & Ferris, 2018). This model basically focuses on decoding the text, and has little room left for comprehension until later, when the decoding process is mastered through practice (Thompson, 1998; Stahl, 2013). This model obviously lays a good foundation for new readers, who can learn how to master the decoding process.

### **2.3.2 The Cognitive View (top-down processing)**

The cognitive view (top-down processing) came about because of change of thought in the cognitive sciences in the 1960s (Harmer, 2001 and Field, Beeson & Jones, 2015). Psycholinguists gave descriptions of how representation of a foreign language was developed in a learner's mind, thereby discrediting the behaviourist theory (Kolb, 2014). Meaningful learning, as opposed to rote learning, is about relating new information learnt with information that a learner learnt previously (Kolb, 2014).

This new (top-down processing) approach brought about a dramatic change in the understanding of how learners learn to read (Carrell, & Eisterhold, 1983; Laurillard, 2013). This approach therefore describes a process of linking the text with reader's prior knowledge to create meaning. This approach, therefore, does not merely focus on the decoding of a given text into sound, but also on extracting meaning from a written language (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983).

Contrary to what the top-down model might be expected to entail, this model is not a reversal of the bottom-up model referred to above and is thus not about processing that proceeds from the largest to the smaller units in the text (Carrel, 1988). Processing of the

text in the top-down model is dependent on the background knowledge that a reader possesses on the content of what is read, and on the structure of the text in question (Carrel, 1988 & An, 2013). The reader following the top-down model is actively engaged with the text: finding meaning and coming up with predictions from such text (Nunan & Carter, 2001 & Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). It is evident that in the top-down reading model, the reading of the text takes place simultaneously with extraction of meaning, and from the said text. A reader falling within this type of reading clearly possesses more experience in reading than the one focusing only on the bottom-up model.

### **2.3.3 The meta-cognitive view**

The metacognitive view goes beyond accepting how prior knowledge influences one's understanding of a given text, to describe the control that one exercises to make sense of a text (Block, 1986; Gunstone, 2012). Such a control is called the meta-cognitive view, and it divides the reading process into three stages: 'before reading', 'while reading', and 'after reading' (Harmer, 2001; van Steensel, Oostdam, Gelderen & van Schooten, 2016). The before reading stage focuses on establishing the purpose of the reading as well as the type or form of text. The 'while reading' stage focuses on the general characteristics of the given text, inclusive of the identification of a topic sentence, establishing what drove the author to write the text. The after reading stage focuses on reflecting on the strategies good readers use to determine whether their plan worked or whether they should try something else next time. Because this evaluative component of the metacognitive process is such a valuable model, it needs to be practised with students at every opportunity.

The interactive model, which is also known as the balanced model, focuses on two levels of interaction: the first interaction is that between the reader and the text, while the second one is an interaction of the bottom-up and top-down approaches (Chun & Plass, 1997 & Birch, 2014). In the interactive type of reading, the reader, therefore, processes a given text through interpretation of language items contained in it (bottom-up approach) while relating its meaning with what the reader already knows about the content of the text (Carrel & Eisterhold, 1988; Ajideh, 2003). This type of reading is therefore indicative of the progress that a reader has made in learning the art of reading.

## **2.4 FAL LEARNING METHODS**

Several methods are currently being used in the learning of English as FAL. Two of such methods are worth comparing. These are rote-learning and meaningful learning methods outlined below.

### **2.4.1 Rote learning method**

According to this learning method, material is acquired as isolated entities that cannot be concretely relatable to what one has already learnt (Brown, Ryan & Creswell, 2007; Carter, & Gilovich, 2010). It, therefore, means that a learner who uses this method for learning acquires material through repetition, without understanding the meaning thereof. This method, for instance, was used to make learners memorise poems for recitation in class, without really understanding much of what the poem was about. When one considers that this method has been used over several decades, one can infer that it has become part of the learning culture over generations.

### **2.4.2 Meaningful learning method**

Contrary to the reading without understanding above, the reading with understanding, which is also called the assumption learning method, is a learning method characterised by incorporating new material that was learnt previously and retained (Chun & Plass, 1997; Entwistle, & Ramsden, 2015). This means that learning through this method does not take place as a connection between the new material learnt and what was learnt previously as the reason for the meaningfulness of the new material learnt (Chun & Plass, 1997; Green, 2017). A teacher who is not confident about teaching a section in a subject offered through the medium of English is likely to encourage learners to use the rote learning method. This is the case especially in grades with external examinations like Grade 12. In addition, the teacher would rather avoid setting any test or examination questions from that section, thereby putting the learners at a disadvantage in higher grades. Learners can also be expected to avoid any text in any subject offered in English, which is difficult to understand. Such compromised engagement with the text due to a relatively poor command of the English language would consequently lead to poor learner achievement in the subject concerned.

## **2.5 READING CHALLENGES**

Several factors were identified in various studies to have an influence on a learner's ability to read. Such factors include a poor family background (Taylor, Fleisch & Shindler, 2008), language factors, personality factors, neurological factors and learning styles (Moyer, 2014). This study focuses on the following influential factors:

### **2.5.1. The home environment**

It cannot be denied that the presence of a poor family background is not tantamount to poor academic performance, but a disproportionately large number of learners from poor family backgrounds were observed to have poorer academic performance compared to their counterparts from well-to-do families, and ended up dropping out (Aud et al., 2012). This inference is in line with a finding by Evans and Kim (2013) who note that learners from poor family backgrounds are exposed to high stress levels that impact negatively on their academic performance, inclusive of their ability to read.

### **2.5.2 Lack of resources**

Various studies established that most of South African schools are not well equipped with libraries; in cases where libraries are there, most of them do not have books (Pretorius & Mampuru, 2007; Nengomasha, Uutoni & Yule, 2012). Learners in such schools can thus not be able to have access to a variety of reading materials and are unlikely to develop the love for reading. The DBE also acknowledges that high learner-teacher ratios coupled with improper facilities for learning, with no library, make reading a difficult exercise for learners (Month, 2018); Maringe, Masinire & Nkambule, 2015). Pretorius and Mampuru (2007); Darling-Hammond (2015) further indicate that only 27% of schools in South Africa have libraries. Reading levels of learners in such poorly resourced schools are usually lower than those of their counterparts in well-resourced schools.

Most schools in rural areas have no libraries; moreover, the communities where such schools are located also have no community libraries (Month, 2018); Morales, Knowles &

Bourg, 2014). The extent of the impact of resources shortages is clear in the 2016 PIRLS study, which reflects that 89% of schools in South Africa reported that shortage of resources impacted to some extent on their tuition, and a further 4% reporting an extensive impact (PIRLS, 2016). On the other hand, 62% of schools did not have a library in South Africa, compared to an international standard of only 13% (PIRLS, 2016). Closely linked to school libraries are classroom libraries, whose regular access by learners was observed to instil a more positive outlook towards reading amongst learners. Such classroom libraries make use of children's books, newspapers, poster, comic strips and even reading resources on computers (PIRLS, 2016). Unfortunately, the availability of classroom libraries for South African learners (54%) was found to be significantly lower than the international level wherein 72% of learners were found to have access to a classroom library (PIRLS, 2016). The unavailability of either a school library or a classroom library, logically limits exposure of learners to reading material that can be expected to instil a culture of reading in the learners.

### **2.5.3 Cognitive factors**

One's intellectual capacity plays a crucial role in the learning process, with impairment of such capacity having a detrimental effect on learner performance in language proficiency, inclusive of reading (Vaughn, Bos & Schumm, 2003; Pianta, Hamre & Allen, 2012). As a result of the difference in cognitive abilities among learners, different ways of acquiring information are used by learners, making it easier for some and complicated for others (Sadler & Zeidler, 2005). Teachers should, therefore, be aware that the one-size-fits-all approach in the teaching of reading cannot work due to the difference in intellectual capacity.

### **2.5.4 Overcrowded classrooms**

Overcrowding may cause low literacy levels which is a serious problem in most of the developing countries with figures of more than 50% of the population having no literacy skills in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia (Hugo, et al, 2005; Alirol, Getaz, Stoll, Chappuis & Loutan, 2011). Overcrowded classrooms exceed the teacher-learners ratio of 1:35 recommended by the DBE making it difficult for individual reading to take place given the five content areas to be covered in five hours per week.

This is echoed by (PIRLS, 2016) who posit that overcrowded classrooms cause challenges for poor readers to get assistance from their teachers. In the PIRLS study, most of the classes for language teaching in South Africa had 40 or more learners, significantly higher than the 24, which was the international PIRLS average (PIRLS, 2016). Such overcrowding in South Africa classrooms contributes negatively towards effective teaching and learning of reading.

### **2.5.5 Late introduction of English First Additional Language (FAL)**

There is confusion among Foundation Phase teachers on how best to introduce English as the FAL in the classroom set-up (Howatt & Smith, 2014).

### **2.5.6 The rural set-up**

Learners in rural schools usually find themselves exposed to an environment which does not promote the learning of English FAL. Such an environment has limited or no exposure to the use of English and works to the detriment of the learners in their endeavor to learn the language (Beneke, 2018). This challenge facing learners in rural communities is compounded by the fact that the use of English is not only lacking in the school environment, but also in the community where they come from (Goodpaster, Adedokun & Weaver, 2012). The contribution that the community makes towards the development of reading cannot be underestimated, and such valuable contribution is found wanting in rural communities (Blowers, 2013).

Also, in line with this argument is the fact that learning of English as an additional language was found to be a difficult exercise in a community which does not use that language on conversations (Singh, 2010; James, 2013). Learners from rural settings were generally found to perform significantly below their urban counterparts, academically (PIRLS, 2016). Emphasis on academic success was, however, found to play a positive role in curbing the impact of the socio-economic disadvantages (Mackay, 2016). Teachers in rural schools would thus be expected to go an extra mile in motivating their learners to succeed academically, despite all the disadvantages attributable to their rural set-up.

## **2.6 LEVELS OF READING ACHIEVEMENT IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE**

The reading achievement is a complex one, characterised by fast and invisible cognitive processing which takes place inside the head (Pretorius et al., 2016). Without reading ability, people fail to have access to crucial information about cultural, political, social and health issues (Baatjies, 2003; Sørensen et al., 2012). Most of our daily tasks require the ability to read and while those who have mastered the art of reading take such tasks for granted; someone who cannot read becomes frustrated by such tasks (Goleman, et al, 2013). The ability to read is a firm foundation upon which any future learning should be built. Reading, therefore, enables one to be critical and constructive in relation to a competitive and changing world (Yeung & Coe, 2015). Küng-Shankleman (2012) further states that the ability to read opens several doors in one's life, including fulfilment and entertainment, as well as a very broad world of information. A person with reading ability is therefore able to fit perfectly in an ever-changing world without getting surprises related to innovations and revolutions in the world due to the inability to read.

### **2.6.1 Comprehension and response**

A learner, who is capable of word recognition without exerting any effort, can be expected to read through the text without any hassle, thereby enhancing the opportunity for comprehension. In case of failure to decode speedily and accurately, comprehension of the text is compromised (Pretorius et al., 2016). Teachers should not be satisfied with the fact that learners are able to read aloud with no mistakes, as this is no guarantee for comprehension, which is the primary aim of all reading (Pretorius et al., 2016).

## **2.7 LEVELS OF LEARNERS' SPECIFIC READING SKILLS**

Reading is considered the pillar of a child's success at school and life in general (Oberholzer, 2005; Field, 2010). There are essential levels of learners' specific reading skills needed for reading comprehension and tips on what may help learners to improve their reading which are, phonological and phonemic awareness, alphabetic knowledge, word recognition and oral reading fluency discussed below:

### **2.7.1 Phonological and phonemic awareness**

Phonological awareness refers to being conscious of sounds in a language, including the ability to detect the number of syllables in a word, and to notice words that rhyme (Pretorius et al., 2016). Phonemic awareness, on the other hand, refers to the ability to tell the sounds within words, including identifying the sounds at the beginning, the middle, and the end of words (Pretorius et al., 2016). Phonological awareness was shown through various studies over the past 40 years to be a formidable determinant of early reading success (Pretorius et al., 2016).

Learners with good phonemic awareness may find it easier to learn how to read and write compared to those who can hardly tell the sound differences in words. Learners who lack phonemic awareness, on the other hand, struggle to become successful readers throughout their schooling years (Black, 1991; Dennis, 2008). Teachers should therefore work hard to ensure that learners become phonemically aware.

### **2.7.2 Alphabetic knowledge**

This refers to the ability to relate different letters with the sounds they represent and making a representation of the different sounds in writing (Pretorius et al., 2016). A thorough knowledge of the letters of the alphabet and the sounds represented, by learners is therefore, a step in the right direction to teach them to read. Alphabetic knowledge is considered the single best determinant of the ability to read (Foulin, 2005; Lervåg & Aukrust, 2010). Effective lessons on letters of the alphabet are crucial because any reader who is a beginner should be able to figure out what each letter represents (Armbruster, 2010). This foundation to reading should be laid by all teachers continuously.

### **2.7.3 Word recognition**

Word recognition refers to the ability to effortlessly recognise a written word immediately, without a conscious act of sounding out the individual letters to determine what the word might be (Pretorius et al., 2016). It is dependent on the ability to identify letters and perceive them within words. Furthermore, it embraces the ability to relate the different letters with the sounds they represent, as well as the ability to blend groups of letters into larger units

(Pretorius et al., 2016). The ability to read depends on the ability to identify and know frequently used words automatically and quickly (Armbruster, 2010). Exposing learners frequently to frequently used words would most likely develop word recognition.

#### **2.7.4 Oral reading fluency**

Oral reading refers to the accuracy and speed with which a learner can read aloud, inclusive of how natural they sound in the reading (Pretorius et al., 2016). Fluent readers take heed of punctuation in sentences and phrases, and sound natural in their reading (Pretorius et al., 2016). Dysfluent readers read slowly and hesitantly, and it has been found by research that it leads to difficult processing of meaning (Pretorius et al., 2016). Hiebert, Pearson, Taylor, Richardson and Paris (1998) posit that failure by learners to recognise common words lead them to fail to read fluently, and ultimately failing to comprehend the text. In contrast, fluent readers can process the meaning of what they read with relative ease, graduating from the level they were at when learning to read, to their level when they are able to 'read to learn' (Pretorius et al., 2016). The role played by oral reading fluency cannot be overemphasised as it is evident that it is needed for any effective reading and ultimately learning to take place.

### **2.8 ROLE OF TEACHERS AND WHAT IS EXPECTED OF THEM**

Teachers must teach reading which encompasses comprehension, interpreting and applying textual material, as there should be understanding, appropriate interpretation and application of the given text. According to the Month (2018); Leung, Davison, and Mohan, (2014), there is confusion among Foundation Phase teachers on how best to introduce English as a second language in the classroom. According to Singh, Rahman and Hoon (2010); Rick, Marshall, and Yuill (2011), teachers should be aware that the one-size-fits-all approach in the teaching of reading cannot work due to the difference in intellectual capacity. This was echoed by Bennell (2011); Engelbrecht and Ankiewicz (2016) whose findings imply that well-planned training, influences teachers' knowledge and experiences in their teaching profession. Teachers should not use force to compel learners to read when they are not yet ready, because this is likely to give rise to a negative attitude in the learners towards reading. Empowerment of teachers on teaching methods deemed to be effective, especially for EFAL is therefore mandatory.

## **2.9 THE ROLE OF PRIOR LEARNING**

As already alluded to under reading without understanding; previously learnt material has a role to play in the learning process. Three manifestations of learning resulting from previously learnt material are transfer, interference, and overgeneralisation (Chun & Plass, 1997; Ellis, 2008). Transfer refers to the carrying over of previously acquired knowledge to learning that follows (Chun & Plass, 1997; Tommasi, Orabona & Caputo, 2013). Transfer, according to Chun and Plass (1997), and Cheng and Hampson (2008), may either influence subsequent learning either positively or negatively. In case of positive transfer, the learning process is enhanced because of prior knowledge and is also referred to as interference. It again occurs when previously acquired knowledge has a detrimental effect on subsequent learning (Chun & Plass, 1997; Kalyuga, 2009). Learners can be expected to transfer the reading of various sounds from the knowledge acquired in the prior learning of their native languages, in learning EFAL. Such concepts would thus have a beneficial effect in the learning of EFAL. Interference, on the other hand, has been identified as a significant source of error for FAL learners. In South Africa, interference can readily be seen among EFAL learners whose native language is Afrikaans or any other indigenous language.

Tshivenda does not have a 'q' or a 'c' in its alphabet. English FAL learners with Tshivenda as their native language therefore, meet the letters 'q' and 'c' for the first time in Grade 4. The Tshivenda sound which is equivalent to a 'q' is written as 'khw' and the one equivalent to a 'c' for 'car' is written as 'kh' and 'c' for 'cell' is 's'. Such an interference is bound to bring some confusion in reading for EFAL learners.

## **2.10 THE VALUE OF TEACHER TRAINING**

Teacher training was found in various studies to be an essential element for effective teaching of reading. Teachers without appropriate training in the teaching of reading were observed to limit their teaching only to what they know (Entwistle, 2013). This would obviously work to the detriment of the learners. There is a need for professional development among teachers that would cater for the different needs of their learners

(Skerret, 2011). Teachers with no proper training are thus more likely to use the same approach for all their learners, thereby leaving some of their learners' reading needs unattended. Lack of teacher training is among some of the challenges that teachers in rural schools are more likely to face (Singh, 2010).

Learners in rural schools are thus more likely to receive reading lessons that do not meet their needs, compared to their urban counterparts. Although teaching methods are available for the teachers to use, lack of the necessary skills to teach English FAL is evident for most of the teachers (Moodley, 2013). Teacher training should therefore go beyond impartation of the necessary skill to the teachers concerned. Exposing teachers to specific techniques and strategies in their training is therefore invaluable.

Apart from the necessary continuing professional development, teachers in South Africa, across all provinces, failed to satisfy the minimum requirements expected of them, with a significant number of them either having not completed Grade 12, or having Grade 12 as their highest qualification (PIRLS, 2016).

Common sense dictates that one cannot give which one does not have. The teaching profession demands that teachers pass the knowledge they have to their learners. As Khalid, Meerah and Halim (2010), and Dorgu (2016) posit, teachers should be well trained for them to be able to implement the curriculum effectively. The importance of having carefully planned training programmes for teachers to ensure their good performance cannot be overemphasised. In-service training programmes should therefore take into consideration the fact that most of the beneficiaries of such programme are EFAL learners with a limited command of the English language. Ngware (2010) posits that carefully planned in-service training programmes in Malawi were successful and led to good performance. Most South African teachers are EFAL products themselves, and care should not only be taken of the mother tongue, because they will be teaching EFAL, but also because of their presumed limited command of the English language, in-service training programmes that appreciate the teacher's level of understanding are therefore necessary.

Reading is an everyday activity for most of the people. Reading should take place at least an hour daily at school. There must be efficient word recognition to make learners read fluently. Teachers should, therefore, not be satisfied when their learners are only able to read a given text but should ensure that they understand the information that it conveys to them.

## **2.11 TEACHING METHODS FOR READING**

It may be possible that no single method is the best in the teaching of reading. This is since children are different in the way they learn how to read and need different types of instruction to be proficient. Two major teaching methods are: direct phonics instruction, as well as whole language instruction.

### **2.11.1 Direct phonics instruction**

Direct phonics instruction refers to “direct instruction on the sounds of language and the letters that correspond to those sounds” (Tunmer & Arrow, 2013). Phonics are considered a foundation in the process of learning to read, since the ability to relate letters and their corresponding sounds can enable a learner to read by sounding out each word, what is referred to as decoding (Byrne, 2014).

Learning of phonics basically start with the learning of individual letter sounds, followed by that of blending different sounds together to form very simple words consisting of a consonant, a vowel and another consonant (the so-called CVC words), and ultimately exposing learners to the blending of consonant letters together to form larger words (Loporcaro, 2015).

A learner would therefore need to learn all the different sounds of all the letters of the alphabet first, thereafter proceed to learn CVC words like hop, bed, sit and fat, to name a few, and ultimately learn more complex words with blending of consonants, like telephone, church, and shepherd.

The negative side of the direct phonics instruction approach is that learners become like robots in their endeavor to learn (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2018). Beyond that, learners fail to understand what they read about, despite their ability to accurately read out even

long and difficult words and this method may not enhance the learners' ability to spell accurately, as argued by its supporters.

The value of text comprehension and the ability to spell accurately by a learner in any learning environment cannot be overemphasised. The fact that this teaching method makes learners prone to poor text comprehension and inability to spell accurately, makes it unsuitable to be used on its own, without supplementing it with another method.

