THE EFFECT OF CURRICULUM CHANGE ON THE READING ABILITY OF ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE (EFAL) LEARNERS IN GRADE TEN: A CASE STUDY

by

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PREFACE

"I am the Lord, the God of all the peoples of the world. Is anything too hard for me?" Jeremiah 32:27

Weeping may last through the night, but joy comes with the morning. Psalm 30:5b

For I can do everything through Christ, who gives me strength. Philippians 4:13

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the research "The effect of curriculum change on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten: A case study" submitted for the degree PhD (Education) in Language Education Department of the University of Limpopo is my own original work and has not previously been submitted to any other institution of higher education. I further declare that all sources cited or quoted are indicated and acknowledged by means of a comprehensive list of references.

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

ABSTRACT

Since 1998, the education system in South Africa has been changing from one curriculum to another, thereby affecting the quality of education. This was noted in the lowered standards of mathematics and science and in learners' inability to read and write. The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of the changing curriculum on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten.

Literature has revealed that reading efficiency determines the ability to cope with academic work load. Although Curriculum 2005 and the National Curriculum Statement were introduced to redress the apartheid education system, flaws were noted within these curricula, leading to the introduction of Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) in 2012.

A mixed method approach was adopted in this study. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used to collect and analyse data. Case study design was used. Research techniques employed were interviews, observations, document review, questionnaires and standardised reading tests.

Findings indicate that there are learners who fall behind with the attainment of reading skills required. On the other hand, curriculum change as a process, has a negative impact not only on the reading ability of learners, but also on the quality of education as well. Other factors that impact negatively on achievement of learners include, government's political influence on the education system, flaws in the curricula, slow response of educators to curriculum change, and external factors affecting learners.

Recommendations are that curriculum consumers, in particular educators and subject specialists should constantly refer to their policy documents to ensure that they are still working towards the learning outcomes stated. Again curriculum change should be treated as a process, where, along the way every consumer should be well-equipped for proper implementation. The government too should rethink the purpose of education and academic development of learners, and not only pursue political aspirations.

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CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Since 1998 the education system in South Africa has been changing from one curriculum to another, with the intention of adapting to the newly found democracy. Curriculum 2005 (C2005) was introduced in order to redress misdeeds of the past, as apartheid education had led to gross inequalities in educational attainment, skills, employment opportunity, productivity and income, mainly to the detriment of black people (Department of Education, 2001:30). The implementation process gave birth to a new streamlined version, with greatly reduced foreign concepts, known as Revised National Curriculum statement (RNCS) in grades R-9 and National Curriculum Statement (NCS) in grades 10-12, which was approved in June 2000 (Pretorius, 2007:38). The on-going implementation challenges resulted in another review in 2009 which produced the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), implemented from 2012 onwards (Department of Basic Education, 2011a).

Often noted in curriculum change was the drop in quality of education (Beeld, 2004a, Pretorius, 2007:44 and Soudien & Gilmour, 2008:319). This raised concern about reading, writing and counting as basic skills required in the journey of acquiring education. When the skills are not properly developed, they may pose a challenge to learners' manner of acquiring knowledge. Among the skills stated, the researcher considered reading to be of fundamental value. Burns, Roe and Ross (1996:14) support the idea when they stated that learners learn to read so that later in life they can read to learn. Du Toit, Hesse and Orr (1995:3) have this to say on the matter: "To be an achiever as a student, it is necessary to become a competent reader. There is no doubt that reading competence is closely linked to academic success." Reading is considered to be a means by which further learning takes place. The value of reading is reflected in the fact that learners who cannot read cannot study on their own. This, therefore, prompts a study of reading, in particular, in the various curricula that were introduced since the establishment of democracy in South Africa.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

In the process of curriculum change, it was noted that the quality of education was affected. The effect is reflected in the lowered standards of mathematics and science (Beeld, 2004b) as revealed by the results of the Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study (TIMSS), and also learners' inability to read and write (Beeld, 2004a). Soudien and Gilmour (2008:319) also reiterated this by stating that children learn poorly how to read, write and count, thus exposing a fundamental weakness within the post-apartheid education system. There is no doubt that the deteriorating quality of education in South Africa might have been caused by the inappropriateness of the newly adopted curricula (Pretorius, 2007:44). Another alarming factor was the introduction of the National Benchmark Tests (NBT), which might suggest that institutions of higher learning have some doubts about the products they receive from high schools. The NBT Project was commissioned in 2005 by Higher Education South Africa (HESA) with the purpose of assessing entry level academic literacy and school level exit results (Addinall, 2011:1; National Benchmark Test, 2012:1). NBTs were conducted following the introduction of the new National Senior Certificate (NSC) which was written for the first time in 2008 (National Benchmark Test, 2012:1). All these comments raised a concern about attention that has been given to reading in the post-apartheid curricula. It is questionable if measures of developing this skill were given attention in various curricula, by educators and all those who contribute to the learning process.

As new curriculum is introduced at the entry point of each phase of learning, the researcher decided to focus on entry point of Further Education and Training (FET) band, which is grade ten. This is done on the basis of experience as the grade educator, of the failure rate that is experienced in the grade, despite the fact that there has been a reduction in the number of learning areas, from nine, in grade nine, to seven, in grade ten; and pass requirements (Department of Education, 2010). The failure rate suggests that reading in English First Additional Language (EFAL) is a problem for learners. Du Toit, Heese and Orr (1995:12, 44) suggested the use of a reading technique that could be adopted to help learners, that is, intensive reading or critical reading. When this skill is developed, learners will be able to improve their broad knowledge base, insight into subjects being studied, and performance in assignments and reading. However, when this skill has failed to develop, learners

cannot cope with their academic responsibilities and they face reading difficulty, a state whereby they read at a level far below what might reasonably be expected. Learners in this grade are expected in their reading to be able to construct multiple hypotheses, consider several view-points, mull over logical alternatives, and evaluate what they read (Gunning, 2010:11). There is doubt whether most learners in grade ten have reached this level of reading development. As reading competency is closely related to academic success (Du Toit et al, 1995:3), it is necessary to make a thorough study of the development of reading skills across various curricula, how reading was/ is taught, and how learners are responding to the development of this skill. Again the researcher looked at the impact that transitions to different curricula had on the development of reading skills.

1.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

Various studies have been conducted on reading ability. Sources referred to cover computer print-outs on available literature, journals, policy documents and books that were surveyed as part of the research topic. Reviewed literature has stated that the aim of reading courses in secondary school is to develop discourse competence that will enable readers to make sense of written texts as communication in particular situations (Van der Walt, Evans & Kilfoil, 2009:149). Du Toit et al (1995:3) linked reading competence to academic success when stating that if you want to be an achiever as a student, it is important to become a competent reader. Reading competence is therefore closely linked to academic success.

It is further noted that reading can be done for some reasons other than academic purposes. Burns, Roe and Ross (1996:5-6) state a few examples such as: road signs that direct travellers to particular destination, inform drivers of hazards, even helping very young children to see the need to read the signs in restrooms and the labels on individual desks in their classrooms. Students may read for aesthetic pleasure and also read to obtain information about areas of interest to fill their leisure time.

It is through assessment that the learners' reading ability can be identified. A learner can either be classified as a competent reader, or a learner with reading difficulty. Competent readers are those who understand what they read (Du Toit et al,1995:6), while learners with reading difficulty are those reading at a level far below what might

reasonably be expected, with discrepancy between the overall cognitive ability and reading achievement (Gunning, 2010:2). The functional definition of reading ability determines whether or not the reading difficulty interferes with the reader's life circumstances. For high school students it might take the form of reading so slowly that they cannot keep up with outside reading assignments (Gunning, 2010:5). Reading efficiency, therefore, determines the ability to cope with your workload or to be swamped.

The onus lies with educators on how reading is taught. It calls for the review of curriculum and what it entails regarding reading. Graham-Jolly, in Hoadley and Jansen (eds) (2009:247), defined curriculum as the formal academic programme provided by a school, as reflected in subjects on the timetable. De Lange Report (HSRC, 1981) called it a course of study or a group of subjects which are offered in a school, course or field of study. The report went further to define the curriculum of a subject as the total content of a subject for a particular phase, course or field of study as well as matching study guides, manuals and guidelines. Wilson (1990) stated that curriculum is anything and everything that teaches a lesson, planned or otherwise. Graham-Jolly, in Hoadley and Jansen (eds) (2009:248-250), further differentiated between formal or official curriculum and actual curriculum. The former entails a planned and documented curriculum while the latter refers to what happens in individual schools, that is, the actual experiences of learners. There is also a narrow definition of curriculum which is limited to formal statements of intention, such as content to be covered in the syllabus or programme of planned activities. The broader definition of curriculum acknowledges both intended and unintended learning, and view curriculum as a social construct. The issue of time is also important in curriculum. There is the organisation of time in schools, which suggests that certain kinds of knowledge are more valued than others. The repetitive patterns that occur in many school timetables might convey to learners a particular way of classifying knowledge and skills as important or unimportant (Bernstein, in Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:53).

This study looked at curriculum as a subject, that is, the total content of a subject for a particular phase, course or field of study as well as matching study guides, manuals and guidelines. The actual curriculum, as defined by Graham-Jolly, in Hoadley and Jansen (2009:250), which refers to what happens in individual schools

and the actual experiences of learners was not ignored. The issue of time that is allocated for reading is also considered important. It helped to determine the section of language that is emphasised, or rather valued, by virtue of time allocation. Time allocated for reading lessons has an impact on the learners' perception of the value of reading.

It is interesting to know that curriculum reform goes along with obstacles and challenges. Cheung and Wong (2012:39) examined key hindering and facilitating factors in schools during the first stage of curriculum reform in Hong Kong. They identified key factors that were common in other countries, such as educators' heavy workloads, learning diversity in class, and teachers' inadequate understanding of the reform. The situation is not different in South Africa. Curriculum reform faced challenges, among others, educators' inadequate understanding of the curriculum, which made it difficult for them to implement. This was resolved by introducing various curricula in an attempt to help educators to cope with the reform. It is important to note that although reforms are introduced at a particular level or phase of education, the results of implementation affects the whole system of education.

Michaelowa (2007:215) who was interested in the quality of education examined the relationship among different levels of education, that is, primary, secondary and higher education. It was found that the quality of primary and secondary education impacts on the tertiary education quality. This study sought to determine the attention that was given to reading across the three curricula, how it was affected by curriculum change, and the manner in which it can be improved.

The researcher is aware that there are other factors, other than curriculum reforms that impact on reading. Among factors noted by Coles (2010) are: (a) Attention span which might be short, experience, vocabulary level, and ability to make connections. Short attention span, as reported, cramp learners' ability to understand what they are reading. On the other hand, many life experiences that learners can draw upon from their memory bank may be more apt to follow along with a given reading selection. Learners who possess an expansive vocabulary are more likely to understand textual writing, hence, the saying that mastery of vocabulary affects reading comprehension. Making connections is also essential as, while learners read, they should be able to make connections to themselves, their surrounding or

environment. The more they are able to connect a written work to something personal, the more apt they are to fully understand. (b)There are also the environmental, family and cultural factors that have an impact on reading. If learners do not see adults and siblings in the home valuing reading, they may disparage reading as something to be endured rather than enjoyed. To an anxious learner who is suffering from learning disability, learning to read can be a drawn-out and painful process. (c) The advent of television and computers has affected the learners' concentration power. This has made it difficult for learners to stay in one place and read. Besides, television is so much easier to watch than to actually take the time to read a whole book. (d) Finally, the test-crazed schools environments have certainly affected reading. Learners are only reading information that will enable them to answer an assessment task (eNotes, 2009).

The literature reviewed, indicates that curriculum is not only limited to what is planned and documented, but extends also to the actual happenings at schools. Time allocation in curriculum indirectly contributes to the valuing of subjects, or specific aspects in a subject. Curriculum in this study focused on the content specified (what we teach), educational methods (how we teach and assess) and time factor (the amount of time allocated to a specific content). The expectations (learning outcomes) as influenced by the national goals were also considered. Most studies were done focusing on the purpose and value of reading, describing the competent reader, stages of reading development, relationship among different levels of education, the reading problems, factors other than curriculum reform that were hindering reading competency, and the impact of curriculum change on the people affected. Little has been done in the area of the impact of constant curriculum change on the reading ability of learners. The intention of this study was to fill this gap by examining reading across the three curricula, focusing on the content taught, methods applied, time allocated for the activity, the expectations met, and the impact of reading on the overall results of the learners. This entailed the effect of curriculum change on the reading ability of English FAL learners in grade ten.

1.4 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

LibGuides at University of Southern California (2012) indicates that theories are formulated to explain, predict and understand phenomena and, in many cases to

challenge and extend existing knowledge, within the limits of the critical bounding assumptions. Theoretical framework is therefore the structure that can hold or support a theory of research study. Theoretical framework introduces and describes the theory which explains why the research problem under study exists. Torraco (1997) declares that it provides the researcher the lens to view the world. Researchers must explicitly state what is known, what is not known, what could be known, and how what is learned from current research studies adds to or provides new perspectives to the knowledge base.

Theoretical framework guided the researcher to get the theory that would be most relevant to the research problem under study. Several theories on reading were studied, and two theories were used for this study; Schema theory (Bartlett, 1932) on foreign language reading development and Stage development theory of reading (Chall, 1983). The theories were used not only to state the known and the unknown, but also to challenge or extend the existing knowledge. The other theories helped the researcher to have a deeper understanding of learning how to read, how the reader comprehend the text (traditional, cognitive and metacognitive theory of reading), and to locate learners within the context of their own cultural reference (Afrocentricity). The last theory, phenomenological theory of art, was more interested in getting the message conveyed by the author.

Schema theory on foreign language reading comprehension (Xie, 2012) is based on the fact that the reader's world knowledge schema is as important as his language knowledge. Efficient reading needs adequate language knowledge, quick activation of word-meaning schemata and the techniques using background schemata to predict and infer. Schemata are data structures to illustrate the general ideas stored in memory. Phenomenological theory of art (Iser, 1974) emphasises that in reading, one should take into account the artistic pole (the actual text created by the author) and the esthetic pole (realisation accomplished by the reader). From this polarity it follows that the literary work cannot be completely identical with the text or with the realization of the text, but it must lay half way between the two. The reader uses various perspectives offered to him by the text in order to relate the patterns and the 'schematised views' to one another. Just like the teaching methodologies, reading theories have also had their shifts and transitions. Starting from the traditional view of reading, which focused on printed form of a text, then moving to cognitive view

which enhanced the role of background knowledge in addition to what appeared on the printed page, they ultimately culminated in the vogue metacognitive view. It is based on the control and manipulation that a reader can have on the act of comprehending a text (BBC, 2005). Afrocentricity (Asante, 1987), on the other hand, is a frame of reference wherein phenomena are viewed from the perspective of the African person. Centricity in education implies locating students within the context of their own cultural reference so that they can relate socially and psychologically to other cultural perspectives (Asante, 1991).

The research aim and objectives of this study identify how constant curriculum change has impacted on the reading ability of learners, and determine whether reading efficiency is attained or not. Based on that, the relevant theory for this study is stage development theory of reading (Chall, 1983). This theory is outlined by Chall (1983) as the process that begins at birth and continues beyond college. It consists of successive stages that are characterised by a growth in the ability to read, more complex, technical, and abstract material. Chall (1983) further indicated that like any steps or growth process, the stages will overlap for all readers. Each individual's progress through the stages is also affected by interactions with their environment. To support learners' development, one has to understand the theory from two points of view; what to look for at each stage, and how to support development, or what works instructionally. Curtis and Longo (2001:10) illustrate how stage development theory of reading has helped to develop a highly successful reading programme created for older struggling readers. It has helped to note 'what has failed to develop, what has developed differently, and most importantly, what still needs to be developed.' Stages of reading development were identified as emergent literacy, early reading, growing independence, reading to learn, and abstract reading (Gunning, 2010:10-11).

The challenge with the first four theories is that they are more concerned with teaching and learning of reading, or rather, internalising the reading processes other than analysing the level of reading. However, these theories can help in enhancing the reading ability of learners. This study is therefore based on the stage development theory of reading. The theory assisted the researcher to identify the learners' level of reading, and even state how to support their development.

1.5 AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study was to investigate the effect of curriculum change process on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten.

1.6 OBJECTIVES

To attain the aim above, the following objectives were formulated:

➢ To identify the relevant reading skills in Curriculum 2005 (C2005), National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) and to determine time allocated for reading in the past and present curricula

➢ To identify the level of reading skills and determine whether learners attain the required reading skills by the end of the period stated in the pace setter

➢ To make recommendations on measures that could be taken to enhance learners' reading skills.

➢ To establish the vocabulary and comprehension skills of EFAL learners in grade ten

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Methodology refers to the ways one collects and analyse data. In a broader context, it refers to a design whereby the researcher selects data collection and analysis procedures to investigate a specific research problem (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:9-10). To address the aim and objectives of this study, mixed methods approach was employed. Mixed methods study involves collection or analysis of both quantitative and/or qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority; and involve the integration of data at one or more stages in the process of research to understand the research problem more completely (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:212 and Ivankova, Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:261).

The researcher has the option of collecting both forms of data, that is, quantitative and qualitative, and in the analysis process transform the qualitative data into numerical scores (themes and codes counted for frequencies) so that they may be compared with quantitative scores. Alternatively, analysis might proceed separately for both quantitative and qualitative data, and then information be compared at the

interpretation (or discussion) stage of research. Less commonly found in mixed methods studies is integration at data collection (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:220). Guided by the definitions provided, the researcher collected and analysed both types of data separately, and made integration at the interpretation stage of research. The study followed mainly qualitative research approach with a small scale quantitative approach. Quantitative approach was used to gain broader perspective of the problem that is its scope.

1.7.1 Research design

A descriptive survey design was used to first establish attitudes of participants towards the topic. A follow up was done through qualitative approach to look at the depth of the problem and learn about individual perspectives (Ivankova, Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:260). Within the qualitative approach, a case study was used. This design strives towards a comprehensive understanding of how participants relate and interact with each other in a specific situation and how they make meaning of the phenomenon (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:75). By combining both numeric data and text data in sequence, and by choosing variables and units of analysis which are appropriate for addressing the study purpose and finding answers to the research questions, the researcher embarked on a mixed methods research approach.

Although there is criticism labelled against case study methodology, that it is incapable of providing a generalised conclusion because of its dependence on a single case, the researcher aimed at gaining greater insight and understanding of the dynamics of a specific situation. This was done as per the metaphor used in the social sciences which asserts that a well-selected case constitutes a dew drop in which the world is reflected (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:76). Bassey, (2007:148) further identifies evaluative case studies, which is an enquiry set out to explore some educational programme, system, project or event in order to focus on its worthiness. The case may be formative (in helping the development of a programme) or summative (in assessing it after an event). Though drawing on theoretical notions, it is not necessarily intended to contribute to the development of theory. A case study, in this research is guided by characteristics as stated by Bassey (2007).

1.7.2 Sampling

Sampling theory is defined by Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006:97) as a technical accounting device to rationalise the collection of information, to choose in an appropriate way the restricted set of objects, persons, events and so forth from which the actual information will be drawn. It has been developed to suggest ways of drawing 'scientific' samples, that is, samples that are random and representative of the population and whose findings can tell us more about the population in general (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:172). Sampling is done because the inclusion of the entire population in the study may be impossible, with the main restrictions being time and cost. In choosing sample size, the researcher was guided by the criteria as stated by Patton (2002:244) that there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry. Sample size depends on what we want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what is at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with the available time and resources. Sampling is undertaken after the actual investigation has commenced (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2011:391). Based on this information, the researcher used grade ten learners, educators offering EFAL in grade ten, and all the relevant policy documents related to assessment in C2005, NCS and CAPS. The main intention was to explore as much data as possible.

Considering the purpose of this study, that is to investigate the effect of curriculum change process on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten, and the study design, the sample included grade ten learners and educators, sampled from schools in Capricorn District, Limpopo Province. The researcher used two out of seven clusters of this district, and within each cluster, one school was selected. The intention was to use all learners and all educators in sampled schools, with the intention of gaining a broader perspective of the problem. This is what Maree (ed) (2007:176) calls cluster sampling. Schools in a district are taken as clusters from which either all elements or a randomly selected number form the sample. These schools were further taken as sample frame, and then simple random sampling was used to select a few schools. The sample comprised one hundred and fifteen grade ten learners who were doing EFAL (sixty from first school and fifty-five from second school) and all educators who are offering EFAL in grade ten, who are four in number (two from each school).

Purposive sampling, which is a non-probability sampling method, was used to select a sample from the population of schools in Capricorn District, Limpopo Province. The district is divided into seven clusters, which are further sub-divided into thirty-two circuits. The researcher used two clusters out of a pool of seven. In each cluster, one school was selected. This resulted in the use of two secondary schools as sample. The schools are situated in rural areas where the socio-economic conditions are not favourable. Most of the houses there are child-headed, or children are living with their grandparents. Poverty is rife, the schools there have been declared no-fee schools, and feeding schemes have been introduced as a way of alleviating poverty. English First Additional Language (EFAL), which is used as a language of learning and teaching (LoLT), is learned in a foreign language learning context. There is a lack of public libraries around both schools. All educators taught EFAL in grade ten, and all learners in grade ten in sampled schools were taken as subjects. Both schools have two educators who are responsible for EFAL in grade ten. The total number of all learners is hundred and fifteen. After sampling was done, the instruments that were used to collect data were chosen.

1.7.3 Data collection instruments

Various instruments were used to collect data. As the researcher was using mixed methods approach, both quantitative and qualitative instruments were used to attain both numeric and text data.

1.7.3.1 Quantitative instruments

The use of these instruments was intended to gain a broader perspective of the problem.

Questionnaires: Closed questions were prepared for the educators and the learners. These questions provided for a set of responses from which the respondent had to choose one or more than one response from a number provided (Delport & Roestenburg, in De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport [eds], 2011:198). The aim was to identify the dominant factors that contribute towards lack of readability. Learner population in grade ten who responded to questionnaires was one-hundred-and-seven. All the learners were given questionnaires, as well as all the educators (four) who are offering EFAL in grade ten (two in each school).

Standardized reading tests: Differential Aptitude Test Form K, Subtests Vocabulary and Reading comprehension were given to all grade ten learners in the sampled schools. This test was standardised for all population groups in South Africa, designed and normed for children from disadvantaged educational backgrounds. The results thereof were intended to help in identifying the learners' level of reading. One-hundred-and-eight learners participated in this test.

1.7.3.2 Qualitative instruments

With the use of these instruments the researcher's aim was to experience the depth of the problem and learning about individual perspectives as stated in Ivankova, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:260).

Interviews: A semi-structured interview schedule was designed for the educators and the learners. This entails the researcher broadly controlling the agenda and the process of the interview, whilst leaving interviewees free-within-limits to respond as they best saw fit (Ribbins, 2007:209). Six learners were interviewed from each school. The total number of learners who were interviewed was twelve. This number constitutes 11% of the population, which was guided by data saturation. The aim was to determine the perceptions of the participants on their attitude towards reading and the level of reading.

Observations: Here the intention was to observe reading lessons in progress. The researcher gathered data by recording behavioural patterns of participants and occurrences without questioning or communicating. The intention was to confirm the truthfulness of what has been said by educators and learners during the interviews and in the questionnaires, and to assess the reading progress through the rating scale for the assessment of reading aloud (Nieman, 2008:97). There was an observation of four reading lessons in progress (two lessons in each school). The first observation was done as educators were teaching lessons in reading. Thereafter six learners were observed from the first school and another six from the second school as they were reading aloud. The number of learners observed constitutes 11% of the total population.

Documents: As this study intended to make reference to the past curricula, the relevant curriculum policy documents; C2005, NCS and CAPS were examined and analysed. The intention was to determine the manner in which reading was taught

and assessed in the different curricula, and the time that was allocated for reading. After data was gathered through these various instruments, the next step considered was that of data analysis.

1.7.4 Data analysis

Data analysis is the process of making sense out of text and image data. Creswell (2009:183) states that it involves preparing data for analysis, conducting different analyses, and moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data, which some qualitative researchers like to think of as 'peeling back the layers of an onion, representing the data and making interpretation of the larger meaning of the data.' In the process of analysis both qualitative and quantitative strategies were necessary, hence a mixed method approach.

1.7.4.1 Quantitative data analysis

Questionnaires: Data was prepared for data entry, and then coded. Coding refers to systematic reorganising of raw data into a format that is machine readable (Fouche & Bartley in De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport [eds], 2011:252). Then the software package of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse data into descriptive data.

Standardized reading tests: Differential Aptitude Test Form K was analysed quantitatively using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to generate tabular reports, charts and graphs.

1.7.4.2 Qualitative data analysis

Interviews: Steps of carrying out phenomenological analysis of interview data, as stated by Hycner (1985:280-291) were followed. They include data transcription, bracketing and phenomenological reduction, listening to the interview for a sense of the whole, delineating units of the general meaning and those of meaning relevant to research, eliminating redundancies, clustering units of relevant meaning, determining themes from clusters of meaning, and writing a summary for each individual interview.

Observations: Data gathered from the rating scale for the assessment of reading aloud, the behavioural patterns of participants and the occurrences in the classroom

were transcribed and then coded. Data reduction, data organization, and data interpretation was conducted.

Documents: Content analysis was used to analyse documents. Data from the different policy documents, that is, C2005, NCS and CAPS were examined from different angles with a view to identify keys in the text that will help to understand and interpret raw data. Furthermore, the researcher looked for similarities and differences in the text that would corroborate or disconfirm theory (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:101). Steps of analysis as stated in Creswell (2009: 185-189) were used to analyse the curriculum policy documents. They include, organising and preparing data for analysis, reading through all data, beginning a detailed analysis with a coding process, and dealing with codes to generate categories or themes for analysis. The main purpose was to make a comparison of the teaching and assessment procedures and methods of reading, and time allocated to reading in C2005, NCS and CAPS. Other reasons were to explore and explain how reading is approached and to forecast the measures that could be adopted to improve learners' reading skills.

1.7.5 Reliability, validity and objectivity

There was a pilot test of newly constructed questionnaires before utilisation in the main investigation. This was done to eliminate ambiguous questions which may lead to non- comparable responses, leading questions that may lead to biased responses and vague questions that may lead to vague answers. Pilot testing was used to improve face and content validity of the instrument, estimate how long it takes to complete the questionnaire, and ensure that errors of whatever nature are rectified at little cost (Delport & Roestenburg, 2011:195). As the reading test that was used was already standardised and designed for particular population groups in South Africa, there was no need for piloting this instrument.

For qualitative instruments, it has been noted that it is often difficult to apply reliability and validity using unstructured and semi-structured interviews because of the deliberate strategy of treating each participant as a potentially unique respondent (Bush, 2007:92). It is again difficult to achieve reliability and validity in observation research as the observation will be made in different times, with different people present and the participants may bring different thoughts and feelings to the meeting

(Bush, 2007:95). Documents are in a permanent form and can be subject to re-analysis, allowing reliability checks and replication studies. However, Robson (1994: 243), who recommends that two people be involved in coding a text to improve reliability, goes further to nullify the idea by stating that this may be difficult for single-handed researchers such as postgraduate students. This leads to Bassey (1999) and Kincheloe and McLaren (1998:287) to dismiss reliability and validity for case studies and substitute that with 'trustworthiness'. Trustworthiness refers to the way in which the enquirer is able to persuade the audience that the findings in the study are worth paying attention to, and that the research is of high quality. With trustworthiness verifiability rests on a rational proof built upon literal intended meaning, and a critical qualitative perspective always involves less certain approach characterized by participant reaction and emotional involvement. The researcher achieved this by employing member checking. Identified themes were discussed with the participants to ensure that they were accurate and dependable (Maree, 2007:297).

The use of mixed methods approach, regarded by Bush, (2007:100-101) as a device for improving validity by checking data, helped in achieving trustworthiness. Furthermore, the researcher made triangulation of all data collected during research process, including results of the questionnaire, findings from interviews, observation field notes and documents, in order to search for common themes to provide reliable findings. Triangulation refers to the interpretation of findings by mixing qualitative and quantitative styles of research and data (Maree, 2007:296).

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The researcher is aware of the aims and approaches to ethical considerations, and therefore took that into consideration. The following were observed for that purpose:

Privacy: The researcher is aware that she is ethically bound to maintain the privacy of participants, including confidentiality for any information they give. Therefore, anonymity probing into areas that constitute participants' private space were maintained. The researcher also communicated the aim of the investigation to the informants, and the anticipated consequences of research. Furthermore, privacy was maintained by fictionalising and codifying participants' names and places as stated by Busher and James (2007:113).

Letters of consent: The researcher obtained letters of consent from the Limpopo Department of Education and the principals at the affected schools. In addition, permission was obtained from educators and learners' parents (signed consent) to be interviewed and observed.

Professionalism: The reading test was administered by qualified and registered psychologist as it is required.

The researcher also applied and gained ethical clearance from the Turfloop Research and Ethics Committee.

1.9. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE RESEARCH

There are expectations from each study, in that it must, according to De Vos et al (2011:107) contribute to knowledge, either theoretically or methodologically. The relevant practice or policy arenas should find usefulness and meaning in the study. The researcher's intention is to disclose the value of reading and help educators and learners to improve their practice. This research is also significant because it has helped to unveil different ways of improving learners' reading skills, to revive the culture of reading among learners, and to bridge the gap between literacy skills in high schools and academic literacy. The study also calls for policy amendments where there are flaws related to reading. It is again the intention of the researcher that the study should add to the scholarly research and literature in the field.