### **2.11.2 Whole language instruction**

Whole language instruction is another method that can be used when teaching. It represents a proficient stage in reading, as it is based on the graphic word, in contrast to phonics, which represents the incompetent stage as a result of its emphasis on phonological processing as a means towards word recognition (Ehri, 2017). This method is aimed at teaching learners to become proficient in reading, inclusive of reading fluently with understanding, and articulating what they read in their own words, both orally and in writing (Klingner, Vaughn & Boardman, 2015).

Prior knowledge as well as visual skills are useful in this method, to enable learners to read a given text from whichever genre of literature it may come from (Blachowicz & Ogle, 2017). This method is instrumental in honing learners' communication skills by concurrently perfecting their reading and writing skills (Hakoda, 2018). The value of this method in the teaching of reading cannot be overemphasised, since reading for understanding is arguably the most important goal for all reading.

### **2.11.3 The use of trade books**

The use of trade books as an approach to the teaching of reading is closely linked to the whole language instruction approach (Tommasi, Orabona & Caputo, 2013). This is individualised reading wherein a learner selects a trade book for reading, and consults the teacher whenever help becomes necessary (Merriam & Bierema, 2013). The flexibility of this method makes it usable for partner reading, group reading and even for reading in a whole class set-up (Wilhelm, 2016). Trade books are usually used together with other approaches for the teaching of reading (Stringer, Reynolds & Simpson, 2003). The fact that learners choose trade books of their own choice is valuable in the sense that learners

are more likely to choose trade books of what they are personally interested in, stirring up the personal desire to read from the text concerned.

#### **2.11.4 The language experience method**

This method assumes that learners can best read what they composed, either verbally or in writing (Foertsch, 2003). This method is therefore relevant in a situation wherein learners can express their ideas in writing, or even verbally such that the teacher is able to capture such ideas in writing. Learners become highly motivated to read their own composition. Most of the time when this method is used, there is an observable 'working together' between the teacher and the learner, as they become 'co-authors' of the text in question. Such teamwork logically enhances the effectiveness of the teaching process, and consequently the ability of the learner to read.

Code-switching is considered a valuable strategy to enable learners to understand a foreign language that is taught to them (Skerrett, 2011). It is an internationally recognised and promoted practice, supported by the National Council of Teachers of English, and the International Reading Association (McCormack, 1997). The reality of linguistic and cultural diversity makes it essential for teachers to create a learning environment that is conducive for the transition from using the home language English FAL. Code-switching can be central to a teacher's endeavor to create such an environment. Although code-switching is an officially permitted practice (Vuzo, 2012) ignorance by some teachers makes them feel that they are using it against available educational policies, leaving them with a feeling of guilt (Evans & Nthulana, 2018).

In one Tanzanian study, teachers emphasised the importance of code-switching, as they likened teaching using English only to 'teaching dead stones' (Phillips, 2018). Challenges on the use of code-switching 'include' ignorance on using it strategically and responsibly (Scott, 2013). Notwithstanding its value in the teaching of a foreign language to learners, its full impact will not be realised if teachers consider it to be a clandestine practice that can only be used when the principal or any other supervisor is out of sight. Moreover, if workshops for teachers could be conducted on how best to use code-switching in the teaching of reading, it would not only empower the teachers with strategies for using code-switching but would also give assurance to such teachers that code-switching is an officially permitted practice.

## CHAPTER 3

### RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

---

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

The literature review as well as the theoretical framework were covered in Chapter 2 of this study. The focus of this chapter is on research design as well as the methodology used in the collection of data, which embraced instrumentation, sampling strategy, as well as ethical measures and the in data analysis, which are key elements of this study. This study aimed to establish the challenges that teachers face when teaching Grade 4 English First Additional Language reading in rural schools of Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District. The following objectives were the basis of this study:

- To investigate teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 FAL teachers
- To determine levels of teaching specific reading skills, and
- To establish strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers.

This study was guided by the following research questions:

- What are teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers?
- Which are the levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies?
- What strategies can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers?

#### 3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

Creswell (2006) defines research design as, “a procedure for research that spans the decision from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis.” It is the overall approach instrumental in the investigation of a problem of interest to find a solution to a question of interest, or to test an intended hypothesis (Gay, 1996). It has also been described as a blueprint of how the intended research shall be conducted (Babbie & Mouton, 2001). A plan of how empirical evidence necessary for answering research

questions would be generated, is central to a research design (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006).

The research in this study opted for a quantitative approach. This approach is usually used where there is a need to establish or validate relationships among measured variables, and come up with generalisations (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). It has been described as a structured approach that is best suited for the determination of how extensive a problem is (Kumar, 2005). Quantitative data was collected using questionnaires and structured observation schedules in this study.

### **3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Research methodology was defined by Wacker (1998) as “a study of a research process in all its broadness and complexity.” This is inclusive of the different techniques employed in carrying out the research, the reasons why such techniques are used, the limiting factors of such techniques, coupled with how the findings would be interpreted. It has also been described as, “a range of approaches used in research to gather data for inference and interpretation to be able to come up with explanation and prediction” (Cohen et al., 2000).

Denscombe (2008) defines positivism as: “an approach to social research that seeks to apply the natural science model of research to investigate social phenomena and explanations of the social world.” In this study, a positivist research paradigm was used because the research framework used is quantitative that made use of descriptive research design like questionnaires and observation, it has good reliability and representativeness wherein society may be seen as shaping the individual and belief that social facts may shape individual action. The justification of why the quantitative approach was suitable for this study was, the results of **quantitative** analysis are most commonly reported in the form of statistical tables because it uses deductive logic and is therefore more easily viewed as “real science,” the **quantitative approach** is often perceived as providing stronger empirical evidence than other research approaches. What underpins positivism and why it is adopted in this study is it maintains that a scientist is the observer of an objective reality. From this understanding of ontology, the methodology for

observation in natural science was adopted for social science research. Denscombe (2008) further states that in positivist studies, the role of the researcher is limited to data collection and interpretation in an objective way. In this study, research findings were usually observable and quantifiable that led to statistical analysis. A survey was conducted through questionnaires. The population was made up of Grade 4 FAL teachers in rural primary schools of Dzindi circuit in the Vhembe District. Random sampling was used. Analysis of findings was done through SPSS.

Apart from the use of questionnaires, structured observation schedules were used in this study. Observation schedules were used to directly observe people in their own natural environments (Grinnel & Unrau, 2008). Structured observation was used in quantitative research, whereas unstructured observation was concerned with the quantitative observation of behaviour (de Vos et al., 2011 & Bryman, 2016). The problem identified by the researcher formed the basis for the structure of the observation schedule used for the study (de Vos et al., 2011). Issues like availability of resources, class size, and ability of learners to read, were among what the researcher observed from the target schools.

### **3.3.1 Population**

Population refers to a group of people on whom the findings of a study are generalised by the researcher (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). It is from this group where the sample gets chosen (Gravetter & Forzano, 2003). The target population consisted of 20 Grade 4 teachers from the 20 rural schools of Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District who were randomly selected, and who taught English as a FAL. Learners were in class when their teachers were observed though they were part of the lesson by default as the aim of the study is about challenges teachers face. The findings of this study were thus generalised on the population alluded to.

### **3.3.2 Sample and Sampling Procedure**

A sample may be defined as, “a subset of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study, or a subset of measurements drawn from a population of interest” (Unrau, Gabor

& Grinnel, 2007). Barker (2003) defines a sample as, “a small portion of the total set of objects, events or persons from which a representative selection is made”.

Simple random sampling is a type of probability sampling in which the researcher randomly selects a subset of respondents from a population (Cochran, 1977). Each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected. Data is then collected from as large a percentage as possible of this random subset. The sampling method used was probability where simple random sampling procedure was followed to select a sample of 20 respondents who completed questionnaires for quantitative method. The list of schools was requested from the circuit office wherein the researcher randomly selected 20 schools. Teachers in the already sampled schools were randomly sampled where schools were written in pieces of papers, placed in a box and then selected, and thus became respondents by default; however, the researcher still needed their informed consent. They were then given questionnaires to complete. The sample size consisted of 20 respondents from the randomly selected 20 schools.

Although the study was mainly quantitative, observation was done in class during the reading lesson wherein 5 teachers were observed whilst teaching; the researcher captured the challenges they faced. Part of the observations done was on whether learners can read in class and whether, for instance, there are materials in class to allow them to practice reading during the lesson. The researcher would then record observed competencies of those who had reading opportunities. Five reading lessons were observed. In other words, the researcher observed five classes from five schools labelled as A-E, where teachers taught a reading lesson. Simple random sampling procedure for these reading lessons was used.

### **3.3.3 Data collection method**

Denzin and Lincoln (1998) and Field (2013) indicate that the quantitative approach emphasises the measurement relationship between variables and not processes. On the other hand, Krathwohl (1998), Babbie and Mouton (2001) and Harpe (2015) define quantitative approach as the best measurement of the properties of phenomena, which is

the assignment of numbers to the perceived qualities of the phenomenon. The researcher in this study requested permission from the Province, District, Circuit Schools to collect data from schools. After designing the questionnaire, it was administered to respondents in person and an explanation was given to the respondents on how the self-administered questionnaire should be responded to although the instructions were there. The self-administered questionnaires were collected from the respondents a week after distribution. Necessary arrangements and appointments were made with the principals of the relevant schools by the researcher, to carry out the observation schedule.

### **3.3.4 The questionnaire**

A questionnaire may be defined as “a document containing questions and or other types of items designed to solicit information appropriate for analysis” (Babbie, 2007). The self-constructed questionnaire in the study consisted of 28 items distributed over four sections:

Section A covered questions eliciting demographic data from the respondents. Such data included the respondent’s gender, age, highest academic qualification, experience as an educator, teaching experience in rural area and teacher learner ratio.

Section B covered research question 1 where teachers were assessed on challenges they face in teaching Grade 4 English FAL teaching reading. Respondents were requested to give a rating on the extent to which they experienced challenges in their teaching of reading to Grade 4 English FAL learners vis-a vis several relevant issues ranging from 1= not at all, 2=to a lesser extent, 3= not applicable 4=not sure and 5= to a greater extent.

Section C covered research question 2 where teachers were assessed on their levels of teaching learner’s specific reading skills in English First Additional Language reading. The following was elicited: Ability to teach letters of the alphabet, ability to teach single words, ability to teach single sentences, ability to teach paragraphs, ability to teach phonemic awareness, teaching syllable recognition, teaching alphabetic knowledge, teaching word recognition, teaching text comprehension and teaching vocabulary. Respondents were requested to give a rating on their levels of ability in the teaching of specific reading skills in English FAL reading, ranging from 1=excellent, 2=good, 3=fair, 4=poor to 5= very poor.

Section D covered research question 3 where teachers were assessed on strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers. The following was elicited: organising extra classes especially for learners who struggle on different reading skills, paying attention to learners' individual reading needs, reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words, emphasising the relationship between a letter and its sound, making use of the learners' home language, improvising shortage of resources, involving learners' parents in their children's reading, encouraging learners to read what they have written, giving learners time for reading and involving authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce. Respondents were requested to give a rating on their use of various strategies for more effective teaching of English FAL reading, ranging from 1=Always, 2=Often, 3=Sometimes, 4=Rarely to 5= Never.

The questions used in the questionnaire were close-ended, and the questionnaires were piloted before administration to enhance validity. The questionnaire was piloted with the 5 teachers who were not sampled, to rule out any ambiguities and flaws.

### **3.3.5 The observation schedules**

Observation schedules are used to directly observe people in their own natural environments (Grinnel & Unrau, 2008). Structured observation is used in quantitative research, whereas unstructured observation is concerned with the quantitative observation of behaviour (de Vos et al., 2011). The problem identified by the researcher forms the basis for the structure of the observation schedule used for the study (de Vos et al, 2011). Issues like availability of resources, class size, and ability of learners to read, are among what the researcher was observing from the target schools. Structured observation schedules were used in this study, forming a component of the quantitative research paradigm, in conjunction with the questionnaire.

Observation was conducted in class during reading lessons, and five teachers were observed as they carried out reading lessons of English FAL. The researcher captured any challenges observed to be experienced by the teachers, availability of reading material,

whether learners can read in class, as well as the reading competency levels of learners who are afforded such reading opportunities.

Research question 1 where teachers were assessed on reading challenges they face in teaching Grade 4 English FAL was observed. Furthermore, the number of learners in the observed class, reading skills covered in the lesson were observed where the following occurred: skimming, scanning, comprehension, extensive reading, intensive reading, reading for gist, reading for specific information, asking questions to the teacher, asking questions to each other, writing on their exercise books, reading silently and lastly, reading materials. In addition, it was observed whether graded readers, prescribed books, newspapers, magazines, paper books, tablets, mobile phones, laptops and desktops were used.

Research question 2 where teachers were assessed on their levels of teaching learners' specific reading skills in English First Additional Language reading `was covered through teachers' activities where the following items were observed: teacher activities including writing on the board, using wall charts, eliciting information from learners, giving instructions, answering learners 'questions, giving feedback to learners, providing reading materials, providing reading opportunities and correcting learners' reading.

Research question 3 where teachers were assessed on strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers was addressed through the following: teacher feedback done on either individual, pair, group or class; seating arrangement where learners sit in horse shoe, rows, groups, pairs, individually on movable furniture or fixed furniture; reading approach which covered the following: top-down, bottom-up and the meta-cognitive view.

### **3.3.6 Data analysis**

Questionnaire responses were captured and analysed through the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26. The analysis involved frequency counts and frequency percentages. In addition, linear regression was performed on quantitative variables because strength of prediction, forecasting an effect and trend forecasting were

determined. Regression was used to identify the strength of the effect that the independent variables have on dependant variables, as well as on ordered categorical variables. Frequency Analysis was used because it is an important area of statistics that deals with the number of occurrences and analyses measures of central tendency, dispersion and percentages. It is again a single measure that tries to describe the set of data through a value that represents the central position within data set.

This system was used due to its level of accuracy and for that reason errors may be vastly reduced. The technique of descriptive statistics included summarising data using tables and calculating descriptive measures. In this study, the type of data generated by this observation instrument is quantitative, and statistical quantitative data analysis was used that assisted the researcher in answering research questions. An observation instrument in this study was utilised due to its convenience, cost efficiency, user friendliness, allowance for multiple perspectives, and ability to observe behaviour in different types of organisational settings. Direct observation and reflective observation were used in this study as methods of obtaining data from various types of observational instruments used within the context of research and practice efforts were included in this study as well as an overview of the advantages and disadvantages of conducting observational studies. Definition of reliability and validity considerations, psychometric properties, practitioner applications, and research implications were discussed relative to the contributions of observational instrumentation. Accumulating varying perspectives through observation instrumentation allowed the researcher to obtain empirical evidence for improving research practices in education and social sciences.

### **3.4 MEASURES TO ENSURE TRUSTWORTHINESS**

Poggenpoel (2003) stipulates that verification of the results of data analysis is the key issue in ensuring trustworthiness of quantitative research and has an obligation to maintain trustworthiness throughout the research. Furthermore, the supervisor was also given access to the material which was used to collect data as a means of validating the information. Two techniques of trustworthiness that applied in this study were validity and reliability.

### **3.4.1 Validity of the instrument**

The questionnaire was piloted on a small sample of five respondents before a full-scale study was undertaken; this was done in order to identify problems such as unclear wording in the questionnaire, identification of flaws and ambiguities ensuring that the items were clear and easy to answer. This assists in identifying a need for the questionnaire to be revised. There was no section of the questionnaire that was revised. The outcomes of the pilot study were finalising the intervention programme for the final research study based on observations from the pilot study.

### **3.4.2 Reliability**

Reliability refers to the degree of consistency with which instances are assigned to the same category by different observers or by the same observer on different occasions (Silverman, Kurtines, Ginsburg, Weems, Rabian & Serafini, 1999). Neuman (2006) defines reliability as an issue of dependability. Reliability in this study relates to the instrument questionnaire that gave the same results when administered at different times. Reliability of the questionnaire was carried out using a pilot test. Inter-rater reliability of observation was used in this study as it compared the ratings of five observers and checking for agreements in their measurements and the categories were clearer. The degree of convergence was reasonable enough for the instrument to be reliable.

## **3.5 ETHICAL AND SAFETY ISSUES**

Ethics may be defined as a set of moral principles which is suggested by an individual or group, as subsequently widely accepted, and which offers rules and behavioural expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students (de Vos et al., 2011). For the purposes of this study, confidentiality, informed consent, anonymity, voluntary participation and obtained permission from the province, district, circuit, principals and respondents were observed during collection of data from all sampled respondents. Ethical clearance from the University of Zululand as the most important ethical considerations needed for this study was obtained. Ethical issues which were satisfied in this study are discussed next.

### **3.5.1 Obtaining permission from the Ethics committee**

The ethical considerations aspect of obtaining permission to conduct a research study project at school level is an important aspect. As such, permission was obtained from the Ethics Clearance committee. Permission to conduct the research was sought from relevant authorities, inclusive of the Limpopo Province, Vhembe East District Manager, Circuit Manager and principals of Dzindi Circuit's primary schools. All respondents signed consent forms after agreeing to take part in the study. Therefore, a written agreement was made available to respondents after they were informed about the research procedure. All respondents were informed that the study would be confidential and anonymous.

As part of the right to self-determination, respondents were informed that participation in the study was voluntary and that participation would take place without undue influence, and also that they had the right to withdraw from participating in the research at any time, if they so desired, without any prejudice. There was no misrepresentation, threat or promise of payment. Respondents were not exposed to any harm or subjected to stress. Respondents were not coerced into participating in the study but were given freedom to give their written consent to participate (Neuman, 2000).

### **3.5.2 Confidentiality**

Confidentiality means that contents of the completed questionnaires should not be revealed to other unauthorised individuals. Respondents were assured that their identities would not be revealed at any stage. Confidentiality also means that only the researcher, supervisors and the research respondents know the contents of questionnaires. That extends to all the information relating to a person's physical and mental condition, personal circumstances, and social relationships not already in the public domain (Cohen et al., 2000). Confidentiality serves to assure respondents that they would not be identified or presented in identifiable form (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006). To ensure confidentiality, research respondents were not identified by their own names and other biographic information as suggested by Sapsford and Jupp (2006). This means that any information they provided remained anonymous. In the case of data analysis, frequencies and percentages were used instead of names of respondents.

### **3.6 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter, an outline of the research designs and methodology was engaged in this study. Questionnaires and observations were the tools used to collect data. Population, sample, and the sampling procedure were explained. Procedures followed when distributing questionnaires and observation of lessons was explained. Validity of the instrument and reliability of data collection under measures to ensure trustworthiness were discussed. The observation schedules and data analysis were also discussed. Obtaining permission from the Ethics committee and confidentiality under ethical and safety issues were considered. The next chapter presents an analysis of results and discussions collected through questionnaires and observation.

## CHAPTER 4

### PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

---

#### 4.1. INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 focused on the research methodology and design of this study. The survey was conducted through questionnaires. The target population who completed questionnaires for the quantitative method consisted of Grade 4 teachers who taught English FAL in rural primary schools of Dzindi circuit in the Vhembe District and were from the 20 schools that were randomly selected after requesting a list of schools from the circuit office. Analysis of findings was done through SPSS. Apart from the use of questionnaires, structured observation schedules were used in this study. The findings of this study were thus generalised on the population alluded to.

The researcher in this study requested permission from the Province, District, Circuit, Schools to collect data from schools. After designing the questionnaire, it was administered to respondents in person and an explanation was given to the respondents on how the self-administered questionnaire should be responded to though the instructions were there. The self-administered questionnaires were collected from the respondents a week after distribution. All 20 teachers returned the questionnaires though some were completed in the researcher's presence while she was waiting. Necessary arrangements and appointments were made with the principals of the relevant schools by the researcher, to carry out the observation schedules. The self-constructed questionnaire in the study consisted of 28 items distributed over four sections. This chapter focuses on presentation of findings to this empirical study compiled with the discussion thereof.

#### 4.2 DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH SITE AND CONTEXT

The description of the research sites where the research was conducted were 20 schools from rural primary schools of Dzindi circuit in the Vhembe District and the schools were randomly selected after requesting a list of schools from the circuit office. The researcher in this study requested permission from the Province, District, Circuit, Schools to collect

data from schools. After designing the questionnaire, it was administered to respondents in person during COVID 19 lockdown where learners attended schools according to internal arrangements. COVID 19 rule was for people not to exceed 50% of the capacity of the venue. Learners in some schools were divided into 2-3 groups, coming to school in three different days depending on the number of learners in the classroom. Only 20 learners were to occupy 1 classroom, as a result, the same lesson was taught 2-3 times. Survey was conducted through observation and self-constructed questionnaire which consisted of 28 items distributed over four sections.

Objectives of the study were identified, sampling or selection was done, approach and methods on how data was collected was in place, analysis of data was done through SPSS and interpretation of data was done thereafter, as well as the presentation of results. Twenty (20) questionnaires were hand-delivered. Completed questionnaires were collected over a period of 1 week where all 20 questionnaires were returned. The researcher herself drove to the schools and distributed questionnaires and again did observations in 5 other schools. Names of the schools were checked from the list that was requested from the circuit office. All Grade 4 respondents were available on the day of distribution and observation. On the collection day, some respondents completed the questionnaires whilst the researcher was waiting. The target population who completed questionnaires for quantitative method consisted of Grade 4 teachers who taught English FAL in rural primary schools of Dzindi circuit in the Vhembe District. Apart from the use of questionnaires, structured observation schedules were used in this study. The results of this study were thus generalised on the population alluded to. This chapter focuses on presentation of results to this empirical study compiled with the discussion thereof.

### **4.3 PRESENTATION OF QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS**

The demographic profile which is section A is presented first; such data included the respondents' gender, age, highest academic qualification, experience as an educator, teaching experience in rural area and teacher-learner ratio.

Section B covered research question 1 where teachers were assessed on challenges they faced in teaching Grade 4 English FAL teaching reading. The following was observed: the

Foundation Phase teachers and the researcher were confused on how best to teach reading in the classroom; learners' reading in the home language interferes with their reading in English First Additional Language, and the participating school has a library with reading materials however the class was too overcrowded for individual reading.

Section C covered research question 2 where teachers were assessed on their levels of teaching learner's specific reading skills in English First Additional Language reading. The following was observed: the ability to teach letters of the alphabet, single words, single sentences, paragraphs, phonemic awareness, syllable recognition, alphabetic knowledge, word recognition, text comprehension and vocabulary.

Section D covered research question 3 where teachers were assessed on strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers. The following was observed: organising extra classes especially for learners who struggle on different reading skills, paying attention to learners' individual reading needs, reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words, emphasising the relationship between a letter and its sound, making use of the learners' home language, improvising shortage of resources, involving learners' parents in their children's reading, encouraging learners to read what they have written, giving learners time for reading and involving authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce.

This study was guided by the following research questions:

- What are teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers?
- Which are the levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies?
- What strategies can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers?

#### **4.3.1 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

The demographic information of the respondents who took part in this study on investigating challenges teachers face when teaching Grade 4 English FAL reading is presented and discussed in this section. Such information includes the age, gender, and educational qualification of the respondents in the study.

#### 4.3.1.1 Gender

**Table 4.1: Gender**

|        | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|--------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Female | 16               | 80.0           | 80.0                |
| Male   | 4                | 20.0           | 100.0               |
| Total  | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.1 presents data on gender distribution for the respondents who completed questionnaires in the study. Eighty percent (80%) of respondents in this study were females, while only 20% were males. This is in line with results in other studies that revealed that the majority of teachers in primary schools are females (McGrath & Sinclair, 2013).

#### 4.3.1.2. Age of respondents

**Table 4.2: Age**

|              | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|--------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 22-30 years  | 3                | 15.0           | 15.0                |
| 31-35 years  | 1                | 5.0            | 20.0                |
| 41-45 years  | 7                | 35.0           | 55.0                |
| 46 and older | 9                | 45.0           | 100.0               |
| Total        | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.2 presents the age distribution of respondents and reflects that 45% of respondents were above 45 years old, while 35% of respondents fell within the category from 41 to 45 years of age. This in essence implies that 80% of respondents were over 40 years of age. By inference, most respondents had extensive experience as teachers. This is supported by the fact that teaching as a career is usually followed as a first career choice, and rarely as a second or third career choice. Most respondents over 40 have most likely been teaching throughout their careers.

Apart from the welcome experience that usually goes with age, results in this study were in line with the PIRLS 2016 results, that showed that about 77% of the teachers were above 40 years of age. The ageing workforce is a concern to the teaching profession.

### 4.3.1.3. Academic qualifications

**Table 4.3: Highest Academic qualification**

|                        | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|------------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Standard 10 (grade 12) | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| First degree           | 12               | 60.0           | 65.0                |
| BEd Honours            | 5                | 25.0           | 90.0                |
| Master's degree        | 1                | 5.0            | 95.0                |
| Doctoral degree        | 1                | 5.0            | 100.0               |
| Total                  | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.3 presents a reflection of academic qualifications for the respondents and indicate that 60% of respondents had a first degree, while 25% had an Honours degree. Five percent (5%) of the respondents held a Master's and a Doctoral degree each. This implies that an overwhelming 95% of respondents were in possession of at least a first degree. Such qualifications can be expected to contribute towards more effective tuition. These results were in sharp contrast to results in the PIRLS 2016 survey, which revealed that less than one third of teachers had completed a Bachelor's degree, and that the majority of teachers failed to meet the minimum requirements, as they were only in possession of Grade 12 as their highest qualification.

#### 4.3.1.4. Teaching experience

**Table 4.4: Experience as an educator**

|                  | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 0-5 years        | 8                | 40.0           | 40.0                |
| 6-10 years       | 1                | 5.0            | 45.0                |
| 11-15 years      | 1                | 5.0            | 50.0                |
| 16-2- years      | 3                | 15.0           | 65.0                |
| 21 or more years | 7                | 35.0           | 100.0               |
| Total            | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.4 shows that 35% of respondents had more than 20 years of teaching experience, while 15% of respondents had from 16 to 20 years of teaching. The results translate that 55% of respondents had teaching experience of more than 10 years. Most of the respondents can thus be expected to be accustomed to the pertinent challenges faced by teachers in their teaching of English FAL.

#### 4.3.1.5. Teaching experience in a rural school

**Table 4.5: Teaching experience in rural school**

|                  | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 0-5 years        | 8                | 40.0           | 40.0                |
| 6-10 years       | 2                | 10.0           | 50.0                |
| 16-20 years      | 3                | 15.0           | 65.0                |
| 21 or more years | 7                | 35.0           | 100.0               |
| Total            | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.5 presents data on the respondents' teaching experiences in a rural school. Thirty-five percent (35%) of respondents had more than 20 years of teaching experience in a rural school. A significant 40% of respondents indicated that they had 5 years of teaching experience or less. Fifteen percent (15%) of the respondents had 16 to 20 years of teaching experience in a rural school. It means that half of the respondents had teaching experience of more than 15 years in a rural school. One expects such experienced teachers to have devised some strategies, or to improvise for reading challenges that might be merely associated with rural schools.

**4.3.1.6 Teacher-learner ratio**

**Table 4.6: Teacher-learner ratio**

|                   | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| 1:60 and above    | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| From 1:50 to 1:59 | 3                | 15.0           | 20.0                |
| From 1:40 to 1:49 | 6                | 30.0           | 50.0                |
| Below 1:40        | 10               | 50.0           | 100.0               |
| Total             | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.6 shows that 50% of respondents were from schools with a teacher-learner ratio of below 1:40 due to COVID 19 regulations where the ratio was 1:20 and learners were divided into 3 classes, meaning, the normal ratio is 1:60, while 30% of respondents were from schools with a teacher-learner ratio from 1:40 to 1:49. This implies that 80% of respondents were from schools with a teacher-learner ratio of below 1:60. This is a much better picture than what one would normally expect from rural schools, which are usually overcrowded (Mulaudzi, 2018), although these groups were taught in three consecutive days during COVID 19. The same reading lesson had to be repeated for 3 days to accommodate all the learners.

Though the schools for most respondents failed to satisfy the national target pertaining to teacher-learner ratio, which is a maximum of 35 learners for each educator, as per the Month (2018); the researcher is optimistic that the ratios that are applicable for the majority of respondents are reasonable to create an environment conducive for effective teaching of English FAL reading. Matshipi, (2018) posit that it is difficult for poor readers to receive assistance from their teachers in overcrowded classrooms.

#### **4.3.2 CHALLENGES FACED BY TEACHERS IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL READING**

This section presents various challenges that teachers face in the teaching of reading English FAL. The rationale for identifying the different challenges that teachers face in this regard, stems from the fact that identification of a challenge is the first step towards its resolution. Resolution of such challenges would logically lead to more effective teaching. This section addressed research question number 1 which is about teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers, the following statements were assessed:

- The Foundation Phase teachers are confused on how best to teach reading in the classroom;
- Learners' reading in the home language interferes with their reading in English First Additional Language; and
- The participating school has a library with reading materials and my class is too overcrowded for individual reading.

#### 4.3.2.1 Confusion on how best to teach reading in the classroom

**Table 4.7: Confusion on how best to teach reading in the classroom**

|                     | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|---------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Not at all          | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| To a lesser extent  | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Not applicable      | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Not sure            | 3                | 15.0           | 15.0                |
| To a greater extent | 17               | 85.0           | 100.0               |
| Total               | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.7 shows that an overwhelming 85% of respondents were confused, to a great extent, on how best to teach reading, whereas 15% of the respondents were not sure of the presence of such confusion. It is quite understandable, that South Africa's curriculum transformation, which ranged from curriculum 2005, to RNCS, which ultimately became the NCS, and the CAPS, created a degree of 'tuition uncertainty' leaving teachers hesitant on the teaching approach that would yield the best outcomes. One is compelled to believe results by the Month (2018) that some teachers feel that they should just facilitate the process of reading by learners, and not really teach reading.

#### 4.3.2.2. Learners' home language interference in the reading in English FAL

**Table 4.8: Learners' home language interference in the reading in English FAL.**

|                     | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|---------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Not at all          | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| To a lesser extent  | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| Not applicable      | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Not sure            | 3                | 15.0           | 20.0                |
| To a greater extent | 16               | 80.0           | 100.0               |
| Total               | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.8 presents data on the interference of home language in the reading in English FAL. Eighty percent (80%) of respondents indicated that the home language posed a significant interference, while 5% of respondents, although they believed that such interference exists, also believed that such interference was not that extensive. Fifteen percent (15%) of the respondents were not sure about the existence of such interference. It means that the significance of such interference cannot be overlooked. The glaring differences in the way Tshivenda and English words are pronounced lead to poor phonetic awareness and phonological processing, in line with what Scheele, Leseman and Mayo (2010) posit.

#### 4.3.2.3 Effect of availability of a library on ability to read

**Table 4.9: Effect of availability of a library on ability to read**

|                     | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|---------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| To a lesser extent  | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Not at all          | 7                | 35.0           | 35.0                |
| Not applicable      | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Not sure            | 2                | 10.0           | 45.0                |
| To a greater extent | 11               | 55.0           | 100.0               |
| Total               | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.9 indicates that most respondents (55%) were of the view that availability of a library affects, to a great extent, the learners' ability to read. Thirty-five percent (35%) of the respondents believed that the availability of a library does not affect the learners' ability to read at all. 10 % percent of respondents were not sure whether any such effect existed. Teachers from schools without libraries, may understandably, fail to acknowledge the value of a library, because they do not have a benchmark for comparison, whereas teachers from schools with a library are able to compare "the before" with "the after." This means that they may be able to assess the difference on the learners' ability to read, that was brought by the availability of a library. The finding in this study indicates that the availability of a library promotes the learners' ability to read is in line with the Department of Education's finding that unavailability of a library makes reading a difficult exercise (Month, 2018).

#### 4.3.2.4. Effect of overcrowded classrooms on individual reading

**Table 4.10: Effect of overcrowded classrooms on individual reading**

|                     | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|---------------------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Not at all          | 2                | 10.0           | 100.0               |
| To a lesser extent  | 3                | 15.0           | 80.0                |
| Not at all          | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Not sure            | 2                | 10.0           | 90.0                |
| To a greater extent | 13               | 65.0           | 65.0                |
| Total               | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

As reflected in Table 4.10, 65% of respondents indicated that overcrowded classrooms have to a greater extent influenced individual reading. Fifteen (15%) of respondents indicated that overcrowded classrooms affect individual reading to a lesser extent, while 10% of the respondents were of the view that it has no effect at all on individual reading. A further 10% of respondents were not sure whether it had any effect or not. It is highly likely that teachers who have taught in overcrowded classrooms for many years have not adapted to such an environment and find it a challenge to teach in overcrowded classrooms (Mulaudzi, 2018).

#### **4.3.3 TEACHERS' LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNERS' SPECIFIC LINGUISTIC COMPETENCES IN ENGLISH FAL READING**

This section presents teachers' levels of teaching learners' specific linguistic competences in English FAL reading. This was considered important by the researcher, because a teacher who might not have a challenge of lack of essential resources like a library, for instance, may experience a challenge or failure to teach specific linguistic competences. This section covered research question 2 where teachers were assessed on their levels of teaching learner's specific reading skills in English First Additional Language reading. The following was observed: Ability to teach letters of the alphabet, ability to teach single words, ability to teach single sentences, ability to teach paragraphs, ability to teach phonemic

awareness, teaching syllable recognition, teaching text comprehension and teaching vocabulary.

#### 4.3.3.1 Ability to teach letters of the alphabet

**Table 4.11: ability to teach letters of the alphabet**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Excellent | 2                | 10.0           | 10.0                |
| Good      | 6                | 30.0           | 40.0                |
| Fair      | 10               | 50.0           | 90.0                |
| Poor      | 2                | 10.0           | 100.0               |
| Very poor | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.11 indicates that 50% of the respondents believed that they had a fair ability to teach letters of the alphabet, while 30% and 10% believed that they had a good and excellent ability, respectively. Only 10% of respondents reflected a poor ability to teach letters of the alphabet. Furthermore, 90% of respondents reflected a reasonable ability to teach letters of the alphabet. This is a positive step in the journey to teach learners to read, any reader who is a beginner should be able to determine what each letter represents.

### 4.3.3.2 Ability to teach single words

**Table 4.12: Ability to teach single words**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Excellent | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Good      | 5                | 25.0           | 25.0                |
| Fair      | 12               | 60.0           | 85.0                |
| Poor      | 3                | 15.0           | 100.0               |
| Very poor | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

As reflected in Table 4.12, 60% of respondents indicated that they had a fair ability to teach single words, while 25% indicated that they had a good ability to teach single words. Fifteen percent (15%) of respondents reflected a poor ability to teach single words in a reasonable way. An overwhelming majority is thus able to teach learners single words. As it is usually said that “a journey of a thousand miles starts with a single step”, all teachers should strive to master the art of teaching single words.

#### 4.3.3.3. Ability to teach single sentences

**Table 4.13: Ability to teach single sentences**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Excellent | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Good      | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| Fair      | 11               | 55.0           | 60.0                |
| Poor      | 7                | 35.0           | 95.0                |
| Very poor | 1                | 5.0            | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

As reflected in Table 4.13, 55% of respondents indicated that they had a fair ability to teach single sentences, while 5% indicated that they had a good ability. A further 35% indicated that they have a poor ability to teach single sentences. This implies that a significant 40% of respondents had at least a poor ability to teach single sentences, while 60% of respondents had at least a fair ability to do so.

#### 4.3.3.4 Ability to teach paragraphs

**Table 4.14: Ability to teach paragraphs**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Excellent | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Good      | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| Fair      | 6                | 30.            | 35.0                |
| Poor      | 10               | 50.0           | 85.0                |
| Very poor | 3                | 15.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

According to Table 4.14, 50% of respondents indicated that they had a poor ability to teach paragraphs, while 15% indicated that they had a very poor ability to teach paragraphs. The majority of respondents (65%) therefore had at least a poor ability to teach paragraphs. Thirty percent (30%) of respondents indicated that they had a fair ability to teach paragraphs, while only 5% of respondents indicated that they had a good ability to teach paragraphs.

#### 4.3.3.5. Ability to teach phonemic awareness

**Table 4.15: Ability to teach phonemic awareness**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Excellent | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Good      | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| Fair      | 4                | 20.0           | 25.0                |
| Poor      | 12               | 60.0           | 85.0                |
| Very poor | 3                | 15.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

As reflected in Table 4.15, the majority of respondents (60%) indicated that they had a poor ability to teach phonemic awareness, while 15% indicated a very poor ability to teach phonemic awareness. This implies that three quarters of respondents had at least a poor ability to teach phonemic awareness. Twenty percent (20%) of respondents indicated that they had a fair ability to teach phonemic awareness, while only 5% of respondents indicated that they had a good ability to teach phonemic awareness. This finding is a concern, especially because phonemic awareness was shown over the past four decades to be an invaluable determinant of early reading success (Pretorius et al., 2016). Learners who were taught phonemic awareness by most respondents in this study could be expected to struggle in their endeavor to learn how to read, and this is in line with results by Black (1991).

Reading aloud, which is recognised by Little and Hines (2006), as one of the most effective ways of installing phonemic awareness in learners, as well as a means of improving learners' comprehension according to Minskoff (2005), was found not to be in use, as a reading strategy in all the five schools observed. This should be a concern to the DBE.

#### 4.3.3.6 Ability to teach syllable recognition

**Table 4.16: Ability to teach syllable recognition**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Excellent | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Good      | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Fair      | 5                | 25.0           | 25.0                |
| Poor      | 11               | 55.0           | 80.0                |
| Very poor | 4                | 20.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.16 reflects that most respondents (55%) indicated that they had a poor ability to teach syllable recognition, while a further 20% indicated that they had a very poor ability to teach syllable recognition. Twenty-five percent (25%) of respondents indicated that they had a fair ability to teach syllable recognition. The implication is that three-quarters of respondents indicated that they had at least a poor ability to teach syllable recognition. Learners who lack phonemic awareness have a problem recognising syllables, as a result, they struggle to become successful readers throughout their schooling years (Black, 1991; Dennis, 2008).

#### 4.3.3.7 Ability to teach text comprehension

**Table 4.17: Ability to teach text comprehension**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Excellent | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Good      | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Fair      | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| Poor      | 7                | 35.0           | 40.0                |
| Very poor | 12               | 60.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.17 indicates that most respondents (60%) indicated that they had a very poor ability to teach text comprehension. According to the Month, (2018); Leung et al., (2014), Foundation Phase teachers are confused on how best they are to introduce English as a second language in the classroom. Thirty-five percent (35%) of respondents indicated that they had a poor ability to teach text comprehension. This implies that an overwhelming 95% of respondents reflected at least a poor ability to teach text comprehension. Only 5% of respondents indicated that they had a fair ability to teach text comprehension.

#### 4.3.3.8 Ability to teach vocabulary

**Table 4.18: Ability to teach vocabulary**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Excellent | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Good      | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Fair      | 2                | 10.0           | 10.0                |
| Poor      | 7                | 35.0           | 45.0                |
| Very poor | 11               | 55.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

According to Table 4.18, most respondents (55%) indicated that they had a very poor ability to teach vocabulary, while a further 35% indicated that they also had a poor ability to teach vocabulary. Only 10% of respondents indicated that they had a fair ability to teach vocabulary. An overwhelming 90% of respondents, therefore, had at least a poor ability to teach vocabulary. Learners who have a limited vocabulary because of teachers' inability to teach vocabulary are slow to progress in reading (Donald et al., 2002; Milton, 2012).

#### **4.3.4 TEACHERS' USE OF VARIOUS STRATEGIES TO OVERCOME TEACHING CHALLENGES IN READING**

This section provides findings on the use of various strategies by the respondents, to overcome challenges in teaching reading, and the extent of use of such strategies. It covered research question 3 where teachers were assessed on strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers. The following was observed: organising extra classes especially for learners who struggle on different reading skills, paying attention to learners' individual reading needs, reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words, emphasising the relationship between a letter and its sound, making use of the learners' home language, improvising shortage of resources, involving learner's parents in their children's reading, encouraging learners to read what they have written,

giving learners time for reading and involving authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce.

#### 4.3.4.1 Organising extra classes especially for learners who struggle on different reading skills

**Table 4.19: Organising extra classes especially for learners who struggle on different reading skills**

|           | Frequency | Percent | Cumulative % |
|-----------|-----------|---------|--------------|
| Always    | 0         | 0       | 0            |
| Often     | 0         | 0       | 0            |
| Sometimes | 7         | 35.0    | 35.0         |
| Rarely    | 5         | 25.0    | 60.0         |
| Never     | 8         | 40.0    | 100.0        |
| Total     | 20        | 100.0   | 100.0        |

As reflected in Table 4.19, only 35% of respondents indicated that they sometimes organise extra classes in reading for struggling learners. Twenty-five percent (25%) of respondents indicated that they rarely do it, while a significant 40% indicated that they never organise extra classes for struggling learners. This is a great concern, because a significant number of learners were observed to be struggling to read, during observation schedules conducted by the researcher. It appears as though most of the respondents were content with the underachievement by most learners, whose reading ability was below par.

#### 4.3.4.2. Paying attention to learners' individual reading needs

**Table 4.20: Paying attention to learners' individual reading needs**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Always    | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Often     | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| Sometimes | 5                | 25.0           | 30.0                |
| Rarely    | 7                | 35.0           | 65.0                |
| Never     | 7                | 35.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.20 indicates that only 5% of respondents paid attention to learners' individual reading needs on a regular basis, while 25% of respondents did so occasionally. Thirty-five percent (35%) of respondents indicated that they rarely give the individual attention to learners, while a further 35% of respondents indicated that they never give learners individual attention, according to their reading needs. Teachers need a professional development that would cater for the different needs of their learners (Skerret, 2011).