1.10 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

The deteriorating levels of literacy and numeracy, which has been noted with concern in the education system of South Africa after the establishment of democratic government, influenced this study. The decline not only affected literacy and numeracy, but the quality of education as a whole dropped. The failure rate of grade ten learners, who were studying EFAL and even using English as language of learning and teaching, exhibited the problem in this study. The aim of this study, which was to investigate the effect of curriculum change on the reading ability of learners in grade ten, and research objectives as stated earlier (cf 6), tried to address this issue by obtaining the educators' and learners' perceptions on learners' level of reading in English. Methods and instruments were carefully selected to ensure that the researcher was able to get the most relevant information. Mixed

methods approach was adopted, where both quantitative and qualitative instruments were used to gather data. Data analysis was carefully structured to

ensure that data was presented in a more understandable way. Ethical considerations and delimitations of the study have also been stated. The researcher used this sketch of research, provided in this opening chapter as a mind map on the journey of research.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

To have a clear understanding of what is taking place in educational institutions, it is of paramount importance to get orientation on basic concepts that are commonly bandied around, and are even used in this study. This chapter aims at providing detailed explanation of these concepts, which are curriculum, reading, reading ability, reading problem and English First Additional Language (EFAL). Detailed explanation of these concepts, as stated in literature, are followed by the researcher's stance or explanation of the concept. Again, with the assumption that curriculum change might be one of the factors that affected reading ability of learners, there follows an intense study of how teaching and learning of reading were addressed in various curricula in the education system of South Africa.

Once more, as education is a basic and common phenomenon in all nationalities, there was a study of curriculum and reasons for curriculum change in two countries, namely United States, a First World country, and China, a member of BRICS (acronym of Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa), which is a developing country. The aim of the study is to analyse factors that necessitates curriculum change, challenges experienced in the process of change, and strategies that are used to overcome such challenges. The limelight is on teaching and learning of reading in those curricula. This is used to map out a way forward in the South African education system.

An in-depth study of curriculum and curriculum policies in the education system of South Africa was carried out. Although a background of Nated 550 (apartheid curriculum) is outlined, the focus is on Curriculum 2005, National Curriculum Statement, and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement. Content that has been prescribed in different curricula was also examined, together with the theories that laid the foundation in the establishment of affected curricula. The study of theories that informs reading, and theories on curriculum change helps to provide a lens through which this study should be viewed. Various theories are presented and reasons for opting for them in this study are expressed. The concept, reading, is thoroughly interrogated, together with theories that inform it. The researcher further

investigates how the language issue was, and is treated in various curricula. This paves the way for examining the manner in which teaching and learning of reading was carried out.

Reading is also interrogated. There is an intense study on what reading means, types of reading, assessing and determining learners' reading efficiency, and reliable and validated tests that can be used to assess reading. The fact that there are factors other than curriculum change that have an influence on reading ability cannot be overlooked. Those factors are also explored. Curriculum models are also studied with the intention of determining where English First Additional Language (EFAL) fits into that model. Finally, challenges that come along with curriculum change are not ignored. The intention of providing such valuable information is to assist in coming up with measures that could be employed to uplift the level of reading ability, and suggesting strategies that could be employed to address shortcomings that may be found in curriculum, if there are any.

2.2 CONCEPTUALISATION OF TERMS

Conceptualisation refers to the process whereby concepts are given theoretical meaning. This is necessary in a study as it enables readers to access what is written and even understand the study from the author's perspective. Mueller (2013) indicates how concepts are defined abstractly in theoretical terms. It is during conceptualisation that concepts are identified and clarified, thus specifying what we mean by using certain terms. Here, fundamental concepts used in the study are defined. The concepts are curriculum, curriculum change, reading, reading ability, reading problem and English First Additional Language (EFAL).

2.2.1 Curriculum

Just as nucleus is the brain of the cell that enables different parts to function properly, curriculum is the nucleus in education system. It is executed at school level. Schools function well and even have direction and purpose for existence through curriculum. Curriculum determines tasks that are to be carried out by different stakeholders in the education system. The success or failure of school as an entity is gauged through curriculum. It is therefore imperative to know and understand the concept 'curriculum' in the context of this study.

A variety of definitions are discussed to acquaint the reader with this concept. Eisner (1994) and Teachers Mind Resources (2013) agree that generally, when people use the word curriculum, they are referring to content chosen to be taught at schools. The content is considered important and properly selected that it will pass knowledge and skills that are considered important to young people. Graham-Jolly, in Hoadley and Jansen (ed) (2009:247) and Wilson (1990) go beyond content when they view it as formal academic programme which is written as part of formal instruction of schooling experiences and, all learning for which the school is responsible. The school takes the responsibility of implementing such programmes. Ebert II, Ebert and Bently (2011) who hold the same idea with the De Lange Report (HSRC 1981) go into finer details when they define curriculum at a subject level. They define it as the total content of a subject for a particular phase, course or field of study, as well as matching study guides, manuals and guidelines. Students interact with materials for the purpose of achieving the identified educational outcomes.

The idea brought forth by Graham-Jolly, in Hoadley and Jansen(ed) (2009:248), of differentiating between the 'formal' or 'official' curriculum, which is planned and documented, and the 'actual' curriculum, that is, what happens in the individual schools cannot go unnoticed. In the official curriculum, the state and district officials set forth the curriculum frameworks and courses of study. The officials expect educators to teach it, assuming learners will learn it. Official curriculum, in short, states the content to be covered in the syllabus, or a programme of planned activities. The everyday functioning of school is driven by official curriculum, and tests that hold educators and learners accountable to that curriculum.

While a variety of definitions of the concept curriculum have been suggested, this study uses the definitions stated by Graham-Jolly and Teachers Mind Resources. The focus is on content chosen to be taught as stated in the formal or official curriculum. The definition stated by Ebert II et al, is also considered; that of considering materials in the form of study guides, manuals and guidelines to achieve identified educational goals. Curriculum is examined considering the content of subject and the prescribed materials.

2.2.2 Curriculum change

It is very crucial that at a certain stage curriculum should be changed. Change is defined in the Business dictionary [sa] as the process of causing a function, practice or thing to become different somehow compared to what it is at present or what it was in the past. It is an act of replacing something with another of a similar type (Macmillan Dictionary, 2015). Schubert (2013:87) holds a different opinion when defining change. Change is defined in a comparative manner with the concept reform, whereby the concept reform implies reshaping, reconfiguring or to make something different. Change is interpreted in a manner that it does not imply improvement. In brief, one can say that Schubert differentiates change from reform in a manner that change does not imply improvement while reform brings improvement. In this study, preference is given to the concept change as defined in the Business dictionary, that is, the process of causing a function, practice or thing to become different somehow compared to what it is at present or what it was in the past. The idea of improvement advocated by Schubert will also be added to the definition.

To expand further on this concept, it is important to have a surface look at factors that necessitate change. It has been noticed that while educational and curriculum change may be driven by social, economic and political changes in a country, global changes also put pressure on educators to rethink curriculum in schools and universities. Change in government may also inform curriculum change. The South African situation can be taken as an example where, when the apartheid government was replaced by a democratic system, the majority of South Africans expected the new government to change the curriculum to one that reflected the values and beliefs of a non-racial democracy. The government was compelled to remove curriculum content and practices that were at odds with the principles of social justice, equity and redress (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:207).

Change can also be informed by economic needs. At the time when South Africa shifted from agricultural society to society that was more dependent on industrial/ commercial economy, the curriculum changed to reflect the kinds of work opportunities available in the cities and in industry. Schools introduced commerce subjects. According to Hoadley and Jansen (2009:208), it was this economic

development that contributed to the introduction of Bantu Education. As South Africa is now moving into the information age, where roles in the workplace require different sorts of skills and different attitudes, the curriculum is changing again.

Another factor that may caution change is new technological needs. Change in economic emphasis from industry to information technology suggested revisiting of prescribed curriculum to respond to significant technological changes. Computers are widespread in modern societies and many countries introduced Computer Literacy and Information Technology into the school curriculum. This is also reiterated by Jorgenson (2006) when indicating that changes are taking place rapidly, against the backdrop of shifting from an industrial economy to the one based on the instantaneous, global traffic of information.

The last factor which is stated by Hoadley and Jansen (2009:208) as an agent that informs change in curriculum, is new social needs, or rather challenges in a society. When society is threatened by a particular problem, most people put pressure on governments or non-governmental agencies to change the curriculum. For example, the spread of HIV/AIDS as a serious disease led many schools, colleges and universities to include HIV/AIDS education and/ or sex education in the curriculum. Similarly, the increasing recognition of racism as a major social problem has often led to the introduction of multicultural and anti-racist education in schools. Changing needs of learners, according to Jorgenson (2006), demand that educators expand their roles beyond purveyors of information, to become facilitators, co-investigators, guides and coordinators. Hence the statement by Tony Wagner, making presentation at the Hawaii Executive Conference: "Teachers and school leaders today must rebuild the airplane while they're flying it" (Wagner, in Jorgenson, 2006:1).

Chisholm (2005:193) calls this change, cleansing. She declares that when South Africa introduced a new curriculum between 2000 and 2002 (C2005), some cleansing to existing curriculum was done. Syllabi were cleansed of their most offensive racist language and purged of their most controversial and outdated content. This was done by introducing new vocabulary, changing terminology and even introducing new concepts as tools for educators to construct the new curriculum. To mention but a few, teachers became educators, students - learners,

subjects – learning areas, syllabi – learning programmes and textbooks – learning support materials.

Curriculum change was highly influenced by universities, as institutions involved with knowledge production and education. Hoadley-Jansen (2009:214) posits that one of the roles that has been played by universities, traditionally, has been to define, to a large extent, what knowledge is valuable and useful to society. Many curriculum planners were lecturers at universities, while assessment boards were often staffed by university academics. Chisholm (2005) showed how review of C2005 and the drawing of National Curriculum Statement (NCS) was dominated by the academics, especially the writing of new outcomes.

Other concepts that are used in curriculum change, besides cleansing are curriculum revision, reform, transformation and innovation. All involve deliberate actions to improve teaching and learning. For the purpose of this study, curriculum change is the concept that is used.

2.2.3 Reading

Reading is another basic concept that needs to be unpacked in order to have a clear understanding of this study. Various authors present different definitions of this concept. Definitions given vary on focus, where the following are looked at: the ultimate goal of reading, interaction between the reader and the message, and a search for meaning in the text. The definitions below define the concept reading based on the summary stated.

Du Toit, Heese and Orr (1995:3) basically look at the ultimate goal of learning as they put it, "If you want to be an achiever as a student, it is necessary to become a competent reader. There is no doubt that reading competence is closely linked to academic success." Burns, Roe and Ross (1996:27) hold the same opinion as Du Toit et al (1995:4), and define reading as an interactive activity that requires the reader to get involved with the text. The reader tries to reconstruct the writer's message with the help of background knowledge. Interaction can be done by making predictions, identifying main ideas, drawing conclusions, agreeing or disagreeing while looking for more information to support the ideas. On the other hand, Van der Walt, Evans and Kilfoil (2009:149) concur with Department of Basic Education (2011a:28) by defining reading as a search for meaning in the text and paying close

attention to the language features. As it involves actively making sense of the text, and working out meaning of unfamiliar words and images by using word attack skills and contextual clues, it thus requires the active participation of the reader. It further questions reader's cognitive processes, prior knowledge of topic area, culture specific items, rhetorical organisation and language against the text (Van der Walt et al, 2009:153).

From the definitions given, highly noted is the fact that readers bring to the act of reading their general as well as subject-specific knowledge; their reading, educational and life experiences; their cultural background, beliefs and values; their interests and their feelings. All of these help readers to construct the meaning of what they read. Reconstruction of the message from a printed source is done with the help of the reader's background knowledge. Van der Walt et al (2009:149) are specific when they define reading as a search for meaning that requires active participation of a reader. They regard reading as a skill, and the aim of teaching reading should be the development of skills that would enable the reader to extract meaning from any text. It is a process that involves making meaning of the text and paying close attention to its language features (Department of Basic Education, 2011b:28). Reading therefore calls for competency in decoding of words and a certain cognitive level that will enhance comprehension. The latter definitions focus on the skill of extracting meaning, and the art of decoding.

From the list of definitions of reading stated above, it is clear that reading goes beyond ordinary decoding of words. Throughout this study, the definition that is used is the one suggested by Van der Walt et al (2009:153) who sees reading as an interactive process involving, on one hand, the reader's cognitive processes, prior knowledge of the topic area, culture-specific items, rhetorical organisation and language, and on the other hand, the specific text. The idea of developing skills that would enable the reader to extract meaning from the text, and the one of developing decoding competency are added to the definition above.

2.2.4 Reading ability

As reading requires a skill that would enable readers to extract meaning from the text, the development of such a skill is necessary. When that skill is developed, we can talk about reading ability. It has already been indicated previously that reading is

a complex act that must be learned. Burns et al (1996:14) realised the importance of reading, and call reading a means by which further learning takes place. A person learns to read, and at a later stage reads to learn. The ability to read has rewards in many ways; it increases success in school, helps in coping with everyday situations outside of school, bestows status, and provides recreation. When reading is developed it becomes a means through which people learn other things. The aim of a reading course in secondary schools is to develop discourse competence that enables readers to make sense of written texts, and develop skills that would enable reader to extract meaning from any text (Van der Walt et al, 2009:152).

For Du Toit et al (1995:6), reading ability implies understanding what the reader reads by remembering important information correctly. The reader should also be able to read efficiently by undertaking reading tasks confidently, and be able to evaluate what they read, that is, doing independent reading for research. Reading ability goes further to what is known as advanced reading. In advanced reading, readers have to use their own judgement about what they are reading. They have to form and express their own opinions, and again, read independently to find information. Du Toit et al (1995:7) argue that there is clear evidence that people who read widely, simply for their own enjoyment, tend to develop better language skills than those whose reading is limited. Extensive reading is therefore recommended.

The statement by Du Toit et al (1995:3) that a competent reader becomes an achiever as a student cannot be underestimated. Reading ability is equated to academic success. What is noted from definitions provided is that reading goes beyond mere decoding of words. The reader's cognitive process of applying prior knowledge, making interpretations and paying close attention to language features are important towards comprehending texts. Reading ability, in some cases may be referred to as reading competency, or reading efficiently. For the purpose of this study, reading ability is the concept that is used, and it is examined from the decoding angle and also the cognitive angle, which implies understanding and remembering.

2.2.5 Reading problem

This concept encompass all activities that have negative impact on reading. Different concepts are used by various authors to describe this condition. It is commonly

known that reading disability or reading problems occur when the reader has trouble with any part of the reading process. The reader may have difficulty in reading or understanding material within a reading. According to the definition provided by Gunning (2010:2), reading difficulty is defined as reading at a level far below what might reasonably be expected, with the discrepancy between the overall cognitive ability and reading achievement. For high school learners, it might take the form of reading so slowly that learners cannot keep up with outside reading assignments. Lapkin (2015:1) calls that reading disorder, which in severe cases, is called dyslexia. With dyslexia, a reader mixes up letters and/ or word sequences and therefore has interference in their learning as the brain has problem processing language.

Gunning (2010:5) goes on to explain the functional definition of reading disability as judging whether or not reading disability interferes with the reader's life circumstances. It may hinder the reader from engaging in reading and writing activities that others in similar circumstances encounter. For high school learners, it might take the form of reading so slowly that they cannot keep up with outside reading assignments. Lapkin (2015) explains that dyslexia is not a sign of low intelligence or laziness, or not due to poor vision, but a condition that affects the way the brain processes written and spoken language. Ethnomed (2015:1-3) focussed on the factors responsible for reading problems, and believe that this condition can be hereditary, that is, family carries this disorder or, environmental, that is, issues like poverty, learners whose parents have low reading levels, and learners with speech or hearing impairments. Some signs of reading disorder, as stated in Ethnomed (2015:4) are; speed and accuracy that a person can read a single word (slower pace), poor recognition of written words, very slow oral reading, many mistakes in oral reading, and very poor comprehension of what has been read.

The definitions provided here indicate that various concepts can be used that refer to reading problem. Reading difficulty and reading disorder are the concepts stated, and refer to the challenges encountered when reading is done. Throughout this study, the definitions stated by Gunning (2010) and Lapkin (2015) which emphasises the difficulty of understanding the reading material and the level at which the problem interferes with life circumstances, is employed. The concept that is used in this study is reading problem.

2.2.6 English First Additional Language (EFAL)

Before stating in detail the definition of this concept, a brief background of the use of English language is given, how it became an official language, and the level called First Additional Language (FAL). English is used in most South African schools as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT). This trend emanates from both political and ideological reasons. Politically, blacks are discouraged to use their mother tongue as language of learning and teaching because of the previous marginalization and under-development of African languages, and the history of inferior education offered by Bantu Education during the apartheid era. Ideologically it is believed that mother tongue instruction denies school leavers access to better job opportunities (Rapetsoa, 2005:3). National Education Policy Initiative (NEPI) Report (1992:13) states that parents' memories of Bantu education, combined with their perception of English as a gateway to better education, make them to favour English as LoLT from the beginning of school, even if their children do not know the language before they go to school. Saranjeive (1999:136), on the other hand, maintains that in South Africa, English is institutionally taken to be the panacea to solve all perceived language problems and the means to achieve all goals of 'daily living'.

In Limpopo Province, Capricorn District alone has four-hundred-and-sixteen schools, which includes both public and independent schools. Out of these four-hundred-and-sixteen schools, eight schools (1.9%) use Afrikaans as a language of learning and teaching, while the remaining four-hundred-and-eight schools (98.1%) use English (Department of Education, 2010). Despite the passing of South African Schools Act (SASA) of 1996 and Language in Education Policy of 1997, most black schools in South Africa decided to maintain the status quo by retaining English as their language of learning and teaching. This is an indication that most parents are still happy with the use of English as LoLT, in spite of the challenges experienced by their children at school.

English is one of the official languages in South Africa. It has been an official language since the Anglicisation period, and it continued to enjoy preference even after the establishment of democratic government in South Africa. All official languages in South Africa are offered at three levels; home language (HL) level, First

Additional Language (FAL) level, and Second Additional Language (SAL) level. Although listening and speaking skills are given attention in HL, emphasis here is put on developing the learners' reading and writing skills. HL should provide a sound foundation for learning additional languages. FAL put equal emphasis on the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing. FAL should provide for levels of language proficiency that meet the threshold levels necessary for effective learning across the curriculum. SAL is more interested in developing listening and speaking skills. Target of SAL is to improve interpersonal communication. Educators and learners may use HL or FAL as language of learning and teaching (Department of Basic Education, 2003:11).

This study refers to English, a highly preferred language in South Africa as the language of learning and teaching, on the level of FAL. Expectations of FAL are clearly stated in the document, Department of Basic Education (2011a:8-9). FAL assumes that learners do not necessarily have any knowledge of the language when they arrive at school. The focus in the first few years of school is on developing learners' ability to understand and speak the language, that is, basic interpersonal communication skills. Then learners will start building literacy on the oral foundation in grades two and three. In intermediate and senior phases, learners continue to strengthen their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. It is at this stage that most learners are learning through the medium of FAL (English) and should get more exposure to the language. Greater emphasis is placed on using FAL for the purpose of thinking and reasoning. By the time learners enter grade ten, they should be reasonably proficient in their FAL with regard to both interpersonal and cognitive academic skills. This study anticipates that learners are using English FAL as language of learning and teaching, and even considers the fact that they were only exposed to the language when they arrived at school. The assumption is that at grade ten level, learners are reasonably proficient in the use of their FAL for interpersonal and cognitive academic matters. Out of the four skills which FAL should put emphasis on, that is, listening, speaking, reading and writing, this study focuses on the skill of reading.

2.3 CURRICULUM IN THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

Various definitions of curriculum have already been stated in the conceptualisation of terms, and for the purpose of this study, the focus is on the content chosen to be taught as stated in the formal or official curriculum. Materials in the form of guidelines, manuals and study guides that help to achieve perceived educational goals are also considered.

2.3.1 Types of curricula

Different types of curricula are identified. There is the overt, explicit or written curriculum. This curriculum refers to curriculum document, texts, and supportive materials that are overtly chosen to support the intentional instructional agenda of a school (Cuban, 1992; Marsh & Willis, 2003). It states clearly subjects that will be taught, the identified mission of the school, and knowledge and skills that the school expects successful students to acquire. This curriculum can also be discussed in terms of time on task, contact hours, or Carnegie units (high school credit courses), and be qualified in terms of specific, observable, measurable learning objectives (Ebert II, Ebert & Bently, 2011:3). In Teacher's Mind Resources (2013) it is called official curriculum, that is, what the state and district officials set forth in curriculum frameworks and courses of study. They expect educators to teach it, and they assume learners will learn it.

Cuban (1992) and Marsh and Willis (2003) go further to identify rhetoric curriculum. Elements from this curriculum comprise ideas offered by policy makers, school officials, administrators, or politicians. They also come from those professionals involved in concept formation and content changes; or those educational initiatives resulting from decisions based on national and state reports, public speeches or from texts critiquing outdated educational practices. Rhetoric curriculum may also come from publicised works offering updates in pedagogical knowledge.

Although the formal curriculum comprises things in textbooks, content and concepts that need to be taught, those formal elements are frequently not taught. There is the actual curriculum that is delivered and presented by each educator, which is called curriculum-in-use (Cuban, 1992). Teacher's Mind Resources (2013) calls it the taught curriculum. This is what educators, working alone in their rooms, actually choose to teach. Their choice derive from their knowledge of the subject, their

experiences in teaching the content, their affection or dislike for topics, and their attitudes towards the learners they face daily.

There is lastly, null curriculum. This is, in simple terms that which is not taught at schools, thus giving the learners the message that those elements are not important in their educational experiences or in our society (Marsh & Willis, 2003; Eisner, 1994:103). Schools have consequences not only by virtue of what they do not teach, but also by virtue of what they neglect to teach. What learners cannot consider, what they do not process, and what they are unable to use, have consequences for the kinds of lives they lead. They are the options learners are not afforded, the perspectives they may never know about, much less be able to use, the concepts and skills that are not part of their intellectual repertoire (Eisner, 1994:106-107). Choices made by curriculum designers and/ or educators on what to include in the curriculum or what to leave out are based on a number of different factors. Educators have personal beliefs about the importance of various parts of the official curriculum. Given that they do not have the time to cover everything, they automatically choose those concepts they consider to be more important, or with which they feel more comfortable. Often educators choose topics simply because they find them more enjoyable or believe that learners will find them more interesting. The same criteria for inclusion may apply to those who write the curriculum. But in many cases there is a more pervasive and unexamined motive. These choices are sending messages to learners that certain content and processes are not important enough to study (Marsh & Willis, 2003).

2.3.2 Purpose of curriculum

Curriculum goes beyond the academic wall to impact the entire community. Without an effective curriculum, learners will not be able to understand or meet the challenges of society. A curriculum therefore, prepares individuals with knowledge to be successful, confident and responsible citizens (Glenn, 2013). In Scotland, curriculum aims at ensuring that all children and young people develop the knowledge, skills and attributes they will need if they are to flourish in life, learning and work, now and in the future (Education Scotland, 2013). In UK, education influences and reflects the values of society and the kind of society people want to be. It therefore, becomes important to recognise a set of common aims, values and

purposes that underpin the curriculum and the work of schools. In the national curriculum, there is an important element of the school curriculum (Government UK, 2013). Ebert II et al (2011:2) indicate the purpose of curriculum as preparation of students to thrive within the society as it is. This includes the capacity for positive change and growth. The ultimate goal of curriculum indicates that those who are involved in the planning of curriculum should look beyond the academic wall to make learners to become responsible citizens, and meet the challenges of the society.

2.3.3 Reforming curriculum

When curriculum can no longer meet the aim for which it is intended, reform becomes obligatory. In England, reform was introduced in order to 'raise its game' to compete with nations such as Singapore and South Korea where, it is said, more is expected of children in classrooms. The Minister of Education in England announced new national curriculum that promotes 'higher standards' by introducing 'harder' concepts earlier in learner's school lives (Dominiczak, 2013). National Curriculum for secondary schools was reformed in 2008 to give schools more local responsibility and flexibility in curricular planning, organisation and management. With an enhanced focus on the aims of supporting young people to be successful learners, confident individuals and responsible citizens, it ostensibly placed less emphasis than before on the acquisition of a body of curricular content.

The new curricular in Scotland is based on similar aims and objectives. The rationale for these changes is that, in order to be successful in the future, young people need skills, competences, and processes to manage their own learning and lifelong development in a changing world, and they need this more than they need a head full of facts. This does not mean that subjects and the curriculum have gone away, but schools have more flexibility in how they deliver those (Levey, 2010). Since the 1970s, Finland changed its traditional education system "into a model of a modern, publicly financed education system with the intention of attaining widespread equity, good quality and large participation" (Sahlberg, 2009:2).

On the other hand, South Africa has also, since 1998, been engaged with curriculum change, with the intention of adapting to the newly established democracy. Curriculum 2005 (C2005) was introduced in order to redress misdeeds of the past, as apartheid education had led to gross inequalities in the educational attainment,

skills, employment opportunity, productivity and income, mainly to the detriment of black people (Department of Education, 2001:30). The implementation process gave birth to a new streamlined version, with greatly reduced foreign concepts, known as Revised National Curriculum statement (RNCS) in grades R-9 and National Curriculum Statement (NCS) in grades 10-12, which was approved in June 2000 (Pretorius, 2007:38). The on-going implementation challenges resulted in another review in 2009 which produced the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), implemented from 2012 onwards (Department of Basic Education, 2011a).

2.3.4 Curriculum structure and meaning

The manner in which curriculum is structured conveys a certain meaning to the users. The organisation of time suggests that we value certain kinds of knowledge, and not others. There are subjects that are given morning slots on the school time table, and also more hours of contact time. Hoadley and Jansen (2009:53), on the other hand, show how the repetitive patterns we find occurring in many school time tables might convey to learners, over a number of years, particular way of classifying knowledge and skills as 'important or unimportant', 'subjects for boys' or 'subjects for girls' or perhaps 'subjects for clever learners' and 'subjects for the less able'. A different message is conveyed by the disruption of time for learning in schools. Again, that which educators do not teach, give learners the message that those elements are not important in their educational experience or in their society. Eisner (1994:103) has this to say on the issue: "The major point that I have been trying to make thus far is that schools have consequences not only by virtue of what they do not teach, but also by virtue of what they neglect to teach. What students cannot consider, what they don't process they are unable to use, have consequences for the kinds of lives they lead". This is true as both educators and learners consciously or unconsciously tend to classify subjects by the manner in which they are treated.

2.3.5 Accountability in curriculum implementation

The school is responsible for all planned learning. The notion of outcomes is very much in keeping with the movement towards accountability in public schools. This emphasises the fact that there are some things that schools are supposed to accomplish with children. Ebert II et al (2011) has shown that district personnel, school administrators and educators are held accountable by the public/ taxpayers

for ensuring that those objectives are met. The same happens in England, where the national curriculum is taken to be guidance which classroom educators and subject leaders in maintained schools are required to follow. They have to provide a prescribed broad and balanced curriculum (Education UK Government, 2011).

This is a clear indication that educators and learners in public schools have the responsibility of implementing curriculum as prescribed. Educators have to see to it that at the end of a prescribed period, the stated outcomes are attained and learners progress to the next classes. Failure to do that will result in the school being declared underperforming by the head of department in the province. Underperforming schools are expected to submit various reports, under Annual Improvement Performance Plan (APIP) to its superiors on how the results will be improved. The department officials in turn have to monitor the implementation of APIP as pledged by the school that has underperformed. There will further be regular visits by department officials to monitor the teaching-learning process and ensuring proper execution and implementation of curriculum. All these emphasise the value that is attached to the process of curriculum implementation.

2.3.6 Challenges experienced with the new curricula

The implementation process goes along with various challenges. These challenges have been encountered in various countries around the world. Schagen (2011) identifies some factors in New Zealand that hinder implementation as, staffing issues. High staff turnover would threaten the inevitably lengthy process of developing a shared understanding of New Zealand Curriculum (NZC) and planning implementation. Another challenge could be new or inexperienced educators who find it difficult to cope with the flexible nature of NZC, perhaps feeling a need for more detailed direction as to what they should teach.

Schagen (2011) again shows the challenge that was fuelled by staff who had been teaching for many years in a more traditional way. They are at times apathetic or resistant to the idea of change. Those who had not been consulted or made aware of the intent and principles of the new curriculum might also be reluctant to 'buy in' to the process of change. The issue of time is another important hindering factor. The question is do educators have enough time to cope with all that is involved in curriculum implementation. The results of MECI surveys of 2008 and 2009

(Schagen, 2011) indicated that time for planning and implementation was rated moderate to difficult in 2008 and closer to the moderate level in 2009.

Conflict was noticed between competing demands of assessment and qualifications as mentioned by secondary school respondents. The demands contributed as barriers to implementation of NZC. In the latter stages, primary participants expressed concern about the perceived competing demands of National Standards. One region believed that 'without further intensive professional development that builds deep understandings of curriculum theory and practice, schools will default to current practice dressed up as NZC, or adopt National Standards as their school curriculum' (Schagen, 2011).

Cheung and Wong (2012:39) on the other hand, examined key hindering and facilitating factors in schools during the first stage of curriculum reform in Hong Kong. They identified key factors that were common in other countries, as teachers' heavy workloads, learning diversity in class, and educators' inadequate understanding of the reform. The situation is also present in South Africa. Curriculum reform was faced with challenges, among others, educators' inadequate understanding of the curriculum, which made it difficult for them to implement. As most educators were trapped into trying to make sense of all terminology and jargon of Curriculum 2005 (C2005), some educators did not even attempt to implement the curriculum while others carried on teaching the way they always had, but named what they were doing in Outcomes Based Education language. This is similar to the experience in New Zealand. Attempts of implementing the curriculum were often superficially done in order to satisfy inspections by departmental officials, with no transformative effect on the classroom (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:159). This was resolved by introducing various curricula in an attempt to help educators to cope with the reforms. It is important to understand that although reforms are introduced at a particular level or phase of education, the results of implementation affects the whole system of education.