#### 4.3.4.3 Reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words

**Table 4.21: Reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Always    | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Often     | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| Sometimes | 5                | 25.0           | 30.0                |
| Rarely    | 10               | 50.0           | 80.0                |
| Never     | 4                | 20.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

As reflected in Table 4.41, only 5% of the respondents indicated that they regularly use reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words. Twenty-five percent (25%) of the respondents indicated that they use reinforcement sometimes, while half the respondents indicated that they rarely use such reinforcement. Twenty percent (20%) of respondents indicated that they never use reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words.

#### 4.3.4.4 Emphasising the relationship between a letter and its sound

**Table 4.22: Emphasising the relationship between a letter and its sound**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Always    | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Often     | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Sometimes | 4                | 20.0           | 20.0                |
| Rarely    | 6                | 30.0           | 50.0                |
| Never     | 10               | 50.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

In terms of Table 4.22, half of the respondents never emphasise the relationship between a letter and its sound, as a strategy in the teaching of reading English. Thirty percent (30%) of respondents indicated that they rarely use such a strategy, while only 20% of respondents use it sometimes. Teachers should give effective lessons on letters of the alphabet as they are crucial because readers should figure out what each letter represents (Armbruster, 2010).

#### 4.3.4.5 Making use of the learners' home language

**Table 4.23: Making use of the learners' home language**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Always    | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| Often     | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Sometimes | 4                | 20.0           | 25.0                |
| Rarely    | 7                | 35.0           | 60.0                |
| Never     | 8                | 40.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

As reflected in Table 4.23, only 5% of respondents made use of learners' home language regularly, while 20% did so sometimes. Thirty percent (30%) of the respondents indicated that they rarely made use of the learners' home language, while half of the respondents never made use of it. Code-switching, which involves using the learners' home language to aid learning of the FAL, has been shown in various studies to be fruitful practice (Month, 2018). It is a concern that respondents in this study were either ignorant of this strategy or failed to attach value to it.

#### 4.3.4.7 Involving learners' parents in their children's reading

**Table 4.25: Involving learners' parents in their children's reading**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Always    | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Often     | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| Sometimes | 2                | 10.0           | 15.0                |
| Rarely    | 9                | 45.0           | 60.0                |
| Never     | 8                | 40.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

As reflected in Table 4.25, only 5% of the respondents indicated that they often involved the learners' parents in their children's reading. Ten percent (10%) of the respondents indicated that they sometimes involved the learners' parents, while 45% of respondents indicated that they rarely did so. A significant 40% of respondents indicated that they never involved learners' parents in their children's reading. Although this is a great concern, the lack of involvement of parents by the teachers may be attributed to the fact that most parents in rural areas are illiterate, and can thus not provide assistance to their children; absence of a strong-home relationship in this study can be expected to lead to compromised learners' ability to read in line with findings by Sanders and Sheldon (2009).

#### 4.3.4.8 Encouraging learners to read what they have written

**Table 4.26: Encouraging learners to read what they have written**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Always    | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Often     | 1                | 5.0            | 5.0                 |
| Sometimes | 2                | 10.0           | 15.0                |
| Rarely    | 6                | 30.0           | 45.0                |
| Never     | 11               | 55.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

In terms of Table 4.26, only 5% of respondents indicated that they often encouraged learners to read what they have written. Ten percent (10%) of respondents indicated that they sometimes encouraged learners to do so, while 30% of respondents rarely encouraged the learners to read what they have written. Most respondents (55%) indicated that they never encouraged learners to read what they have written, but learners can best read what they composed, either verbally or in writing (Foertsch, 2003).

#### 4.3.4.9 Giving learners time for reading

**Table 4.27: Giving learners time for reading**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Always    | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Often     | 13               | 65.0           | 65.0                |
| Sometimes | 1                | 5.0            | 70.0                |
| Rarely    | 6                | 30.0           | 100.0               |
| Never     | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.29 presents data on the giving of time for reading to learners. Sixty-five percent (65%) of respondents indicated that they often gave learners time to read, while 5% of respondents indicated that they only did so sometimes. A significant 30% of respondents indicated that they rarely gave learners time to read.

This is in line with PIRLS' (2016) findings, that showed that South African teachers spend only 10% of instructional hours on reading, compared to the Russian Federation (the top performing country in PIRLS), which spent 41%. Practice can definitely be said to make perfect in this matter. The fact that South African learners generally have poorly developed reading skills as posited by Pretorius and Machet (2004), comes as no surprise on the backdrop of this finding.

#### 4.3.4.10 Involving authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce

**Table 4.28: Involving authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce**

|           | <b>Frequency</b> | <b>Percent</b> | <b>Cumulative %</b> |
|-----------|------------------|----------------|---------------------|
| Always    | 0                | 0              | 0                   |
| Often     | 3                | 15.0           | 15.0                |
| Sometimes | 1                | 5.0            | 20.0                |
| Rarely    | 4                | 20.0           | 40.0                |
| Never     | 12               | 60.0           | 100.0               |
| Total     | 20               | 100.0          | 100.0               |

Table 4.28 presents data on the extent of involving authorities by respondents in case of scarcity of necessary reading resources. Fifteen percent (15%) of respondents indicated that they often engage authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce, whereas a further 5% of respondents indicated that they sometimes do so. Twenty percent (20%) of the respondents indicated that they rarely engaged authorities when necessary reading resources got scarce, while a significant majority (60%) of respondents indicated that they never engaged authorities in such cases.

#### 4.4 PRESENTATION OF OBSERVATION RESULTS

The observation sheet had eight sections. The first section was observing the number of learners in class; the second section was observing the length of the lesson; the third section was observing the reading skills covered during the lesson, the fourth section was observing teacher activities done during the lesson, the fifth section was observing seating arrangement during observation, the sixth section was observing teacher feedback, the seventh section was observing reading material used during the lesson, and the lastly, the eighth section was observing reading approach covered during the lesson.

**4.4.1 SCHOOL A**

**4.4.1.1 CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL**

**4.4.1.1.1 Number of learners in the observed class**

**Table 4.29: Number of learners in the observed class**

|              |     |
|--------------|-----|
| 70 and above | No  |
| 50-59        | Yes |
| 40-49        | No  |
| Below forty  | No  |

There were between 50 and 59 learners in the observed class.

**4.4.1.1.2 Length of a lesson**

**Table 4.30: Length of a lesson**

|            |     |
|------------|-----|
| 30 minutes | Yes |
| 1 hour     | No  |

The observed lesson lasted for 30 minutes.

#### 4.4.1.1.3 Reading skills covered in the lesson

**Table 4.31: Reading skills covered in the lesson**

|                                  |     |
|----------------------------------|-----|
| Skimming                         | No  |
| Scanning                         | No  |
| Comprehension                    | Yes |
| Extensive reading                | No  |
| Intensive reading                | No  |
| Reading for gist                 | No  |
| Reading for specific information | No  |
| Asking questions to the teacher  | No  |
| Asking questions to each other   | No  |
| Writing on their exercise books  | No  |
| Reading silently                 | No  |

Only one reading skill of the many existing ones was observed. Comprehension was the only reading skill that was observed.

#### 4.4.1.1.4 Reading materials

**Table 4.35: Reading materials**

|                  |     |
|------------------|-----|
| Graded readers   | No  |
| Prescribed books | Yes |
| Newspapers       | No  |
| Magazines        | No  |
| Paper books      | No  |
| Tablets          | No  |
| Mobile phones    | No  |
| Laptops          | No  |
| Desktops         | No  |

The researcher observed that the only reading material which is the prescribed books was used.

#### 4.4.1.2 LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNER’S SPECIFIC READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH

##### FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING

##### 4.4.1.2.1 Teacher activities

**Table 4.32: Teacher activities**

|                                     |     |
|-------------------------------------|-----|
| Writing on the board                | Yes |
| Using wall charts                   | No  |
| Eliciting information from learners | No  |
| Giving instructions                 | Yes |
| Answering learners ‘questions       | No  |
| Giving feedback to learners         | Yes |
| Providing reading materials         | Yes |
| Providing reading opportunities     | Yes |
| Correcting learners’ reading        | Yes |

The teacher wrote the date on the chalkboard. She gave an instruction for learners to take out their workbooks and read a story and that after reading aloud, they should answer questions in the workbook. Teacher activities were not done where the following skills were observed viz.: using wall charts, eliciting information from learners, answering learners ‘questions, giving feedback to learners, providing reading materials and providing reading opportunities and correcting learners’ reading.

#### 4.4.1.3 STRATEGIES FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF READING BY GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS

##### 4.4.1.3.1 Teacher feedback

**Table 4.33: Teacher feedback**

|            |     |
|------------|-----|
| Individual | No  |
| Pair       | No  |
| Group      | No  |
| Class      | Yes |

Teachers' feedback was never given to individual, pair or group of learners but to the whole class.

#### 4.4.1.3.2 Seating arrangement

**Table 4.34: Seating arrangement**

|                   |     |
|-------------------|-----|
| Horse-shoe        | No  |
| Groups            | No  |
| Pairs             | No  |
| Individuals       | Yes |
| Movable Furniture | Yes |
| Fixed furniture   | No  |
| Rows              | Yes |

Concerning seating arrangement, it was good to observe that seating arrangement was informed by the nature of the reading lesson. Learners observed social distancing. The school had movable furniture, which works in favour of flexibility for the different reading lessons. Learners were not arranged in horseshoe, groups, or pairs. They were seated on movable furniture.

#### 4.4.1.3.3 Reading approach

**Table 4.36: Reading approach**

|                         |     |
|-------------------------|-----|
| Top-down                | No  |
| Bottom-up               | Yes |
| The meta-cognitive view | No  |

The teacher did not use top-down and the meta-cognitive reading approaches but bottom-up as reading strategy.

## 4.4.2 SCHOOL B

### 4.4.2.1 CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL

#### 4.4.2.1.1 Number of learners in the observed class

**Table 4.37: Number of learners in the observed class**

|              |     |
|--------------|-----|
| 70 and above | No  |
| 50-59        | No  |
| 40-49        | Yes |
| Below forty  | No  |

The researcher observed that the number of learners that were in class was 40-49.

#### 4.4.2.1.2 Length of a lesson

**Table 4.38: Length of a lesson**

|            |     |
|------------|-----|
| 30 minutes | Yes |
| 1 hour     | No  |

The length of a lesson observed was 30 minutes.

#### 4.4.2.1.3 Reading skills covered in the lesson

**Table 4.39: Reading skills covered in the lesson**

|                                  |     |
|----------------------------------|-----|
| Skimming                         | No  |
| Scanning                         | No  |
| Comprehension                    | Yes |
| Extensive reading                | No  |
| Intensive reading                | No  |
| Reading for gist                 | No  |
| Reading for specific information | No  |
| Asking questions to the teacher  | No  |
| Asking questions to each other   | No  |
| Writing on their exercise books  | Yes |
| Reading silently                 | No  |

Comprehension and writing in their exercise books involved the reading skills that the researcher observed.

#### 4.4.2.1.4 Reading materials

**Table 4.43: Reading materials**

|                  |     |
|------------------|-----|
| Graded readers   | No  |
| Prescribed books | Yes |
| Newspapers       | No  |
| Magazines        | No  |
| Paper books      | No  |
| Tablets          | No  |
| Mobile phones    | No  |
| Laptops          | No  |
| Desktops         | No  |

The teacher only used learners' prescribed books as reading material.

#### 4.4.2.2 LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNER'S SPECIFIC READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING

##### 4.4.2.2.1 Teacher activities

**Table 4.40: Teacher activities**

|                                     |     |
|-------------------------------------|-----|
| Writing on the board                | No  |
| Using wall charts                   | No  |
| Eliciting information from learners | No  |
| Giving instructions                 | Yes |
| Answering learners 'questions       | No  |
| Giving feedback to learners         | Yes |
| Providing reading materials         | Yes |
| Providing reading opportunities     | Yes |
| Correcting learners' reading        | Yes |

The researcher observed that the teacher gave instructions and feedback to the learners, providing reading materials, reading opportunities and correction of learners' reading.

#### 4.4.2.3 STRATEGIES FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF READING BY GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS

##### 4.4.2.3.1 Teacher feedback

**Table 4.41: Teacher feedback**

|            |     |
|------------|-----|
| Individual | No  |
| Pair       | No  |
| Group      | No  |
| Class      | Yes |

Teacher's feedback was not given to individual learners but to the whole class.

#### 4.4.2.3.2 Seating arrangement

**Table 4.42 Seating arrangement**

|                   |     |
|-------------------|-----|
| Horse-shoe        | No  |
| Groups            | No  |
| Pairs             | No  |
| Individuals       | Yes |
| Movable Furniture | Yes |
| Fixed furniture   | No  |
| Rows              | Yes |

Learners were not arranged in horseshoe, groups, or pairs. They were seated in rows on movable furniture individually,

#### 4.4.2.3.3 Reading approach

**Table 4.44: Reading approach**

|                         |     |
|-------------------------|-----|
| Top-down                | No  |
| Bottom-up               | Yes |
| The meta-cognitive view | No  |

Bottom-up approach was observed by the researcher.

### 4.4.3 SCHOOL C

#### 4.4.3.1 CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL

#### 4.4.3.1.1 Number of learners in the observed class

**Table 4.45: Number of learners in the observed class**

|              |     |
|--------------|-----|
| 70 and above | No  |
| 50-59        | No  |
| 40-49        | Yes |
| Below forty  | No  |

Learners observed by the researcher were 40-49.

#### 4.4.3.1.2 Length of a lesson

**Table 4.46: Length of a lesson**

|            |     |
|------------|-----|
| 30 minutes | Yes |
| 1 hour     | No  |

The teacher observed by the researcher taught for the length of the 30 minutes.

#### 4.4.3.1.3 Reading skills covered in the lesson

**Table 4.47: Reading skills covered in the lesson**

|                                  |     |
|----------------------------------|-----|
| Skimming                         | No  |
| Scanning                         | No  |
| Comprehension                    | Yes |
| Extensive reading                | No  |
| Intensive reading                | No  |
| Reading for gist                 | No  |
| Reading for specific information | No  |
| Asking questions to the teacher  | No  |
| Asking questions to each other   | No  |
| Writing on their exercise books  | Yes |
| Reading silently                 | No  |

The researcher observed that the reading skills covered were comprehension and writing in their exercise books.

#### 4.4.3.1.4 Reading materials

**Table 4.51: Reading materials**

|                  |     |
|------------------|-----|
| Graded readers   | No  |
| Prescribed books | Yes |
| Newspapers       | No  |
| Magazines        | No  |
| Paper books      | No  |
| Tablets          | No  |
| Mobile phones    | No  |
| Laptops          | No  |
| Desktops         | No  |

Prescribed books were the only reading material used during reading lesson.

### 4.4.3.2 LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNER'S SPECIFIC READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING

#### 4.4.3.2.1 Teacher activities

**Table 4.48: Teacher activities**

|                                     |     |
|-------------------------------------|-----|
| Writing on the board                | No  |
| Using wall charts                   | No  |
| Eliciting information from learners | No  |
| Giving instructions                 | Yes |
| Answering learners 'questions       | No  |
| Giving feedback to learners         | Yes |
| Providing reading materials         | Yes |

|                                 |    |
|---------------------------------|----|
| Providing reading opportunities | No |
| Correcting learners' reading    | No |

The teacher gave an instruction for learners to take out their workbooks as their reading material and instructed them to answer questions in the workbook. Feedback was given to the whole class.

#### **4.4.3.3 STRATEGIES FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF READING BY GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS**

##### **4.4.3.3.1 Teacher feedback**

**Table 4.49: Teacher feedback**

|            |     |
|------------|-----|
| Individual | No  |
| Pair       | No  |
| Group      | No  |
| Class      | Yes |

The teacher gave feedback to the whole class after marking the comprehension test. In that way, individual errors were not addressed.

##### **4.4.3.3.2 Seating arrangement**

**Table 4.50: Seating arrangement**

|                   |     |
|-------------------|-----|
| Horseshoe         | No  |
| Groups            | No  |
| Pairs             | No  |
| Individuals       | Yes |
| Movable Furniture | Yes |
| Fixed furniture   | No  |
| Rows              | Yes |

The seating arrangement was appropriate in the school as it was informed by the COVID

19 rules and regulations. Furniture was movable, which works in favour of flexibility for the different reading lessons. Learners were only 20 in class and social distancing was observed. Learners were not arranged in horseshoe, groups, or pairs. They were seated in rows, the seating arrangement was not informed by the nature of the reading lesson.

#### 4.4.3.3 Reading approach

**Table 4.52: Reading approach**

|                         |     |
|-------------------------|-----|
| Top-down                | No  |
| Bottom-up               | Yes |
| The meta-cognitive view | No  |

The reading approach which covered the following: top-down and the meta-cognitive view was not done during reading lesson but a bottom-up approach was observed.

#### 4.4.4 SCHOOL D

##### 4.4.4.1 CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL

###### 4.4.4.1.1 Number of learners in the observed class

**Table 4.53: Number of learners in the observed class**

|              |     |
|--------------|-----|
| 70 and above | No  |
| 50-59        | No  |
| 40-49        | Yes |
| Below forty  | No  |

The number of learners in the observed class was 40-49.

#### 4.4.4.1.2 Length of a lesson

**Table 4.54: Length of a lesson**

|            |     |
|------------|-----|
| 30 minutes | Yes |
| 1 hour     | No  |

The teacher taught for the length of 30 minutes.

#### 4.4.4.1.3 Reading skills covered in the lesson

**Table 4.55: Reading skills covered in the lesson**

|                                  |     |
|----------------------------------|-----|
| Skimming                         | No  |
| Scanning                         | No  |
| Comprehension                    | Yes |
| Extensive reading                | No  |
| Intensive reading                | No  |
| Reading for gist                 | No  |
| Reading for specific information | No  |
| Asking questions to the teacher  | No  |
| Asking questions to each other   | No  |
| Writing on their exercise books  | Yes |
| Reading silently                 | No  |

Learners were only asked to read aloud and answer a comprehension test from the workbook in their exercise book.

#### 4.4.4.1.4 Reading materials

**Table 4.59: Reading materials**

|                  |     |
|------------------|-----|
| Graded readers   | No  |
| Prescribed books | Yes |
| Newspapers       | No  |
| Magazines        | No  |
| Paper books      | No  |
| Tablets          | No  |
| Mobile phones    | No  |
| Laptops          | No  |
| Desktops         | No  |

Learners were asked to take their workbooks and read at once. There were no other reading materials like newspapers, magazines, graded readers, paper books, tablets, mobile phones, laptops or desktops that were used.

#### 4.4.4.2 LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNER'S SPECIFIC READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING

##### 4.4.4.2.1 Teacher activities

**Table 4.56: Teacher activities**

|                                     |     |
|-------------------------------------|-----|
| Writing on the board                | No  |
| Using wall charts                   | No  |
| Eliciting information from learners | No  |
| Giving instructions                 | Yes |
| Answering learners 'questions       | No  |
| Giving feedback to learners         | Yes |
| Providing reading materials         | Yes |
| Providing reading opportunities     | No  |
| Correcting learners' reading        | No  |

The teacher provided reading materials and gave instructions that learners should write their comprehension test from the workbooks. After writing, the teacher gave feedback to learners after marking.

#### **4.4.4.3 STRATEGIES FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF READING BY GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS**

##### **4.4.4.3.1 Teacher feedback**

**Table 4.57: Teacher feedback**

|            |     |
|------------|-----|
| Individual | Yes |
| Pair       | No  |
| Group      | No  |
| Class      | No  |

The researcher observed that school D had individual attention in the form of teacher feedback given to individual learners, after marking the comprehension test. In that way, individual errors were addressed.

##### **4.4.4.3.2 Seating arrangement**

**Table 4.58: Seating arrangement**

|                   |     |
|-------------------|-----|
| Horseshoe         | No  |
| Groups            | No  |
| Pairs             | No  |
| Individuals       | Yes |
| Movable Furniture | Yes |
| Fixed furniture   | No  |
| Rows              | Yes |

The seating arrangement was appropriate in the school, and furniture was movable, which works in favour of flexibility for the different reading lessons. Learners were not arranged in horseshoe, groups, or pairs. They were seated in rows; the seating arrangement was

not informed by the nature of the reading lesson.

#### **4.4.4.3.3 Reading approach**

**Table 4.60: Reading approach**

|                         |     |
|-------------------------|-----|
| Top-down approach       | No  |
| Bottom-up approach      | Yes |
| The meta-cognitive view | No  |

The teacher used a reading approach which covered the bottom-up approach; top-down and the meta-cognitive view during reading lesson were not used.