Michaelowa (2007:215), who is interested in the quality of education, examined the relationship among different levels of education, that is, primary, secondary and higher education. It was found that the quality of primary and secondary education impacts on the tertiary education quality. This calls for determination in curriculum

implementation in all levels of educational development. The study therefore seeks to determine the attention that was given to reading across the three curricula, how it was affected by curriculum change, and the manner in which it can be improved.

While a variety of definitions of curriculum and curriculum change have been suggested, and implementation challenges experienced in various countries, this study examines curriculum as a subject, that is, the total content of a subject for a particular phase, course or field of study as well as matching study guides, manuals and guidelines. As the definition stated above seem to be lacking, it will be broadened to include actual curriculum, which is defined by Graham-Jolly, in Hoadley and Jansen (ed) (2009:250) as the happenings in individual schools and the actual experiences of learners there. There is also a detailed study of challenges faced in South African schools.

Another important factor that cannot be ignored is that of time. The manner in which a school time table is drawn, which determines contact time with learners is important. This study analysed time that is allocated to the subject per teaching-learning cycle, and how different parts of the content are spread over that period. This revealed the attention that reading is given in schools. It also helps the researcher to determine the section of language that is emphasised and valued. Time allocated for reading lesson also impacts on the learners' perception of the value of reading.

2.4. BRIEF REVIEW ON CURRICULUM CHANGE IN THE EDUCATION SYSTEMS OF UNITED STATES (US), CHINA AND SOUTH AFRICA

The effect of curriculum change is examined in order to have a better understanding of curriculum development in other countries. The United States is interrogated as a leading state in the First World countries. China, as one of the member states in major emerging national economies known as BRICS (acronym for Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa) is also discussed. Thereafter a brief history of curriculum development in South Africa is presented as a basis for understanding the process curriculum change. The intention is to determine if the challenges posed by curriculum change, which are encountered in SA, are common in other countries, and how they have been addressed.

2.4.1 Curriculum change in United States (US) education system

Most authors who contributed their ideas in the education system of US, prefer use of the concept *reform* instead of *change*. Schubert's (2013:87) preference is based on the fact that reform entails reshaping, reconfiguring or making different, or bringing improvement, instead of curriculum change which he claims does not imply improvement. As already stated, in conceptualisation of terms, the concept curriculum change (cf 2.2.2) is used. The fundamental purpose of schooling in the US is to prepare learners who can compete in the global market and maintain a high level of national security (Plate, 2012:1312). This purpose also informs how curriculum should be designed, taking into consideration that it should give the desired output. Reasons behind curriculum change should be balanced between learner, subject matter and society.

Schubert (2013:96) has given a chronological perspective of curriculum change in the US, spreading it over different decades. The period 1943-1953 was when World War II came to a halt. People were asking why the world got to the point of war and how it might be prevented in future. This concern informed curriculum of the time. Ralph Tyler came up with the Tyler Rational which addressed curriculum issues – what knowledge and experiences were worthwhile for the learners then. The period 1953-1963 was the period of the Cold War, which manifested in the 'space race' and post-Sputnik cries for catching the Russians. Sputnik was the artificial earth satellite launched by the Soviet Union on October 4, 1957. It took about 98 minutes to orbit the earth on its elliptical path. The launch ushered in new political, military, technological and scientific developments. It further marked the start of space age and the US-Soviet Union space race (Garber, 2007). This led to the post-Sputnik curriculum change. It is interesting to note how research on teaching and learning, which had gone unnoticed since 1940s was brought immediately to the centre of attention in 1957 as a basis to regain the competitive edge in the space race. Schubert (2013:99) explains how the US was determined to win this race, by using *National Defense Education Act of 1956* [sic] to justify federal funds for education on the basis of defence needs.

The period 1963-1973 was a period of questioning authority; of grass-roots political action; of steadfast consumer activism; of debate over what was worth fighting for;

and how to achieve greater equity, justice, and human well-being (Schubert, 2013:102). These were the national, worldwide and curricular issues. There was a call for broadening curriculum inquiry from exclusive reliance on the 'theoretic' which looks for problems in generalised categories to the practical, quasi-practical and eclectic, thus seeking insights about how to better decide and act in concrete educational situations. The next decade, 1973-1983 was characterised by the back-to-basics movement, where change emphases were on the left side of the political spectrum, and following that, 1983-1993 emphasised returning to the basics. Literacy and whole language were brought to the fore (Schubert, 2013:105,108). Schubert (2013) felt that although the US was trying to change the curriculum which was informed by the political demands of the time, not all changes were successful. Post-Sputnik curriculum failed as there was little reformed practice, with traditional practice still dominating the scene. Schubert (2013:101) states the reason for this failure is the fact that reform packages were frequently not implemented.

Smith, O'Days and Cohen (1991:74) show how, in the last decade of the 20th century, US president, George Bush renewed his claim to be the nation's Education President by announcing America 2000 – a broad strategy for reforming US schools. America 2000 was based on National Goals, stating that all learners must have demonstrated competency in challenging subject matter including English, maths, science, history and geography, by the year 2000 (Goal III). Again, by the year 2000, all learners were expected to be first in the world in science and maths achievement (Goal IV). National Tests were expected to help to assess progress of individual learners and schools within clusters, and national focus was on New World standards.

Plate (2012:1131) also commented on the role played by President George Bush in the education system of US, when in his state of the Union Address, he announced a new educational programme called American Competitiveness Initiative. With this programme, he committed over $136 billion over the following ten years to encourage innovation throughout the American economy. Innovation looked at creating a more productive, prosperous, mobile and healthy society. Plate (2012) also states that American educator, David Orr had a different interpretation of innovation. Although Orr agreed with Bush that there was a need for US education to respond to the changing global situation, they differed in focus. Orr called for

curriculum change that would involve using environmental lessons to integrate school subjects, turning them into cohesive whole and producing ecologically literate graduates. Bush advocated for curriculum based on a renewed focus on science and maths, as being the best way to meet educational challenges faced.

Smith et al (1991) state the specifications that need be considered in curriculum change as (a) content (topics and instructional details), (b) sequence and timing (when particular content and skills are required or expected to be taught), (c) depth and breadth (depth of understanding rather than wide and superficial content coverage), (d) local flexibility (allowed to districts, schools and educators to adopt different frameworks for the learners in different curriculum tracks), (e) learner examinations (for learner accountability and placement), and (f) curriculum materials.

The study by Bishop (2010) focused on a comparison of the secondary education system of the US and that of countries in northern Europe (Netherlands, Britain and France). Lower academic achievement was noted in US compared to northern Europe, which could be traced to secondary school teaching which does not pay well in the US and therefore, not attracting the type of talent that is attracted in France and Netherlands. Since university admission standards are higher in Europe, the university graduate pool from which European secondary school educators are recruited are better educated on average than the college graduate pool from which American educators are recruited. US pay levels are lower compared to their European counterparts. In France and Netherlands *Redoublement* is used as mastery learning and incentive to study. While social promotion (passing learners who are not ready on to the next grade) is the rule in US, in Europe, learners who fail more than one of their courses are generally required to *redouble* (repeat grade). This is a form of mastery learning, a way of allowing learners extra time to achieve very demanding learning goals. The threat of having to *redouble* was a strong incentive for teenagers to study as it made them feel dishonoured. The parents, on the other hand, had the obligation of seeing to it that their children study hard to avoid the stigma of *redoubling* (Bishop, 2010:6-7,22).

It is also interesting to note that it was the US that came up with the concept of multicultural education. Multicultural education emerged in the US in the 1960s and early 1970s, amid social and political upheaval, as a social reform movement

responding to social and historical events and situations of inequality (Squelch, in Le Roux [ed], 1993:185). Many educationists felt that the existing emphasis on ethnic studies was insufficient and unlikely to bring about equal educational opportunities; and that a more comprehensive all-embracing approach to education was needed, to address not only racial and cultural inequalities but also socio-economic and gender-based imbalances (Squelch, in Le Roux [ed], 1993:187).

When one interrogates the history of curriculum change in the US, it is obvious that political demands of the time had much influence on the type of curriculum that was introduced. In most curricula, for example, post-World War II, post-Sputnik, emphasis of curriculum content was on maths and science. It was in the decade of 1983-1993 that curriculum focused on returning to the basics, where literacy and the whole language were practised. English literacy was again promoted when George Bush announced America 2000, a broad strategy for reforming US schools. English was one of the subjects emphasised among maths, science and social sciences. Despite this noble idea, Goal IV of this strategy put more emphasis on producing learners who would be first in the world in maths and science. These details affirm that throughout different curricula in the US, language teaching did not receive much attention as maths and science did. When content of different subjects were specified, there was not much said about content that was taught in English and how different skills, including reading were addressed in the different curricula.

2.4.2 Curriculum change in the education system of China

Education innovation is a dynamic process, informed by the needs of a country. Just as countries of the world are continuously engaged in enhancing the quality of education, China, is not an exception. It is following the universal rule of development as stated by Zhong (2006:370) which states that "Crisis leads to reform, reform to confusions." The existence of crisis forces the launch of reform.

Zhou (2007:54) explains how curriculum in China was characterized by heavy learning loads as a result of the discipline-based college-bound curriculum and examination-driven practices. Zhong (2006:2) traces the history of examination-oriented education in China and confirms that this has deeply been embedded for over 1000 years in Chinese culture and society. He explains how formal education revolved around hierarchical highly centralised series of government examinations

which were stepping stones to official status and power. As content of formal education was determined by the examination, it encouraged rote memorisation and recitation by learners. Even the teaching methods were based on it. Focus was on past and future examination questions. Zhong (2006:6) further notes how prescribed texts had the status of irrefutable dogmas, and how an educator was the centre of the learning process. Content of formal education included the Confucian classics, history and literature, as well as skills on essay writing, poetry writing and calligraphy.

Although this type of curriculum was perceived as a stepping stone to official status and power, it had other effects on learners. Zhang (2002:16-22) reports on the effects and states that Chinese learners are often left with little free time to enjoy their childhoods. He states that 21, 6% of primary and 32% of secondary learners are said to suffer from psychological problems while many successful university students lack self-esteem, social skills, adaptability or resilience. This raised criticism from parents, educators and education specialists, resulting in the formation of *Suzhi jiaoyu* in the 1990s. This was the reform that aimed at (a) universalization of nine year compulsory education, (b) curriculum reform, (c) moral education which includes labour skills and mental health, (d) physical and aesthetic education and early childhood education, (e) education for children with disabilities, (f) education for ethnic minorities, and (g) further standardisation of the national language, as listed in the 1999 Action Plan of *Suzhi jiaoyu* (Action Plan, 1999).

Directives from the Ministry of Education ordered that there be reductions in learners' workload, and the number of books purchased. There were also orders to limit school hours, and a mandate of twelve weeks of school holidays. Other directives have pushed for reform of teaching materials and methodologies away from traditional rote learning, reduction in the importance of examinations, and adjustment of examination content (Zhong, 2006:243). These reform initiatives were extended in minority areas of China by a drive for bilingual education. This was explicitly aimed at strengthening the use and acceptance of Mandarin by ethnic minorities. Zhong (2006) gives an example of the case in Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region, Han Chinese, where minority and primary secondary schools have been consolidated. Uyghur learners are no longer instructed in their native language, but in Mandarin.

Zhong (2006:244) and Zhou (2007:55) agree that reforms were met with enthusiasm in some quarters. This is revealed by the positive comment made by the Minister of Education as stated in Zhu (2004), that curriculum reform has brought many changes to classrooms, and even substantive positive changes to basic education. Zhong (2006) states that there are a number of shining examples where individual schools, often elite or private, have implemented significant reforms. Xiwai International School in Shanghai is one such a school and has attracted international attention through its efforts to provide an excellent learner-centred education, with a global focus, by combining educational resources from both East and West. Classroom teaching has moved from simple inculcation of knowledge to 'come alive'. Learners in this school take part in lively classroom teaching and learning. They obtain knowledge through reading, exploration, reflection, observation, and manipulation, imagination, questioning and creating.

Suzhi jiaoyu education reform is reported by Zhong (2006:243) as an attempt to learn from and borrow from Western educational methodologies without committing China to the conceptual basis which underpin them. This goes with the motto: "Chinese learning for fundamental principles, Western learning for use," which was coined in the 1860s when people called for adoption of Western learning to strengthen China's superior civilisation. Pepper (1996:57-64) describes in detail the evolution of the Chinese model of education, which was a fusion of Chinese imperial traditional methods and modern Western schooling, featuring fixed uniform academic urban-oriented curriculum and examination-bound assessment systems.

Despite the remarkable successes noted in this curriculum reform, the examination-oriented regular system has proven remarkably resilient, bouncing back with renewed vigour after each assault. Zhong (2006:242) proves this by showing how Chinese educators remained committed to preserving examination defined quality with its links back to the imperial examination system. This might reasonably be due to the fact that although reform directives were issued by the central government, financing and implementation were left to local authorities. Zhong (2006) continues to show how traditional low educational funding coupled with a decentralization system which shifted education responsibilities to local governments, exacerbated educational inequality. This was exposed in competition to enter best schools in areas such as Beijing. The government responded by an attempt to abolish key

schools below senior secondary level and compel learners to attend schools in their locality. However, these regulations were widely flouted, as parents use power, money and connections to get their children into sought-after schools. Meanwhile, in less developed areas, such as rural Hunan, learners are dropping out in large numbers due to lack of family finance and the improbability and prohibitive cost of university education (Zhong, 2006:242).

Despite the successes that were realised in this curriculum, there were problems and challenges that were encountered in the implementation process. Zhong (2006:244) perceived, among others, insufficient finance and inadequate support structures to guide and support schools and local authorities on how to implement directives, as one of the challenges. The issue of exam success, spotted as a challenge, indirectly aggravated by how the government implemented educator remuneration. Educators are paid according to grades and subjects taught as well as students exam results, with educators of non-core subjects receiving lesser pay (Zhong, 2006:247). Over and above, Zhong (2006) showed how principals of elite schools were anxious about the effect that curriculum reform would have on their rate of graduate university enrolment – the critical standard by which schools, principals and educators were measured. This is because university entrance examination was widely viewed as the baton of education. It was noted that many learners from pilot project schools did not perform well in those examinations.

Zhong (2006:248) explains a cultural attitude among Chinese as one factor that holds back full support of this curriculum reform. The following cases were stated, (a) Zhang Fenglan, Deputy Principal of Beijing, believes China's basic education to be the best in the world – citing Chinese learners who consistently outperform learners from other nations at the Maths Olympics. (b) Ying Junfeng, Deputy Director of the National Ministry of Education Secondary School Principal Training Centre and a leading proponent of *Suzhi Jiaoyu* declares it would not be possible for Chinese schools to fully adopt learner-based learning, as courses at Chinese schools had more content and a higher requirement which left less classroom time available for learner-centred activities. He therefore recommended a combined approach.

The issue of cultural attitudes in favour of more rigorous, academic and examination-oriented system was also revealed in events in Australia in the 1980s and 1990s.

Many among the hundred thousand Chinese who immigrated to Australia were disappointed with Australian education and dissatisfied with the short teaching time, low standard of learning and lack of homework. This resulted in the springing up of a large number of coaching schools, training learners in maths, English, writing and examination techniques using traditional Chinese pedagogies (Zhong, 2006:248). These learners, it is reported, had considerable success in winning scholarships for private schools.

Unlike Zhong, Zhou (2007:48) points out that educator qualification is one of the major challenges of implementation, especially in rural schools. Educators there have lower educational attainment levels, and have many less professional development opportunities. This is coupled with lack of curriculum resources. Generally, what was observed by Zhong (2006) was that the dualistic approach, that is, Chinese and Western styles leads to serious discrimination in education. Discovery learning as advocated by the new curriculum was criticised for prioritising social life in place of acquiring knowledge, and people appealed that China should retain the 'accepting knowledge' or 'retaining knowledge' paradigm. Even parents did not support moves to reduce learners' workloads or broadening the curriculum, fearing that these measures would hinder their children's examination success (Zhong, 2006:246).

Educators as well, in many cases, continued to teach as before. Former teaching methodologies were retained even in the teaching of languages. Classical essays continue to be seen as model writings that could help avert the slide in learners' language standards. Learners who are exposed to internet technology, are prone to using symbols instead of writing proper characters. It is vital to revive learners' interest in reading and writing in both English and Chinese. Yeung (2014:3) shows how classical texts are full of flair and potentially inspiring to readers. However, it calls for a huge effort and patience by youngsters to read through and make sense of their stylistic expression. This calls for educators and officials to come up with fresh ideas of helping youngsters find joy in reading old-age pieces of writing. Despite successes that were reported on this curriculum reform, most educators remained disconnected from developments of new curriculum and deeply ambivalent to these reforms which they did not see as relevant to their teaching practice. Rote learning and memorisation methods were continued.

After an intense study of curriculum reform in China, one realises that although the blending of western (learner-centred) and eastern (examination-centred) education system was remarkable in some schools, even attracting international attention, there was a counter effect resulting from the cultural attitudes exhibited by some Chinese educators and parents. An incident where migrant Chinese in Australia were disappointed in the Australian education system and ended up establishing a number of coaching schools training learners in maths, English, writing and examination techniques showed deep mistrust in the education systems of other countries. What is interesting is the fact that attention was given to languages, in particular, English. The Chinese were against discovery learning that was advocated by the new curriculum, blaming it for prioritising social life while denying acquisition of knowledge. What is again under the spotlight is the fact that they continued using the old teaching methodologies in teaching of languages, where classical essays were retained as model writings that could help avert the slide in learners' language standards. Educators and officials had to come up with fresh ideas of helping youngsters to find joy in reading old-age pieces of writing. Exposure to internet technology was dismissed as a measure of encouraging learners to use symbols than writing proper characters. All these indicate a serious concern about the development of learners' writing and reading skills. Traditional methods were retained, and internet technology dismissed.

2.4.3 A brief history of curriculum and curriculum change in the South African education system

As this study was conducted in South Africa, there is a need for an amplified look at the education system of South Africa. Curriculum changes and motives behind the changes were traced back to the beginning of the formal education system. The purpose of curriculum and how people who were affected responded to these changes was scrutinised. The language issue in different curricula (English), remains the golden thread in this study. Outlining this background enhances comprehension of the multiple changes in the curriculum and the effect that it had on the people of the country.

Education has been practised in South Africa, both formally and informally since early times. Various purposes existed for inculcating education in younger ones and

they determined the curriculum of the time. To have a clear understanding of the three curricula that this study focused on, a brief background is given on different curricula that have been implemented in South Africa previously. This background paves the way for an understanding of the education system in South Africa and the different curricula implemented in the post-apartheid era.

After South Africa's first post-apartheid elections in April 1994, the Ministry of Education introduced three national curriculum reform initiatives focused on schools. The first attempt was to purge the apartheid curriculum (school syllabuses) of racially offensive and outdated content, while the second introduced continuous assessment into schools (Jansen, 1997). The third was to cater for specific content that learners were to be exposed to. The curricula introduced were Curriculum 2005, with the Outcomes-Based Education approach (from 1998), Revised National Curriculum Statement (Grades R-9) and National Curriculum Statement (Grades 10-12) (2000 - 2011), and Curriculum and Assessment Policy statement (2012 onwards). This study outlined aims, goals, methods of teaching and learning, and even time allocation in the different curricula in relation to the teaching of English as First Additional Language (FAL). The main purpose of describing these curricula is to give a background of how English came to be used as the language of learning and teaching (LoLT), and to examine the attention that has been given to reading, or rather, development of reading skills in English FAL.

Different people in South Africa had their own purpose and way of educating their children. Their life purpose and cultures basically determined the curriculum of that time. Booyse, Le Roux, Seroto and Wolhuter (2011:44-46) have this to say about the education system. Education of indigenous people in the pre-colonial period was more based on non-schooling, transmitted in two ways. It was done informally by parents and elders in society, and formally through initiation rites, apprenticeship or craftsmen. Children learnt about work, hunting, rituals and other cultural traits such as trance dancing, herding and making of equipment from older members of their clans, and by doing tasks such as food gathering and preparation. Language learning was an important part of curriculum. Culture was also learnt through tales, proverbs and riddles, collectively referred to as folklore. The folklore helped children learn values of their communities and to appreciate the power and beauty of their own languages. Language learning activities were organised during the evenings in

the form of folk story-telling sessions. Tales were used as moral and educational device which inculcated in children the value system of the people. Adults in the Khoi, San and Bantu societies were responsible for transmitting cultural values and skills within the kinship-based activities and in discussion with larger organisations, villages and districts.

According to Booyse et al (2011:45), formal education was practised in initiation schools, which marked the passage from childhood to adulthood. This was a period of seclusion and men of the tribe were responsible for preparing young boys for one of many of their adult roles, being it military, political, religious, legal and marital, with emphasis varying from society to society. Both boys and girls were subjected to certain hardships during this seclusion period. Girls received instruction from women in various matters which included tribal history and values, domestic, agricultural and marital duties. Sex education in particular received a lot of attention and initiates were given marriage guidance. In certain tribes, for example, Venda, initiation lasted for three months during which time marriage partners were chosen.

 All these indicate that the curriculum of the time, both formal and informal, was based on inculcating values of society, including culture and language among the children and also preparation for adulthood. From the citation above, it is evident that despite various activities that were practiced and formed part of the curriculum, language learning was regarded as an important part of the curriculum. It was highly valued and helped to transmit culture to children. Home language was used during this process.

This was followed by a colonial period in South Africa. During this period, although population groups in South Africa had their own purposes of educating their children, colonial masters had some influence on their curriculum. Booyse et al (2011:67) demonstrate how education took a different form during the colonial period, with the Dutch as colonial masters. Education under the Dutch East Indian Company (DEIC) aimed at teaching children of the Dutch and French immigrants Dutch and French languages (reading and understanding), with the intention of incorporating the French people into the Dutch nation. Education was compulsory and based on religion. School masters, speaking both Dutch and French languages, were commissioned and sent out from the Netherlands. Formal types of schooling existed

where children were taught respect for others and to be courteous. It is interesting to note that education was made compulsory for children. Although not categorically stated, this was shown by the use of registers. In case of truancy, parents were to explain or account for the absence of their children. The final authority for education rested with the state. These rules were stated in the School Ordinance of the Choronnes, which again enforced gender segregation by stating that boys and girls, although they were attending same school, were to be seated separately, and this segregation was enforced both in and out of school (Booyse et al, 2011:68-69).

During the colonial period, education was characterised by intention to incorporate French into Dutch. This was done strategically by the DEIC as French and Dutch were recognised as official languages. The issue of keeping a truancy register and making parents account for their children's truancy, indicates how seriously education was taken. Although South Africa is inhabited by various population groups, with their own and different purposes of educating their children, this study will focused on education of black children and how they learn their first additional language, which is in most cases, English. The intention is to trace the history of the curriculum of black children and how the issue of language was addressed.

The brief history given by Booyse et al (2011:193), is an indication that in the first decade after the establishment of the Union of South Africa, an attempt was made to unite the white people of the country politically, with the help of an education system. Article 137 of the Union constitution declared both English and Dutch official languages of the Union, and they had to enjoy equal rights in the four provinces; that is, Transvaal, Orange Free State, Natal and Cape. Various Ordinances were passed regarding the language of learning and teaching. These language regulations, according to Booyse et al (2011), had far-reaching implications. They eventually resulted in the development of three types of schools, which were exclusively, English-medium schools, Dutch-medium schools, and schools in which both languages were used. The issue of medium of instruction became a concern in black schools which ultimately led to violent confrontation in June 1976.

While Booyse et al (2011) focused on education that was intended to foster political union among the white people of the country, Hartshorne (1992) was concerned about the purpose of secondary schooling in South Africa. Focus was, unlike in

Booyse et al, not only on whites but also other population groups that inhabited South Africa. Hartshorne (1992:59) note with concern unresolved tension, which had to do with lack of clarity on the fundamental purpose of secondary schooling in South Africa. The major purpose of secondary schooling was preparation of young people for entry into universities and other institutions of higher education; broader responsibility which has to do with general development and upliftment of the community it serves; the relationship to the world of work; and the extent to which it should be governed by the economic needs of the country.

Hartshorne (1992) went on to give an overview of the whole purpose when presenting this brief background. It is generally known that historically, secondary education in South Africa has been influenced by its continental backgrounds, that is, Dutch and British. From these, there came a great respect for academic achievement and an insistence on academic standards, which over-emphasised and was over-dependent on examination and on certificates and diplomas. Secondary education during this time was authoritarian, educator-dominated, content-oriented, and knowledge-based. Black parents and communities in general, together with their English and Afrikaner counterparts, continued to attach value to social and employment benefits of a good, academic secondary education. They accepted that a broad technical approach, not limited to particular narrow skills, can provide secondary schooling with value and relevance. The education system of the time was similar to the one offered by Nated 550, a curriculum that was practised prior to the establishment of a democratic government in South Africa.

Examining the quality of education that was offered, Hartshorne (1992) indicated that between 1910 and 1948, various secondary schools sprang up, even for black children in the four provinces of South Africa. In these secondary schools, despite their nature of being day-schools or missionary institutions, educators were competent and committed. Academic standards were good and the quality of work surpassed that achieved in the later 'Bantu Education' period. In these schools, curriculum, syllabuses, textbooks and examinations were used as in the provincial white schools. As African languages were not yet recognised fully for matriculation purposes, students in standard nine and ten (grades eleven and twelve) had to choose English A (mother tongue level) to satisfy the requirements of the curriculum. No provision was made for 'standard grade' levels in subjects such as science and

mathematics, so that those learners who survived the stringent requirements and went on to Fort Hare or one of the English medium universities, were able to compete comfortably with their white compatriots (Hartshorne, 1992:63).

There was a shift in purpose after the Second World War. Hartshorne (1992) shows how the initial quest for academic achievements gave way to vocational purposes. He states that in spite of the growth in secondary schools, facilities were still very limited and secondary schools were thus elitist in character. Not only were secondary learners hardy survivors of a harsh screening process in the primary schools, but few families could afford to keep their children at school through to secondary stage in the mission boarding schools and even day-schools. Fees, costs of books and stationery were beyond the means of most urban families. Apart from few who went to universities, there were many more who left the secondary at the end of standard eight (grade ten). They would qualify to enter the teaching profession (Higher Primary Teachers' Course) and the nursing profession, where entrance qualification for black nurses at that stage was standard eight (grade ten). Junior secondary school during this period had a very strong vocational purpose. The numbers were so small that completion of standard eight or standard ten (grade ten or twelve) ensured employment at the clerical or professional level. Individual motivation and the drive for upward mobility were very strong factors in the learning environment of these schools (Hartshorne 1992:73).

The period prior to the Second World War was characterised by great respect for academic achievement, where learners worked hard to gain entrance into colleges and universities. This was followed by a period of vocational attainment. During this period good secondary education was rewarded with social and employment benefits. After standard eight (grade ten), learners qualified to enter the teaching and nursing professions, and even clerical jobs. The role played by language in education, especially as medium of teaching and learning, cannot be underestimated. It led to the grouping of schools as English-medium schools, Dutch-medium schools, and Dual-medium schools. Black learners, whose native languages were not declared official languages by then, were forced to learn at English at mother tongue level (Home language), called English A, thus making it easy for them to compete with their white counterparts at universities. Although the screening

process to secondary schools left many learners out, a high quality of education was maintained (Hartshorne, 1992:75).

The period under review came to an end with the accession to power of the National Party government in 1948. When the National Party took over from the South African Party in 1948, some cracks were already noticed in the education system for blacks. The quality of education was deteriorating. To paint a picture of what was happening, the researcher presents a detailed explanation of the work of Hartshorne (1992) and Booyse et al (2011). They both agree that the education system of the time was characterised by a shortage of suitably qualified black educators, and earlier standards maintained in the smaller number of schools were already beginning to fall. Hartshorne (1992:64-65) emphasises this by giving an analysis of 1948 Junior certificate results; the highest percentage passes were obtained in the African languages, biology and history. The pass rate in English A was 73.5%, a sign of continuing strength of English, and the lowest pass rates were in arithmetic (53.2%) and mathematics (56.2%). One-third of candidates studied mathematics, fewer than those writing Latin. In the senior certificate, the highest percentage passes were in Xhosa, zoology, physiology, hygiene and physical science. The pass rate in English A was 52.2%, in Afrikaans B 52.7%, and in mathematics 26.1%. Latin with 65.5% was favoured by more candidates than mathematics. What was again noted in the review was that ages of secondary school black learners were two years older on average than their white counterparts at any particular level. This reflected a later starting age for schooling and a much more difficult 'fight for survival' as black children proceeded through the system (Hartshorne, 1992:65).

This situation warranted the appointment of a Commission on Native Education, 1949-1951, which had to analyse the weaknesses of secondary schooling as perceived by members. Hartshorne (1992:66) presented findings which stated how the criticism expressed forcibly by the Native Economic Commission of 1930-1932 was discussed. Factors of concern were that African secondary schooling was too *bookish* and theoretical and concentrated on education for white-collar jobs. The report further stated that there was a confusion of purpose and function in secondary schooling. Secondary schools were seen as vocational schools for the training of educators and nurses. So the general education being offered was benefitting only a small number who proceeded to certain professions. Teaching and nursing were not

seen as professions and therefore required general educational preparation. The suggestion was that ad hoc schools for nurses and educators would be much more beneficial in providing pre-vocational training. Finally the commission was critical of the too great emphasis placed on examinations and their results, and the use of official languages, as media of instruction made the acquisition of knowledge more difficult than it should have been, as well as limiting the power of expression (Hartshorne, 1992:66).