### **4.4.5 SCHOOL E**

#### **4.4.5.1 CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE IN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL**

##### **4.4.5.1.1 Number of learners in the observed class**

**Table 4.61: Number of learners in the observed class**

|              |     |
|--------------|-----|
| 70 and above | No  |
| 50-59        | No  |
| 40-49        | Yes |
| Below forty  | No  |

Results from observations revealed that the school had between 40-49 learners in the class; although these ratios would have to appear reasonable and acceptable to most teachers in rural schools, they are still above the ratio 1:35 recommended by the DBE. The class is too overcrowded for individual reading.

#### 4.4.5.1.2 Length of a lesson

**Table 4.62: Length of a lesson**

|            |     |
|------------|-----|
| 30 minutes | Yes |
| 1 hour     | No  |

The teacher taught only for the duration of 30 minutes.

#### 4.4.5.1.3 Reading skills covered in the lesson

**Table 4.63: Reading skills covered in the lesson**

|                                  |     |
|----------------------------------|-----|
| Skimming                         | No  |
| Scanning                         | No  |
| Comprehension                    | Yes |
| Extensive reading                | No  |
| Intensive reading                | No  |
| Reading for gist                 | No  |
| Reading for specific information | No  |
| Asking the teacher questions     | No  |
| Asking each other questions      | No  |
| Writing in their exercise books  | Yes |
| Reading silently                 | No  |

Learners struggled to read and as a result, skimming, scanning, doing extensive reading, intensive reading, reading for gist and reading for specific information was not shown. The teacher read the story from the workbook and asked learners to answer comprehension test in their workbook.

#### 4.4.5.1.4 Reading materials

**Table 4.67: Reading materials**

|                  |     |
|------------------|-----|
| Graded readers   | No  |
| Prescribed books | Yes |
| Newspapers       | No  |
| Magazines        | No  |
| Paper books      | No  |
| Tablets          | No  |
| Mobile phones    | No  |
| Laptops          | No  |
| Desktops         | No  |

The teacher did not improvise for shortage of resources maybe because she is teaching in a rural school. She only used the workbooks as supplied by the Department of Education.

#### 4.4.5.2 LEVELS OF TEACHING LEARNER'S SPECIFIC READING SKILLS IN ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING

##### 4.4.5.2.1 Teacher activities

**Table 4.64: Teacher activities**

|                                     |     |
|-------------------------------------|-----|
| Writing on the board                | No  |
| Using wall charts                   | No  |
| Eliciting information from learners | No  |
| Giving instructions                 | No  |
| Answering learners 'questions       | No  |
| Giving feedback to learners         | Yes |
| Providing reading materials         | Yes |
| Providing reading opportunities     | No  |
| Correcting learners' reading        | No  |

The teacher did not get students to engage in activities like providing them with reading opportunities. What learners do is more important than what teachers do. The teacher only gave instructions to learners that they should answer comprehension test from the workbooks. Teacher activities where the following skills were observed, writing on the board, using wall charts, eliciting information from learners, correcting learners' reading, answering learners' questions were not done in the reading class, but feedback was given to all learners.

#### **4.4.5.3 STRATEGIES FOR MORE EFFECTIVE TEACHING OF READING BY GRADE 4 ENGLISH FAL TEACHERS**

##### **4.4.5.3.1 Teacher feedback**

**Table 4.65: Teacher feedback**

|            |     |
|------------|-----|
| Individual | No  |
| Pair       | No  |
| Group      | No  |
| Class      | Yes |

The researcher observed that teacher's feedback was given to the whole class.

##### **4.4.5.3.2 Seating arrangement**

**Table 4.66: Seating arrangement**

|                   |     |
|-------------------|-----|
| Horseshoe         | No  |
| Groups            | No  |
| Pairs             | No  |
| Individuals       | Yes |
| Movable Furniture | Yes |
| Fixed furniture   | No  |
| Rows              | Yes |

The seating arrangement was appropriate in the school as it was informed by the COVID

19 rules and regulations. The furniture was movable, which worked in favour of flexibility for the different reading lessons. Learners were not arranged in horseshoe, groups, or pairs. They were seated in rows. The seating arrangement was not informed by the nature of the reading lesson.

#### 4.4.5.3.3 Reading approach

**Table 4.68: Reading approach**

|                         |     |
|-------------------------|-----|
| Top-down                | No  |
| Bottom-up               | Yes |
| The meta-cognitive view | No  |

The Bottom-up approach to reading was the only approach the teacher used.

### 4.5 CONSOLIDATION OF EACH CATEGORY IN A TABLE REPRESENTING ALL SCHOOLS

The structure of consolidation may mean an intervention based on the need, this is the unification of two or more corporations by dissolution of existing ones and creating of a single new corporation (Garofalo, 2005; Roth 1988). In this study, the researcher consolidated results from questionnaire and observation and identified similarities and differences.

#### 4.5.1 DIFFERENCES

Aspects pertaining to the differences are covered next.

- A questionnaire may be defined as “a document containing questions and or other types of items designed to solicit information appropriate for analysis (Babbie, 2007) whereas observation schedules are used to directly observe people in their own natural environments (Grinnel & Unrau, 2008);

- The self-constructed questionnaire in the study was used and the questions used in the questionnaire were closed-ended, whereas structured observation schedules were used in this study;
- The questionnaires were piloted before administration to enhance validity and to rule out any ambiguities and flaws whereas no piloting was done in observation;
- After designing the questionnaire, it was administered to respondents in person and an explanation was given to the respondents on how the self-administered questionnaire should be responded to though the instructions were there. The self-administered questionnaires were collected from the respondents a week after distribution, but observation was conducted in class during reading lessons, and teachers were observed as they carried out reading lessons of English FAL. The researcher captured any challenges observed to be experienced by the teachers embracing availability of reading material, whether learners can read in class, as well as the reading competency levels of learners who were afforded such reading opportunities; and
- Under questionnaire, the following was observed: teachers said their classes were too overcrowded for individual reading when considering the teacher learner ratio whereas in observation, 1 school had 50-59 number of learners in the class and 4 had 40-49 learners.

#### **4.5.2 SIMILARITIES**

Similarities were identified to see in what way these classroom activities corresponded.

- Both questionnaires and observations form a component of the quantitative research paradigm;
- Necessary arrangements and appointments were made with the principals of the relevant schools by the researcher, to carry out the observation schedules and distribution of questionnaires to respondents;
- The questionnaires revealed that the school has a library with reading materials and in observation, reading materials observed were: graded readers, prescribed books, newspapers, magazines, paper books, tablets, mobile phones, laptops and desktops.
- Concerning the questionnaire, the following were observed: the ability to teach letters of the alphabet, single words, single sentences, paragraphs, phonemic

awareness, syllable recognition, alphabetic knowledge, word recognition, text comprehension and vocabulary were a primary focus. In addition, in observation, the reading approach covered the following: top-down and bottom-up reading and the meta-cognitive view that were also observed; and

- Concerning the questionnaire, the following were observed: organising extra classes especially for learners who struggled with different reading skills and under observation, teaching reading was observed. Furthermore, reading skills were covered in the lesson where the following were also observed: skimming, scanning, comprehension, extensive reading, intensive reading, reading for gist, reading for specific information, asking questions to the teacher, asking questions to each other, writing on their exercise books, reading silently and lastly, paying attention to learners' individual reading needs.

#### **4.6 CONSOLIDATION OF EACH CATEGORY IN A TABLE REPRESENTING ALL 5 SCHOOLS**

Structured observation schedules were used in this study, forming a component of the quantitative research paradigm, in conjunction with the questionnaire.

- 0 indicates the item was never observed in that school;
- 1 indicates the item was observed in 1 school;
- 2 indicates the item was observed in 2 schools;
- 3 indicates the item was observed in 3 schools;
- 4 indicates the item was observed in 4 schools; and
- 5 indicates the item was observed in 5 schools

##### **4.6.1 Number of learners in the observed class**

**Table 4.69: Number of learners in the observed class**

|              |   |
|--------------|---|
| 70 and above | 0 |
| 50-59        | 1 |
| 40-49        | 4 |
| Below forty  | 0 |

Results from observations, however, revealed that 4 of the schools under observation had between 40-49 learners in the class, with only school A having between 50-59 learners.

#### 4.6.2 Length of a lesson

**Table 4.70: Length of a lesson**

|            |   |
|------------|---|
| 30 minutes | 5 |
| 1 hour     | 0 |

Results from observation revealed that all teachers from 5 schools used 30 minutes during reading lesson, and the time was limited. Learners did not have time to ask questions, and after writing, no feedback was given to learners individually but to the whole.

#### 4.6.3 Reading skills covered in the lesson

**Table 4.71: Reading skills covered in the lesson**

|                                  |   |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Skimming                         | 0 |
| Scanning                         | 0 |
| Comprehension                    | 5 |
| Extensive reading                | 0 |
| Intensive reading                | 0 |
| Reading for gist                 | 0 |
| Reading for specific information | 0 |
| Asking questions to the teacher  | 0 |
| Asking questions to each other   | 0 |
| Writing on their exercise books  | 5 |
| Reading silently                 | 0 |

Results revealed that in all five schools, teachers covered comprehension as reading skills. All schools did not do the rest of the reading skills. Learners' ability to understand the passage they are reading is influenced by their recognition of words, and the linking of

various phrases and sentences thereby enhancing comprehension of the text in question (Donald et al., 2002; Klauda & Guthrie, 2008).

#### 4.6.4 Teacher activities

**Table 4.72: Teacher activities**

|                                     |   |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| Writing on the board                | 0 |
| Using wall charts                   | 0 |
| Eliciting information from learners | 0 |
| Giving instructions                 | 4 |
| Answering learners 'questions       | 0 |
| Giving feedback to learners         | 5 |
| Providing reading materials         | 5 |
| Providing reading opportunities     | 2 |
| Correcting learners' reading        | 2 |

All five teachers from five schools observed gave feedback to learners and provided reading materials, four teachers from five schools gave instruction, two provided reading opportunities and corrected learners' reading under teacher activities.

#### 4.6.5 Teacher feedback

**Table 4.73: Teacher feedback**

|            |   |
|------------|---|
| Individual | 1 |
| Pair       | 0 |
| Group      | 0 |
| Class      | 4 |

Four schools gave feedback to the whole class and one individually under teacher feedback.

#### 4.6.6 Seating arrangement

**Table 4.74: Seating arrangement**

|                   |   |
|-------------------|---|
| Horseshoe         | 0 |
| Groups            | 0 |
| Pairs             | 0 |
| Individuals       | 5 |
| Movable Furniture | 5 |
| Fixed furniture   | 0 |
| Rows              | 5 |

Findings revealed that in all five schools observed, learners were seated individually in rows using movable furniture.

#### 4.6.7 Reading materials

**Table 4.75: Reading materials**

|                  |   |
|------------------|---|
| Graded readers   | 0 |
| Prescribed books | 5 |
| Newspapers       | 0 |
| Magazines        | 0 |
| Paper books      | 0 |
| Tablets          | 0 |
| Mobile phones    | 0 |
| Laptops          | 0 |
| Desktops         | 0 |

All five participating schools observed used workbooks as their prescribed books and no other reading material.

#### 4.6.8 Reading approach

**Table 4.76: Reading approach**

|                         |   |
|-------------------------|---|
| Top-down                | 0 |
| Bottom-up               | 5 |
| The meta-cognitive view | 0 |

A bottom-up reading approach was observed in five schools.

### 4.7 DISCUSSION

The discussion was arranged in line with the following research objectives:

- teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers,
- levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies; and
- strategies can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers.

#### 4.7.1 Challenges in teaching Grade 4 English FAL teaching reading

Challenges experienced are explained in the next section.

##### 4.7.1.1 Number of learners in the observed class

Results from observation were that most teachers were teaching between 40-49 learners per class. This is what one would normally expect from rural schools, which are usually overcrowded (Mulaudzi, 2018). It cannot be denied that the presence of a poor family background is not tantamount to poor academic performance, but a disproportionately large number of learners from poor family backgrounds were observed to have poorer academic performance compared to their counterparts from well-to-do families, and actually ended up dropping out (Aud et al, 2012).

##### 4.7.1.2 Length of a lesson

Results from questionnaires and observation revealed that the length of a lesson was 30 minutes, which may be sufficient if the teacher records the lesson to take a more detailed

look at where she might be losing time, to avoid rushing through the lesson to 'squeeze in' individual learners' needs like the teacher did from one school observed, thereby compromising the standard of tuition. Timer may be used to gauge where the teacher should be in the lesson. If time is running out, the problem should be fixed (Davis, 2014).

#### **4.7.1.3 Reading material**

Results from the observation showed that all the schools the researcher observed, learners were issued with prescribed books. Various studies established that most of South African schools are not well equipped with libraries; in cases where libraries are there, most of them do not have books (Pretorius & Mampuru, 2007; Nengomasha, Uutoni & Yule, 2012). Learners in such schools can thus not be able to have access to a variety of reading materials and are unlikely to develop the love for reading.

#### **4.7.1.4 Reading skills covered in the lesson**

Results revealed that in all five the schools, both comprehension and writing were covered in the exercise books as reading skills. All the schools did not do the rest of the reading skills. The learners' ability to understand the passage they read was influenced by their recognition of words, and the linking of various phrases and sentences thereby enhancing comprehension of the text in question (Donald et al., 2002; Klauda & Guthrie, 2008).

The researcher found that most teachers (60%) indicated that they had a very poor ability to teach text comprehension that means text comprehension lessons were taught but poorly as teachers did not give themselves time to prepare. Ninety-five percent (95%) of respondents participating revealed in the questionnaire results at least a poor ability to teach text comprehension. Comprehension skills were not taught where learners were to be given an opportunity to read aloud, provided with books at the right level. They were not afforded the opportunity to engage in rereading to build fluency, talk to the teacher, supplement their class reading and talk about what they are reading. The results for the researcher's observations were, that all lessons were comprehension lessons although the lessons were comprehension ones, and teachers showed difficulty in teaching comprehension as all comprehension skills were not covered. According to the DBE

(2009), Leung et al., (2014), learners generally have poorly developed reading skills. They found in their studies that learners did not skim or scan, but few learners had comprehension of the story. Extensive reading, intensive reading, reading for gist, and reading for specific information were not done. Learners never asked questions to the teacher and to each other. Learners answered questions from the workbook. Learners were never given an opportunity to read silently. The fact that South African learners generally have poorly developed reading skills as posited by Pretorius and Machet (2004), came as no surprise when viewed against the backdrop of this finding.

#### **4.7.2 Levels of teaching learner's specific reading skills in English FAL language reading**

##### **4.7.2.1 Teacher activities**

It is a worrying factor that from observation findings, no reading material other than the prescribed books which in this case embraced the workbooks were used. It was also observed that, the school had colourful wall charts with different words written on them, but no reference to such words was ever made during the reading lesson. It really does not need any special resources to teach reading, because any teacher who does not have any personal reading material is arguably not suitable to teach reading, as they did not have the necessary passion for reading, to impart to learners. As for wall charts, they served the regrettable purpose of impressing the principal, circuit manager and any other authority that expects compliance by teachers.

Various studies established that most of South African schools are not well equipped with libraries; in cases where libraries are there, most of them do not have books (Pretorius & Mampuru, 2007; Nengomasha, Uutoni & Yule, 2012). Learners in such schools can thus not be able to have access to a variety of reading materials and are unlikely to develop the love for reading.

#### **4.7.2.2 Teacher feedback**

Results from the researcher's observation revealed that few teachers paid attention to learners' individual reading needs, but paid attention to the whole class. Common errors from most learners were addressed by the teacher during class feedback that is better than just a few individuals' errors addressed. There is a need for professional development among teachers that would cater for the different needs of their learners (Skerret, 2011). Teachers with no proper training are thus more likely to use the same approach for all their learners, thereby leaving some of their learners' reading needs unattended. Lack of teacher training is among some of the challenges that teachers in rural schools are more likely to face (Singh, 2010). Learners in rural schools are thus more likely to receive reading lessons that do not meet their needs, compared to their urban counterparts.

#### **4.7.3 Strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers**

Strategies to support more effective teaching are crucial to create an environment conducive to learning.

##### **4.7.3.1 Teaching approach**

The researcher's results of observations were overwhelming; it was found that teachers who were confused and hesitant on the teaching approach would yield the best outcomes. The teachers did not use top-down and the meta-cognitive reading approaches, but used a bottom-up approach. Reading of the text takes place simultaneously with extraction of meaning, and from the said text; it is quite understandable, that South Africa's curriculum transformation, which ranged from curriculum 2005, to RNCS, which ultimately became the NCS, and the CAPS, created a degree of 'tuition uncertainty'. One is compelled to believe findings by the Month (2018) that some teachers think that they should just facilitate the process of reading by learners, and not really teach reading.

The majority of teachers had ability to teach the bottom-up approach which comprises single words, single sentences, paragraphs, phonemic awareness, syllable recognition and vocabulary. An overwhelming majority were thus able to teach learners single words. As it is usually said that, "a journey of a thousand miles starts with a single step", all

teachers should strive to master the art of teaching single words. The results are a concern, especially because phonemic awareness was shown over the past four decades to be an invaluable determinant of early reading success (Pretorius et al., 2016). Learners who were taught phonemic awareness by many respondents in this study could arguably be expected to struggle in their endeavor to learn how to read, which is in line with results by Black (1991). In addition, learners who have a limited vocabulary as a result of teachers' inability to teach vocabulary are slow to progress in reading (Donald, Lazarus & Lolwana, 2002; Milton, 2012).

#### **4.8 CONCLUSION**

Rural schools' teachers face several challenges in their endeavor to teach English FAL reading. Some of such challenges are compounded by the rural setup in such schools. Man's nature usually dictates that a situation which has improved drastically from a hopeless situation should be embraced. It would not be surprising, therefore, if rural schools, which used to be highly overcrowded a few years ago, find their current ratios acceptable, they experience fewer, serious challenges. The next chapter deals with the conclusion to the study.

## CHAPTER 5

### SUMMARY OF RESULTS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

---

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The focus of this study was on investigating challenges that teachers face when teaching Grade 4 English FAL reading in rural schools of Dzindi Circuit in the Vhembe District. Questionnaires and structured observation schedules were used as instruments to collect quantitative data in this study. A literature review formed the theoretical reference for this study. The collected data were analysed and results were presented in Chapter 4. A summary of the results, conclusion and recommendations in relation to the study are presented in this chapter.

This study was guided by the following research objectives:

- To investigate teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers;
- To determine levels of teaching specific reading skills; and
- To establish strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers.

#### 5.2 SUMMARY OF RESULTS

A summary of results vis-à-vis this study on challenges faced by teachers when teaching Grade 4 English FAL reading in rural schools of Dzindi circuit in Vhembe District is presented in this section. This includes major results from both questionnaires and observation schedule. The summary is in line with the following research objectives: teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers, establishing levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies, and determining strategies that can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers as per the discussion carried out in the previous chapter.

### **5.2.1 A summary of results from responses to research questions**

A summary of the results concerning challenges is provided next.

#### **5.2.1.1 Teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers**

- **Demotivated teachers**

An overwhelming 85% of respondents were seriously confused on how best to teach English FAL reading. This should be a serious concern for the DBE, especially considering that South Africa did not perform well in many respects in 'PIRLS 2016'. Teachers who have been teaching English FAL reading for a long time obviously came to a stage of being able to tell 'what works' in the teaching of reading, and 'what does not work'. Moreover, their realisation compels them to conform to a new approach prescribed by a new curriculum, that is likely to demotivate such teachers, especially if their learners began to perform worse than before, after such a change. To such teachers, it becomes like 'fixing something that is not broken'.

- **Home language interference in the reading in English FAL**

80% majority of respondents were convinced that the learners' home language interfered to a greater extent, with their reading in English FAL. This is a serious finding which may have negative repercussions in relation to the attitude of teachers towards code-switching, which is an acceptable practice of using the home language occasionally, when necessary, for the sake of clarity to the learners. If teachers develop a negative attitude towards code-switching for fear of home language interference, it might work to the disadvantage of the learners.

#### **5.2.1.2 Effects of availability of a library on ability to read**

It was found that 55% of the respondents indicated availability of a library to have a serious effect on the learner's ability to read. The frustration that most teachers go through in their endeavor to make their learners master the art of reading, probably leads some of them to imagine that if they had a school library, such frustrations would be history. The fact that

all the schools observed did not have a school library supports this inference. Teachers should however take into consideration the fact that availability of a library does not instil in learners the culture of reading, but they can instil such a culture through the use of a 'reading corner' in class.

### **5.2.1.3 The effect of overcrowded classrooms on individual reading**

A significant 65% majority of respondents were of the view that overcrowded classrooms did not have any effect on individual reading. From observation and teacher-learner ratio responses from questionnaires, the English FAL reading classes were not seriously overcrowded, although they were all above the departmental recommendations of 1:35. As more parents, even in rural villages, either get educated or start to believe that better education is found in urban areas; they tend to take their children from rural schools to schools in town. This reduces the overwhelming pressure of overcrowded classrooms in rural schools.

## **5.2.2 Levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies**

Levels pertaining to certain linguistic competences exert an influence on successful reading.

### **5.2.2.1 Ability to teach letters of the alphabet, single words, single sentences and paragraphs**

It is evident from responses by the respondents that their ability to teach deteriorated from 'teaching letters of the alphabet', 'through teaching single words' and single sentences to 'teaching paragraphs', as 90% of the respondents could at least teach letters of the alphabet fairly, while only 35% of the respondents could at least teach paragraphs fairly. This implies that the more complex it gets, the more confused the teachers become, on what the best approach in teaching would be. Reading aloud was not used in any of the schools observed, as a reading strategy.

### **5.2.2.2 Ability to teach phonemic awareness, syllable recognition, text comprehension and vocabulary**

The respondents' ability to teach phonemic awareness, syllable recognition text comprehension and vocabulary was at least poor in the three-quarters (75%) of the cases. This should be a very serious concern for education authorities. Through inference, the confusion of respondents who indicated they were uncertain of the approach to be followed in teaching English FAL reading is evident in the poor ability of most respondents to teach.

### **5.2.3 Strategies that can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers**

#### **5.2.3.1 Organising extra classes for struggling learners**

The 40% majority of respondents either rarely or never organised extra classes for struggling learners. This raises eyebrows, especially because most of the respondents are highly qualified, with vast experience in their teaching career. The fact that parental support in rural schools is usually lacking, and that academic qualifications and experience do not necessarily give rise to passion for the teaching profession, extra classes imply going an extra mile, and making a lot of sacrifices. These above-mentioned aspects are some of the probable reasons for the passive stance by teachers.

#### **5.2.3.2 Paying attention to learners' individual reading needs**

The 35% of the respondents either never paid attention to learners individual reading needs, or rarely did so. The culture of not expecting any 'extraordinary' performance by learners in rural schools may give teachers in rural schools the comfort of having done enough, by simply giving reading lessons to the whole class, rather than any special attention to individual learners.

#### **5.2.3.3 Reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words**

The 50% of respondents either rarely or never reinforced learners' ability to recite words. The value of both positive and negative reinforcement even in the reading in English FAL

cannot be overemphasised. When learners are praised or receive a little token from the teacher for reciting correctly, it serves as a motivating factor for them to do more, and on the other hand learners from whom praise or a token is withheld become demotivated.

#### **5.2.3.4 Emphasising the relationship between a letter and its sound**

The 50% of respondents either rarely or never emphasised the relationship between a letter and its sound. This is not surprising in the light of the fact that most respondents lacked the ability to benefit from phonemic awareness. Letters and their sounds are arguably the foundation upon which any reading should be built. Ignoring or being ignorant of such a foundation may prove to be costly to learners' endeavor to learn.

#### **5.2.3.5 Making use of learners' home language**

The 40% of respondents either rarely or never made use of the learners' home language in their teaching of English FAL reading. Grade 4 learners were exposed to only their home language in their previous three grades, and whatever is said in their home language makes more sense than what may be said in a newly-introduced English home language. Teaching learners reading in English FAL without using their home language at all in such lessons is likely to make most of them to lose interest due to their failure to make sense of what is being taught.

#### **5.2.3.6 Improvising for shortage of resources**

There was 50% overwhelming lack of improvising for shortage resources by the respondents in this study. It is true that teachers in rural schools may experience resentment when donations of laptops or tablets are made to schools in cities all the time. This should however not discourage them from focusing on their duty to make effective learning possible, including improving when resources are scarce, or simply by making maximum use of what they have.

### **5.2.3.7 Involving learners' parents in their children's reading**

The 40% majority of respondents either rarely or never involved learner's parents in their children's reading. It is a well-known fact that parental support enhances a learner's ability to learn. Such support is usually not forthcoming from parents in rural areas, as in this study, most of them are usually illiterate.

### **5.2.3.8 Encouraging learners to read what they have written**

The 55% majority of respondents either rarely or never encouraged learners to read what they have written. What learners write, is what they would consider 'products of their own making', and they are likely to attach some importance and pride in such writings. The interest to read such writings would be automatic.

### **5.2.3.9 Giving learners time for reading**

Above sixty percent (65%) of the participating teachers afforded learners time for reading. 'Time' is a more precious resource than 'place'. If time is made available for learners to read, it becomes easier to secure a place where they can read, even if the school does not have a library. However, if the school has a library, but no time to set aside for reading, the availability of the library becomes meaningless. Teachers should expose learners to more valuable time for reading, as it is said that 'practice makes perfect'.

### **5.2.3.10 Involving authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce**

Sixty percent (60%) of respondents never involved authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce. Apart from improvising for lack of resources, teachers should also involve the authorities, alerting them of the lack of essential resources. It is true that teachers may give up, in the long run, when they realise that no help appears to be coming from such authorities. It should always be borne in mind that the School Governing Body (the SGB) is also there as a complementary structure, supporting the School Management Team (SMT) headed by the principal, to find solutions to the challenges within the school. Such scarce resources should also be brought to the attention of the SGB.

#### **5.2.4 Presented in this subsection is a summary of results from observations made by the researcher in terms of the observation schedule**

A summary was arranged in line with the following research objectives: teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers; levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies; and strategies can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers.

##### **5.2.4.1 Challenges in teaching Grade 4 English FAL teaching reading**

- **Number of learners in the observed class**

Four (4) of the schools under observation had between 40-49 learners in the class, with only school A having between 50-59 learners. Teaching an unreasonable number of learners is what one would normally expect from rural schools as they are usually overcrowded, although the environment is not conducive or effective to teach English FAL reading; as a result, teachers fail to assist and satisfy learners' needs and find it challenging to teach in overcrowded classrooms. Enough learners may result in higher achievement among learners who are disadvantaged and may result in learners with lower academic reading ability doing better. Large number of learners might affect learners' reading more significantly (Fink, 2013).

- **Length of the lesson**

The length of a lesson was 30 minutes, which may be sufficient if the teacher records the lesson to take a more detailed look at where she might be losing time, to avoid rushing through the lesson to 'squeeze in' individual learners' needs like the teacher did from one school observed, thereby compromising the standard of tuition. A timer may be used to gauge where the teacher should be in the lesson. If time is running over, the problem should be fixed (Davis, 2014).

- **Seating arrangement**

In all 5 schools observed, learners were seated individually in rows on movable furniture.

- **Reading material**

Five (5) schools covered both comprehension and writing in the exercise books as reading skills. Learners who are only given workbooks as prescribed books are unlikely to develop the love for reading. Variety of reading materials should be used, but if the schools are not well equipped with libraries, learners in such schools cannot be able to have access to a variety of reading materials.

- **Reading skills covered in the lesson**

Providing reading opportunities is one of the most effective ways of installing phonemic awareness in learners, as well as a means of improving learners' comprehension. This should be a concern to the DBE if the skill is not used.

#### **5.2.4.2 Levels of teaching learner's specific reading skills in English FAL reading**

- **Teacher activities**

All the teachers from the five schools gave feedback to learners and provided reading materials; four schools gave instructions, two provided reading opportunities and corrected learners' reading under teacher activities. The classroom should have 'talking' walls; in other words, the wall must have colourful wall charts with different words written on them. Reference to such words should be made during the reading lesson. It really does not need any special resources to teach reading, because teachers who do not have any personal reading material are arguably not suitable to teach reading, as they do not appear to have the necessary passion for reading, to inform the learners. As for wall charts, they seemingly served the regrettable purpose of impressing the principal, circuit manager and any other authority that expect compliance by teachers.

#### **5.2.4.3 Strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers**

- **Teaching approach**

The bottom-up reading approach was observed in five schools. Confused teachers were hesitant regarding the teaching approach that would yield the best outcomes. The teachers preferred to use one method to the other, that is the top-down, the meta-cognitive reading

and traditional bottom-up approaches. Teachers who teach the traditional bottom-up approach focus on single words, sentences, paragraphs, phonemic awareness, syllable recognition and vocabulary. “A journey of a thousand miles starts with a single step”, and all teachers must strive to master the art of teaching single words. Phonemic awareness was shown over the past four decades to be an invaluable determinant of early reading success (Chen, Zou, Cheng & Xie, 2020). Learners who were taught phonemic awareness could be expected to struggle in their endeavour to learn how to read; again, learners who have a limited vocabulary because of teachers’ inability to teach vocabulary are slow to show progress in reading.

### **5.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS ANSWERED BY THE RESEARCHER**

The research questions that guided the study are briefly answered by the researcher in this section.

- What are teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers?

Teachers in rural schools experienced many challenges with teaching the FAL. They had to bear in mind mother tongue interference and mother tongue attitudes that influenced the learners’ willingness to attempt read English as a FAL. The learners’ level of motivation was directly influenced by their language loyalty towards their mother tongue. Given the background of the South African context with a history impacted by Apartheid, it is understandable that the local language speakers preferred their own indigenous language since English is associated with the language of the colonials who oppressed the indigenous languages (Wolhuter, 2013). Yet, English is a medium with the potential to ensure communication across diverse linguistic boundaries. Teachers further experienced challenges with a shortage of time on the timetable. It surfaced that the number of learners per class was no longer the most prominent challenge. A lack on guidance regarding wallcharts emerged as a challenge.

- Which are the levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies?

It was revealed that the teachers had a high level of education and were competent to teach, but they lacked task-specific skills such as knowledge about the reading approaches to make the most of reading lessons. The school also lacked a library and teachers did not implement creative ways to supplement the reading resources. Some learners had books but others did not have.

- What strategies can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers?

Teachers need to attend workshops to learn the value of the various reading approaches. The fact that Grade 4 is part of foundational reading is critical. It underscores the importance of entrenching and scaffolding reading skills and habits. The value of wallcharts that are incorporated during reading lessons cannot be underestimated. The study achieved its objectives.

## **5.4 CONCLUSIONS**

The following conclusions were drawn from the results of this study based on the objectives of the study:

### **5.4.1 Demographic factors**

Demographics factors influence teaching of reading as evident from the following:

- There are many highly qualified and experienced teachers in rural schools who have the capacity to be able to effectively teach reading of English FAL to learners.
- The teacher-learner ratio, although not alarmingly high, is still higher than that recommended by the DBE in most rural schools.
- Most of the teachers in rural schools are still confused regarding the approach to pursue, in teaching English FAL reading.

### **5.4.2 Teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers**

Several challenges were identified:

- The availability of a library is valued by most of the teachers in rural schools, as a major source of good effect on the learners' ability to read in English FAL, and most rural schools do not have a library.
- Overcrowded classrooms are considered by most of the teachers in rural schools not to have any negative effect on individual reading, and most of the teachers in rural schools do not give learners any individual attention.

### **5.4.3 Levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies**

Most teachers in rural schools struggle immensely, in their endeavor to teach reading in English FAL, starting from the simple letters of the alphabet, until the complex paragraphs, and on a different scale, starting from teaching of phonemic awareness, up to the teaching of text comprehension and vocabulary.

### **5.4.4 Strategies that can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers**

Teaching strategies used to teach reading effectively are crucial to consider.

- Home language interference is considered a major negative factor in the reading of English FAL by most of the teachers in rural schools. The majority of the teachers in rural schools do not make use of the learners' home language in an effort to enable the learners to understand some concepts in English FAL reading;
- Most of the teachers in rural schools are neither accustomed to organising extra classes for struggling learners, nor to paying attention to learners' individual reading needs;
- There is no reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words, or any emphasis on the relationship between a letter and its sound, by most teachers in rural schools.
- There is no improvising for shortage of resources by most of the teachers in rural schools, with most of them using only the prescribed books as reading material, and the authorities are usually not notified of such shortage;
- Most of the teachers in rural schools do not involve the learners' parents in their children's reading, leading to the fact that most learners from rural schools lack that support from home, as they learn to read in English FAL;
- Learners are not given sufficient time for reading, and even when they are given such time, they are not encouraged to read what they have written.

## **5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The following recommendations were made in view of the results in this study based on the research questions:

### **5.5.1 Demographic factors**

The demographic factors also play a crucial role in reading development.

- The DBE should take advantage of the high qualifications and vast experience held by most teachers in rural schools, and empower such teachers through workshops on reading English FAL;
- Teachers in rural schools should not be complacent with teacher-learner ratios that have become much lower, compared to the past, but should aim at the recommended ratio, that promotes individual attention to learners.

### **5.5.2 Teaching challenges in reading faced by Grade 4 English FAL teachers**

Challenges are many and some of these issues are addressed next.

- The reigning culture in rural schools, of not giving individual attention to learners due to overcrowding, should not reign anymore, since class sizes continue to get smaller, and individual attention given to learners should become greater to ensure that no learners are left behind. This should also be coupled with the organising of extra classes for learners, that should go with appropriate incentives for the teachers concerned;
- Rural schools usually have an unreasonable number of learners as they are usually overcrowded, and the environment is not conducive for effective teaching of English FAL reading; as a result, teachers fail to assist and satisfy learners' needs teaching in overcrowded classrooms. A large number of learners result in higher achievement among learners who are disadvantaged and learners with a lower academic reading ability do better. A large number of learners affect learners' reading more significantly;
- The length of the reading lesson should at least be an hour. It is difficult for the teachers to give the learners individual attention if the length of the lesson is 30 minutes. Teachers should be given enough time to avoid rushing through the lesson to 'squeeze in' individual learners' needs as the standard of tuition is compromised;
- Learners must be given variety of reading materials to develop the love for reading. The schools should be well equipped with libraries so that learners are able to have access to a variety of reading materials; and

- Learners should be provided reading opportunities as one of the most effective ways of installing phonemic awareness in learners, as well as a means of improving learners' comprehension. It should be a concern to the DBE if comprehension reading skills are not used.

### **5.5.3 Levels of teaching specific linguistics competencies**

Teachers have a huge responsibility in creating a positive learning environment.

- Teachers should make maximum use of their limited resources, like wall charts, newspapers, and magazines, to instil a culture of reading within learners. The presence of a library at the school cannot instil that culture per se;
- The classroom should have talking walls, with colourful wall charts written different words on them, reference to such words should be made during the reading lesson. Suitable teacher should be assigned to teach reading, as they have the necessary passion for reading to impart to learners. Wallcharts should not appear to serve the regrettable purpose of impressing the principal, circuit manager and any other authority that expects compliance by teachers; and
- Teachers need professional development that would cater for the different needs of their learners; they should afford feedback to individual, pair or group of learners, paying attention to them.

### **5.5.4 Strategies that can be put in place to ensure more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers**

Reading strategies that must be put in place are shared in the following section.

- Teachers in rural schools, most of whom are natives, are aware of words in their home language, that have the potential of interfering with words to be read by learners in English FAL. Special classes meant to focus on such words are crucial for learners to be alerted of such interference;
- There should be an initiative by the DBE to provide teachers with in-service training on the basic principles involved in the teaching of English FAL reading;

- Teachers in rural schools, involved in the teaching of English FAL reading should be familiarised with concepts like code-switching and the use of bilingualism or multilingualism in their lessons; and
- In cases wherein parental support is not forthcoming, a senior sibling to the learners, who in all probabilities would be a former learner of the same teacher, could be used as proxy for the necessary parental support at home, with the blessing of the parent in question.

The teaching approach that yields the best outcomes must be utilised. Different methods such as the top-down, meta-cognitive and bottom-up reading approaches should be used. All teachers should strive to master the art of teaching single words. Phonemic awareness is an invaluable determinant of early reading success.

## **5.6 CONCLUSION**

Chapter 5 presented a summary of results, and derived conclusions based on such results. The researcher then made recommendations of what is worth addressing, with the involvement of all the stakeholders. Doing research on reading especially in the Foundation Phase is crucial. The findings revealed that teachers lack the needed vocabulary which is central to an effective reading programme that can equip them to become efficient. The DBE can assist in providing support by implementing workshops to train teachers and to improve their English proficiency. Motivated teachers give rise to motivated learners who excel and become lifelong learners.

## REFERENCES

- Abrami, P.C., Bernard, R.M., Borokhovski, E., Waddington, D.I., Wade, C.A. & Persson, T. (2015). Strategies for teaching students to think critically: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research*, 85(2):275-314.
- Ajideh, P. (2003). Schema theory-based pre-reading tasks: A neglected essential in the ESL reading lass. *The reading matrix*, 3(1).
- Alirol, E., Getaz, L., Stoll, B., Chappuis, F. & Loutan, L. (201). Urbanisation and infectious diseases in a globalised world. *The Lancet infectious diseases*, 11(2), pp.131-141.
- Allen, M.W. (2016). *Michael Allen's guide to e-learning: Building interactive, fun, and effective learning programs for any company*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- An, S. (2013) Schema Theory in Reading. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies*, 3(1).
- Anderson, R.C. (1985). *Becoming a nation of readers: The report of the Commission on Reading*. Pretoria: Government Printers.
- Appleton, J.J., Christenson, S.L. & Furlong, M.J. (2008). Student engagement with school: Critical conceptual and methodological issues of the construct. *Psychology in the Schools*, 45(5):369-386.
- Armbruster, B.B. (2010). *Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read: Kindergarten through grade 3*. Diane Publishing.
- Aud, S., Hussar, W., Johnson, F., Kena, G., Roth, E., Manning, E., Wang, X. & Zhang, J. (2012). *The condition of education 2012*. (NCES 2012-045). US Department of Education. National Center for Education Statistics. Washington, DC. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch>.
- Baatjies, R. (2003). Occupational allergy and asthma among table grape farm workers in the Hex-river Valley, Western Cape (Doctoral dissertation, Peninsula Technikon).
- Babbie, E. & Mouton, J. (2001). *Qualitative data analysis. The Practice of Social Research*, South Africa Edition, 489-516.
- Babbie, E. (2007). *The practice of social research*, 11<sup>th</sup> ed. Belmont: Thomson Wadsworth.
- Babbie, E.R. (2020). *The practice of social research*. Cengage learning.
- Barker, R.L. (2003). *The social work dictionary*, 5<sup>th</sup> ed. Washington, DC: NASW Press

Beckmann, J. (2019). Thuma mina and education: Volunteerism, possibilities and challenges. *South African Journal of Education*, 39.

Beneke, L. (2018). *From Silence to Voice: Exploring the affordances of multimodal approach to creative writing and its assessment in writing group of Grade 8 English First Additional Language learners* (Doctoral dissertation, group of Grade 8 English First Additional Language learners Liesel Beneke. A thesis submitted to the Wits School of Education, Faculty of Humanities, University of the Witwatersrand).

Bennell, K., Dobson, F. & Hinman, R. (2011). Measures of physical performance assessments: Self-Paced Walk Test (SPWT), Stair Climb Test (SCT), Six-Minute Walk Test (6MWT), Chair Stand Test (CST), Timed Up & Go (TUG), Sock Test, Lift and Carry Test (LCT), and Car Task. *Arthritis care & research*, 63(11):350-S370.

Bharuthram, S. (2012). Making a case for the teaching of reading across the curriculum in higher education. *South African Journal of Education*, 32(2), 205-214.

Birch, B.M. (2014). *English FAL reading: Getting to the bottom*. London: Routledge.

Blachowicz, C. & Ogle, D. (2017). *Reading comprehension: Strategies for independent learners*. Guilford Publications.

Blackman, S.A., Wettlaufer, S.H., Obendorf, R.L. & Leopold, A.C. (1991). Maturation proteins associated with desiccation tolerance in soybean. *Plant physiology*, 96(3):868874.

Bless, C. Higson-Smith, C. & Kagee, A. (2000). *Fundamentals of social research*. Lansdowne: Juta Education.

Block, E. (1986). The comprehension strategies of second language readers. *Tesol quarterly*, 20(3):463-494.

Blowers, A. ed. (2013). *Planning for a sustainable environment*. Routledge.

Bohlmann, C.A. & Pretorius, E.J. (2002). Reading skills and mathematics: the practice of higher education. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 16(3):196-206.