Despite the fact that there were some cracks noticed in the education system, Dr Verwoerd's main intention was not to repair the damage, but to proceed with the policy of separate development of different population groups in South Africa, which was advocated by his government. Hartshorne (1992:67) continued to show how blacks were to receive inferior education to whites (as said in his speech). It was this political reason that informed curriculum change in South Africa, where education of blacks was to be kept in a hierarchical order, broad at the beginning and very narrow as it proceeded. This meant that entry to primary schooling was easy for every learner, but access to secondary schooling was limited. The government was not committed to erecting secondary schools for black learners, and the ones which existed were overcrowded, and understaffed.

This was followed by political debate, which led to the passing of the Bantu Education Act of 1953. The protagonists of apartheid, led by Dr Verwoerd laid blame for the weaknesses of Native Education on curricula, examinations and education practice which were aimed at:

> Steering pupils through examinations which at the Standard VI level are largely, and at the Junior and Senior Certificate levels are entirely, identical with the examinations required of European pupils…educational practice, by ignoring the segregation or 'apartheid' policy, was unable to prepare for service within the Bantu community. By blindly producing pupils trained on a European model, the vain hope was created among natives that they could occupy posts within the European community despite the country's policy of 'apartheid'. This is what is meant by the creation of

unhealthy 'white collar ideals' and the causation of widespread frustration among so called educated Natives.

(Verwoerd, 1954:7)

Hartshorne believes that the statement uttered by Verwoerd in the Senate that emphasis was to be placed on broadening the base of lower primary schooling, for which purpose the money-saving system of double sessions in the sub-standards was introduced, and that secondary schooling was to be severely restricted. In the years 1955-1967, very little attention was paid to secondary education. In urban areas it was artificially restricted by regulations which laid down that junior secondary schools were to be paid for on the R-for-R system under which communities had to take an initiative in erecting the school buildings and would then be paid fifty percent of the costs if funds were available. In addition, it was difficult to get schools registered, and standard nine to ten classes were only approved in new 'homeland' areas, as part of the separate development policy (Hartshorne, 1992:67).

On curriculum issues, throughout 1955 to 1975, black candidates followed the same senior certificate syllabus as white candidates. Curriculum of standard nine to ten was governed by the Joint Matriculation Board (JMB). However, this was not the case in junior secondary school (standard six to eight). The quality of education was affected by the quality of educators employed in secondary schools. Some had no professional qualifications, while others were trained as primary school educators. Only 36.8% of secondary school educators had suitable minimum qualifications for the work they were doing. On average there were not sufficient graduate educators to provide one per secondary school. Hartshorne (1992:72-73) noted with concern how, under those circumstances, results obtained in both junior and senior certificates between 1967 and 1975 were in fact a credit to educators who, through no fault of their own, were inadequately qualified, had large classes to teach, with inadequate resources in terms of equipment, books and teaching materials. Schools and educators struggled to cope with growth in numbers during this period, and were ill-prepared to cope with the explosions, both in numbers and political expectations that were to confront them in the post 1975 period.

In 1975 there were two major changes in policy directions; a change to a twelve-year schooling structure, and a departmental decision to apply 50/50 language medium

policy strictly and inflexibly. Up to 1975, there was a thirteen-year school structure for Africans, in contrast to the twelve-year structure for whites. There was an eight-year primary school (Sub-standard A to standard six) and five year secondary school structure (Forms one to five/ grades eight to ten). For some time there was criticism against the white and black school systems, and the matter was brought to a head when the Minister of National Education, on the recommendation of the National Education Council, decided that white school systems should be reorganised on a 3-3-3-3-year basis: (a) Junior Primary School: Grade one to standard one, (b) Senior Primary School: Standards two to four, (c) Junior Secondary School: Standards five to seven, (d) Senior Secondary School: standards eight to ten.

At about the same time the JMB decided to revise senior certificate/ matriculation courses and base them on a three-year curriculum (standard eight to ten/ grades ten to twelve) instead of two-year basis (standards nine to ten/ grades eleven to twelve). Within the Department of Bantu Education it was felt that in the light of the above, the time had come to bring black schools into line with the new proposals for white schools. The essence of change was the elimination of the standard six class at the end of primary school. Standard five (grade seven) remained as the final year of primary schooling, at the end of which there was to be a primary school-leaving certificate examination in the place of the old standard six examination. This necessitated new syllabuses for the three-year phase (standards five to seven) in the place of previous four years of schooling, old standards five to six, and forms one to two (Hartshorne, 1992:79).

When these changes were taking place, the department of education was also considering the implications for the medium of instruction, which under the old dispensation had been mother tongue, up to and including the old standard six class. Booyse et al (2011:77) explain how new proposals wanted the junior secondary phase to start in standard five (grade seven) class; due to pressure from educators and community organisations to review its mother-tongue policy, it was decided to limit mother-tongue instruction to the six years of the primary school phase, that is, up to and including standard four. In the earlier documents on the twelve-year structure, a fairly flexible policy on the medium of instruction in standard five (grade seven) was adopted. It was to be English and/ or Afrikaans, depending on the position of the secondary school to which the learners were going. Due to political

pressure in 1974, the final directives laid down that both English and Afrikaans were to be used in the new standard five (grade seven). The scene was set for confrontation which was voiced by the higher primary schools.

Booyse et al (2011:78) go further to expose the weakness in the quality of education at the time. Human resource was a major challenge in the new dispensation. There was a grave shortage of educators competent to cope with senior certificate level classes, and science and mathematics at all levels. Moreover, better qualified educators were young and inexperienced. Due to their higher qualifications, many of the graduate educators were placed in promotion positions for which they did not have experience or maturity of judgement, and this occurred at a time when the pressure on educators was almost unbearable. Both groups of educators, who had been moved up from primary schools, and their younger, better qualified but inexperienced colleagues felt insecure in the schooling environment. Most of them worked hard at the beginning, but were forced into styles of teaching that were concerned with survival in the classroom. The styles were typified by authoritarian discipline, dependence upon the authority of a single textbook, class-notes that were to be learned off by heart. The major driving force was the examinations. Learners were given very little time for questions, discussion, active participation, group work and hands-on experimentation, because all these were seen as threatening to the position and authority of an educator. Even where laboratories and libraries were available, they were still very limited, educators were hesitant about exposing themselves to the uncertainties of these situations. It was common for standard ten (grade twelve) learners who had passed physical science to enter college or university without ever having handled a test-tube, measured mass or even tested the effects of heat on metal. Emphasis was on expository teaching, with little regard to the learning of learners, and only in exceptional cases attention was given to 'learning to learn' or development of independent, creative thinking.

From what has been explored it is noted that language of learning and teaching, or rather, medium of instruction, was a concern in black schools. Mother tongue instruction was limited to the first six years of schooling. It was to be followed by instruction through the medium of either English or Afrikaans – which was dictated by the state of the secondary school in the vicinity. In 1974 the government agreed that both English and Afrikaans (dual medium) were to be used in grade seven. This

led to unrest in black schools which reached a peak in 1976. What was again noticed as a serious challenge was human and material resources. Shortage of qualified educators and lack of material resources hastened the accelerated dropping of quality of education in black schools.

June 1976 marked the beginning of a long period of protest and resistance on the part of high school learners. In the beginning, alongside with the medium of instruction question, issues were concerned with both the quality and relevance of secondary schooling. In their slogans, youth demanded quality education, education on the same level as whites, opportunity to use that good education once obtained to get good jobs. There was a great deal of criticism, not only of government and the department of education but also of the educators and their inability to relate to the needs and aspirations of their learners. Lack of questions and discussions in the classrooms was brought up, together with the abuse of corporal punishment, and the general authoritarian nature of the schools, which prevented pupils from feeling free to express their ideas and have a say in what was going on in the classrooms (Hartshorne, 1992:79).

In response to the growing crisis in black education, the National Education Co-ordinating Committee (NECC, formerly the Soweto Parents Crisis Committee) was formed in 1985 to address the education crisis in a more organised, co-ordinated and deliberate manner. The NECC recognised the need for a well-formulated education plan. Following its national conferences held in December 1985 and March 1986, the slogan *People's education for People's Power* was adopted, with People's Education being the strategy. The strategy marked a shift from a reactive response and sporadic protests to the development of a more constructive, concrete plan of education that would lay the foundation for a future non-racial, democratic system. People's Education further intended to replace the 'inferior, segregated, prejudicial, divisive and undemocratic apartheid education'. Although People's Education had a major impact on black education, it however, failed to bring about fundamental change in education that was initially envisaged. By the late 1980s, People's Education was plunged into a crisis not only due to state intervention and repression, but also due to the lack of clarity and consensus over the meaning and content of People's Education (Squelch, in Le Roux [ed], 1993:179-180).

There was concern again in the 1990s about secondary education. The debate was about education and work, and the kind of curriculum that would be relevant to the 1990s. Debate about education and work has been reduced to a sterile confrontation between proponents of 'academic education' and those who believed the solutions rested in a technical, vocational or career education. On the one hand, a relevant, effective academic education provides the background of language, mathematics and science that many modern work situations demand. What matters is how they are taught, and whether the learners are capable of using them outside of school, in real life situations. On the other hand, there was no reason why secondary schooling that was defined as technical should not also provide broad educational experience for the learner. Language, mathematics and science still remain the hard core of curriculum, and what matters again, is how they are taught and learned, and how relevant they are to the world outside the school.

Hartshorne (1992), suggested curriculum reform focusing on what needed to be jettisoned (discard as unwanted or burdensome) and what needed to be added to bring secondary school nearer to the society it served, one component of which was the world of work. Secondary school is subject to pressures from a number of conflicting interests, and has to maintain a very delicate balance between needs of the individual learner, the society from which the learner comes, the employers (who see the school as being responsible for initial preparation of their workers), and the State which also has its agenda. Whatever other needs may be, the school's basic concern, according to Hartshorne, should be to prepare young people to earn a living. Most importantly, it should strike a balance between this and other needs, getting the right mix by deciding what has to be changed, left out, added, in order for schooling to respond more effectively to real life needs, and then how to bring this about. Another critical component is creating stronger links between theory and practice, between knowledge and skills and their application, and between attitudes and behaviour (Hartshorne, 1992:92-93).

Secondary schooling is perceived by Hartshorne (1992:62) as a mechanism that has benefitted a limited number of individuals who have managed to survive and progress, while on the other hand, has not brought benefits to the wider society that was expected and has not been able to address the aspirations of the majority of those that pursue it. Not only had it failed to prepare young people for the world of

work, but it has also failed to develop social and life skills, values and attitudes that build self-respect and respect for others in a common and shared society. It had also failed to develop democratic values based on non-racial, equitable, democratic and open society.

From all that has been stated regarding the education system in South Africa, it is noted that from the period when Bantu Education Act was passed in 1953, and the policy of separate development was announced, curriculum and quality of education in South African schools was negatively affected. The goal of secondary education was compromised at the expense of furthering political desires of the government of the time. Funding of black secondary schooling by the state was indirectly halted, bringing chaos to those schools. It was this situation that led to the students' unrest of 1976. The Nated 550 curriculum was practised at that time. It was characterised by, amongst others, underqualified educators, lack of the learner-teacher support material, overcrowded classes, curriculum differentiated according to population groups of the country (inferior education received by black learners), and emphasis being put on rote learning. When democracy dawned in South Africa, the new government had the task of amending all faults of the apartheid government, including revision of the curriculum.

The researcher made this lengthy study of the history of education system in South Africa with the intention of recording how curriculum changes were implemented and the challenges that were encountered. Another aim was to determine how reading was taught in the teaching of language. This intense study revealed that curriculum was used as a vehicle to attain political aspirations. The informal teaching of language during the pre-colonial period took place orally. Folk story-telling was used to transmit culture and to inculcate the value system of the society in children. Reading was not necessary in this era. It was during the colonial period of the Dutch East Indian Company (DEIC) that language teaching emphasised reading and understanding of Dutch and French languages.

The period between 1910 and 1948 (when South African Party was in power) was characterised by good academic standards. Results of Junior certificate in 1948 revealed that black learners fared well in English as a home language. Although nothing is stated specifically on how reading was taught, or rather, the specific

content that was taught, the assumption is that methods used then were good. When the National Party took over from the South African Party in 1948, cracks were noticed in the education system of blacks due to overcrowding classes and lack of qualified teachers. Bilingualism which was introduced under Bantu Education was the last stroke *to break the camel's back* in 1976. Even in this era, not much is said about the way reading was taught in schools.

2.5 CURRICULUM POLICIES IN SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM

The establishment of first democratic government in South Africa marked the turn of the tide in the education system of the country. The education system was used as a vehicle for redressing past misdeeds, and it also helped in the process of realising and enhancing new democratic principles. This unfolded through the introduction of various curriculum reforms. From Nated 550 (apartheid curriculum), a transition took place with the introduction of Curriculum 2005 (C2005), followed by the Revised National Curriculum Statement (Grades R-9) and National Curriculum Statement (Grades 10-12), and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement respectively. These curricula, together with reasons for their reforms are presented below.

2.5.1 Curriculum 2005

When the democratic government took over in South Africa, the education system was one of the issues that needed attention. The misdeeds of the previous curriculum were to be redressed to align with democracy. As Hartshorne (1992:97) puts it, curriculum was not just to be considered a collection of subject syllabuses, concerned only with knowledge, as it was generally perceived. What was more important was how the knowledge is gained and how it is used. The previous curriculum was based on rote learning to pass examinations. The new curriculum was considered as raw material for creative thinking and solving of real problems. The curriculum also had to address the issue of the learning process and teaching styles; and if it was aimed at development of a democratic spirit, the acquisition of knowledge was not to be considered the only means of individual empowerment and achievement, but also a group, co-operative, sharing activity. In practice, it meant that learners were to be encouraged to work together, in group discussions, on assignments, in posing and solving problems, with their strengths and weaknesses being pooled. This would imply an open, non-educator dominated classrooms, with

time for questions, discussions and learner participation. In this way, learners would be involved in their own progress and development, and the benefits would last beyond examinations.

Curriculum 2005 was the new curriculum introduced with the intention of addressing all education problems. This curriculum was again expected, among other things, to address two concepts, education and training as the basic requirements. Generally, education is associated with learning formal, academic knowledge, which is organised on the basis of the particular kind of thinking that is unique to given a subject or discipline. Learners have to understand and master specific rules and principles, and even the content taught in subjects. Training, on the other hand, can be defined as developing in learners the specific skills they require to work efficiently (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:209).

Curriculum 2005, based on the approach of Outcomes-Based Education (OBE), aimed at empowering learners to succeed in real life after leaving school. One of the main aims of teaching the language, for example, English was to develop communicative competence. This implied the ability to linguistically apply the language correctly in authentic situations (Schlebusch & Thobedi, 2004:35). The language skills considered important to implement task-based activities were writing, listening, reading and speaking.

To address the content issue, C2005 contained different kinds of outcomes. There were general outcomes that were derived from the constitution of the country, which described the range of knowledge, skills and values required for the new South African citizen. Eight critical cross-field outcomes that applied across learning areas (old subjects) for all learners were stipulated. Critical outcomes were to guide all teaching and learning, that is, in all content areas. They replaced societal aims in the old curriculum. Then there were sixty-six specific outcomes detailing in more precise terms the desirable knowledge, skills and values for learning. These specific outcomes marked a radical departure from the content-laden syllabi of the past. They described knowledge and skills to be achieved at the end of the phase, that is, three years. Educators were allowed to organise content per grade themselves (Jansen & Tailor, 2003; Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:158).

Under-specification of the curriculum content and priority that was given to integration was regarded as a flaw in the epistemological perspective. It was argued that blurring the boundaries between school subjects and rooting the school curriculum in the everyday life of the child would dramatically open access to high-status knowledge to the poor and improve the fit between education and the workplace. Integration then, became one of the key words in the new lexicon (Jansen & Taylor, 2003). Programme organizers became an important vehicle for integrating everyday and school knowledge. Instead of structuring a lesson around a conceptual issue, programme organizers such as transport was to be identified as a central integrating theme. Then the lesson would be structured around, say, various forms of transport, which would be identified. Conceptual issues across a range of subjects would then be incorporated into this theme (Jansen & Taylor, 2003). The challenge was that conceptual knowledge was submerged in everyday knowledge, thus, making well-resourced educators and schools to implement the curriculum as intended. However, educators in poor schools experienced problems implementing the curriculum.

Outcomes of C2005, specified in Assessment Criteria and Performance Indicators were highly inaccessible to educators due to their complex language. Moreover, time allocation was not stipulated according to skills or content, but was limited to contact time. This made it difficult for educators to determine the time that was needed to develop the reading skill in English FAL, and the areas or content that needed attention. C2005 addressed the progression issue in terms of phases rather than grades. Hoadley and Jansen (2009:159) declare that trapped in trying to make sense of new terminology and jargon in the curriculum, some educators would not even attempt to implement the curriculum, because they could not make sense of it. On the other hand, some educators carried on teaching in the way they always had, but named what they were doing in the OBE language.

One can therefore say that little was done to develop the skill of reading in English during the time of C2005. There was an expectation, with the introduction of new curriculum, that this item would be given attention. New curriculum would be expected to stipulate clearly the aim of teaching particular conceptual knowledge (content) or skills, the conceptual knowledge to be taught, skills to be developed, teaching and learning methods that would be used, and the detailed allocation of

time, extending from contact time to time allocated for specific content knowledge and skills.

2.5.2 Revised National Curriculum Statement (RNCS) (Grade R-9) and National Curriculum Statement (NCS) (Grades 10-12)

Recognition of the shortcomings of C2005 led to the Ministerial Review of the Curriculum in 2000. Reviewers were under strict instruction from the Minister of Education that outcomes were not to be abandoned. The curriculum was still to be framed by the critical outcomes. The brief for producing the revised curriculum included simplifying the language and design features, specifying content in terms of knowledge, skills, values, and showing progression per grade. The curriculum also had to make explicit opportunities for integration (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:161). The Revised National Curriculum Statement (Grade R-9) was the new curriculum aimed at redressing the flaws of C2005, from grade R to grade 9. In Further Education and Training (FET) band, National Curriculum Statement (Grades 10-12) was introduced for the same purpose. As the focus of this study is grade 10, attention is given to the National Curriculum Statement (Grades 10-12).

The basic aim of NCS was to develop high level of knowledge and skills in learners. It again specified minimum standards of knowledge and skills to be achieved at each grade and set high achievable standards in all subjects (Department of Education, 2003:3). With this change, the expectation from NCS was that language and design features should be simplified. Design features involved the use of subjects in curriculum. In specifying the subject content for the different learning areas and subjects, the working groups were not expected to reproduce the content-laden prescriptive syllabuses of the past. Rather, they were to specify only the minimum standards per grade, leaving some room for educators to make their own interpretations and decisions about what and how to teach, but ensuring that all learners achieve the same minimum standards. Minimum standards were clear indicators of what learners had to achieve (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:162,164).

The old curriculum, Nated 550 defined subjects as a specific body of academic knowledge, with emphasis on knowledge other than skills, values and attitudes. Subjects were viewed as static and unchanging, with rigid boundaries. Very often subjects emphasised western contribution to knowledge (Department of Education,

2003:6). C2005 which embraced OBE then blurred boundaries between school subjects. School curriculum was rooted in everyday life of the child. Eight critical cross-field outcomes that applied across learning areas (old subjects) were established as intended learning outcomes for all learners. The desirable knowledge, skills and values of learning which were to be imparted to learners were detailed in sixty six specific outcomes. Emphasis was thus put on attaining outcomes stated other than considering performance in individual subject. Programme Organizers, cutting across eight learning areas, were identified as central integrating theme.

NCS continued blurring subject boundaries with knowledge integrating theory, skills and values. Subjects were viewed as dynamic, always responding to new and diverse knowledge that has traditionally been excluded from the formal curriculum. Subjects were further defined in terms of Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs), not by its body of content. Just as in OBE, subjects described knowledge, skills and values that learners should acquire by the end of Further Education and Training (FET) band. LOs were statements of intended results of learning and teaching while ASs described what a learner should know and be able to demonstrate at a specific grade (Department of Education, 2003:6-7). ASs gave a clearer indication of what was to be achieved than the range statements or performance indicators in OBE. They also showed progression across grades which was completely absent in C2005 (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:162,164).

As this study focuses on English FAL as the subject, the focus is on how this language was given attention in the NCS, and also how reading skills were developed. NCS took into account the linguistic and cultural diversity of South Africa, and aimed at enabling citizens to communicate across language barriers and fostering cultural and linguistic respect and understanding. Learning of FAL aimed at promoting multilingualism and intercultural communication. LOs provided for levels of language proficiency that meet the threshold levels necessary for effective learning across the curriculum, as learners may learn through the medium of their FAL. This included the abstract cognitive academic language skills required for thinking and learning. While Home Language (HL) put emphasis on developing learners' skills of reading and writing, and Second Additional Language (SAL) emphasised development on skills of listening and speaking, FAL put equal emphasis on all four skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing. Language teaching in FET band,

therefore, aimed at broadening and deepening of language competencies developed in lower grades, which would be visible in the appropriate use of language in different situations for various purposes (Department of Education, 2003:9-11).

The scope and purpose of learning in Languages were consolidated in four LOs, which, although listed separately, were to be integrated when taught and assessed. Four LOs were identified as Listening and Speaking (LO1), Reading and Viewing (LO2), Writing and Presenting (LO3), and Language (LO4). The focus of this study is on the second learning outcome, Reading and Viewing. Learning Outcomes comprised Assessment Standards (ASs), content and context of study. Reading and Viewing (LO2) has four ASs which describe expectations from the learner at the end of a learning period. Learners have to be able to:

- demonstrate various reading and viewing strategies for comprehension and appreciation,
- explain the meaning of a wide range of written, visual, audio-visual texts,
- recognize how language and images may reflect and shape values and attitudes, and
- explore the key features of texts and explain how they contribute to meaning

(Department of Education, 2003:22-28)

Competence descriptors were also stated, but varied according to scales of achievement. Competence descriptors for reading and viewing were that, by the end of grade ten learners were expected to be able to interpret, analyse and explain texts effectively and confidently when reading and viewing; demonstrate good insight and clearly assert and justify own opinions; show sensitivity to a range of different views and cultural issues (Department of Education, 2003:60).

Another aspect catered for in NCS policy document is assessment. Assessment was closely linked to learning. It helped learners to gauge the value of their learning; giving them information about their own progress; and enabling them to take control of and to make decisions about their learning. This means assessment provided information about whether teaching and learning was succeeding in getting closer to the specified learning outcomes. Assessment on learner performance was also expected to have a great degree of reliability and validity. The policy also stated that as each assessment could not be totally valid or reliable by itself, decisions on

learner progress were to be based on more than one assessment. This was a principle behind Continuous Assessment (CASS). CASS based decisions about learning on a range of different assessment activities and events that happened at different times throughout the learning process. It also involved assessment activities spread throughout the year, using various kinds of assessment instruments and methods such as tests, examinations, projects and assignments. Transparency in LOs and ASs enabled learners to know what was expected of them. They played an important part in self-assessment, peer assessment and group assessment, thus enabling them to assess their own and others' performance (Department of Education, 2003:53-54).

The NCS was able to address some challenges that were encountered during the period of C2005. The aims of teaching English FAL were clearly outlined. The issue of alleviating content-laden syllabus was also considered by carrying forward critical outcomes and specific outcomes in a comprehensible way. NCS further specified minimum and high achievable standards of knowledge to be attained and skills to be developed. This was an attempt to address the progression issue in C2005, which was based on phases other than grades. CASS was also retained in the new syllabus. Another expectation was to use from the NCS policy document, guidance on how time should be spread across knowledge and skills. The notion of time is considered important as stated previously in curriculum structure and meaning attached to that (cf 2.3.4). Time organisation, as reflected on the time table suggested that certain kinds of knowledge were valued more than others. Subjects were not given equal times. The same applied to the spreading of knowledge and skills in specific subjects. The policy document remained silent about how time should be spread to cater for knowledge and skills in English FAL. Assessment Guidelines only specified tasks that were to be carried out as formal assessment activities. Educators were at liberty to use their own discretion on time allocation when they taught different knowledge and skills. With a number of improvements introduced to redress provisions of C2005, one could question the main reason behind the introduction of another curriculum, Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS).

2.5.3 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

Realising that there were still gaps in NCS, Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga, introduced another curriculum, National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-12, also known as CAPS. CAPS does not only build on the previous curriculum, but also updates it and aims to provide clearer specification of what is to be taught and learned on term-by-term basis. NCS had identified different levels of language teaching, that is, home language (HL), first additional language (FAL) and second additional language (SAL). It further stated the skills that different language levels focused on. Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards were stated as a way of clarifying knowledge that was to be imparted to learners. CAPS expatiated more on different language levels. As this study is on FAL, the focal point is on English FAL.

FAL level assumes that learners do not necessarily have any knowledge of the language when they arrive at school. So the first few years of school focus on developing learners' ability to understand and speak the language, that is, basic interpersonal communication skills. In intermediate and senior phases, learners continue to strengthen their listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. It is at this stage that children learn through the medium of their FAL, English, and need more exposure to it. Greater emphasis is given to using FAL for the purpose of thinking and reasoning, thus enabling learners to develop their cognitive academic skills needed to study other subjects. Learners also engage more with literary texts and begin to develop aesthetic and imaginative ability in their additional language. By the time they enter grade ten, it is expected that they should be reasonably proficient in their FAL, with regard to both interpersonal and cognitive academic skills. There is however a challenge as many learners still cannot communicate well in their additional language at this stage. Such learners need support and a curriculum that enables them to meet standards required in grade twelve. They are expected to be able to use their additional language at a high level of proficiency to prepare them for further or higher education or the world of work (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:7-9).

The ultimate aim of the second curriculum after the inception of democracy in South Africa was to promote multilingualism and intercultural communication. NCS aimed

at developing high level of knowledge and skills in learners. It again specified minimum standards of knowledge and skills to be achieved at each grade and set high achievable standards in all subjects. CAPS, on the other hand, enhanced what actually needed to be done at different levels of languages. Aims of learning additional language have been stated as enabling learners to:

- acquire language skills necessary to communicate accurately and appropriately taking into account audience, purpose and context,
- use their additional language for academic learning across the curriculum
- listen, speak, read/ view and write/ present the language with confidence and enjoyment,
- express and justify, orally and in writing, their own ideas, views and emotions confidently in order to become independent and analytical thinkers,
- use their additional language and their imagination to find out more about themselves and the world around them,
- use their additional language to access and manage information for learning across the curriculum and in a wide range of other contexts, and
- use their additional language as a means of creative and critical thinking: for expressing their opinions on ethical issues and values; for interacting critically with a wide range of texts; for challenging the perspectives, values and power relations embedded in texts; and for reading texts for various purposes, such as enjoyment, research and critique.

(Department of Basic Education, 2011a:9)

Over and above stating four skills that need to be developed, which are listening and speaking, reading and viewing, writing and presenting, and language structures and conventions, CAPS guides on the content that should be taught to realise those skills. The focal point here is on the second skill, which is reading and viewing. It is expected that by grade ten, learners should be confident, independent readers in their FAL, selecting texts for their own interests and tastes. However, this may not be the case for all learners. In approaching this skill, educators should first assess learners' reading comprehension in order to plan teaching accordingly. Teaching of reading skills is regarded as a process; hence the use of reading steps. It is again a three-phase activity which models independent reading strategies for decoding and

understanding the text. Learners are expected to learn and apply strategies for decoding and understanding texts, and learn and apply knowledge of text features.

The first activity or step in this process is pre-reading. This involves preparing learners for reading a text in their additional language. Educators implement all strategies to prepare learners for reading. Learners could be encouraged to make predictions about the text based on the title. This activates their prior knowledge and help them to make sense of the text when they begin to read it. Pre-reading is followed by the second activity, which is reading. Reading implies making meaning of the text and paying close attention to its language features. It involves close reading of the text supported by educator's questions and development strategies. Learners answer questions about meaning of the text; consider how word choice, use of language, imagery and others affect the meaning of the text. They are also expected to use comprehension strategies such as inference. The last activity is post-reading. Post-reading enables learners to view and respond to the text as a whole. At this stage learners view and assess the text. They are expected to answer questions based on the text from lower order to higher order. They then synthesise, that is, pull together ideas in the text, summarise ideas, compare and contrast different aspects of the text, evaluate the text, draw conclusions, and express their own opinions (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:13-14).

CAPS goes further to state content that need be taught and learned in the process of reading. It identifies three different focuses for reading. First learners practise intensive reading of short texts for comprehension, note-taking, summary and critical language awareness. Texts are drawn from a wide range of written and visual sources and may include extracts from novels, short stories, articles, adverts, graphs, cartoons, photographs and film clips. The second focus is on the study of setworks. Attention is given to aesthetic and cultural qualities of texts such as plays, poems, films, novels and short stories. Setwork study allows learners to engage creatively with important cultural and aesthetic texts, and to explore their own reality through this engagement. Setwork study introduces learners to the meta-language or rather, technical terms used in literary criticism, for example, plot, character, long shot. Meta-language enables learners to explore their understanding of the text more deeply and should not be learned for its own sake. Lastly, learners should be involved in extensive reading of a variety of written and visual texts. They should

know how to access classroom, school or public libraries and films and the internet where available. Educators should guide learners in selecting texts of the right level which are interesting and accessible (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:14). The content that has been selected for intensive reading helps to enhance learners' level of comprehension. Setworks are, on the other hand, studied to arouse cultural and aesthetic interest in learners, while extensive reading helps to restore a culture of reading among learners.

There are different language teaching approaches, which can be used in different language learning skills. The text-based approach, which aims at producing competent, confident and critical readers, writers, viewers and designers of texts, involves listening to, reading, viewing, and analysing texts to understand how they are produced and what their effects are. Here learners develop the ability to evaluate texts. The approach also involves producing different kinds of texts for particular purposes and audiences. It is informed by an understanding of how texts are constructed. The second approach, which is communicative, suggests that learners should have great deal of exposure to the target language and many opportunities to produce oral and written texts. Learners learn to read by doing a great deal of reading and learn to write by doing much writing. There is lastly the process approach, used when learners read and produce oral and written texts. After engaging in different stages of listening, speaking, reading and writing, learners must think of the audience and the purpose of the activities. This enables them to communicate and express their thoughts in a natural way (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:16). The three approaches stated cater for all skills in language learning and teaching. Approaches that could be relevant to reading and viewing are text-based and communicative.

CAPS again states approaches to teaching literature. Educators are advised to make every attempt to read as much of the text as possible without breaking for any other activity, and this should not take more than two weeks. Uninterrupted reading enables learners to have a clear idea of what is going on at the most basic level of the text. Spending too long on reading a text can be deleterious to a clear understanding of narrative line and plot. Poetry should be taught not poems. The educator can read as many poems as possible to ensure that learners read and write poems as well. Literary interpretation should be left for later stage, at university level.

Teaching literary texts help learners to take a close look at how text is being created, manipulated and rearranged to clarify and emphasise what is being expressed. It might also involve examining the presence or absence of imagery; kind of imagery selected by the writer and why; sentence structures and paragraphing, or the layout of poems; choices of words; and continuing motifs through the text. Line-by-line analysis of any text is considered destructive to its subtlety. Finally it is imperative to know that literature is not about right answers. A whole text means something, not bits and pieces of it; a good reading of a text incorporates the whole text in interpretative, creative, personal, and exploratory practices (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:17). Suggestion on the time that should be taken to read a text shows that time allocation is considered important in CAPS.

There is a guideline on time allocated for activities in language teaching and learning. The table below shows suggested time allocated for specific activities:

Skills	Time allocation per two week cycle	Percentage
1. Listening and speaking	One hour	10%
2. Reading and viewing	Four hours	45%
3. Writing and presenting	Three hours	35%
4.Language structures and conventions (also integrated into four skills)	One hour	10%

Table 2.1 Time allocation guideline in CAPS

The CAPS policy document goes on to explain that FAL curriculum is based on a forty week academic year of four and half hours per week. Language is taught in a two week cycle of nine hours. Timetabling should make provision for one double period per week, to allow for extended activities such as writing to be completed. Normal teaching in grades ten and eleven is thirty six weeks. Four weeks are set aside for examination purposes. In grade twelve there are thirty weeks for teaching and learning, with ten weeks being set aside for examination purposes. Time

allocation as indicated in Table 2.1 shows that CAPS is trying to address literacy problem among secondary school learners as a concern raised by higher education (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:17).

The policy document also indicates material resources that should be used by the educators and by the learners in the teaching and learning process. Learners require an approved language text, two of the approved literary genres, mono and bilingual dictionaries, media materials, and access to reading material to guide their extensive reading. Educators, on the other hand, need the Curriculum and Policy Statement, the Language in Education Policy, language textbook and other textbooks for resource purposes, two of the approved literary genres, mono, bilingual and thesaurus dictionaries, reference textbook for grammar, media material, and access to reading material in order to guide learners' extensive reading (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:18). These resources help educators in teaching what is expected from them, with Curriculum and Policy Statement and Language in Education Policy as a point of departure and referencing materials.

The new curriculum went on to state strategies which should be applied during the reading process. The strategies are intended to enhance learners' comprehension. They are intensive reading at word level, to help in building vocabulary; intensive reading at sentence and paragraph level which help in identifying, explaining and analysing the meaning and functions of language structures and conventions in texts. Intensive reading can also be done for comprehension at the whole text level where learners apply their knowledge of genre and formal text study to understand the meaning, intention and effect of the whole text. It can also be done for summary and note taking and for critical language awareness. There should also be intensive reading of multimodal and visual texts, and that focusing on the formal study of literature. Finally extended independent reading and viewing is encouraged, wherein learners can practise strategies modelled in intensive reading and formal text study for extra curriculum independent reading for pleasure and research. Educators are provided with examples of question types that can be used to assess reading. They are knowledge questions, comprehension questions, application questions, analysis questions, synthesis questions, and evaluation questions (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:30-32).

The teaching plan for grade ten is clearly stated in the policy document. There is a work schedule which has spread different language skills to different weeks of the year. The schedule also states weeks reserved for examination purposes. There is finally a programme of assessment which mentions formal tasks and activities that should be carried out. The tasks form part of school-based assessment (SBA), and constitute twenty-five percent in continuous assessment, while end-of-year examination constitute seventy-five percent of learners' marks (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:78). The new curriculum focused on redressing flaws which were discovered in the previous curricula, and clarified all aspects that were not addressed. Reading has been given enough attention and time compared to other language skills.

2.6. LITERATURE ON READING

To have a clear understanding of reading, it is important to examine a few topics which will help determine the value of reading, the effect of reading problems on learners and factors that may distort reading efficiency.

2.6.1 Defining reading

Although this concept has already been defined under conceptualisation of terms (cf 2.2.3), it is important to recap this definition to help the reader to have a clear understanding of what is to follow on reading. The definition stated by Burns, Roe and Ross (1996:27) focuses on how message is reconstructed. They define reading as the interaction between the reader and the written language through which the reader tries to reconstruct the writer's message. The process of reconstruction of the message from a printed source is done with the help of the reader's background knowledge. Van der Walt, Evans and Kilfoil (2009:149) whose interest is in skill development, defined reading as a search for meaning that requires active participation of a reader. They regard reading as a skill, and the aim of teaching reading should be the development of skills that would enable the reader to extract meaning from any text. Although the Department of Education (2011b:28) concurs with Burns et al (1996) on the issue of making meaning of the text, it goes further to state that close attention is given to its language features. Reading therefore, calls for competency in decoding of words and a certain cognitive level that enhances comprehension.

2.6.2 Types of reading

Various types of reading have been noted. Van der Walt, Evans and Kilfoil (2009:156-157) present them in a comparative manner. They differentiate between intensive, extensive and literature reading activities. Intensive reading is narrow reading aimed at improving reading comprehension. The text is treated as an end in itself. Material here may include non-fiction reading comprehension tests found in textbooks and on the internet. Skills developed by this reading are functional information processing skills. Extensive reading involves reading of large quantities of material, directly and fluently. The text is treated as a means to an end. Academically extensive reading may involve scanning for key details or skimming for essential meaning. It is carried out to achieve general understanding of a text. Learners read large amounts of high interest material, concentrating on meaning and skipping unknown words. The aim here is to build the reader's confidence and enjoyment. Skills developed by extensive reading are reading and writing skills. Literature reading activities are done for pleasure and critical insight. Types of materials that may be read include poetry, plays and prose of literary merit. It helps in developing reading and writing skills.

2.6.3 Identifying learners' reading efficiency through standardised reading tests

As was noted from the previous chapter, assessment is key to learning as educators have to provide information to school authorities and parents about learners' progress and attainment in reading. Further, educators have to know the degree at which their learners are absorbing what they are trying to teach, and it is important to compare learner's progress and level of attainment with that of other learners of similar age or class level. They therefore, use various methods to assess reading efficiency and reading skills of learners. The assessment method used is determined by what an educator wants to assess, varying from right decoding or pronunciation of words to comprehension of material that the learner is reading, or rather, ability to find meaning in what the learner is reading. Assessment Book (2011:1) explains how reading skills are used to determine learners' level of word recognition, phonological ability, or reading rate. This can successfully be done through a standardised reading test. Although this is explained in detail in the next chapter, it is imperative to

highlight how common means of reading assessment can be attained through these tests.

SESS (2015:1) define a standardised objective reading test as one means of determining with some precision the extent to which the learner has approached one or more of the goals of a school reading instruction programme. These reading tests can even help the test-giver to determine whether or not the learners' reading skills are as well-developed as others of their age, and also monitor their progress over time. Standardised tests are developed in different countries, but each normed against educational standards or demands of that country. An example will be taken from the UK, a first world country. A large number of schools across the UK choose to use standardised tests to augment their internal assessment regime. They are also used alongside educator assessment and internally set curriculum-linked tests. According to GL Assessment (2013:3), some standardised tests are linked to key areas of curriculum and test knowledge acquired against the criteria of a subject's programme of study. The majority of tests are, however, used either to test the underlying skills needed to make progress in learning, such as reading or the abilities which support intellectual development, such as reasoning.

Mohamad (1999) gives a detailed explanation of reading comprehension. He identifies three main levels of comprehension as literal, interpretive and critical comprehension. Level one, which is literal comprehension, involves surface meaning, and is also appropriate to test vocabulary. In this level learners may be asked to find information and ideas that are explicitly stated in the test. In the second level, known as interpretive or referential comprehension, learners go beyond what is said and read for deeper meanings. Their ability to read critically and analyse carefully what they have read is tested. They are expected to be in a position to see relationship among ideas. But first they have to understand ideas that are stated, that is, literal comprehension. Thinking processes involved in this level include drawing conclusions, making generalisations and predicting outcomes. In the last level, which is critical reading, ideas and information are evaluated. Critical evaluation occurs after learners have understood ideas and information that the writer has presented. Learners' skill of differentiating between facts and opinions, the skill of recognizing persuasive statements, and the one of judging the accuracy of information given in the text are assessed.

The standardised tests in UK go through rigorous development and take between two and four years to complete. The test structure has to be modelled, a large amount of test content be developed and trialled with learners in schools, and then refined through statistical process to produce final tests. Tests are then standardised on a very large representative sample of learners, usually across the UK. The final normative data are produced from this final stage at which point, supporting material for educators is developed. This often includes comprehensive reports offering further analysis of test results (SESS, 2015:3). In the end, it can be said that standardised tests are objective and narrow, piloted, refined and updated, and norm referenced across an identified population. They are also reliable and valid, if correctly administered and scored; able to support statistical analysis to identify value added attainment; and usually straight forward to administer and score.

From the information stated above, it is interesting to know that reading tests are measured against reading age and standardised scores. Concepts common in interpretation of reading test are stanine, standard deviations and percentiles. Reading age is defined as the age at which a particular score is obtained by the average student based on the national sample (GL Assessment, 2013:7). Although the researcher did not execute this activity because of the ethics of administering standardised reading tests (that it should be administered by professional psychologist or psychiatrist registered with Health Professions Council of South Africa (HPCSA), it is imperative to explain how the standardised reading test is interpreted so that information collected from this tool can be used in a correct way when analysing the findings of this research.

Some reading tests facilitate monitoring by enabling educators to convert raw scores on the test to reading age, also known as age-equivalent score. In GL Assessment (2013) it is indicated that standard age score (SAS) is based on learner's raw score which has been adjusted for age and placed on a scale that makes comparison with a nationally representative sample of learners of the same age across the UK. Although SAS is regarded as key to benchmarking and tracking progress, and is taken to be the fairest way to compare performance of different learners within a year group or across year groups, the idea is not supported by SESS (2015) which states that care should be taken not to interpret reading test results based on reading age.

As stated in SESS (2015) it is realised that interpretation of reading tests can be challenging. Describing reading ability in terms of reading age is deemed the most ambiguous and misleading method of interpreting reading test performance. This is mainly due to the fact that there is a variety of ways used by test designers to derive reading age scales. Another problem detected with reading age tend to be lack of understanding, which culminates in a tendency to invest reading ages with meaning and authority which is out of proportion to their statistical origins. It is indicated that to the novice test-giver, the concept of reading age may seem simple, for example, an eleven year old reader should have a reading age of eleven. If a raw score converts to a reading age of nine, the reader is two years behind in reading and therefore has a reading problem. Unfortunately, the interpretation is not quite that simple.

This can also be looked at against principles of stage development theory of reading. This theory states that the process of learning to read is not age-bound (cf 2.6.2) but it is developmental, where learners reach reading milestones in different times. However, it is quite interesting to note that despite this, most learners follow a similar pattern and sequences which identify levels of reading development according to specified ages. In the interpretation of reading test scores, SESS (2015) declares that certain reading skills and abilities cannot be associated with particular reading ages in hierarchical progression. It is real that a seven year old with reading age of 7.0 will be very different as a reader, to an eleven year old with reading age of 7.0. So it is wrong to believe that the reading age scale is developmental. It is also wrong to speak of reading ages like we do of chronological ages, which change at continuous rate. Reading age is specific to a reader's performance on a given date. It is misleading to describe the reader as having that reading age months later.

In the process of designing a reading test, GL Assessment (2013) shows how an attempt is made to make the test to be error free. In providing reading ages or other derived scores, reading tests are normed, that is, the test is administered to representative groups of learners of different ages or different class levels, called a norm group. The average score for each norm group is calculated and this becomes the score that is expected or normal to a learner of a particular group. It is however, stated that not all learners in that norm group receive that score. Their scores are plotted on a normal distribution curve. Although many learners may receive scores near the average, some may be above and some below that average. The test-giver

must understand that, as with any other character, there is a natural spread of scores in any group. It is normal that some learners will score close to average, while others will score below average.

Results in standardised tests can also be analysed using standard age score (SAS). GL Assessment (2013:6) states that SAS is based on learner's raw score which has been adjusted for age and placed on a scale that makes comparison with a nationally representative sample of learners of the same age across the country where the test was developed. It is also key to benchmarking and tracking progress, and can be considered the fairest way to compare performance of different learners within a year group or across year groups. There is again stanine which places learners' score on a scale of 1 (low) to 9 (high) and offers a broad overview of their performance. It should, however, be noted that performance on a test can be influenced by a number of factors, and the confidence bands are an indication of the range within which learners' scores lie. The narrower the band, the more reliable the score, and 90% confidence bands are a high level estimate. There is also group rank (GR) which shows how each learner has performed in comparison to those in a defined group.

After the discussion about standardised reading tests, the test-giver should remember that just like other techniques of assessment, standardised tests has pros and cons. They can offer a reliable way of benchmarking learners' performance before intervention and an equally reliable way of assessing impact of that intervention at a later date. Information from a standardised test can be interpreted and applied to an individual or group to improve teaching and learning. On the contrary, the test-giver should also remember that just as any technique used in assessment, a standardised test should never be used as the only piece of information used to make decisions about performance. Any test will reflect learners' performances at a particular point in time and this may well be affected by non-cognitive factors such as fatigue and illness. Again test conditions may disadvantage some learners, who, under other circumstances, may perform at a higher level. It is for this reason that the standardised test was not considered as the only way of assessing learners. Other techniques that are fully explained in the next chapter were used to complement this test.

2.6.4 Reading problems and the impact on academic responsibilities

Reading is a complex act that must be learned. This is supported by Burns, Roe and Ross (1996:14) who state that reading is a means by which further learning takes place. A person learns to read and at a later stage reads to learn. Children first learn how to read, and then later read to learn about sciences, mathematics, social studies, literature and all other subjects. Reading is also a thinking process. The act of recognising words requires interpretation of graphic symbols. To comprehend a reading selection thoroughly, the reader must be able to use information to make inferences and read critically and creatively; to understand figurative language, Gunning (2010:2) focuses on reading difficulty and define it as reading at a level far below what might reasonably be expected. It is reflected by discrepancy between the overall cognitive ability and reading achievement. Learners were said to determine the author's purpose; evaluate the ideas presented; and apply ideas to actual situations. All these skills involve the thinking process. If readers are unable to cope with learning and thinking in the reading process, they are considered to be experiencing reading difficulty.

Unlike Burns et al (1996) who focus on the complexity of reading act, learners have learning difficulty if there was a significant difference between their measured ability and their achievement. Guthrie (2008:9) adds by bringing forth the issue of frustration that learners face when they realise they cannot read. When faced with texts in which they understand few words, cannot read a paragraph aloud fluently, and understand little from a single page, they despair. They know that they are failing at the most central school event, which is reading a book. This situation makes them doubt their promise for success in school. They even lose self-efficacy. Their confidence in their ability to learn from the text diminishes. Under such conditions learners find the course meaningless, and they become resistant, perhaps to their education in general. Inability to read may have far-reaching implications for the reader. Burns et al (1996:633) posit that in addition to problems with decoding and comprehension, such learners have behavioural and emotional problems. They may have difficulty in initiating and completing tasks, working accurately, maintaining attention, remaining in their seats, and following oral and written directions. Emotional issues such as low self-concept, poor frustration tolerance, and negative

attitudes, may make these learners unable to concentrate or unwilling to attempt learning tasks.

Gunning (2010:5) goes further to define reading disability from a functional approach, where one would judge whether or not reading interferes with readers' life circumstances. For high school learners, it might take the form of reading so slowly that they cannot keep up with outside reading assignments. As stated earlier, learners learn to read so that at a later stage they can read to learn. For learners who cannot attain reading competency, learning becomes a problem for them. This calls for a need to investigate factors that could be responsible for affecting learners' achievement in reading.

2.6.5 Factors that may affect reading achievement

In a study of reading, various authors have written extensively on factors that may affect reading achievement. These authors discuss in detail the factors that they have identified. Factors vary from learning disability (Coles, 2010), effect of learners' background knowledge (Hart, 2014), vocabulary and fluency level of the learner (Hart, 2014), physical factors and reading activity at home (Rowe, 2012), and technological factors (eNotes, 2009). Ideas presented by these authors are explained to enable the reader to realise how these factors affect reading activity.

Although Coles (2010) say something about learning disabilities such as dyslexia, which hamper severely learners' ability to comprehend that which they have read, other factors that affect reading comprehension are identified, aside from learning disability. Coles mentions short attention span, also known as focused attention span, which will severely cramp the learners' ability to understand what they are reading. As they read, being unable to follow along with each word, they will eventually drift off the topic and interest will also diminish.

Experience is another factor that greatly impacts reading comprehension. Hart (2014) calls this background knowledge, and declares that learners, who have many life experiences that they can draw upon from their memory bank, or with sound background knowledge to link what they already know to the text, may be more apt to follow along with a given reading selection. A story that does not make sense to learners as they did not live that sort of experience before will not be able to generate learners' interest. Comprehending reading requires that readers delve deep

into the characters and plot, allowing their imagination to soar, transcending time and boundaries. Creative aspects of their brain needs to be engaged in order to fully understand different concepts and abstract reasoning.

Learners' level of vocabulary is another aspect that affects reading comprehension. According to Hart (2014) learners who possess expansive vocabulary are more likely to understand textual writing, and are less likely to be confused or frustrated. Knowledge of words is imperative if one has to read with understanding. Again, as they read, learners should be able to make connections to themselves, their surrounding and their environment. The more they are able to connect the written work to something personal, the more apt they are to fully understand, and the more insatiable their thirst for reading will become. Reading with fluency, as noticed by Hart (2014) works just as vocabulary does. It allows learners to retain information with accuracy, expression and increased speed. Fluent learners spend less time trying to decipher the meaning of words and more time considering the overall meaning of the sentence. Over time, they will develop the ability to insightfully respond to a text. Critical thinking is also important. It is a skill that can help to determine the main idea from supporting details, the sequence of events and the overall structure of the text. It helps in deepening learners' comprehension of a text, resulting in positive reading.

A paper presented by Rowe (2012:1-3) indicates that reading activity at home, together with physical factors have an impact on reading. Rowe highlights how reading activity at home, regardless of the family status, has significant positive influences on measures of learners' reading achievement, attitude towards reading, and classroom attentiveness. A child who grows up in a home where reading is supported, viewed as important, and where reading material is available may often develop stronger reading skills as well as a love for reading than a child from the opposite environment. A child who does not see adults and siblings at home valuing reading may disparage reading as something to be endured rather than enjoyed. Again academic guidance, language models, levels of family literacy, parental participation and aspirations for the child are some of the specific processes operating within the home that are more directly related to learner's achievement.

Rowe (2012) presents the physical factors that may impact on reading with comprehension. They include native intelligence, eyesight, neural processing, and prior knowledge. Reading is defined as a complex combination of skills, where the human brain must act like a computer. Data is taken in via the eyes or fingers in case of Braille, processed within the brain, interpreted and become information (eNotes, 2009:1). Coordination in the whole process is important for readers to comprehend what they are reading. Lack of coordination may result in lack of comprehension. In elementary schools there are cases where a learner can decode well enough to read a passage aloud, but cannot restate what has been read in order to demonstrate that it was actually comprehended.

It is also believed that technological devices such as televisions and computers, as stated in eNotes (2009) have affected learners' concentration power. It becomes difficult for them to stay in one place and read. Reasons that are stated are that television is much easier to watch than to actually take the time to read the whole book. On the other hand, plays that people used to read are presented in television as movies or soap operas. Most people then prefer to watch other than to read. As learning is a journey that all learners are expected to undertake in order to lead a successful life, there should be means to help those learners who are encountering challenges with reading.

2.7 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Keeping in mind the role played by theories in research, a few theories are presented which direct this study. It is well known that theories help provide the lens through which the world is viewed. Torraco (1997) states that the researcher has to state explicitly what is known, what is not known, what could be known, and how what is learned from current research studies adds to or provides new perspective to the knowledge base. Theories are formulated to explain, to predict and to understand phenomenon and, in many cases to challenge and extend existing knowledge, within   the limits of the critical bounding assumptions. Theoretical framework is then the structure that can hold or support a theory of research study. It introduces and describes theory which explains why research problem under study exists (LibGuides, 2012:1). Theoretical framework connects the researcher to the existing knowledge. Guided by the relevant theory, the researcher is given basis for

the hypothesis and choice of research methods. The purpose of a good theory in social sciences is to explain the meaning, nature and challenges of a phenomenon, often experienced but unexplained in the world in which we live, so that we may use that knowledge and understanding to act in more informed and effective ways (LibGuides, 2012:2). This study therefore is informed by relevant theories on reading, and curriculum change theory. The theories help the researcher from simply describing the phenomenon observed to generalizing about various aspects of that phenomenon.

2.7.1 Schema theory

Schema (plural schemata) is a mental structure which derives from all particular experiences we have had. It is an organised chunk of knowledge or experience often accompanied by feelings or emotions associated with experience at the time the information was stored (Xiaoqin, 2005:1). Xiaoqin (2005) further maintains that everyone has a uniquely personal store of knowledge gained through experiences in their lifetime. This stored knowledge along with its storage structure is called schemata. Schema theory, originally a term in cognitive psychology was generally thought to be put forward by Bartlett (1932) based on Gestalt psychology (Xie, 2014 & UK essays, 2014). This theory describes the process by which readers combine their own background knowledge with information in a text to comprehend that text. In other words, schema theory explains the role of background knowledge in language comprehension and explains how readers retrieve or construct meaning from their own pre-existing knowledge and past experience.

In short, Bartlett (1932) stresses the importance of background knowledge and schema for text comprehension. This can also stem from the statement made long ago by Immanuel Kant in (UK essays, 2014) stating that there is no doubt that all our knowledge begins with experience. Kant (1781) claimed that new information, concepts and ideas can only have meaning when they can be related to something already known by the individual. The definitions provided put forth the idea that knowledge or learning is constructed from experience and stored in memory, as opposed to knowledge existing on a page.

Besides schema and inference, difference in socio-cultural background of schema contributes to reading comprehension. MacVee, Dunsmore and Gavelek (2005)

concur by showing how researchers in the 1980s and 1990s shifted socio-cultural theories, particularly the work of Vytskosky, to consider how recent social and cultural perspectives might prompt reconsideration of schemas as transactional and embodied constructs. Xiaoqin (2005) maintains that teaching reading in English is not only a teaching of language points but also a teaching of the culture. An example that was cited to explain this phrase was that of an interviewer rejecting one of his interviewees because he lacked eyeball contact. In western culture, there is a saying "Never trust a person who can't look you in the eyes". Eye contact is very important during a conversation because too little eye contact may be seen negatively in certain cultures, which is usually ignored by Chinese. Bartlett (1932) conducted an experimental study where the material that was used came from an Indian cultural background, but the subjects who read the story were of the British cultural background. It turned out that their recall reflected British culture. The following conversations were cited as examples:

1. A: What time is it?
   B: Well, the postman's been already
2. A: Can you go to Edinburgh tomorrow?
   B: B.E.A pilots are on strike

Once the reader knows that the postman passes regularly, he will know that B's answer suggests an approximate time. The second example indicates that he cannot go to Edinburgh due to a British European Airline pilots' strike. Common words may be used but without conversational background knowledge, the reader will not think the answers match the questions. Difficulty in reading lies in bottom-up inference. If the reader's knowledge cannot make up for the insufficient or find a proper top-level material, he cannot conduct bottom-up inference or find a proper top-level schema.

Schema theory explains how experience, knowledge stored in memory, and socio cultural background can contribute to development of learning to read. Looking at the aim of this study, which is to investigate the effect of curriculum change process on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten, this theory assisted to analyse the extent to which learners' socio-cultural background, experience, and knowledge stored in memory were/ are kept in mind when curriculum was/ is drafted. Although South Africa has long been a multicultural

country, multiculturalism in education is relatively new. The schema theory can therefore contribute positively to the teaching and learning of reading in secondary schools. From the background stated, on curriculum change in the history of South Africa (cf 2.4.3), the researcher scrutinises from the perspective of this theory if indeed there were reading theories considered in the process of drafting the curriculum. This can be manifested in the research that was conducted prior to curriculum adoption and implementation and the way the baseline assessment is practised in schools. There are several theories that are applicable to reading and curriculum change. There are other theories that are examined, that help direct this study.

2.7.2 Stage development theory of reading

Stage Development Theory of Reading, unlike Schema theory which focuses on factors that affect reading efficiency, engages in explaining the process of reading (Chall, 1983). The idea that reading is a process, suggest that there are specific stages that need to be followed in order to attain positive results at the end. This study also uses the theory of Chall (1983) to probe on matters that may hinder reading ability, and to understand the process of reading development. As Stage Development Theory of Reading (Chall, 1983) focuses on reading as a process, and lays out different stages of reading, and helps to determine the stage on which readers are expected to be and the actual level of where they are. In this way, the researcher was able to determine whether or not there is a problem with reading development.

Although the National Institute for Professional Practice (2014) looks at reading as a process, it highlights the important fact that this development process cannot be attained by all learners at the same time. The process of learning to read is compared with the most familiar processes of learning to walk and learning to talk. The two processes are not determined by age, or rather, age-bound. Just as young children reach the milestones of walking and talking at different ages so do learners who learn to read. There are different steps along the way of walking and talking, for example, crawling and sitting, or babbles and coos. This is a confirmation that learning to read is also a developmental process where all learners do not begin to read at the same age. Although they may enter school at about the same

chronological age, they are at various stages of reading development. A child's conceptual understanding of spoken words and their knowledge of print have an impact on their beginning of literacy instruction.

Most learners follow a similar pattern and sequence of reading behaviour as they learn how to read. There are distinct stages of development across the continuum of learning to read, and there are specific reading behaviours that can be identified at each of these stages. Although researchers have used various labels and terms to identify the stages of reading development (Curtis & Longo, 2005; Camine, Silbert, Keme'enul & Tarver, 2004; Chall, 1983; & Scholastic Red, Teacher Resource, 2002), literature indicates that there are five stages of learning to read. This study used labels as stated by Chall (1983).

Stage 0 is called Prereading and is from birth to six years. Focus here is on oral language development characterized by children's growth in knowledge and use of spoken language. They gain some insights into the nature of words. They also acquire some beginning understandings of the sound structures of words, for example, they learn that some words sound the same at the beginning (alliteration) and/ or at the end (rhyme), that spoken words can be broken into parts, and that parts can be put together to form whole words. Camine et al (2004) call reading at this stage, pretend reading. They continue to explain how most children at this stage do learn to hold the book right-side up and turn pages. Some may learn to point at a word on the page while saying the word. Reading to children at this stage help to provide them with opportunities to acquire prereading knowledge (Chall, 1983).

Stage 1 is called Initial or Decoding which is from six to seven years in grades one to two. Children at this stage learn letters of the alphabet and correspondences between letters and the sounds that they represent. Both children and adults at this stage interiorise cognitive knowledge about reading, such as what letters are for, how to know that bun is not bug, and how to know when a mistake is made. This stage has been referred to pejoratively as a 'guessing and memory game' or as 'grunting and groaning' 'mumbling and bumbling' or 'barking at print' depending on whether the prevailing methodology for beginning reading instruction is a sight or phonic approach. The qualitative change that occur at the end of this stage is the insight gained about the nature of the spelling-sound system of the particular

alphabetic language used. Camine et al (2004) add by stating that direct teaching of decoding accelerates development in stage one, particularly for those with limited readiness.

Stage 2 Chall (1983) calls this stage Confirmation, Fluency, Ungluing from Print. It ranges between the ages seven and eight when learners are in grades two to three. Learners develop their decoding skills, their fluency and additional strategies to make meaning from text. Reading here is not for gaining, but for confirming what is already known to the reader. Learners are reading stories that have previously been heard to increase fluency. As the content of the text is basically familiar, the reader can concentrate attention on the printed words, usually the most common, high frequency words. With the basic decoding skills and insights interiorised in stage one, the reader can take advantage of what is said in the story and book, and match it to their language and knowledge. Most learners at this stage learn to use their decoding knowledge, the redundancies of the stories read. They gain courage and skill in using context and thus gain fluency and speed. Camine et al (2004) have this to say about this stage: learners recognise most words automatically and read passages with ease and expression. Decoding the words on the page no longer consumes all of their cognitive attention. Cognitive capacity is freed for processing meaning. At this stage learners are ready to make the important transition from 'learning to read' to 'reading to learn'. Learners who lag behind at this stage and do not receive special help experience failure throughout their school years. Regular practice helps in developing fluency with print that is necessary for the difficulty to come – the acquisition of new ideas at stage three. Parental involvement in the form of regular reading to the child, buying or borrowing reading books for learners is necessary. If the parents do not read regularly to the child, development of language may be slower, and the child may lose out on the emotionally confirming responses that books and reading matter bring.