Brantes Ferreira, J., Zanela Klein, A., Freitas, A. & Schlemmer, E. (2013). Mobile learning: definition, uses and challenges. In *Increasing student engagement and retention using mobile applications: Smartphones, Skype and texting technologies* (pp. 47-82). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

- Brink, S. (2016). *The phonemic awareness development of Setswana speaking children at an Afrikaans medium small-town school* (Doctoral dissertation, North-West University (South Africa), Potchefstroom Campus).
- Brown, K.W., Ryan, R.M. & Creswell, J.D. (2007). Mindfulness: Theoretical foundations and evidence for its salutary effects. *Psychological inquiry*, 18(4):21237-21240.
- Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods*. Oxford university press.
- Byrne, B. (2014). *The foundation of literacy: The child's acquisition of the alphabetic principle*. Psychology Press.
- Carrell, P.L. & Eisterhold, J.C. (1983). Schema theory and ESL reading pedagogy. *TESOL quarterly*, 17(4):553-573.
- Carrell, P.L. (1988). Some causes of text-boundedness and schema interference in ESL reading. *Interactive approaches to second language reading*, 101-113.
- Carter, T.J. and Gilovich, T. (2010). The relative relativity of material and experiential purchases. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 98(1):146-155.
- Chen, X., Zou, D., Cheng, G., & Xie, H. (2020). Detecting latent topics and trends in educational technologies over four decades using structural topic modeling: A retrospective of all volumes of Computers & Education. *Computers & Education*, 151, 103855.
- Cheng, E.W. and Hampson, I. (2008). Transfer of training: A review and new insights. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 10(4):327-341.
- Cherrett, T., Wills, G., Price, J., Maynard, S. and Dror, I.E. (2009). Making training more cognitively effective: Making videos interactive. *British Journal of Educational Technology*, 40(6):1124-1134.
- Chun, D.M. & Plass, J.L. (1997). Research on text comprehension in multimedia environments. *Language learning & technology*, 1(1):60-81.
- Cohen, G.A. (2000). *Karl Marx's theory of history: a defence*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
- Cohen, Wesley M., Richard R. Nelson, & Walsh, J.P. (2000). Protecting their intellectual assets: Appropriability conditions and why US manufacturing firms patent (or not). No. w7552. National Bureau of Economic Research.

- Collins, B.C., Epstein, A., Reiss, T. & Lowe, V. (2001). Including children with mental retardation in the religious community. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, 33(5):52-58.
- Couper, I., Thurley, J., & Hugo, J. (2005). The neonatal resuscitation training project in rural South Africa.
- Creswell, J.W., Shope, R., Plano Clark, V.L. & Green, D.O. (2006). How interpretive qualitative research extends mixed methods research. *Research in the Schools*, 13(1):1-11.
- Darling-Hammond, L. (2015). *The flat world and education: How America's commitment to equity will determine our future*. Teachers College Press.
- Davin, R.J. & Van Staden, C. (2005). The reception year: Learning through play. Not Avail.
- Davis, B. and Sumara, D. (2014). *Complexity and education: Inquiries into learning, teaching, and research*. Routledge.
- de Vos A.S., Strydom H., Fouche C.B. & Delport, C.S.L. (2011). Research at grass roots, 4th ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Dearden, J. (2014). English as a medium of instruction-a growing global phenomenon. British Council.
- Dennis, D.V. (2008). Are assessment data really driving middle school reading instruction? What we can learn from one student's experience. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 51(7):578-587.
- Denscombe, M. (2008). Ground rules for good research: a 10-point guide for social researchers. London: Open University Press.
- Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (1998). Major paradigms and perspectives. Strategies of Qualitative Inquiry, NYK Denzin and YS Lincoln, (eds.) Sage Publication, Thousand Oaks.
- Department of Basic Education, (2011). Curriculum and assessment policy statement (CAPS). Grades 7–9. Natural Sciences.
- Donald, D., Lazarus, S. and Lolwana, P. (2002). Educational psychology in social context 2nd ed.

- Dorgu, T.E. (2016). Different teaching methods: A panacea for effective curriculum implementation in the classroom. *International Journal of Secondary Education*, 3(6):77-80.
- DuFour, R. & DuFour, R. (2013). *Learning by doing: A handbook for professional learning communities at work TM*. Solution Tree Press.
- Duong, T. V., Sørensen, K., Pelikan, J. M., Van den Broucke, S., Lin, I. F., Lin, Y. C. & Chang, P.W. (2018). Health-related behaviors moderate the association between age and self-reported health literacy among Taiwanese women. *Women & health*, 58(6), 632-646.
- Durgunoğlu, A.Y. & Öney, B. (1999). A cross-linguistic comparison of phonological awareness and word recognition. *Reading and Writing*, 11(4):281-299.
- Ehri, L.C. (2017). Reconceptualizing the development of sight word reading and its relationship to recoding. In *Reading acquisition* (pp. 107-143). Routledge.
- Elliot, A.J. & Dweck, C.S. eds. (2013). *Handbook of competence and motivation*. Guilford Publications.
- Ellis, N.C. (2008). The associative learning of constructions, learned attention, and the limited FAL end state. *Handbook of cognitive linguistics and second language acquisition*, 1(1):372-405.
- Emdin, C. (2016). *For White folks who teach in the hood... and the rest of y'all too: Reality pedagogy and urban education*. Beacon Press.
- Engelbrecht, W. and Ankiewicz, P. (2016). Criteria for continuing professional development of technology teachers' professional knowledge: A theoretical perspective. *International Journal of Technology and Design Education*, 26(2):259-284.
- Entwistle, N.J. (2013). *Styles of learning and teaching: An integrated outline of educational psychology for students, teachers and lecturers*. David Fulton Publishers.
- Evans, G.W. and Kim, P. (2013). Childhood poverty, chronic stress, self-regulation, and coping. *Child development perspectives*, 7(1):43-48.
- Field, F. (2010). *The Foundation Years: preventing poor children becoming poor adults, The report of the Independent Review on Poverty and Life Chances*. The Stationery Office.

- Field, T.A., Beeson, E.T. & Jones, L.K. (2015). The new ABCs: A practitioner's guide to neuroscience-informed cognitive-behavior therapy. *Journal of Mental Health Counselling*, 37(3):206-220.
- Fink, L. D. (2013). *Creating significant learning experiences: An integrated approach to designing college courses*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Foertsch, J., & Gernsbacher, M. A. (1997). In search of gender neutrality: Is singular they a cognitively efficient substitute for generic he? *Psychological science*, 8(2):106-111.
- Foulin, J.N. (2005). Why is letter-name knowledge such a good predictor of learning to read? *Reading and writing*, 18(2):129-155.
- Fraenkel, J.R. and Wallen, W.E. (2000). *How to design and evaluate educational research*.
- Freire, P. (2018). *Pedagogy of the oppressed*. Bloomsbury publishing USA.
- Fromkin, V., Rodman, R. & Hyams, N. (2018). *An introduction to language*. Cengage Learning.
- Fry, R. (2008). *The Role of Schools in the English Language Learner Achievement Gap*. Pew Hispanic Centre.
- Gay, L.R., Airasian, P.W. & Mills, G.E. (1996). *Educational research: Competencies for analysis and application*. Oxford: Oxford Publishers.
- Geske, A. & Ozola, A. (2008). Factors influencing reading literacy at the primary school level. *Problems of Education in the 21st Century*, 6.
- Getzels, J.W. (1974). Images of the classroom and visions of the learner. *The School Review*, 82(4):527-540.
- Gilakjani, A.P. & Ahmadi, M.R. (2011). A study of factors affecting EFL learners' English listening comprehension and the strategies for improvement. *Journal of Language Teaching and research*, 2(5):977-1005.
- Goleman, D., Boyatzis, R. E. & McKee, A. (2013). *Primal leadership: Unleashing the power of emotional intelligence*. Harvard Business Press.
- Goodpaster, K.P., Adedokun, O.A. & Weaver, G.C. (2012). Teachers' perceptions of rural STEM teaching: Implications for rural teacher retention. *The Rural Educator*, 33(3):1-10.

- Gravetter, F.J.& Forzano, L.B. (2003). *Research methods for the behavioural sciences*. Belmont: Wadsworth/ Thomson Learning.
- Green, L. (2017). *How popular musicians learn: A way ahead for music education*. New York: Routledge.
- Grinnel, R.M. & Unrau, Y.A. (2008). *Social work research and evaluation: foundations of evidence-based practice*. New York: Oxford University Press
- Gross, R., 2015. *Psychology: The science of mind and behaviour 7th edition*. Hodder Education.
- Gunning, J. (2007). A Case for Critical Terrorism Studies? 1. *Government and Opposition*, 42(3):363-393.
- Gunstone, R.F. (2011)2. The importance of specific science content in the enhancement of metacognition. *The content of science*, 1(1):131-146.
- Guthrie, J.T., McRae, A., Coddington, C.S., Lutz Klauda, S., Wigfield, A. & Barbosa, P. (2009). Impacts of comprehensive reading instruction on diverse outcomes of low-and high-achieving readers. *Journal of learning disabilities*, 42(3):195-214.
- Hakoda, K. (2018). *High School Instrumental Students Compose for Band and Orchestra* (Doctoral dissertation, Columbia University).
- Harmer, J. (2001). *The practice of English language teaching*. London/New York, pp.401-405.
- Harpe, S.E. (2015). How to analyse Likert and other rating scale data. *Currents in pharmacy teaching and learning*, 7(6):836-850.
- Hedgcock, J.S. & Ferris, D.R. (2018). *Teaching readers of English: Students, texts, and contexts*. Routledge.
- Hellekjær, G. O. (2009). Academic English Reading Proficiency at the University Level: A Norwegian Case Study. *Reading in a foreign Language*, 21(2), 198-222.
- Hiebert, E.H., Pearson, P.D., Taylor, B.M., Richardson, V. & Paris, S.G. (1998). *Every Child a Reader. Applying Reading Research in the Classroom*. CIERA/University of Michigan, 610 E. University Ave., 1600 SEB, Ann Arbor, MI 48109-1259; Web site: <http://www.ciera.org>.

Hines, J. M., Hungerford, H. R., & Tomera, A. N. (1987). Analysis and synthesis of research on responsible environmental behavior: A meta-analysis. *The Journal of environmental education*, 18(2):1-8.

Hoff, E. (2013). Interpreting the early language trajectories of children from low-SES and language minority homes: implications for closing achievement gaps. *Developmental psychology*, 49(1):4-8.

Howatt, A.P. & Smith, R. (2014). The history of teaching English as a foreign language, from a British and European perspective. *Language & History*, 57(1):75-95.

Hugo, A.J. (2010). Foundation Phase teachers: the 'battle' to teach reading. *Journal for Language Teaching= Ijenali Yekufundzisa Lulwimi= Tydskrif vir Taalonderrig*, 44(2):133-144.

Hugo, A.J., Le Roux, S.G., Muller, H. & Nel, N.M. (2005). Phonological awareness and the minimising of reading problems: A South African perspective. *Journal for Language Teaching= Ijenali Yekufundzisa Lulwimi= Tydskrif vir Taalonderrig*, 39(2):210-225.

James, C. (2013). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis*. New York: Routledge.

Javitt, D.C. (2009). When doors of perception close: bottom-up models of disrupted cognition in schizophrenia. *Annual review of clinical psychology*, 5:249-275.

Johns, T. (1991). Should you be persuaded: Two samples of data-driven learning materials.

Kalyuga, S. (2009). The expertise reversal effect. In *Managing Cognitive Load in Adaptive Multimedia Learning* (pp. 58-80). London: IGI Global.

Khalid, H., Meerah, T.S. & Halim, L. (2010). Teachers' perception towards usage of cartoon in teaching and learning physics. *Procedia-Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 7:538-545.

Klauda, S.L. & Guthrie, J.T. (2008). Relationships of three components of reading fluency to reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational psychology*, 100(2):310-320.

Klauda, S.L. and Guthrie, J.T. (2008). Relationships of three components of reading fluency to reading comprehension. *Journal of Educational psychology*, 100(2):310-322.

- Klingner, J.K., Vaughn, S. & Boardman, A. (2015). *Teaching reading comprehension to students with learning difficulties, 2/E*. Guilford Publications.
- Kolb, D.A. (2014). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. FT Press.
- Krathwohl, D.R. (1998). *Methods of Educational and Social Research—An integrated Approach*.
- Kuhn, M.R., Schwanenflugel, P.J. & Meisinger, E.B. (2010). Aligning theory and assessment of reading fluency: Automaticity, prosody, and definitions of fluency. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 45(2):230-251.
- Kumar, R. (2005). *Research methodology: a step-by-step guide for beginners, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed.* London: SAGE
- Küng-Shankleman, L. (2012). *Inside the BBC and CNN: Managing media organisations*. London: Routledge.
- LaRocque, M., Kleiman, I. & Darling, S.M. (2011). Parental involvement: The missing link in school achievement. *Preventing School Failure*, 55(3):115-122.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long, M. H. (2014). *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. Routledge.
- Laurillard, D. (2013). *Rethinking university teaching: A conversational framework for the effective use of learning technologies*. Routledge.
- Le Deist, F.D. & Winterton, J. (2005). What is competence? *Human resource development international*, 8(1):27-46.
- Learner, J.W. & Johns, B. (2009). *Learning disabilities and related mild disabilities*. Oxford: Oxford Publishers.
- Leedy, P.D. & Ormrod, J.E. (2005). *Practical research: planning and design*. New York: Pearson Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Lervåg, A. & Aukrust, V.G. (2010). Vocabulary knowledge is a critical determinant of the difference in reading comprehension growth between first and second language learners. *Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry*, 51(5):612-620.

- Leung, C., Davison, C. and Mohan, B. (2014). *English as a second language in the mainstream: Teaching, learning and identity*. New York: Routledge.
- Lister, R. (2016). October. Toward a developmental epistemology of computer programming. In *Proceedings of the 11th workshop in primary and secondary computing education* (pp. 5-16). ACM.
- Loewen, J.W. (2018). *Teaching what really happened: How to avoid the tyranny of textbooks and get students excited about doing history*. Teachers College Press.
- Logan, S. & Johnston, R. (2009). Gender differences in reading ability and attitudes: Examining where these differences lie. *Journal of research in reading*, 32(2):199-214.
- Loporcaro, M. (2015). *Vowel length from Latin to Romance* (Vol. 10). OUP Oxford.
- Mackay, H. (2016). *Beyond belief*. Brisbane: Macmillan Publishers.
- Makeleni, N.T. & Sethusha, M.J. (2014). The experiences of foundation phase teachers in implementing the curriculum. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(2):103-117.
- Mansor, R. (2017). *The use of the mother tongue in the teaching of English as a foreign language in Libyan higher education* (Doctoral dissertation, Manchester Metropolitan University).
- Maringe, F., Masinire, A. & Nkambule, T. (2015). Distinctive features of schools in multiple deprived communities in South Africa: Implications for policy and leadership. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 43(3):363-385.
- Mason, J.M. (2017). Reading stories to preliterate children: A proposed connection to reading. In *Reading acquisition* (pp. 215-241). London: Routledge.
- Matshipi, M.G. (2018). *Teaching of literacy competencies to learners in overcrowded classrooms in the Mamaila circuit, Mopani district* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Zululand).
- McCormack, B., Hill, E. & Hill, L. (1997). *Conducting a survey: The SPSS workbook*. Cengage Learning EMEA.
- McGrath, K., & Sinclair, M. (2013). More male primary-school teachers? Social benefits for boys and girls. *Gender and Education*, 25(5):531-547.

- McMillan, H. & Schumacher, J.S. (2006). *Research in Education Evidence-Based Inquiry*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon Inc.
- Merriam, S.B. and Bierema, L.L. (2013). *Adult learning: Linking theory and practice*. John Wiley & Sons.
- Meyer, M.S. & Felton, R.H. (1999). Repeated reading to enhance fluency: Old approaches and new directions. *Annals of dyslexia*, 49(1):283-306.
- Milton, J. (2012). The vocabulary knowledge of university students in Saudi Arabia. *Perspectives (TESOL Arabia)*.
- Minskoff, E. (2005). *Teaching Reading to Struggling Learners*. Brookes Publishing Company. PO Box 10624, Baltimore, MD 21285.
- Month, C. (2018). US Department of Education. *Notes*, 6, 30.
- Moodley, V. (2013). In-service teacher education: asking questions for higher order thinking in visual literacy. *South African Journal of Education*, 33(2):1-10.
- Morales, M., Knowles, E.C. & Bourg, C. (2014). Diversity, social justice, and the future of libraries. *portal: Libraries and the Academy*, 14(3):439-451.
- Mouton, J. (1996). *Understanding social research*. Hatfield: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Moyer, A. (2014). What has age got to do with it? Accounting for individual factors in second language accent. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 4(3):443-464.
- Mukoroli, J. (2011). Effective vocabulary teaching strategies for the English for academic purposes ESL classroom.
- Mulaudzi, I.C. (2018). *Effects of teacher stress on learner academic performance in rural secondary schools in the Vhembe district* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Zululand).
- Mullis, I. V., Martin, M. O., & Sainsbury, M. (2016). PIRLS 2016 reading framework. *PIRLS*, 11-29.
- Naiman, N. ed. (1996). The good language learner. *Multilingual Matters*, 4(1):20-30.
- Nation, I.S. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Germany: Ernst Klett Sprachen.

- Ndamba, G.T. (2008). Mother tongue usage in learning: An examination of language preferences in Zimbabwe. *Journal of Pan African Studies*, 2(4):171-189.
- Nel, N., Nel, M. & Hugo, A. (2012). *Inclusive education: the necessity of providing support to all learners. Learner support in a diverse classroom: A guide for foundation*. Pretoria: Van Schaik.
- Nengomasha, C.T., Uutoni, W. and Yule, W. (2012). School libraries and their role in promoting a reading culture: Case study of Caprivi, Omusati, Omaheke, Karas and Khomas regions of Namibia. Windhoek: Caprivi Publishers.
- Neuman, S.B. & Celano, D. (2006). The knowledge gap: Implications of levelling the playing field for low-income and middle-income children. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 41(2):176-201.
- Ngware, M. (2010). Does teaching style explain differences in learner achievement in low and high-performing schools in Kenya.
- Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific Region. *TESOL quarterly*, 37(4):589-613.
- Oberholzer, A., Souza, S.M., Tschoeke, S.K., Oberholzer, C., Abouhamze, A., Pribble, J.P. & Moldawer, L.L. (2005). Plasma cytokine measurements augment prognostic scores as indicators of outcome in patients with severe sepsis. *Shock*, 23(6):488-493.
- Pardede, P. (2011). Using short stories to teach language skills. *Journal of English Teaching*, 1(1), 14-27.
- Perfetti, C.A. & Hogaboam, T. (1975). Relationship between single word decoding and reading comprehension skill. *Journal of educational psychology*, 67(4):461-469.
- Perfetti, C.A. (1985). *Reading ability*. Oxford University Press.
- Phajane, M.H. (2014). The Sentence Method of Teaching Reading Writing in the Grade 1 Classroom. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(15):321-345.
- Phillips, K.D. (2018). *An Ethnography of Hunger: Politics, Subsistence, and the Unpredictable Grace of the Sun*. Indiana University Press.
- Pianta, R.C., Hamre, B.K. & Allen, J.P. (2012). Teacher-student relationships and engagement: Conceptualizing, measuring, and improving the capacity of classroom

interactions. In *Handbook of research on student engagement* (pp. 365-386). Springer, Boston, MA.

Poggenpoel, M., & Myburgh, C. (2003). The researcher as research instrument in educational research: A possible threat to trustworthiness?(A: research\_instrument). *Education*, 124(2): 418-423.

Pretorius, E., du Plooy, J.N. & Bester, J. (2016). A comprehensive review on eryptosis. *Cellular Physiology and Biochemistry*, 39(5):1977-2000.

Pretorius, E.J. & Mampuru, D.M. (2007). Playing football without a ball: language, reading and academic performance in a high-poverty school. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 30(1):38-58.

Quintana, C., Krajcik, J., Soloway, E., Fishman, L.C.D.I.B. & O'Connor-Divelbiss, S. (2013), April. Exploring a structured definition for learner-centered design. In *Fourth international conference of the learning sciences*, 256-263.

Ramokgopa, M.S. (2013). The impact of the National Curriculum Statement principle in teaching of physical science in Grade 10 to 12 around Sekhukhune District. *Unisa, Pretoria*.

Rashid, R.A., Abdul Rahman, S.B. & Yunus, K. (2017). Reforms in the policy of English language teaching in Malaysia. *Policy Futures in Education*, 15(1):100-112.

Ready, D., Lee, V. & Welner, K.G. (2004). Educational equity and school structure: School size, overcrowding, and schools-within-schools.

Results of a first-year professional development intervention. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching: The Official Journal of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching*, 45(1):31-52.

Rick, J., Marshall, P. and Yuill, N. (2011), June. Beyond one-size-fits-all: how interactive tabletops support collaborative learning. In *Proceedings of the 10th International Conference on Interaction Design and Children* (pp. 109-117). ACM.

Rivers, W.M. (2018). *Teaching Foreign Language Skills Rev Ed*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

- Robb, M.B., Richert, R.A. & Wartella, E.A. (2009). Just a talking book? Word learning from watching baby videos. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology*, 27(1):27-45.
- Roby, W.B. (2004). Technology in the service of foreign language learning: The case of the language laboratory. *Handbook of research on educational communications and technology*, 523-541.
- Rossouw, J.P. (2003). Learner discipline in South African public schools-a qualitative study. *Koers: Bulletin vir Christelike Wetenskap*, 68(4):413-435.
- Sadler, T.D. & Zeidler, D.L. (2005). Patterns of informal reasoning in the context of socio scientific decision making. *Journal of Research in Science Teaching: The Official Journal of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching*, 42(1):112-138.
- Sakinah, M.N. (2017). *Teaching speaking techniques at fifth Grade students of Wittaya Panya school Phattalung Southern Thailand* (Doctoral dissertation, Universitas Muhammadiyah Gresik).
- Sanders, J. M. & Nee, V. (1996). Immigrant self-employment: The family as social capital and the value of human capital. *American sociological review*, 231-249.
- Sapsford, R. & Jupp, V. (Eds.). (1996). *Data collection and analysis*. London: Sage.
- Scheele, A.F., Leseman, P.P. & Mayo, A.Y. (2010). The home language environment of monolingual and bilingual children and their language proficiency. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, 31(1):117-140.
- Schmitt, N. (2008). Instructed second language vocabulary learning. *Language teaching research*, 12(3):329-363.
- Scott, K.D. (2013). Communication strategies across cultural borders: Dispelling stereotypes, performing competence, and redefining black womanhood. *Women's Studies in Communication*, 36(3):312-329.
- Shaywitz, B.A., Shaywitz, S.E., Blachman, B.A., Pugh, K.R., Fulbright, R.K., Skudlarski, P., Mencl, W.E., Constable, R.T., Holahan, J.M., Marchione, K.E. & Fletcher, J.M. (2004). Development of left occipitotemporal systems for skilled reading in children after a phonologically based intervention. *Biological psychiatry*, 55(9):926-933.

Sherer, M., Maddux, J.E., Mercandante, B., Prentice-Dunn, S., Jacobs, B. & Rogers, R.W. (1982). The self-efficacy scale: Construction and validation. *Psychological reports*, 51(2):663-671.

Short, M. (2018). *Exploring the language of poems, plays and prose*. Routledge.

Silverman, W.K., Kurtines, W.M., Ginsburg, G.S., Weems, C.F., Rabian, B. & Serafini, L.T. (1999). Contingency management, self-control, and education support in the treatment of childhood phobic disorders: A randomized clinical trial. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*, 67(5):675.

Singh P., Rahman, A.A. & Hoon, T.S. (2010). Languages and mathematics achievements among rural and urban primary four pupils: A Malaysian experience. *Journal of Science and Mathematics Education in Southeast Asia*, 33(1):65-85.

Skelton, C. (2003). Male primary teachers and perceptions of masculinity. *Educational review*, 55(2):195-209.

Skerret, D. M. (2010). Language & authoritarianism in the 20th century: The cases of Estonia and Catalonia. *Eesti Rakenduslingvistika Ühingu aastaraamat*, 6(1):261-276.

Sørensen, K., Van den Broucke, S., Fullam, J., Doyle, G., Pelikan, J., Slonska, Z. and Brand, H. (2012). Health literacy and public health: a systematic review and integration of definitions and models. *BMC public health*, 12(1):80-91.

Sousa, D.A. (2014). *How the brain learns to read*. Corwin Press.

South Africa. Department of Education. Curriculum (2005) Review Committee and Chrisolm, L. (2000). A South African curriculum for the twenty first century: Report of the review committee on Curriculum 2005. Department of Education.

Stahl, S.A. & Heubach, K.M. (2005). Fluency-oriented reading instruction. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 37(1):25-60.

Stahl, S.A. (2013). Instructional models in reading: An introduction. In *Instructional models in reading* (pp. 11-40). Routledge.

Stringer, S.J., Reynolds, G.P. & Simpson, F.M. (2003). Collaboration between classroom teachers and a school counselor through literature circles: Building self-esteem. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 30(1):69-77.

Struwig, F., W. & Stead, G.B. (2003). Planning, designing and reporting research. Cape Town: Hanli Venter.

Sun, L., (2017). Methods of Grammar Teaching at College.

Taylor, N., Fleisch, B. and Shindler, J. (2008). Changes in education since 1994. *Higher Education*, 32:3-5.

Thompson, P. (2013). The digital natives as learners: Technology use patterns and approaches to learning. *Computers & Education*, 65:12-33.

Thompson, R.A. & Braten, S. (1998). Empathy and its origins in early development. Intersubjective communication and emotion in early ontogeny, 62:144-157.

Thornhill, C., & Le Cordeur, M. (2016). First additional language teaching in selected grade 4-6 classes in Western Cape urban schools: The case of Afrikaans. *Journal for Language Teaching= Ijenali Yekufundzisa Lulwimi= Tydskrif vir Taalonderrig*, 50(1), 103-121.

Tommasi, T., Orabona, F. & Caputo, B. (2013). Learning categories from few examples with multi model knowledge transfer. *IEEE transactions on pattern analysis and machine intelligence*, 36(5):928-941.

Tunmer, W.E. & Arrow, A.W. (2013). Phonics instruction. *International guide to student achievement*, 316-319.

Unrau, Y.A., Gabor, P.A. & Ginnell, R.M. (2007). Evaluation in social work: the art and science of practice. London: Oxford University Press

van Steensel, R., Oostdam, R., van Gelderen, A. & van Schooten, E. (2016). The role of word decoding, vocabulary knowledge and meta-cognitive knowledge in monolingual and bilingual low-achieving adolescents' reading comprehension. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 39(3):312-329.

Vaughn, S., Bos, C. S., & Schumm, J. S. (1997). *Teaching mainstreamed, diverse, and at-risk students in the general education classroom*. Allyn & Bacon Inc., 160 Gould St., Needham Heights, MA 02194..

Vuzo, M. (2012). Stakeholders' Opinions on the use of Code Switching/Code Mixing as Coping Strategies and its Implications for Teaching and Learning in Tanzanian Secondary Schools. *Huria: Journal of the Open University of Tanzania*, 11(1):126-144.

Wacker, J.G. (1998). A definition of theory: research guidelines for different theory-building research methods in operations management. *Journal of operations management*, 16(4):361-385

Wilhelm, J.D. (2016). *"You gotta be the book": teaching engaged and reflective reading with adolescents*. Teachers College Press.

WOLHUTER, C. (2013). The education system of South Africa: Catapulting the country into the twenty-first century. (In: Horsthemke, K., Siyakwazi, P., Walton, E. & Wolhuter, C. *Education studies. History, Sociology and Philosophy*. Hatfield: Van Schaik Publishers.)

Yeung, H.W.C. & Coe, N.M. (2015). Toward a dynamic theory of global production networks. *Economic Geography*, 91(1):29-58.

## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A: INSTRUMENT (QUESTIONNAIRE)

CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE WHEN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE READING (FAL) QUESTIONNAIRE.

Make a cross (x) in the appropriate numbered block.

Gender

|        |   |
|--------|---|
| Female | 1 |
| Male   | 2 |

Age

|                    |   |
|--------------------|---|
| 22-30 years        | 1 |
| 31-35 years        | 2 |
| 36-40 years        | 3 |
| 41-45 years        | 4 |
| 46 years and older | 5 |

Your highest academic qualification

|                        |   |
|------------------------|---|
| Standard 10 (Grade 12) | 1 |
| First degree           | 2 |
| BEd or Honours Degree  | 3 |
| Master's Degree        | 4 |

|                 |   |
|-----------------|---|
| Doctoral Degree | 5 |
|-----------------|---|

Your experience as an educator

|                  |   |
|------------------|---|
| 0-5 years        | 1 |
| 6-10 years       | 2 |
| 11-15 years      | 3 |
| 16-20 Years      | 4 |
| 21 years or more | 5 |

Your teaching experience in a rural school

|                   |   |
|-------------------|---|
| 0-5 years         | 1 |
| 6-10 years        | 2 |
| 11-15 years       | 3 |
| 16-20 years       | 4 |
| 21 years and more | 5 |

Teacher learner ratio

|              |   |
|--------------|---|
| 70 and above | 1 |
| 50-59        | 2 |
| 40-49        | 3 |
| Below forty  | 4 |

Research question 1. Teachers will be assessed on challenges they face in teaching Grade 4 English FAL teaching reading. An appropriate rating is indicated by making a cross (X) in the appropriate numbered block for each individual learner.

|   | Not at all | Lesser extent | Not applicable | Not sure | To a great extent |
|---|------------|---------------|----------------|----------|-------------------|
| <i>The Foundation Phase teachers and I are confused on how best to teach reading in the classroom.</i>            | 1          | 2             | 3              | 4        | 5                 |
| <i>Learners' reading in the home language interferes with their reading in English First Additional Language.</i> | 1          | 2             | 3              | 4        | 5                 |
| <i>My school has a library with reading materials.</i>  | 1          | 2             | 3              | 4        | 5                 |
| <i>My class is too overcrowded for individual reading.</i>  | 1          | 2             | 3              | 4        | 5                 |

Research question 2. Teachers will be assessed on their levels of teaching learner's specific reading skills in English First Additional Language reading. An appropriate rating is indicated by making a cross (X) in the appropriate numbered block for each individual learner.

| Levels of teaching reading achievement in English First Additional Language | Excellent | Good | Fair | Poor | Very poor |
|---|-----------|------|------|------|-----------|
| Ability to teach letters of the alphabet                                    | 1         | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5         |
| Ability to teach single words   | 1         | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5         |

| Levels of teaching reading achievement in English First Additional Language | Excellent | Good | Fair | Poor | Very poor |
|---|-----------|------|------|------|-----------|
| Ability to teach single sentences   | 1         | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5         |
| Ability to teach paragraphs   | 1         | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5         |
| Ability to teach Phonemic awareness   | 1         | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5         |
| Teaching syllable recognition   | 1         | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5         |
| Teaching alphabetic knowledge   | 1         | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5         |
| Teaching word recognition   | 1         | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5         |
| Teaching text comprehension   | 1         | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5         |
| Teaching vocabulary   | 1         | 2    | 3    | 4    | 5         |

Research question 3. Teachers will be assessed on strategies for more effective teaching of reading by Grade 4 English FAL teachers. An appropriate rating is indicated by making a cross (X) in the appropriate numbered block.

|  | Always | Often | Sometimes | Rarely | Never |
|--|--------|-------|-----------|--------|-------|
| Organising extra classes especially for learners who struggle on different reading skills. | 1      | 2     | 3         | 4      | 5     |
| Paying attention to learners' individual reading needs.                                    | 1      | 2     | 3         | 4      | 5     |
| Reinforcement of learners' ability to recite words.  | 1      | 2     | 3         | 4      | 5     |

|   |   |   |   |   |   |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Emphasizing the relationship between a letter and its sound.              | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| <i>Making use of the learners' home language.</i>                         | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Improvising shortage of resources.  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Involving learner's parents in their children's reading.                  | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| Encouraging learners to read what they have written.                      | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| <i>Giving learners time for reading.</i>                                  | 1 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 |
| <i>Involving authorities when necessary reading resources are scarce.</i> | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

## APPENDIX B: OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

AN APPROPRIATE RATING IS INDICATED BY MAKING A CROSS (X) IN THE APPROPRIATE NUMBERED BLOCK.

Number of learners in the observed class

|              |   |
|--------------|---|
| 70 and above | 1 |
| 50-59        | 2 |
| 40-49        | 3 |
| Below forty  | 4 |

Length of the class

|            |   |
|------------|---|
| 30 minutes | 1 |
| 1 hour     | 2 |

Reading skills covered in the lesson

|                                  |   |
|----------------------------------|---|
| Skimming                         | 1 |
| Scanning                         | 2 |
| Comprehension                    | 3 |
| Extensive reading                | 4 |
| Intensive reading                | 5 |
| Reading for gist                 | 6 |
| Reading for specific information | 7 |
| Asking questions to the teacher  | 8 |
| Asking questions to each other   | 9 |

|                                 |    |
|---------------------------------|----|
| Writing on their exercise books | 10 |
| Reading silently                | 11 |

#### Teacher activities

|                                     |   |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| Writing on the board                | 1 |
| Using wall charts                   | 2 |
| Eliciting information from learners | 3 |
| Giving instructions                 | 4 |
| Answering learners 'questions       | 5 |
| Giving feedback to learners         | 6 |
| Providing reading materials         | 7 |
| Providing reading opportunities     | 8 |
| Correcting learners' reading        | 9 |

#### Teacher feedback

|            |   |
|------------|---|
| Individual | 1 |
| Pair       | 2 |
| Group      | 3 |
| Class      | 4 |

#### Seating arrangement

|           |   |
|-----------|---|
| Horseshoe | 1 |
|-----------|---|

|                   |   |
|-------------------|---|
| Groups            | 2 |
| Pairs             | 3 |
| Individuals       | 4 |
| Movable Furniture | 5 |
| Fixed furniture   | 6 |
| Rows              | 7 |

### Reading materials

|                  |   |
|------------------|---|
| Graded readers   | 1 |
| Prescribed books | 2 |
| Newspapers       | 3 |
| Magazines        | 4 |
| Paper books      | 5 |
| Tablets          | 6 |
| Mobile phones    | 7 |
| Laptops          | 8 |
| Desktops         | 9 |

### Reading approach

|                         |   |
|-------------------------|---|
| Top-down approach       | 1 |
| Bottom-up approach      | 2 |
| The meta-cognitive view | 3 |

## APPENDIX C: ETHICAL CLEARANCE

**UNIVERSITY OF ZULULAND  
RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE**  
(Reg No: UZREC 171110-030)



**RESEARCH & INNOVATION**

Website: <http://www.unizulu.ac.za>  
Private Bag X1001  
KwaDlangezwa 3686  
Tel: 035 902 6731  
Fax: 035 902 6222  
Email: LundallN@unizulu.ac.za

### ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

|   |  |          |                                       |              |
|---|--|----------|---------------------------------------|--------------|
| <b>Certificate Number</b>                 | UZREC 171110-030 PGM 2020/13   |          |                                       |              |
| <b>Project Title</b>                      | Challenges Teachers Face When Teaching Grade 4 English First Additional Language (FAL) Reading In Rural Schools of Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District |          |                                       |              |
| <b>Principal Researcher/ Investigator</b> | I.C. Mulaudzi  |          |                                       |              |
| <b>Supervisor and Co-supervisor</b>       | Dr BXS Ntombela  |          |                                       |              |
| <b>Department</b>                         | English  |          |                                       |              |
| <b>Faculty</b>                            | Arts   |          |                                       |              |
| <b>Type of Risk</b>                       | Med Risk – Data collection from people   |          |                                       |              |
| <b>Nature of Project</b>                  | Honours/4 <sup>th</sup> Year   | Master's | <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> x | Doctoral     |
|   |  |          |                                       | Departmental |

The University of Zululand's Research Ethics Committee (UZREC) hereby gives ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project. The Researcher may therefore commence with data collection as from the date of this Certificate, using the certificate number indicated above.

- Special conditions:
- (1) This certificate is valid for 1 year from the date of issue.
  - (2) Principal researcher must provide an annual report to the UZREC in the prescribed format [due date-14 July 2021]
  - (3) Principal researcher must submit a report at the end of project in respect of ethical compliance.
  - (4) The UZREC must be informed immediately of any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the documents that were presented to the meeting.

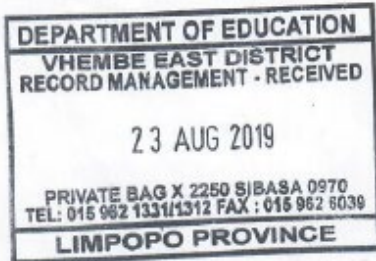
The UZREC wishes the researcher well in conducting research.

Professor Mashupye R. Kgaphola  
University Research Ethics Committee  
Deputy Vice-Chancellor: Research & Innovation

14 July 2020



## APPENDIX D: PERMISSION APPLICATION LETTER



University of Zululand  
Kwadlangezwa Campus  
Private Bagx 1001  
KwaDlangezwa  
3886  
29 July 2019

The District Senior Manager

Thohoyandou

0950

Dear Sir/ Madam

### **RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH AT SCHOOLS**

**Research Topic:** Challenges teachers face when teaching Grade 4 English First Additional Language (FAL) reading in rural schools of Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District.

I am currently studying Master of Arts in English at the University of Zululand. I am required to conduct research as one of my degree's requirements. I therefore, kindly seek permission to conduct research in some primary schools in Vhembe District.

Data will be collected from teachers from the above District and the process will not disturb the proper running of the school as the teachers will complete questionnaires after working hours.

Thanking you in advance.

Yours sincerely

Mulaudzi Israel Crelaanor

(0827994927 or [issymulaudzi@gmail.com](mailto:issymulaudzi@gmail.com))



**LIMPOPO**  
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF  
**EDUCATION**

CONFIDENTIAL

Ref: 2/2/2    Enq: Mabogo MG    Tel No: 015 290 9365    E-mail: [MabogoMG@edu.limpopo.gov.za](mailto:MabogoMG@edu.limpopo.gov.za)

**Mulaudzi IC**  
P O Box134  
Sibasa  
0970

**RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH**

1. The above bears reference.
2. The Department wishes to inform you that your request to conduct research has been approved. Topic of the research proposal: **“CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE WHEN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH FIRST ADDITION LANGUAGE (FAL) READING IN RURAL SCHOOLS OF DZINDI CIRCUIT IN VHEMBE DISTRICT”**
3. The following conditions should be considered:
  - 3.1 The research should not have any financial implications for Limpopo Department of Education.
  - 3.2 Arrangements should be made with the Circuit Office and the School concerned.
  - 3.3 The conduct of research should not in anyhow disrupt the academic programs at the schools.
  - 3.4 The research should not be conducted during the time of Examinations especially the fourth term.
  - 3.5 During the study, applicable research ethics should be adhered to; in particular the principle of voluntary participation (the people involved should be respected).

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MULAUDZI IC

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

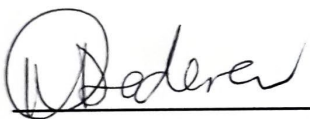
***The heartland of southern Africa - development is about people!***

3.6 Upon completion of research study, the researcher shall share the final product of the research with the Department.

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

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

Best wishes.



**Mrs Dederen KO**

**Acting Head of Department**

22/09/2020

**Date**

## APPENDIX F: REQUEST FOR CONSENT

Box 134

Sibasa

0970

18 JULY 2019

The respondents

Dzindi Circuit

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: REQUEST FOR PARTICIPATION IN THE RESEARCH PROJECT

Research Topic: *Challenges teachers face when teaching Grade 4 English First Additional Language (FAL) reading in rural schools of Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District.*

I am currently studying Master of Arts in English at the University of Zululand. I am required to conduct research as one of my degree's requirements. I therefore, kindly seek permission to conduct research in some primary schools in Vhembe District.

Data will be collected from teachers from the above District and the process will not disturb the proper running of the school as the teachers will complete questionnaires after working hours.

All respondents will sign consent forms after agreeing to take part in the study. Therefore, a written agreement will be made available to respondents after they are informed about the research procedure. All respondents will be informed that the study will be confidential and anonymous, therefore, frequencies and percentages instead of real names will be used to protect the respondents where necessary.

As part of the right to self-determination, prospective respondents will be informed that participation in the study is voluntary and participation takes place without undue influence, and that they have the right to withdraw from participating in the research at any time, if they

so desire, without any prejudice. There is no misrepresentation, threat or promise of payment. Respondents will not be exposed to any harm or subjected to stress. Respondents will not be coerced into participating in the study but will be given freedom to give their written consent to participate (Neuman, 2000).

Thank you for your support and co-operation regarding this matter.

Yours faithfully

Mulaudzi Israel Creleanor

(0827994927 or [issymulaudzi@gmail.com](mailto:issymulaudzi@gmail.com))

## APPENDIX G: RESPONDENTS' CONSENT FORM

### CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THE RESEARCH

I have read the above and agree with the terms. I understand that my real name will not be used in any aspect of the write-up of the study and that the information will only be used for the purposes of this research project. I am also aware that I have the right to withdraw from participating in the research at any time, if I so desire, without any prejudice hence the ethical rights,

I have given my consent to participate in this research.


Name: .....

Signature: .....

Date: .....

## APPENDIX H : EDITOR'S CERTIFICATE

Dr C.G.A. SMITH

PhD (English) 

*Language practitioner: editing and proofreading*

---

Cell: 0727661428

**This is to certify that the language of the following document has been edited:**

*CHALLENGES TEACHERS FACE WHEN TEACHING GRADE 4 ENGLISH  
FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE (FAL) READING IN RURAL SCHOOLS OF THE  
DZINDI CIRCUIT IN THE VHEMBE DISTRICT*

**Author: by**

**ISRAEL CRELEANOR MULAUDZI**

**Date of this statement:**



Smithcg