Stage 3 is called Reading for Learning the New. Chall (1983) divides this stage into two phases, Phase A from grade four to six, from ages nine to eleven, and Phase B covering grade seven to eight, from ages twelve to fourteen. The first phase includes development of the ability to read beyond egocentric purposes, to reading about conventional knowledge of the world. Learners learn new knowledge, information,

thoughts and experiences by reading. Reading at this stage is essentially for facts, for concepts, and for how to do things. Camine et al (2004) calls that reading for growth in word meanings, that is, vocabulary and background knowledge. As learners' vocabulary and background knowledge are still rather limited, reading is best developed with materials and purposes that focus on one viewpoint. At the end of stage 3 phase A, which is grade six, individuals are able to read serious material of adult length but fall somewhat short of the reading difficulty of most adult popular literature. Then stage 3 phase B is junior high level which brings readers closer to the ability to read on a general adult level. They start to confront different viewpoints and begin to analyse and criticise what they read. Popular magazines, popular adult fiction, and local newspapers are within the reader's ability by the end of this phase.

Stage 4 is Multiple Viewpoints (Chall, 1983). Learners at this stage are in high school, aged between fourteen and eighteen years. It is at this stage that learners must deal with more than one point of view. This stage essentially involves ability to deal with layers of facts and concepts added onto those acquired earlier. Other viewpoints can be acquired, however, because the necessary knowledge was learned earlier. It can further be said that this stage is acquired through formal education, that is, the assignments in various school textbooks, original and other sources, and through reference works in the physical, biological and social sciences. The reading of more mature fiction and through the free reading of books, newspapers and magazines also help in acquiring viewpoints. When learners are dealing with more than one set of facts, various theories and multiple viewpoints, they get practice in acquiring ever-more-difficult concepts and in learning how to acquire new concepts and new points of view through reading (Chall, 1983; Camine et al, 2004). This study is focused on learners at this stage. The researcher kept in mind the previously highlighted fact that for some learners, the stages are not flowing according to chronological age, but overlap (National Institute for Professional Practice, 2014). This has helped to determine whether grade ten learners are ahead of, or falling behind their expected schedule.

Stage 5 is called Construction and Reconstruction stage – A world view (Chall, 1983). It is from the age eighteen and above. This is the highest stage of reading development, whereby readers can read materials in the degree of detail and

completeness that is needed to serve their purpose. Readers at this stage know what not to read as well as what to read. They select materials to serve their purposes. Reading at this stage is essentially constructive as readers can, from reading construct knowledge for themselves. They analyse, synthesise and make judgement about what they read. They balance their own comprehension of the words with their analysis of the content and their own ideas about the topic. Reading at this stage is constructive as the reader constructs knowledge and understanding from reading what others have written. Past knowledge about the subject and broad general knowledge are needed for selecting what to read, for comprehending it, and for making useful synthesis. Past knowledge and familiarity with the ideas make a rapid reading rate possible. If the texts are unfamiliar, a slower, study-type pace is needed. Generally, stage five means that one has the ability to create knowledge at high level of abstraction and generality, and to create one's own truth from the truths of others.

The work of Stage Development Theory of Reading was commended by Curtis and Longo (2001:10), who showed how it helped in developing a highly successful reading programme created for older struggling readers. It helped to note 'What has failed to develop, what has developed differently, and most importantly, what still needed to be developed.' This theory assisted the researcher to assess the reading stage at which grade ten learners are, which informed the need for measures to improve reading. The purpose is to help the learners attain reading efficiency that will help them take their academic responsibilities confidently. The reading programme that was created for older struggling readers can also be considered as a remedy to reading problems that learners are encountering.

2.7.3 Curriculum Change Theory

After thorough study of reading theories, it becomes essential to examine theories that govern curriculum change, a step that enhanced the understanding of the research topic. The literature study conducted on curriculum change theory did not state a pool of theories out of which researcher could pick one, but rather stated several facts that are considered in curriculum planning. These facts are stated for future reference when analysing the process of curriculum change in the South African education system.

2.7.3.1 Factors behind curriculum change

The first question to be answered is why curriculum change is necessary. As stated previously (cf 2.3.3) there are various reasons that prompt countries to revise curricula in their education systems. Countries like England, Scotland and Finland have been looked at. In South Africa this was necessitated by political change in government. The transition from an apartheid government to a democratic government warranted change in curriculum in order to be in line with democratic concepts of, for example, equality. South Africa was characterised by decades of social and economic discrimination against black South Africans, which left a legacy of income inequality along racial lines. The new South African state not only addressed the curriculum but the education system as well. A single national department of education was created out of nineteen racially, ethnically and regionally divided departments of education. The state again created non-discriminatory school environments into which access was gained on the basis of criteria other than race or religion (Jansen & Taylor, 2003:2).

The implementation was realised in the three national curriculum reform initiatives, focused on schools. The first attempt was to purge apartheid curriculum of 'racially offensive and outdated content, while the second introduced continuous assessment into schools (Jansen, 1997:1). The third, which is CAPS, was introduced not as a new curriculum, but an amendment to the NCS Grade R-12 so that the curriculum was made more accessible to educators. It was clarifying content of every subject in terms of what educators ought to teach and assess. Topics were clearly delineated for each subject and a recommendation on the number and type of assessment per term (Coetzee, 2012).

In the FET phase, with regard to language, the curriculum aimed at providing opportunities for learners to strengthen and develop their multilingual skills. Learners are required to use their language with increasing fluency in a broadening range of situations. They take responsibility for their own learning and apply their language skills in more challenging and complex ways. By the time learners enter grade ten they should be reasonably proficient in their FAL with regard to interpersonal and cognitive academic skills. Msila (2007:9) has noted with concern the range of literacies that are essential for effective participation in society and work place in the

global economy of the twenty-first century. They have expanded beyond listening, reading, writing, and oral traditions, to various forms such as media, graphics, information, and computer, cultural and critical literacy. So, it remains the responsibility of language curriculum to prepare learners for challenges they will face as South Africans and as members of the global community.

It was noted, however, that although there is a need for advanced skills in literacy, many learners still cannot communicate well or satisfy basic skills in their additional language at the FET stage. The challenge in grades ten to twelve were, providing support for these learners at the same time as providing a curriculum that enables learners to meet the standards required in grade twelve. These standards have to be such that learners can use their additional language at a high level of proficiency to prepare them for further or higher education or the world at work (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:9). All these challenges prompted the researcher to examine the theories that were applied during the process of curriculum change. Curriculum development is also considered.

2.7.3.2 Curriculum development

Although it has been stated previously that it is challenging to prompt a theory that informs curriculum change, it is still worthwhile to keep the concept of theory at hand. Theory will enhance understanding of the change process which has been implemented in South African education system. Theorising in curriculum implies shifting the focus from the end-product to the process itself. According to Carl (2012:22), theorising is a general process where individuals are involved in three activities; namely being open and sensitive to emerging patterns in phenomena, attempting to identify common patterns and issues, and relating patterns to one's own teaching context. The researcher has taken into cognisance what Pratt (1980:9-10) stated regarding curriculum design. Pratt declares that curriculum design, like education as a whole, relies on the explanation of phenomena that theory provides, but it is not itself theoretical. The concepts educational theory and curriculum theory can be employed only through a loose and non-scientific use of the word theory. At its most scientific, curriculum design is an applied science which, like medicine and engineering, is drawn on theory from the pure sciences. Pratt (1980) is convinced that curriculum cannot be governed by theory alone, and therefore defines design as

a deliberate process of devising, planning and selecting the elements techniques and procedures that constitute an organised learning endeavour. Embedded in the notion of designing, Clegg (1968:9) has this to say:

> I have no time whatever for any system which recruits high powered thinkers to contrive and foist a curriculum on the schools. This cannot work unless we believe that the teacher of the future is to be a low-grade technician working under someone else's instruction rather than a professional making his [sic] own diagnosis and prescribing his [sic] own treatment.

This means that curriculum development, as a practical phenomenon, contains distinct and identifiable elements; (a) the ability to design a set of learning activities within general provincial/ state guidelines, (b) consult with community groups, school leaders, fellow educators, students, and (c) given the resources available to the educator and a set of tried and proven curriculum principles, prepare a curriculum that provides parameters for budget allocation, resource availability, decision making, professional roles, and administrative contingencies (Levey, 2010).

Christie (2008:15), on the other hand, looked at the success of policies as levers of change in attaining Education For All (EFA). UNESCO (2005), after careful study of countries that have attained EFA and countries that have not, and looking at their differences concluded that there was unlikely to be a single general theory of successful educational change. It is vision, consistent policy and leadership from governments that make a difference to educational outcomes. It is on the basis of these statements that the researcher does not focus on a search for theory of curriculum change, but rather phases of curriculum development and approaches to curriculum in the whole process of curriculum change.

2.7.3.3 Phases of curriculum development

Phases of curriculum development which this study focuses on include curriculum design, curriculum dissemination, and curriculum implementation. Each development stage will be explained.

Curriculum Design: Carl (2012:66) gives the precise purpose of curriculum design when stating that it relates to the creation of new curriculum, and to the replanning of an existing one after a more complete evaluation has been made. Aspects such as method, team approach and responsible decision making should figure prominently within this phase. Decisions are taken, with regard to the content which must be included, how it should be presented, and how it should be evaluated. Other aspects, as stated by Carl (2012) that deserve thorough consideration during this design phase are; (a) criteria for curriculum development, (b) procedure for curriculum development, (c) educational and teaching objectives, (d) child knowledge, (e) subject knowledge, and (f) necessary didactic and subject didactic knowledge and skills.

Based on the curriculum development models of Walters (1978), Kruger (1980), and Carl (1986), as stated in Carl (2012:70) the process of curriculum development and even curriculum design should start with situational analysis. Situational analysis is the evaluation process comprising the collection and interpretation of all the information that may influence curriculum development. Although this process may serve as a starting point for curriculum development, it should also take place on an on-going basis in order to be able to make on-going adjustments. The results of such a situation analysis should serve as a strong guideline for the design which is to follow with all its facets.

Then the models go on to select goals of curriculum. At the national level, curriculum planners will make a thorough analysis of the needs of the country and the broad school population, and then formulate broad objectives for the school phases accordingly. On the other hand, the subject educator is given a chance to make an analysis of a specific class/ grade/ learner and use the results in micro-curriculum development for the instructional-learning situation. The nature of the needs will differ depending on the level at which one is moving, for example, national or more local. At the local level, situation analysis should be made in respect of learners, content, physical surroundings educators and the learning action.

 After selection of goals, selection of content will follow. Learning content should be analysed based on the objectives it needs to address. What should be looked at is the extent, relevance, degree of difficulty, available sources, demands and

requirements of syllabus, depth of the study, classification, time scheduling, textbooks available, other available content, sustainability for relevant learners, and structure of the subject content. Syllabus interpretation therefore makes up an important part of such a situation analysis (Carl, 2012:80-81). Content selection will then be followed by classification of content, which is called planning and application of the instructional-learning situation. The final step in the three models is that of evaluation. The end results of the educational undertaking are evaluated. The results of the design should continually be tested for further development. Once the design has been finalised, the dissemination phase follows.

Curriculum dissemination is the phase during which the climate for the envisaged change is created and all users are prepared for it. The level of empowerment will probably determine the level of dissemination. Effective curriculum development implies change and renewal. Each person in the teaching organisation should be kept fully informed and involved with a view to taking best decisions, thus ensuring optimal development. Curriculum dissemination comprises the preparation of curriculum utilizers through the distribution or promulgation of information, thoughts and concepts in order to make them aware of envisaged curriculum. This preparation can also be seen as empowerment process.

Research has shown that there are normally certain attitudes towards change. The details that follow are outlined by Carl (2012:113-115). The manner in which curriculum is disseminated often determines how acceptable the curriculum will eventually be. The dissemination information may be received in various divergent manners, and the designers should take this into account in planning their dissemination strategies. Future consumers have/ show divergent attitudes towards change. There are enthusiasts who are energetic, accepting challenges and having high ambitions. They are adapted to progress and will participate in meaningful innovation. They will enthusiastically receive and implement a newly designed curriculum. There is a group called supporters, who though less radical, are involved with professional associations and in-service training matters. They are informed as to curriculum matters and may easily be persuaded to accept innovation if the design is thoroughly planned, well founded and tested. The third group is acquiescers, who are purposeful. Although this group is adapted to development, they will not initiate it.

They usually only make contact with their equals and will follow the path of least resistance. There is a group called laggards who are sceptical about any changes, and would just maintain a low profile. They are inclined to act dogmatically, are very rigid in their actions and will not consider any change unless the majority of their colleagues have already accepted it. The antagonists is the last group who are usually loners and will resist any change, new curriculum design or revised curriculum, even if it is aimed at development.

Dissemination therefore is the task of preparing consumers so that they should be purposefully involved. In order to effect this, it is often necessary to break down resistance to change and to create a renewal climate. After curriculum dissemination, is curriculum implementation (Carl, 2012:113-115).

Curriculum implementation can be considered a system of engineering that takes design specifications through various channels to educator and classroom. Carl (2012:134-135) declares it is during this phase that empowered educators have to apply the appropriate curriculum skills and knowledge that they have developed. Successful implementation depends on the extent to which all consumers are informed and have been prepared for the envisaged change and whether they are also prepared to associate themselves with it. Many curriculum initiatives have failed because curriculum developers underestimated the importance of implementation. The three phases of curriculum development can serve as guiding principles in curriculum design and curriculum change. The main intention is to buy in stakeholders and those who are affected by curriculum change, and if possible, give them an opportunity to make contributions.

2.7.3.4 Approaches to curriculum development

In her study, Lenoir (2014) presented the ideas of Michael Young, one of the leading theorists internationally regarding curriculum change. Michael Young had to review the ideas he used to defend ones he faced in the field, a reality that was different from the one described in his theories. At first, he was defending the idea of curricula freedom, and endorsing the view that curriculum is a cultural arbitrariness, in which decisions involve unequal power relations. However, in the early 1990s, working in South Africa when Mandela was elected president, he was forced to change his

opinion. To get rid of the educational model from the apartheid period and everything it represented, the country's first democratic government developed a very comprehensive and general curriculum. Educators who were used to dictatorial curriculum did not know what to do. Seeing the educational standards fall when he expected them to increase, Young realised that giving educators and schools total freedom is not the only answer to improve opportunities for all students. The expert then started to develop one of the main concepts that are part of his current approach to curriculum. That concept is powerful knowledge. Young argues that in all societies, in any field, there is a kind of knowledge that is better, more important to be learned and applied. In education, all students need this powerful knowledge to go beyond their experiences. For Young, children and young people go to school to learn what they cannot reach through their daily experiences, that is, powerful knowledge that has an emancipatory character.

 According to him, national curriculum is the only way learners in all schools can have their rights to access the most reliable knowledge available guaranteed. Such national curriculum must be based on subjects determined by knowledge tested by experts throughout the years, and not on topics chosen based on learners' and educators' opinions and personal preferences. Young considers that to be crucial for students' personal, professional and academic development. His South African experience has taught him that it is national curriculum that will determine the main contents that must be taught in the classroom. Educators according to him, need orientation regarding what is important knowledge that all students need to have access to. Although Young encourages that those orientations must be provided by national curriculum, he also believes that a document on national curriculum should not specify how educators must teach. As professionals, they need autonomy to interpret guidelines for their own schools' context. He regards school curriculum as important as national curriculum (Young, 2007).

According to Young (2007), school curriculum incorporates pedagogy, which is the way through which educators interact with learners and allow them to access the concepts in curriculum. His work mainly distinguishes between curriculum, which establishes goals for the educator and the school, and pedagogy, through which professionals motivate learners and transform concepts into reality for the learners.

Educators' professional knowledge and autonomy will then be enhanced through associations and link with universities.

Young (2007) further indicates how in Brazil, just as in England, the process of developing common curriculum is an intricate experience. English national curriculum was implemented for the first time in 1988, and since then has been revised several times – the most recent being in October 2013. Discussions have been very polarized, clashing between government and the educational community. Young (2007) regards subjects as strong elements in curriculum of elite schools in the country, both public and private, but there is still an assumption that such curriculum is only appropriate for a minority. However, in a democratic society curriculum should be the same for all learners, until, at least, the end of basic education, although this poses a pedagogical challenge to educators with limited resources and large classes. They ultimately give up on some learners, describing them as 'non-academic'.

Another challenge in England or in any other country, is to approach the curriculum aiming at intellectual development of learners, and not as a way to solve social and economic problems. According to Young (2007), the more curriculum is aimed at solving social and economic problems, the less likely it is that problems will be dealt with where they are actually being originated. He further argues that no curriculum can overcome inequalities originated in the economy, although this cannot be an argument against national curriculum. If a country wants to expand the access to knowledge to all, a series of social changes in economy and in society are necessary. Curriculum for all learners, based on knowledge, must be a goal to be achieved in the long term.

On the other hand, Basil Bernstein, a British sociologist has written extensively about different ways in which knowledge can be organised in a curriculum. Bernstein, in Hoadley & Jansen, (2009:175) describes two distinct types of approaches to curriculum, which he calls the competence model and the performance model. The two models provide ideal types against which the current curriculum debate in South Africa can be reviewed. These models are essentially teaching or analytical tools that help us clarify our thinking. Curriculum in the real world seldom ever matches the ideal type, it is most often a hybrid of many types. In competence curriculum,

designers are interested in encouraging learners' built-in competence to emerge. Knowledge in this model is not imposed from the outside, but the competences that learners already have are drawn on. This curriculum approach encourages teaching that relates to learners' own experiences and everyday knowledge, and in turn assists learners in using their new learning in their lives and work. Focus on learners and their everyday experiences is intended to affirm learners and build their confidence, whatever their background. It also aims to provide educators and learners with important ways into formal school knowledge that are to be taught, and later with the basis for applying that formal knowledge. As competence curriculum blurs the line between school learning and everyday experiences, specific places for learning are not regarded as very important. It is assumed that learning can take place anywhere, being it at home, work or school. Since all learners are regarded as essentially competent and able to arrive at a certain outcome, varying only on how they arrive there and how long it takes, assessment or evaluation focus on what the learners know or have achieved rather than what they do not know, that is, their absences. When assessing, educators should focus on what is present in the activity other than commenting on the weaknesses or absences in learners' activities (Hoadley & Jansen, 2012:90-91; Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:175).

Performance curriculum is characterized by the focus placed on developing high levels of understanding, often in particular subjects. Consequently, this curriculum tends to (a) be very specific about what content must be learned and in what order, (b) focus on depersonalised, formal school knowledge rather than on everyday knowledge and experience, and (c) be more vertically organised than a competence curriculum, meaning, it builds knowledge and understanding in a specific sequence, often achieving greater complexity or depth of knowledge over time. The process of learning in performance curriculum is defined and controlled by the educators. They have a lot more control over selection, sequence and pace of learning than educators in competence curriculum model. Evaluation tends to be based on deficits (absences), or what is missing. The aim is to develop a clearly defined behaviour or understanding, performance rather than more general competence required in a competence model. So teaching and assessment focus on refining this by pointing out what still needs to be mastered. While the competence approach can be described as learner-centred where learners take control of their own learning, with

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educator acting as guide and facilitator, performance approach is thus, more content- and educator-centred. Teaching, in the performance approach takes place in specific learning places, being either classroom, laboratory or training workshop, which are organised or tailored for learning of formal school knowledge. Learners have limited control over selection, sequence and pacing of learning (Hoadley & Jansen, 2012:91-92; Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:177).

After a thorough study of the work of Basil Bernstein, and that of Michael Young, one can conclude that the powerful knowledge that is advocated by Michael Young, which has been developed after thorough observation of the educational transition in South Africa, can be equated to performance curriculum of Basil Bernstein. Both agree that powerful knowledge has emancipatory character. This allows learners access to positions of power and influence in society. What is more notable is that this specialist knowledge is accessed at schools or in other educational institutions. Hoadley and Jansen (2012:95) declare it to be specialist because it cannot be accessed everywhere. It is even powerful because it offers people the possibility of getting on, of imagining things as being different from how they are, of learning and understanding more about the world and life, and how it may be negotiated or changed. Bernstein goes on to emphasize the selection of what is to be learnt, and that selection is organised in a particular way. There is a strongly classified curriculum where a subject has clear boundaries that distinguish it from other subjects. Boundaries are established by the fact that each subject deals with very different content and concepts, uses different kinds of language, and investigates the world using different kinds of methods, for example, in the case of mathematics, history and science. Weakly classified curriculum integrates different subjects, and introduces ways of linking different subjects and topics. The special language, concepts and ways of arguing are less important, while the connections between subjects are more important. A subject like Life Orientation is weakly classified as it does not have many special terms or specialist language that must be understood in order to understand the subject (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:95-96).

The last models examined are that of Ralph Tyler and Lawrence Stenhouse. Tyler is known as the father of objective or product approach to curriculum planning, and his ideas are delineated in his famous book entitled *Basic Principles of Curriculum and*

Instruction. On the other hand, Tyler's most ardent critic, Lawrence Stenhouse has developed a process approach to curriculum development. The approach is outlined in his book entitled *An Introduction to Curriculum Research and Design*. Tyler's approach comprises four steps which are, in chronological order:

- Aims and objectives; the school or country must determine its educational purpose
- Content that should be taught to achieve these objectives; the institution must decide on educational experience which must also be meaningful to the learner
- How to organise teaching; the schools should plan how they will deliver learning experience – subjects to be taught, projects that learners should participate in, and classroom arrangement
- How to determine whether purposes are being attained; schools and educators must be clear about how they will assess learning and evaluate their teaching.

<div align="center">(Hoadley & Jansen, 2012:56-57)</div>

Tyler's approach to curriculum development can be summed up by saying that curriculum design is based on research about what is important. This is broken down into clearly defined objectives, which are clearly spelt out so that educators could describe the type of behaviour that learners are expected to acquire, and then recognise such behaviour if they saw it (Hoadley & Jansen, 2012:56-57).

In the process approach to curriculum, Stenhouse, in Hoadley and Jansen (2012:58) declares that good education is simply more open-ended and experimental. Educators must try different approaches and find what works best in their circumstances. He regards each classroom as a laboratory and each educator an experimenter and researcher. Curriculum is meant to present educators with ideas, rough guides or proposals which should be tested in their laboratories, that is, their classrooms. Curriculum plan should not be described, but should focus on how learners learn and attempt to enrich this. Any curriculum proposal needs to be tested and verified or adopted by each educator in his classroom. Curriculum is regarded as a process not a product.

Both writers, in their different approaches, attempt to answer similar questions about how to develop curriculum, who should be involved in curriculum development, and the knowledge that learners should know and how it is decided. Tyler regards educators as primarily transmitters of knowledge and skills laid down in curriculum. These knowledge and skills are selected through research processes conducted by experts before teaching begins. Then the curriculum has to translate knowledge and skills into specific educational objectives and explain how they could be achieved. However, Stenhouse does not have such faith in experts being able to research and come up with selections of knowledge and skills that are appropriate to all learners. He seems to suggest that much of this research will happen while thoughtful educators are teaching. Stenhouse sees educators as more than transmitters of knowledge, he sees them as mediators of learning and as participants in curriculum-making. He suggests that curriculum should be an intelligent guide or proposal rather than a plan with pre-specified objectives. This guide will be tested and validated according to each educator's particular context (Hoadley & Jansen, 2012:61-62).

In analysing the product and process approaches to curriculum development, as advanced by Tyler and Stenhouse, it is evident that the product model of Tyler is closer to powerful knowledge that is advocated by Young and performance curriculum of Bernstein. Then the process model of Stenhouse is close to the competence curriculum as stated by Bernstein. Although it is stated that these models did not exist in isolation among different curricula of the South African education system, it is imperative to scrutinise the one that informed the curriculum design of languages, especially English FAL.

2.8 REVIEWING CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT OF ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE (EFAL) IN RELATION TO CURRICULUM MODELS

The literature study of models and approaches to curriculum development has revealed that some subjects can be classified under competence model while others can be classified under performance model. Subjects that are classified under performance model, which is advanced by Bernstein, are based on 'specialised knowledge' that is championed by curriculum theorist, Young. Those subjects receive priority and special treatment in schools. In most cases, this is experienced in content subjects. Educators and departmental officials would go an extra mile in the

teaching and offering of support to learners in these subjects. Some of such subjects have even been labelled 'killer subjects' as they are not easily acquired by learners. This attitude of educators and officials towards these subjects is unintentionally diffused among learners, who would, in turn, focus more on those subjects than the others. The gap identified is the status which has been accorded to the subject English. The researcher set out to establish whether curriculum policy of this subject was bestowed competence or performance approach in previous policies, and the current status quo.

The researcher realised, from her experience as an educator that subjects with competence approach, for example, Life Orientation, are not taken seriously by educators at schools. In most cases they are offered by underqualified educators, who would just be there to keep learners busy. Educators are deemed underqualified because they do not have specialised training in the subject they teach. In most cases, especially in schools situated in rural areas, when there are educator shortages, or rather, schools are under-staffed, languages are passed on to unqualified educators, with the idea that everyone had studied them at high school level, and is using them on daily basis. *This is also called teacher preparedness. Despite the fact that such educators are not ready to teach such subjects, challenges of over-crowded classes and staff-shortages result in these cases. The educators do not have time to give their learners individual attention, and in-depth knowledge of the subject matter.*

Again the researcher set out to investigate whether the different phases of curriculum development were observed when various curricula were introduced, as this may also affect the implementation of the new curriculum. English was treated as a golden thread in the process. Finally, the matter that was given attention is the content taught in languages. It has been stated (cf 2.7.3.1) that focus on languages was expanded beyond listening, reading, writing and oral traditions to include various forms such as media, graphics, information, computer, cultural and critical literacy. This study aimed at bridging this gap with the intention of identifying and addressing the challenges that affect the reading ability of learners in grade ten.

Booyse, Le Roux, Seroto and Wolhuter (2011:291-292) traced the history of the education system in South Africa and this is what they have to say. Early education

among the indigenous people of South Africa sought to perpetuate a particular lifestyle of the various ethnic and cultural groups. African children were raised collectively by the community and educated in the culture and traditions of their people. Education was aimed at the survival of both the individual and the community. Children were made aware of the fact that their own future, and that of their community, depended on the understanding and perpetuation of the institutions, laws, language and values inherited from the past. In pre-colonial communities, education was oral, non-literary and indigenous, and it served to prepare and integrate the young into the community. Informal education relied on oral tradition. Adults related tales of heroism, valour, disloyalty and treachery with the objective of conveying valuable moral, spiritual and cultural lessons. Chores were differentiated on the basis of gender, instruction being given by the mother to girls and the father to boys. Formal education manifested itself in an initiation ceremony which marked the transition from adolescence to adulthood. It was during a brief period of dedicated training that concerted efforts were made to introduce the young initiates to the most important aspects of tribal mythology, accumulated knowledge and skills, and appropriate attitudes. Formal education was also provided for a number of functional categories such as herbalists, drummers, blacksmiths, priests and soldiers. Mother tongue was the language through which education was offered.

From what Booyse et al (2011) say, one can realise that education takes place in both formal and informal situations. During earlier times, education was not confined to formal schools, but parents and the community took responsibility of transferring values, knowledge and skills to their younger ones.

This situation changed during the period of colonialism. The formal way of schooling was introduced. Booyse et al (2011:292) indicated how in the first half of the 20th century the Afrikaners desperately tried to establish an education system based on their own views and associated with their own culture. They were unfortunately prevented from doing so by economically and militarily more powerful nations who exerted control over local areas. The Netherlands, which was the first European colonising force in Cape, transplanted the motherland system of education into its new colony. The Netherlands had a strong Protestant tradition which was upheld in the schools established by the Dutch authorities. Education that was introduced in

Cape Colony had not cultivated wisdom and learning, but produced people with a strong religious tradition which enabled them to meet their immediate needs of the time.

The Afrikaner period was followed by British rule, where education provision was expanded according to established policy. Anglicisation policy was introduced, and there were measures to ensure the formalisation of education. It was during this time that language became a very sensitive issue in education, as the Afrikaners considered English language and curriculum irrelevant to rural life and Afrikaner values. They then resisted government policies aimed at the spreading of the English language, culture and values because it was seen as undermining their own developing culture and traditions. Schools at the time were described as outlandish, foreign and irreligious. When Afrikaners gained control over the provision of education in 1948, the education setting, as Booyse et al (2011:293) put it, remained unaffected, except change of actors. The nature of education and the way it was implemented were determined predominantly by the Afrikaner government, and was forced upon black, coloured and Indian people in spite of objections and acts of resistance. Language issues in schools at the time, led to the 1976 resistance, when blacks fought against the use of Afrikaans as the language of learning and teaching. The only official languages then were English and Afrikaans, which could be used as media of instruction. There was considerable control over all education in the country, and for the most part the system reflected the innermost convictions, the main beliefs and the special ambitions of Afrikaners.

In 1994 the new government came to power and was committed to social transformation, guided by a progressive constitution of the country. A new education system was established with a large number of policies collectively aimed at national unity, open access to education and all other amenities, and equality of individual opportunity. The multicultural nature of the country was acknowledged and several policies and Acts were passed to cherish that. Language issues in education, which had been the bone of contention in the previous two decades, was addressed through the Language in Education Policy of 1997 and the South African Schools Act of 1996. African languages were accorded the status of official languages, and learners could use them as languages of learning and teaching.

With regard to unity, the government created a single National Department of Education, and simultaneously decentralised decision-making powers in education so that the new system of school education could be managed by nine provincial sub-systems. To extend access to education, a system of a ten-year free and compulsory education was introduced. The new government, further established non-discriminatory school environments and instituted a multiple of legal provisions which prohibited all types of discrimination. This legislation resulted in certain schools being compelled to change their admission, religious or language policies, ensuing various types of protest action. There were attempts to build both equity and quality within the context of constrained resources.

After a comprehensive study of literature, the researcher realised that most studies on reading focused on clarifying the concept reading; and stating reading purposes and effect of reading ability on academic achievement. History of English as language of learning and teaching was outlined, and it was realised that South African inhabitants, who received formal education prior to 1948 had to study English as a First Language, called English A then. What was noted was that although access to secondary schools and universities was narrowed for black learners, good quality education and set academic standards enabled those who managed to gain access to compete confidently with their white compatriots in universities (cf 2.4.3). The tide turned in 1953 when the Bantu Education Act, which encouraged separate development was passed. Bilingualism, that is, the use of Afrikaans and English was enforced in schools, and separate schools were built for blacks in homelands. Lack of qualified educators and overcrowded classes were responsible for the decline in the quality of education. The issue of bilingualism and different examination boards led to the 1976 resistance. The quality of education remained poor until the establishment of the first democratic government in 1994, when the newly formed government decided to correct past faults. Until then, English remained the most preferred language of learning and teaching.

Curriculum was also examined with focus on types of curricula, purposes of curricula, curriculum design and implementation. There was again an in-depth study of different curricula policies introduced in South Africa after 1994. Flaws were a common factor that was noted in the curricula, hence constant change. Issues surrounding curriculum in education systems of other countries were examined, to

facilitate reflection on curriculum change in the South African education system. There were also models around curriculum change and relevant theories, which were incorporated to help built South African school curriculum.

After an all-out literature study that was conducted, there is a gap that was identified. As reading was distinguished to be the fundamental skill for academic achievement, Du Toit, Hesse and Orr (1995:3) declared "To be an achiever as a student, it is necessary to become a competent reader." There is no doubt that reading competence is closely linked to academic success. There is an urge to reflect on the effect of constant curriculum change on the reading ability of EFAL learners in grade ten. Little has been researched on this topic. To fill in this gap, the objectives, as stated in chapter one, needed to be realised. They were stated as:

- To identify the relevant reading skills in Curriculum 2005 (C2005), National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) and to determine time allocated for reading in the past and present curricula
- To identify the level of reading skills and determine whether learners attain the required reading skills by the end of the period stated in the pace setter
- To make recommendations on measures that could be taken to enhance learners' reading skills.

It is interesting to note that in addition to the stated objectives, there are other factors that, when considered, can help fill in the gap identified. Those factors include how reading skills are taught, learned and assessed in the curriculum, purposes that inform curriculum change – whether they centre on learners' academic achievement, their vocational purposes and social needs, or on the country's political and economic needs. Then models around curriculum development and curriculum change, and even relevant theories were examined to help evaluate curriculum design and development in South Africa, and to ensure that envisaged products yield positive results.

2.9 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

This chapter commenced by defining and clarifying key concepts that are used in this study. Curriculum change was scrutinised. There was an intense study of different

curricula that were practised in South Africa, with the language issue being the golden thread, in particular, reading skills. The South African curriculum was examined together with the curriculum of other countries such as United States and China. The idea was to uncover design and general development of curriculum, reasons for curriculum change, the process of implementation, and the challenges experienced during implementation.

In the South African education system, history of formal education was investigated, focusing on different curricula that were practised. Reasons for curriculum change were pointed out and how users of curriculum responded to the implementation process. There was an intensive look into English used as language of learning and teaching from the period of Nated 550 (apartheid curriculum) to the present curriculum, CAPS. Reading was also interrogated. Types of reading, purpose of reading, reading ability and reading problems, together with other factors that affect reading efficiency were monitored.

After a thorough study of reading theories, theories that the researcher believes would direct this study were decided on. Schema Theory (Bartlett, 1932), and Stage Development Theory of Reading (Chall, 1983), were discussed to gain a broad understanding of these two theories. In curriculum study, curriculum change theories were analysed, which resulted in a full presentation of how curriculum is developed. Finally, models of curriculum development as stated by Tyler, Stenhouse, Bernstein and Young were outlined with the intention of locating EFAL teaching and learning within the models. Comprehensive Theoretical Framework stated was used to guide this study in as far as reading and curriculum change are concerned. It is believed this would help to identify problems of teaching and learning reading skills, if there are any, and come up with strategies to address them.

The gap, which determines the need for this study was identified. It has been noted that little has been done in the area of the effect of constant curriculum change on the reading ability of learners. This study intends to fill this gap by examining reading across the three curricula, focusing on the content taught in EFAL, teaching methods applicable, contact time allocated, and the impact of reading efficiency on the overall results of the learners. EFAL teaching was evaluated against the models and theoretical frameworks stated. This helps to establish the effect that curriculum

change has on the reading ability of EFAL learners in grade ten. By so doing, the aim of this study, which is to investigate the effect of curriculum change process on reading ability of EFAL learners in grade ten, was uncovered. The literature gathered assisted the researcher to prepare instruments that were used to gather empirical data from sampled participants of this study.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study, as outlined in Chapter One is to investigate the effect of curriculum change process in the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten. The second chapter outlined the literature review wherein reading and reading skills in EFAL were intensely scrutinised. The manner in which different curricula addressed the concept reading were also discussed. Changes that were brought about by curriculum reform were considered. Reading theories and curriculum change theories were perused to give this study a sound framework. Reference was also made to reasons for curriculum change and how other countries implemented it. The chapter built a conceptual framework for the empirical research.

Chapter Three is committed to presenting the research method and design. There is a detailed explanation of how the research aim and objectives informed the selection of a research strategy, which is a mixed methods approach. Methods of data collection, which were both qualitative and quantitative were used in a parallel manner, and data processing techniques observed both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Finally, because of the scientific nature of this study, and as demanded by social sciences research, ethical measures were observed.

3.2 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Briggs and Coleman (2007:19) define methodology as the theory of how researchers gain knowledge in research contexts and why. The definition is further expanded by Clough and Nutbrown (2002:22) who declare that it provides reasons for using particular research recipe, that is, rationale for the ways in which researchers conduct research activities. With the methodology section, the researcher aims at helping readers to understand, in the broadest possible terms, not only products of scientific inquiry but the process itself. An important point stated by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000:76) is that methodology is not only about formulating the specific questions to be posed, but also to select appropriate instruments that will gather the data to answer them. A point stated by Kaplan (1973:93), that methodology not only

aims at describing and analysing methods, but also throws light on their limitations and resources, clarifying their suppositions and consequences, relating their potentialities to the twilight zone at the frontiers of knowledge. These were utilised in this study. This methodology helped the researcher to choose proper research methods and instruments, guided by research objectives that were used to gather empirical data for this study.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

To address the aim and objectives of this study a mixed methods approach was employed. This stemmed from what Abowitz and Toole (2010:108) advocate: that in social science research, no single method of data collection is ideal. They acknowledge that each method has inherent strengths and weakness and therefore encourage the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches in research design and data collection. Mixed methods study involves collection or analysis of both quantitative and/or qualitative data in a single study in which the data are collected concurrently or sequentially, are given a priority; and involve the integration of data at one or more stages in the process of research to understand research problem more completely (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:212; Ivankova, Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:261). Petter and Gallivan (2004:1) also agree by defining mixed methods as an approach to study phenomena by using multiple data collection techniques to generate multiple data sets. Then Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:370) view it from a technical point, saying it is an approach that draws upon the strengths and perspectives of each method, recognising the existence and importance of the physical, natural world as well as the importance of reality and the human experience.

The metaphor given by Howe (1988:11) when opposing the purist view of focusing on one view of the world, summed up the researcher's decision of opting for mixed methods research. The principle of drunken search is used:

> There is a story of a drunkard searching under a
> street lamp for his house key, which he had dropped
> some distance away. Asked why he didn't look where
> he had dropped it, he replied, "It's lighter here!"

For the drunkard, the light dictates where he will look. Howe (1998) questions why a paradigm should dictate research a person performs, thus restricting one's perspective, interesting problems and approaches.

Several advantages of conducting mixed methods research have been considered. Pragmatists view this integration of methods from different paradigms as a powerful method to enhance the credibility of findings, while on the other hand establishing firm foundation of knowledge (Petter & Gallivan, 2004:1, 4). Östlund, Kidd, Wengström and Rowa-Dewar (2011:369) recognise mixed method research as valuable, because it can potentially capitalize on the respective strengths of qualitative and quantitative approaches. This method further allows the researcher to balance the strengths and weaknesses of each approach. Although advantages of mixed methods approach have been recorded by many researchers, the researcher in this study has also not turned a deaf ear to the disadvantages stated. There are certain drawbacks that are associated with the use of mixed methods, being the fact that it is more expensive than a single method study in terms of time, money and energy (Abowitz & Toole, 2010:108). Bertzner, Lawrenz and Thao (2015:10) have recorded a major difficulty in conducting mixed method study as a lack of guidance on how those approaches would be operationalised in practice. By this, reference was made to the stage at which mixing should occur.

The researcher is given the option of collecting both forms of data, that is, quantitative and qualitative, and in the analysis process transform the qualitative data into numerical scores (themes and codes counted for frequencies) so that they may be compared with quantitative scores. Alternatively, analysis might proceed separately for both quantitative and qualitative data, and then information be compared at the interpretation (or discussion) stage of research. Less commonly found in mixed methods studies is integration at data collection (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:220). Östlund et al (2011:370) have argued on the characteristics of truly mixed methods study as those which involve integration of qualitative and quantitative findings at some stage of the research process, be that during data collection, analysis or at the interpretative stage of research. Guided by the definitions provided, the researcher collected and analysed both types of data separately, and made integration at the interpretation stage of research.

The study mainly followed a qualitative research approach with a small scale quantitative approach. The quantitative approach, as already stated in Chapter One, was used to gain a broader perspective of the problem that is, its scope. A descriptive survey design was used to first establish attitudes of participants towards the topic. Then a follow-up was done through qualitative approach to look into the depth of the problem and learn about individual perspectives (Ivankova, Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007:260). Within the qualitative approach, a case study design was used. With this design, the researcher strove towards a comprehensive understanding of how participants related and interacted with each other in a specific situation and how they made meaning of the phenomenon (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:75). By combining both numeric data and text data in sequence, and by choosing variables and units of analysis which are appropriate for addressing the study purpose and finding answers to the research questions, the researcher was embarking on mixed methods research approach.

3.4 SAMPLING

Sampling theory as defined by Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006:97) is a technical accounting device to rationalise the collection of information, to choose in an appropriate way the restricted set of objects, persons, events and so forth from which the actual information will be drawn. It has been developed to suggest ways of drawing 'scientific' samples, that is, samples that are random and representative of the population and whose findings can tell us more about the population in general (Maree & Pietersen, 2007:172). Sampling was necessary because the inclusion of the entire population in the study could not be possible, with the main restrictions being time and cost.

With regard to sampling plan, this study considered two questions, that is, the sampling procedure used and the sample size. The participants used for qualitative study were randomly selected from quantitative study participants as sanctioned by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003:202). Sampling was looked at from two research approaches, quantitative as in survey design, and qualitative as in case study. For the two approaches, the participants used by the researcher were grade ten learners, educators offering EFAL in grade ten, and all relevant policy documents related to assessment in C2005, NCS and CAPS. The main intention was to reach

saturation of data. Detailed procedures of sampling and sample size that were followed are explained in detail.

3.4.1 Survey design

Considering the purpose of this study, that is to investigate the effect of curriculum change process on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten, and the study design, the sample included grade ten learners and educators, sampled from schools in Capricorn District, Limpopo Province. The researcher used two out of seven clusters of this district, and within each cluster one school was selected. The intention was to use all learners and all educators in sampled schools, considering gaining broader perspective of the problem. This is what Maree (ed) (2007:176) calls cluster sampling. Schools in a district were taken as clusters from which either all elements or a randomly selected number form the sample. Schools in a district were taken as sample frame, and then simple random sampling was used to select a few schools. The sample comprised one hundred and fifteen grade ten learners who are doing EFAL (sixty from first school and fifty-five from second school) and all educators who are teaching EFAL in grade ten, four in number (two from each school).

3.4.2 Case study design

Case study design was employed in this study to ensure that the researcher gains comprehensive understanding of how participants relate and interact with each other in a specific situation and how they make meaning of the phenomenon (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:75). Although there is criticism labelled against case study methodology, that it is incapable of providing a generalised conclusion because of its dependence on a single case, the researcher aimed at gaining greater insight and understanding of the dynamics of a specific situation. This was done following the metaphor used in the social sciences which asserted that a well-selected case constituted a dew drop in which the world was reflected (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:76).

An evaluative case study which, according to Bassey (2007:148) is an enquiry set out to explore some educational programme, system, project or event in order to focus on its worthiness, was followed. Bassey goes further to say the case may be formative (in helping the development of a programme) or summative (in assessing it after an event). Although drawing on theoretical notions, it is not necessarily

intended to contribute to the development of theory. Characteristics of evaluative case study as stated by Bassey (2007) were born in mind during this study.

In determining sample size here, the researcher was guided by the criteria as stated by Patton (2002:244) that there are no rules for sample size in qualitative inquiry. Sample size depends on what we want to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what is at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with the available time and resources. Sampling was undertaken after the actual investigation had commenced (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2011:391).

Purposive sampling, which is a non-probability sampling method, was used to select a sample from the population of schools in Capricorn District, Limpopo Province. The district is divided into seven clusters, which are further sub-divided into thirty-two circuits. The researcher used two clusters out of a pool of seven. In each cluster, one school was selected. This resulted in the use of two secondary schools as sample. The schools are situated in rural areas where the socio-economic conditions are not favourable. Most of the families there are child-headed, or children are living with their grandparents. Poverty is rife, the schools there have been declared no-fee schools, and in such schools feeding schemes have been introduced as a way of alleviating poverty. English First Additional Language (EFAL), which is used as a language of learning and teaching (LoLT), is learned in a foreign language learning context. There is no public libraries in the neighbourhood of both schools. All educators teaching EFAL in grade ten, and all learners in grade ten in sampled schools were taken as subjects. There were two educators who were offering English in each school. The total number of all learners was hundred and fifteen.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Various instruments were used to collect data. As the researcher is following a mixed methods approach, both quantitative and qualitative instruments were employed. Instruments chosen were used to attain both numeric and text data.

3.5.1 Quantitative instruments

The use of these instruments was intended to gain a broader perspective of the problem under investigation.

Questionnaires: The researcher considered the fact that questions designed should solicit information appropriate for analysis. Questionnaires were designed with an aim of obtaining facts and opinions from the people who are informed about the phenomenon under study (Babbie 2007:186). The researcher also took cognisance of the principles of questionnaire construction as stated in Babbie (2007:190). Key concepts of the study, which are, reading ability, reading time, reading comprehension, and reading skills stated in different curricula, were used as a basis for formulating questions. Although the researcher considered to keep the questionnaires brief by including only questions which are absolutely necessary, she also guarded against minimising questions so that the concepts stated above would be inadequately represented. Respondents were also given clear, precise directions and instructions on answering questions.

Closed questions were prepared for the educators and the learners. These questions provided for a set of responses from which the respondent had to choose one or more than one response from a number provided (Delport & Roestenburg in de Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport [ed], 2011:198). The aim was to identify the dominant factors that contribute towards lack of readability. The learner population in grade ten is hundred and fifteen. All learners were given questionnaires, as well as all educators who are teaching EFAL in grade ten.

Standardized reading tests: To identify the learners' reading efficiency, a standardized reading test was given to the entire learner population. Assessment of this nature is necessary as it helps to spot the degree to which the learner is absorbing what the educator is trying to teach, and to compare the learner's progress and level of attainment with that of other learners of a similar age or class level. Standardised objective reading test is considered by SESS (2015) as one means of determining with some precision the extent to which a learner has approached one or more of the goals of a school reading instruction programme. The reading test can also help the test giver determine whether or not the subject's reading skills are as well developed as others of their age, and also to monitor progress over time. Although the researcher did not execute this activity because of the ethics of administering standardised reading test (that it should be administered by qualified and registered psychologist or psychiatrist), it was imperative to have basic understanding of how this test is interpreted so that the data is used in a

correct way when analysing findings of this study. Concepts that are common in the interpretation of a reading test are reading age, stanine, standard deviations and percentiles. A detailed way of making sense of scores is explained in cf 2.6.3.

When this test was considered to be a tool of gathering empirical data, the researcher was aware of the benefits of using this type of assessment, and also the limitations. Benefits noted are that besides the fact that the tests is quantifiable, it is also able to put individual or group of learners in the context of their peer group nationally and in some cases internationally. The test also allows progress of the learner to be tracked in an efficient, objective way, while again offering a reliable way of benchmarking the learner's performance before intervention and, equally reliable way of assessing the impact of that intervention at a later date (GL Assessment, 2013). Observed limitations are that standardised tests are part of a complex system of assessment and should never be the only piece of information used to make decisions about performance. Just as any test will reflect the learner's performance at a particular point in time, a standardised test may well be affected by non-cognitive factors such as fatigue and illness. Even test conditions may disadvantage some learners, who, under other circumstances may perform at a higher level (GL Assessment, 2013).

The relevant test that was administered was Differential Aptitude Test Form K, Subtests Vocabulary and Reading comprehension. The test was given to all grade ten learners in the sampled schools.

3.5.2 Qualitative instruments

With the use of these instruments the researcher aimed at exploring the depth of the problem and learning about individual perspective as stated in Ivankova, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007:260).

Interviews: The researcher had to sample out of the learner population of one hundred and fifteen for interviews. To determine the sample size, the researcher further considered what was said by Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006:107-108) when acknowledging the fact that a large sample is more representative but costly, while a small sample, on the other hand, is much less accurate but more convenient. They posit that a rule thumb for choosing a sample size that is 5% of the population remains quite an inaccurate guideline, though certainly usable when precise

formulae are lacking. Greeff in de Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2011:358) suggest that a minimum of twelve interviews is needed to create stability among the views in the sample. This is regarded as the number necessary to attain saturation. Contrary to the former two ideas on sample size, Patton (2002:244) does not believe in stating sample size in terms of numbers in qualitative inquiry. Sample size is informed by what researchers would like to know, the purpose of the inquiry, what is at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility, and what can be done with the available time and resources.

The researcher was informed by Bless, Higson-Smith and Kagee (2006:107) to get a sample of five learners from each school who were interviewed. The number was considered to be a minimum, pending data saturation. This brought a total number of learners sampled for interviews to ten. This number constituted 10% of the population. As stated by Patton (2002), there was room left for more interviewees to arrive at data saturation. This added a learner in the first school and another learner in the second school. The aim was to determine the perceptions of the participants on their attitude towards reading and the level of reading. As the educator population was small, two educators at each school were interviewed. The total number of educators interviewed was four.

A semi-structured interview schedule was designed for the educators and the learners. This entailed the researcher broadly controlling the agenda and the process of the interview, whilst leaving interviewees free-within-limits to respond as they best saw fit (Ribbins, 2007:209).

Observations: The researcher kept in mind the value of this method of data collection, that it is regarded as an important one in empirical research because people do not always do what they say they do (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:312). A common problem of reactivity which may occur in the beginning may decrease significantly after the researcher has been observing for a while. The researcher had to make two visits and recording was done during the second visit. There was an observation of two lessons in progress, where the focus was on how the educator prepared learners, or rather, guided them on assessment of reading. Here cognisance was taken of material used as teaching guide, and responses made by learners in that lesson. The second observation focused on learners as they were

doing an oral reading to test their reading skills. The researcher was given a copy of rubric on which educator recorded marks of individual learners. Data recording procedure of observations as stated by Creswell (2009:181) and even supported by Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006:311) were taken care of. The researcher performed multiple observations during the process and used observational protocol for recording information while observing.

Descriptive notes that tell much about participants, reflective notes that tell about researcher's personal thoughts, and demographic information, which Terre Blanche et al (2006) call peripheral context in which observation occurred, were used. An observation form was designed, guided by Creswell (2009) and Terre Blanche et al (2006) on ideas on observation procedure. A separate form was used for each lesson observed, giving the total number of four forms. The table below represents a form used for observation.

DEMOGRAPHIC FACTORS			
Date	Time	Place	Field setting
OBSERVATION NOTES			
Descriptive notes	Analytic comments	Personal reactions	Notes made during lesson

Table 3.1 Observation tool

The intention here was to observe reading lessons in progress. The researcher went on to gather data by recording behavioural patterns of participants and occurrences without questioning or communicating. The intention was to confirm the truthfulness of what was said by educators and learners during the interviews and in the questionnaires, and to assess the reading efficiency through the rating scale for the assessment of reading aloud (Nieman, 2008:97). There was an observation of four reading lessons in progress (two lessons in each school) as per sampling idea of Patton (2002). The first observation was done as educators were teaching lessons in reading. Thereafter six learners were observed from the first school and another six from the second school as they were reading aloud. Learners who were observed

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were the same ones who were sampled for interviews. The number of learners observed constituted 11% of the population.

Documents: Document study is defined by Strydom and Delport, in de Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (ed) (2011:377) as the study of existing documents, either to understand their substantive content or to illuminate deeper meanings which may be revealed by their style and coverage. Fitzgerald, in Briggs and Coleman (ed) (2007:279-280) also indicated that for social science researchers, documents offer a form of voice; a voice on past events and activities that provides a level of insight for the reader into particular events, activities and participants. It is also stated that documents should be examined and interpreted against the backdrop of the relevant personal, social, political, economic and historical factors. What is important about the documents is, as Fitzgerald (2007) indicates, the fact that they offer a lens to interpret events in order to gain insights into the relationship between the written and unwritten, spoken and virtual, public and private, and past and present.

Just as other research instruments have pros and cons, the researcher is aware of limitations of documentary research. Few have been stated by Fitzgerald, in Briggs and Coleman (ed) (2007:282) that documents can be subjective, and may not be accurate as they have been created to present a particular view of events, activities or individuals. The backdrop against which these documents were drafted was not ignored as a way of addressing these limitations. The use of other research instruments also helped in triangulation.

The purpose of studying documents here was to extract information that would help in attaining the first objective of this study, which is to identify relevant reading skills advocated in Curriculum 2005 (C2005), National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) and to determine time allocated to reading in the past and present curricula. Moreover, the researcher intended to determine the manner in which reading was taught and assessed in the different curricula. The backdrop against which different curricula were implemented was considered, with the purpose of giving assistance during the interpretation phase. After data was gathered through these various instruments, the next step was data analysis.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is the process of making sense out of text and image data. Creswell (2009:183) states that this stage starts by preparing data for analysis, conducting different analyses, and moving deeper and deeper into understanding the data, which some qualitative researchers like to think of as 'peeling back the layers of an onion, representing the data and making interpretation of the larger meaning of the data.' Data analysis is necessary as it helps, among other things, to measure, make comparison, examine relationship, forecast, construct concepts and theories, and to explore, control and explain phenomena (Walliman, 2001:253).

As this study followed a mixed methods approach, a suitable analytical approach was selected. Parallel data analysis, in which collection and analysis of both data sets is carried out separately and the findings are not compared or consolidated until the full analyses of both data sets have been completed (Östlund et al, 2011:370), was adopted. It has also been tempting to use sequential data analysis, where data sets are analysed in a particular sequence with the purpose of informing, rather than being integrated with, the use of, or findings from, the other method. However, this was disregarded as its focal point was more on informing of steps that come before analysis. In sequential data analysis, quantitative findings may be intended to lead to theoretical sampling in an in-depth qualitative investigation, or qualitative data used to generate items for the development of quantitative measures (Östlund et al, 2011:370).

Qualitative and quantitative data were analysed separately, a trend apparent for this study as the researcher intended to use triangulation metaphor at the stage of interpretation and conclusion. Triangulation metaphor, as Östlund et al (2011:382) explains, offers a framework to facilitate a description of the relationship between data sets and theoretical concepts, and can also assist in the integration of qualitative and quantitative data. A description of how qualitative and quantitative data analysis was conducted ran in a parallel way.

3.6.1 Quantitative data analysis

As various instruments were used to gather quantitative data, data gathered through this approach were analysed in a parallel way. All learners in grade ten were given a standardised reading test to write, and they also had to respond to questionnaires.

Educators were also given questionnaires. Data collected through these instruments were analysed in a quantitative way.

Questionnaires: Questionnaires given to learners had the intention of revealing their level of reading as per second objective of this study. There were also questionnaires that were given to educators. Data was prepared for data entry, and then coded. Coding refers to systematic reorganising of raw data into a format that is machine readable (Fouche & Bartley, in de Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport [ed], 2011:252). Then the software package of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse data into descriptive data.

Standardized reading tests: A standardised reading test, called Differential Aptitude Test Form K that was written by learners in grade ten with the intention of testing their English vocabulary and their level of comprehension. The aim was to address the second and fourth objectives of this study, of identifying learners' level of reading, and also establishing their vocabulary and comprehension. Data management and analysis of Differential Aptitude Test Form K was performed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics 23 to generate tabular reports, charts and graphs.

3.6.2 Qualitative data analysis

Just as analysis was done in quantitative approach, parallel analysis was also practiced here. Data sets gathered through observations and interviews were analysed in a parallel manner. There was observation focused on how a reading lesson is offered, or rather, how learners are prepared for reading assessment, and observation of learners performing a reading activity. Then there was analysis of interviews conducted with educators, and the ones conducted with the learners. Documents were also analysed.

Interviews: This was started while interviews were still going on, to capture the setting and non-verbal actions while they were still fresh in researcher's mind. Generic form of analysis, usually applied in case study and ethnography research was adopted. This involved a detailed description of the setting or individuals, followed by analysis of data for themes (Creswell, 2009:184). Steps of analysing data as stated in Creswell (2009:185-189) were blended with that of Hycner (1985:280-291).

- Step 1: The researcher organised and prepared data for analysis by transcribing interviews, sorting and arranging data into different types. Hycner is referring to that as transcription, bracketing and phenomenological reduction.

- Step 2: This was about reading through all data, which is, obtaining a sense of general information. Hycner alludes to listening to the interview for a sense of the whole, delineating units of the general meaning and those of meaning relevant to research, and eliminating redundancies.

- Step 3: Then a detailed analysis followed, which is a coding process. The material was organised into chunks before actual meaning could be attached to data. Here Hycner speaks about clustering units of relevant meaning, and determining themes from clusters of meaning.

- Step 4: After coding, the researcher generated a description of the setting and people, as well as categories and themes for analysis. Hycner concludes by writing a summary for each individual interview.

After both educators' and learners' interviews were analysed, the researcher moved on to analyse observations.

Observations: As stated earlier, there were two sets of observations of a lesson in progress. The first lesson was when an educator was guiding or preparing learners for reading aloud assessment, the second lesson was when the learners were reading aloud so that their reading skills could be assessed. It is at this stage that the researcher had to analyse field notes. What was actually done is what Monash University (2015) outlined by stating that observations are presented as facts, but analysis, also called interpretation is an attempt to provide explanations or meanings of something observed. Kawulich (2005:63) also agree that observations are not data unless they are recorded into field notes. The researcher followed several steps in compiling field notes and also for analysing them.

- The first step was to map out the setting. In mapping out the setting, the relationship between the socio-cultural behaviour one observes and the physical environment was described (Kawulich, 2005:58). Care was taken that mapping should include a count of attendees, and also include such

demographics as age, gender, and race; physical map of setting and description of physical surrounding.

- The second step was that of coding field notes in terms of their relevance to research objectives. During coding the researcher selected and emphasised information that was important enough to record, enabling her to weed out extraneous information and focus her observations on the type of information needed for the study (Kawulich, 2005:60).

- Then in the third step the researcher looked for sub-patterns, that is, seeking similarities where they exist and identifying diversity and variations around common features (Prosser, [sa]:15-16).

- In the fourth step the researcher looked for omissions. These are things that were expected to come up but did not.

- The fifth step was about testing the rules by which data has been coded. This was done by describing the rules followed to a colleague who would then do the coding to observe the difference (Prosser, [sa]:16).

The researcher ensured that during the whole process, there was a rag-bag category, as per advice by Prosser [sa], where data which do not relate to research objectives was kept for future reference. After field notes were analysed, the researcher moved on to analyse data from documents.

Documents: Documents that were selected for empirical data were analysed in a qualitative method called textual analysis. As this study was not concerned with the frequency of elements that appeared in documents, there was no need for content analysis, which is by nature quantitative. The researcher wanted to extract from documents all information that was stated in relation to reading skills that needed to be developed in learners, and any stipulation of contact time that should be geared towards the teaching of reading. The data helped in addressing the first objective of this study, which was based on identifying reading skills in the three curricula and determining the contact time allocated for reading.

Textual analysis which is more concerned with interpreting the meaning the document might have, was used to analyse policy documents; C2005, NCS and CAPS. Textual analysis requires that data be classified and there be reading for embedded meanings (Fitzgerald, in Briggs & Coleman [ed], 2007:287). The

researcher was aware of electronic programmes like NVivo which assist in extraction and retrieval of key words. As the number of documents that needed analysis was limited, data was analysed manually guided by steps of analysis stated by Strydom and Delport, in de Vos et al (ed) (2011:381-382) and Creswell (2009:185-189). After data was organised and prepared for analysis, reading through all data began. This was followed by a detailed coding process, and then codes were dealt with to generate categories or themes for analysis.

Background information behind the writing of the documents was not ignored as it helped in shedding light in understanding the contents of the document. This information was extracted with the guidance of the questions suggested by Fitzgerald, in Briggs and Coleman (ed) (2007:287). The questions were as follows:

- What prompted the writing of this document? Were there social, political, economic or historical reasons that might have influenced the writer and the contents?
- What audience was this written for? Does this document set a particular agenda?
- What are the omissions? Was this deliberate? How do you know?
- Are there any sources that can be used as a comparison?

What is further stated on documents, that as they exist in a social, economic and political context and might be representative of that context, they can also contribute to the construction of later contexts, carries water (Fitzgerald, in Briggs & Coleman [ed], 2007:287). The researcher expected that data here would shed light that would help in addressing the last objective of this study which is to come up with measures that could be adopted to improve learners' reading skills. Further, the researcher looked for similarities and differences in the text that would corroborate or disconfirm theory (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:101). Another factor was to make a comparison of the teaching and assessment procedures and methods of reading, and time allocated to reading in C2005, NCS and CAPS. After all sets of data were analysed it was important to work on reliability, validity and objectivity, prior beginning of the interpretation phase.

3.7 RELIABILITY, VALIDITY AND OBJECTIVITY

These are the concepts commonly used in quantitative approach. Scott and Morrison (2006:208) and Bush, in Briggs and Coleman (ed) (2007:92) posit that reliability relates to the probability that repeating a research procedure or method should produce identical or similar results. A measure is reliable if it provides the same results on two or more occasions, when the assumption is made that the object being measured has not changed. Validity is used to judge whether the research accurately describes the phenomenon that it is intended to describe. Objectivity refers to the way the researcher can observe or uncover phenomena without affecting them. Objectivity further assumes that a truth or independent reality exists outside of any investigation or observation, and the researcher's task is to uncover reality without contaminating it in any way (AQR, 2014:10).

The three concepts are considered to be taboo in terms of qualitative paradigm. The legitimacy of these notions is rejected by Rusu, in Bhandari (2013) who argue that they have qualitative burden. Instead, qualitative paradigm proposes to talk about credibility, authenticity and fairness among other quality criteria in qualitative research. Some qualitative researchers refer to transferability, dependability and credibility. As this study adopted mixed methods approach, these concepts were addressed in the different research instruments that were used.

The social science canon, on the other hand, instead of putting more emphasis on the three concepts of reliability, validity and objectivity, tells that primary strengths of quantitative research are that the findings should be generalizable and the data be objective (Wassenaar, in Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006:132). Wassenaar prefers not to call these strengths standards, but ideals to which quantitative research should strive. Generalization, according to Polit and Beck (2010:1451) is an act of reasoning that involves drawing broad inferences from particular observations. From the three models of generalization that have been developed by Firestone (1993), that is, classic sample-to-population (statistical) generalization, analytical generalization, and case-to-case transfer (transferability), the researcher opted for the last model for this study.

In this model, the researcher's role is to provide detailed descriptions that allow readers and consumers of research to make inferences about extrapolating the

findings to other settings. They have to evaluate the extent to which the findings apply to new situations, that is, transferring the results. This model involves conceptualizing a gradient of similarity for time, people, setting and contexts from most closely similar to least similar. This is called proximal similarity which supports transferability to those people, settings, socio-political contexts, and times that are most like those in the focal study (Polit & Beck, 2010:1453).

The nature of this study, mixed methods approach, made transferability of the relevant model to be adopted. Transferability which was commonly used in qualitative research, could now be used in quantitative research for generalization purposes. It was considered in both quantitative and qualitative approaches. To complement the weaknesses of each approach, and focus on the strengths, in order to come up with a better product, the following were considered in this study:

Survey study: Instruments used in quantitative approach were questionnaires for learners and for educators, and standardised reading tests for learners. To test validity and objectivity of these instruments, the researcher conducted a pilot test of newly constructed questionnaires before utilisation in the main investigation. This was done to eliminate ambiguous questions which may lead to non-comparable responses, leading questions that may lead to biased responses and vague questions that may lead to vague answers. Pilot testing was intended to improve face and content validity of the instrument, estimate how long it takes to complete the questionnaire, and ensure that errors of whatever nature are rectified at little cost (Delport & Roestenburg, 2011:195). As the reading test that were used were already standardised and designed for particular population groups in South Africa, there was no need for reliability, validity and objectivity. The actual test was just administered during the time promised to participants.

Case study: For qualitative instruments, what is stated by Bush, in Briggs and Coleman (ed) (2007:92) that it is often difficult to apply reliability and validity using unstructured and semi-structured interviews because of the deliberate strategy of treating each participant as a potentially unique respondent, was considered. It was again difficult to achieve reliability and validity in observation research as the observations were made in different times, with different people present, and the participants bringing different thoughts and feelings to the meeting (Bush in Briggs &

Coleman [ed], 2007:95). For documents, the researcher took into consideration the fact that although they are in permanent form and can be subject to re-analysis, allowing reliability checks and replication studies, Robson's (1994:243) recommendation was that two people be involved in coding a text to improve reliability. However, Robson went further to nullify the idea by stating that this may be difficult for single-handed researchers such as postgraduate students. This leads to Bassey (1999) and Kincheloe and McLaren (1998:287) to dismiss reliability and validity for case studies and substitute that with 'trustworthiness'.

Trustworthiness refers to the way in which the enquirer is able to persuade the audience that the findings in the study are worth paying attention to, and that the research is of high quality. With trustworthiness verifiability rests on a rational proof built upon literal intended meaning, and a critical qualitative perspective always involves less certain approach characterized by participant reaction and emotional involvement. The researcher aimed to achieve this by employing member checking. Identified themes were discussed with the participants to ensure that they are accurate and dependable (Maree, 2007:297).

Over and above, the use of mixed methods approach, regarded by Bush, in Briggs and Coleman (2007:100-101), as a device for improving validity by checking data, helped in achieving trustworthiness. The researcher triangulated all data collected during research process, including results of the questionnaire, interviews, observation field notes and documents, in order to search for common themes to provide reliable findings. It was during triangulation that interpretation of findings was done by mixing qualitative and quantitative styles of research and data (Maree, 2007:296). As triangulation played an important role in reliability and validity, and even in displaying mixed methods at interpretation phase, it is important to give a detailed explanation.

3.8 TRIANGULATION

By triangulation, the researcher was comparing many sources of evidence in order to determine the accuracy of phenomenon. Bush, in Briggs and Coleman (2007:100) define triangulation as the use of two methods of data collection in a study of some aspect of human behaviour. Triangular techniques attempt to map out, or explain more fully, the richness and complexity of human behaviour by studying it from more

than one standpoint. It is aimed at improving accuracy of results through collection and analysis of different types of data. Kelly, in Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2006:287) differentiates between data triangulation and method triangulation. The former entails collecting data using two or more approaches while the latter refers to analysing data both qualitatively and quantitatively.

Although triangulation can help the researcher to 'home in' on a better understanding of a phenomenon by approaching it from several different angles, there are of course limitations noted. The major problem here as stated by Petter and Gallivan (2004:5) is that it is time-consuming and expensive to perform two separate studies. Kelly, in Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2006:5) also declare that it is labour-intensive and often not feasible for smaller research projects. What was done in this study was parallel collection of both qualitative and quantitative data, and even parallel analysis of data. It was at the interpretation point that both approaches were mixed (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003:220; Betzner, Lawrenz & Thao, 2015:10).

3.9. ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethical consideration in research is concerned with enhancing the quality of research and maximising the protection of participants (Wassenaar, in Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006:72). Though historically, informed concerned was often seen as the only determinant of the ethicality of research, there are other standard components of consent that have been added to that. Provision of appropriate information was observed by giving respondents background to the study, information needed and significance of the study. The respondents were further made aware of their voluntariness and their freedom to decline or withdraw after the study has started without penalties (Wassenaar, in Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006:72). Over and above, the following were considered and observed:

Privacy: The researcher was aware that she was ethically bound to maintain the privacy of participants, including confidentiality for any information they give. Therefore, anonymity probing into areas that constitute participants' private space was maintained. The researcher also communicated the aim of the investigation to the informants, and the anticipated consequences of research. Furthermore, privacy was maintained by fictionalising and codifying participants' names and places as stated by Busher and James (2007:113).

Letters of consent: The researcher obtained letters of consent from the Limpopo Department of Education (Annexure A) and the principals in the affected schools to collect data from learners and educators in schools (Annexure B). In addition, permission was obtained from educators and from learners' parents to be interviewed and observed. As the learners were still minors during the time of research, the researcher sought signed consent from their parents or guardians (Wassenaar, in Terre Blanche, Durrheim & Painter, 2006:72).

Professionalism: The issue of administering standardised reading test to learners was carried out by a qualified and registered psychologist as it was required (Annexure C).

The researcher also obtained ethical clearance from the Turfloop Research and Ethics Committee (TREC) to proceed in conducting the empirical investigation (Annexure D). Copies of all these letters are attached at the end of this report as annexures.

3.10 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

This chapter is based on research methodology. It outlined clearly research design that was adopted in this study and the manner in which sampling was done. Research techniques that were used to gather both qualitative and quantitative data were also stated. Data analysis was done following both qualitative and quantitative ways. This was done because of the mixed method nature of this study. A detailed report was given on how the two approaches were conducted in parallel, with rules and values of each approach being considered. Validity, reliability and objectivity were given attention on the quantitative side, while the qualitative side focused on trustworthiness. Triangulation then came in as a measure of comparing findings from the two methods. Ethical issues, as a basic necessity in social research, was observed by getting actual documents needed, and obtaining permission from relevant people to carry out this empirical study. All these formed a bedrock for the next chapter, which presents and interpret the collected data.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this chapter is to present the primary and the secondary data which was gathered to address the aim and objectives of this study. It can be considered the nucleus of the research. There is no use gathering as much data as you can, and leaving it lying around without analysing and interpreting it. This is the stage at which researchers and readers look forward to, in order to quench their scientific search thirst. After data is presented, the researcher analyses and interpret the data gathered from the documents, which are curriculum policy documents and the empirical data gathered from educators and learners who were selected to be participants in this study.

As has been mentioned in Chapter Three that as this study follows a mixed methods approach, a suitable analytical approach, called parallel data analysis was selected. In parallel data analysis, collection and analysis of both data sets is carried out separately and the findings are not compared or consolidated until the full analyses of both data sets have been completed (Östlund, Kidd, Wengström, & Rowe Dewar, 2011:370). Therefore quantitative and qualitative data were analysed separately, a trend best suited to this study as the researcher used the triangulation metaphor at the stage of interpretation and conclusion.

Instruments that were used to gather quantitative data were questionnaires that were given to both educators and learners, and a standardised reading test that was administered to learners. Data gathered through quantitative instruments were focused at addressing the second and fourth objectives of this study, which are stated in the opening paragraph of the results presented. Both educators' and learners' questionnaires, together with the standardised reading test (Differential Aptitude Test Form K, Subtests Vocabulary and Reading comprehension) were analysed. Data was prepared for data entry, and then coded. It was through coding that raw data was systematically reorganised into a format that is machine readable. Then the software package called Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse questionnaire data into descriptive data. Again data

management and analysis of Differential Aptitude Test Form K (DAT K) was performed using SPSS Statistics 23 to generate tabular reports, charts and graphs.

Quantitative analysis of data was followed by a qualitative one. Instruments that were used to collect qualitative data were interviews conducted with learners and educators, observation of educators and learners in reading lessons, and analysis of curriculum policy documents. Data analysis steps of Hycner (1985) and Creswell (2009) as explained in Chapter Three were blended to help in analysing data from educators' and learners' interviews. After that data was transcribed, coded and descriptions were generated. Field notes from observations were coded, then analysed. The researcher recorded sub-patterns and omissions as the lesson was in progress. Data from interviews and field notes were intended to address the second objective of this study. Data gathered from the educator interviewees did not only aim at addressing the second objective of the study, but the first objective of the study was also covered. Finally, analysis of curriculum policy documents was done. Textual analysis was carried out to analyse this data. Data was classified, read and coded. This data addressed the first, and third objective of this study.

4.2 PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS/ RESULTS

The findings are presented here in a parallel way as called for by the mixed methods approach. Data triangulation which entails using two or more approaches of collecting data, was given preference in place of triangulation where the same data is analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively (Kelly, in Terre Blanche and Durrheim, 2006:287). The results of different quantitative instruments are presented and then analysed under the relevant sub-topic. This is followed by a presentation of findings from qualitative data that was gathered through different instruments. After presentation of findings, the analysis follows in the form of a discussion.

4.2.1 Learners' questionnaires: results

Questionnaires were designed with the aim of extracting much needed information from all grade ten learners, in the sampled schools. The intention was to elicit their perceptions on their reading efficiency and their views on the contact time that is provided. Questions asked were aimed at addressing the second objective of this study; to identify the level of reading skills and determine whether learners attain the reading skills at the end of the specified period. Some of the questions aimed at

getting information from learners about dominant factors that contribute towards lack of readability in learners. One-hundred-and-seven learners answered the questionnaires.

To test their level of understanding as they read, learners were asked if they could remember facts after reading a text and also after going through it for the second time. Fifty-two learners (48, 6%), said they were able to remember the facts, while nine learners (8, 4%), said they could not remember important facts. Forty-four learners (41, 1%), stated that they can only remember some facts. The last two learners (1, 9%), did not answer the question. Figure 4.1 is a graphic representation of the information stated above.

FIGURE 4.1 LEARNERS' QUESTIONNAIRES: READING FOR COMPREHENSION

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]
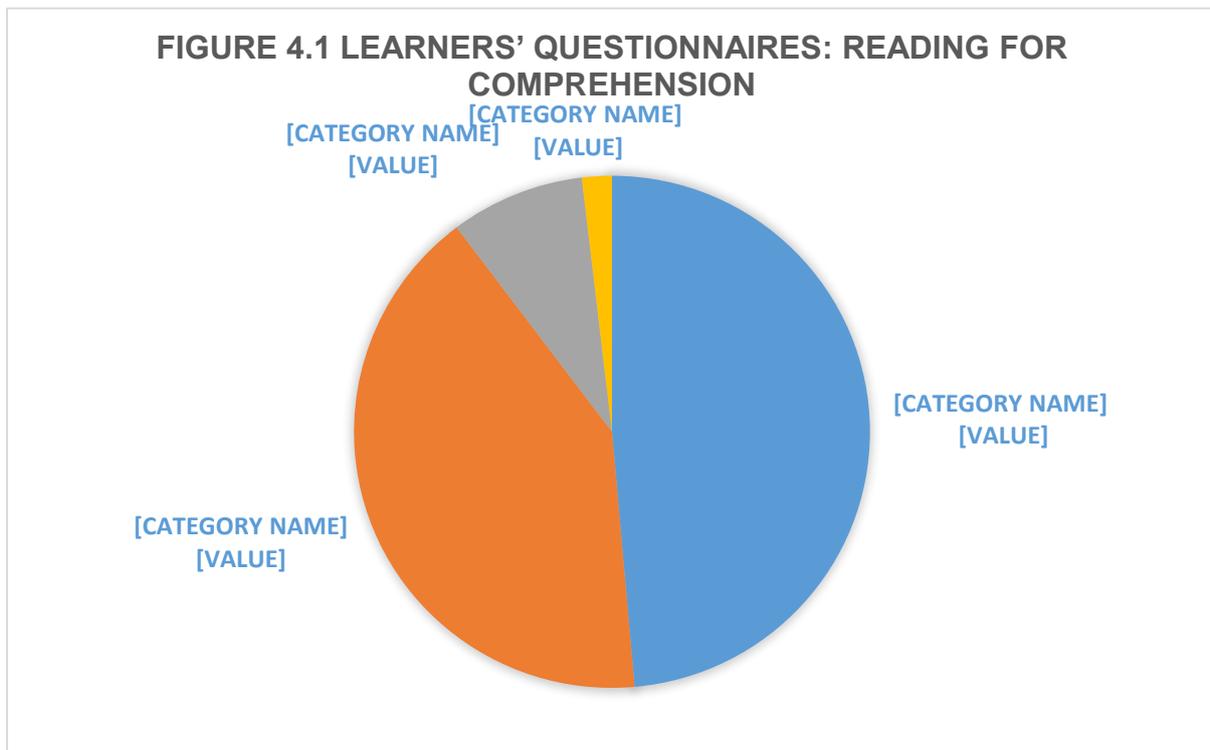
Another question was asked on their level of comprehension when someone helped in reading the text for them. Fifty-three learners (49,5%) declared they were able to remember more facts than when they read on their own, while thirteen learners (12,1%) indicated they would still struggle to remember the facts. Forty learners (37, 4%) indicated that they would only remember some facts. There was one learner (0, 9%) who did not answer the question. As the first two questions were reconciled, the

results were: most learners (49, 1%) said they were able to remember facts if they read text on their own or got assistance. Learners who said they could remember only some facts if they read on their own or got assistance constituted 39, 3%. Those who stated they could not remember facts irrespective of who was reading the text made 10, 3%. Those who did not respond constituted 1, 3%.

Learners were further asked about the number of times they had to go through their material when they prepared for tests. Nine learners (8,4%) indicated that in order to grasp material as they read, they went through the material once and they were fine. Forty-nine learners (45,8%) needed to go through the material twice, while the last forty-nine learners (45,8%) stated they needed to go through the material three times or more. When asked about technological devices available at home that would assist in reading, one hundred and one learners (94, 4%) indicated that technological devices available at home were television, computer and cell phones. The remaining six learners (5, 6%) indicated that there were no such appliances at home. The idea was to establish if learners engaged with these devices, and if they were of use in their reading.

When asked to state activities at home that consume their reading time, television was on top of the list for most respondents. Most learners indicated that they spent their time watching television. This was followed by social media using a cell phone. There were forty-five learners who said they spent their time doing home chores. Thirty-one learners stated that they spent time with friends. Only two learners indicated that they spent time doing sporting activities. This question allowed learners to choose multiple activities that were consuming their reading time. Figure 4.2 exhibits a summary of activities that learners say consume their reading time.
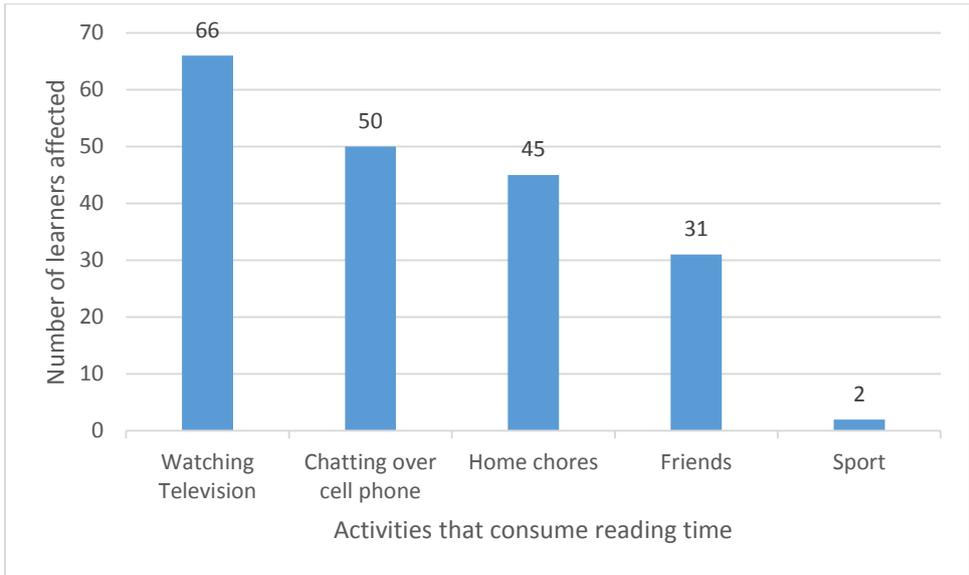
Figure 4.2 Activities that consume learners' reading time

Learners were asked if the time that was allocated for reading aloud activities was sufficient. Fifty-two learners (48, 6%) stated that the time was sufficient, while fifty-three learners (49, 5%) indicated that they needed more time. The last two learners (1, 9%) did not answer the question. Figure 4.2 gives a summary of the above mentioned results.

FIGURE 4.3 LEARNERS' OPINIONS ON CONTACT TIME FOR READING
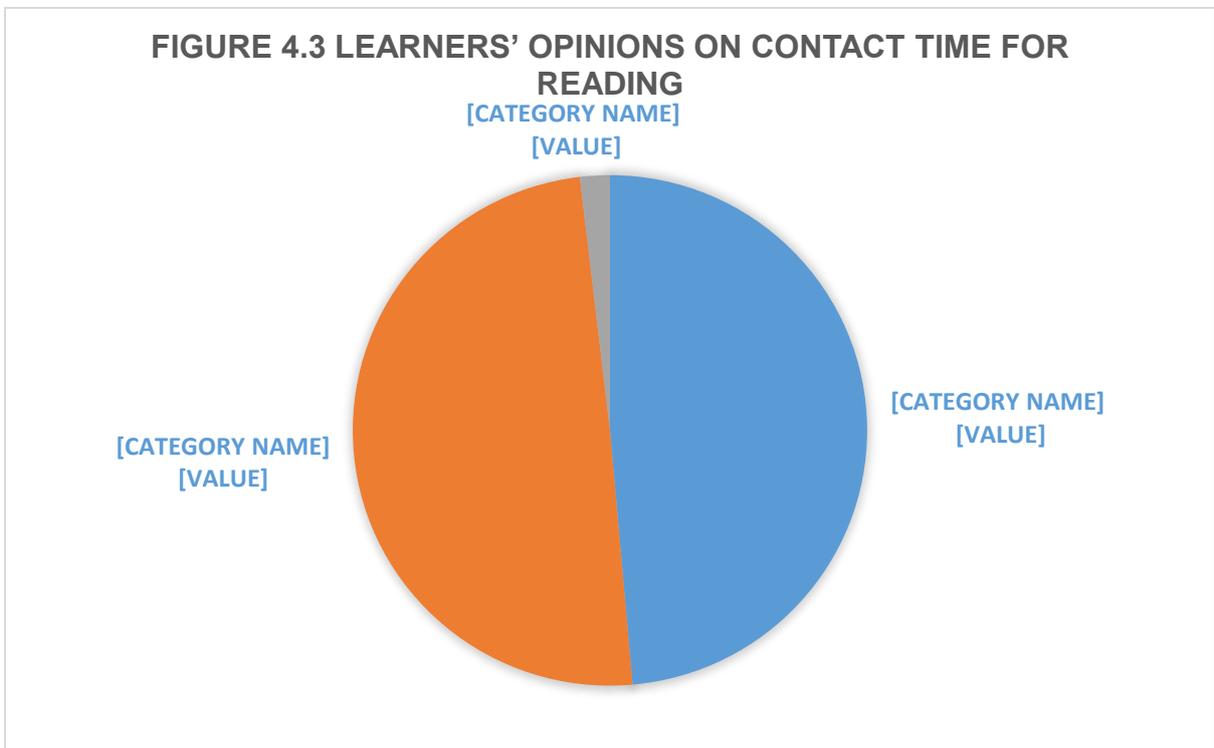
4.2.2 Discussion of results

The first three questions asked were intended to extract information from learners about their level of understanding as they read. The researcher aimed at finding out about learners' understanding of a text when reading it on their own, when going through it for the second time, and also when they got assistance or someone read it for them. The responses provided (48, 6% - when learners read on their own, and 49, 5% - when they get help from educators) indicated that most learners were confident with their level of understanding, when reading on their own or with little help from their educators. The responses revealed that learners did not struggle to respond to questions that were based on the text read. This is an indication that such learners could read on their own with understanding.

The next set of learners (41, 1% and 37, 4%) indicated they could only remember some facts. The fact that they could remember something out of what they read is an indication that there was, to a certain extent, understanding in the process of reading. These learners could cope with their reading or, they could read for academic purposes. The level of understanding they had could help them to progress to the next level of their studies. The responses of some learners (8, 4% and 12, 1%) revealed that they really needed help. Inability to understand when they read on their own and even when someone was helping was an indication that their reading was underdeveloped. They might be lagging behind according to Chall's stages of reading development (Chall, 1983). There were learners (1, 9% and 0, 9%) who could not be classified anywhere as they did not respond to these questions. The researcher could not predict whether their omission was due to lack of understanding or just an oversight.

4.2.3 Educators' questionnaires: results

Key concepts of the study, which are, reading ability, reading time, reading comprehension, and reading skills stated in different curricula, were used as a basis for formulating questions. Questionnaires were designed with the intention of finding out from educators, their opinions about learners' reading efficiency, their comprehension as they read on their own, and their comprehension as they got assistance during reading. Just as in learners' questionnaires, questions asked aimed at soliciting information that would help to address the second objective of this

study, which is to identify the level of reading skills and determine whether learners attain the required reading skill at the end of the specified period. Again, the intention was to identify the dominant factors that contribute towards the lack of readability.

Educators were asked about the best method that could be used to enhance the learners' comprehension. Two educator respondents (50%), indicated that they assisted in reading passages for learners and allowed them to answer questions on their own. The other two educators (50%), indicated that they helped learners with techniques of reading passages and thereafter answering questions. When asked about learners' level of comprehension when they read a text on their own, all educators (100%), agreed that learners could remember only a few facts. However, when the educator stepped in to help read the text, two educators (50%), stated that there was improvement as learners remembered most facts. The other two (50%), indicated that it did not make a difference, learners continued remembering few facts.

When asked if reading efficiency can be linked to academic success, all four educators (100%), agreed by stating 'yes' in their responses. Educators were further asked about reading proficiency of their learners. Two educators (50%), indicated that some learners could read well, but most learners still encountered difficulty in pronunciation and intonation as they read. One educator indicated that the inability to access libraries and laboratories and the issue of poverty had an impact on the reading ability of learners. The last two educators (50%), stated that most learners could read, although their observation of punctuation marks still needed attention.

There was a question on whether the time allocated for reading aloud was sufficient. Three educators (75%), said 'no', indicating they needed more time. The last educator (25%), did not see any problem in the time that was allocated. Educators were further asked if family background contributed to learners' level of reading. Three educators (75%), said 'yes', even stating that learners considered their parents to be role models. So learners do not feel pressure to work hard, they are satisfied with the status quo at home. Another reason stated was that most parents were not educated, and lived in poverty that they could not afford to buy extra resource material in the form of study guides and textbooks for their children. The fourth educator (25%), gave a 'no' answer, indicating that learners were nowadays

exposed to a variety of technological devices, which help them gain sufficient vocabulary. They could easily recognise words as they read.

The educators' opinions were further elicited on whether learners exposed to technological appliances could read better than those not exposed. Three educators (75%), said 'yes', indicating that the time spent on computers or cell phones helped learners acquire new words. As they read, they read well because they were familiar with most words. The last educator (25%), said technological devices did not have such a positive impact. Learners' ability to read depended on the educator's motivation and feedback. Another question asked was on what could be done to enhance learners' level of reading. Two educators (50%), stated that learners should be given more resource material for reading, and also allowing them to present what they had read. Mentors could be organised for learners who did not get learning support at home. One educator (25%), recommended that there should be libraries and computer laboratories in schools for learners to get ample time to practise reading. The last educator (25%), believed learners should be given more activities of an oral nature, for example, prepared reading, together with prepared and unprepared speech.

4.2.4 Discussion of results

Comprehension passages were used to test learners' level of understanding. Learners were expected to go through the passage, then answer the questions given. The first two questions on the questionnaire aimed at establishing if the learners could answer the questions well after reading the passage once or more than once on their own. All educators agreed that learners could remember only some facts as they read the passage on their own. Fifty percent of educators stated that there was some improvement in results if educators stepped in to help in reading the passage, while the other 50% indicated that educators' assistance in reading the passage did not bring any improvement to learners' comprehension.

Another question asked was on how educators approached the teaching of a comprehension passage. The responses given indicated that 50% of educators helped learners in reading the passage, explaining concepts which learners are not familiar with and figures of speech and thereafter allowed them to answer questions on their own. The other 50% helped learners with techniques of reading the passage

and attempting to answer questions. The method that was used by the second batch of educators could be regarded as a more successful one as learners were trained to read the passage on their own, and given guidelines on how to answer the questions asked. The danger with the first method was the fact that during formal or summative assessment, educators were not present to read and even explain the passage for learners, and this would make it difficult for the learner to understand the passage.

A few questions asked for educators' opinions about their learners' reading skills. Reading skills are normally assessed during activity of reading aloud (orals). Responses given indicated that some learners could read well, while most of the learners could not. They also indicated that although some learners could read well, their observation of punctuation marks when they read, still needed attention. The fact that it was only some learners who could read well, and most learners were still struggling, is an indication that most learners in grade ten had not yet mastered the reading skills. Failure to observe punctuation marks as they read might impact negatively on their comprehension, as the meaning or rather, the message of different sentences might be distorted. In such cases responding to questions based on the text would be a challenge.

Trying to identify factors that contribute to learners lagging behind in reading, educators were asked whether contact time allocated for reading aloud was sufficient. Most of them (75%), indicated that the time was not sufficient, more time was required. The educators who were offering English in grade ten were also teaching English in grade twelve. They indicated that most of enrichment classes organised were targeted at grade twelve learners. Asked if the family background could have an impact on learners' reading ability, 75% agreed, stating that most learners lacked motivation from home as most parents were not educated. They tended to be content with the type of life that was led at home, that of poverty. On the other hand, parents did not see the need to buy their children extra resource material that would enable them to practise while they were at home. Twenty-five percent of educators who did not agree indicated that learners today were exposed to a variety of technological devices which could help in enhancing their vocabulary, thus contributing to the improvement in their reading ability.

Educators' response to the question on whether technological devices had a positive impact on learners reading ability, indicated that the devices could help to add to learners' vocabulary, which would in turn, enhance their level of reading. There was an educator who did not believe this to be true, stating that motivation that was given to learners by educators play a pivotal role in developing learners reading ability. The recommendation was to get mentors for learners who did not get learning support at home.

It could thus be summarised that educators' responses indicated that although there were some learners whose reading level was commendable, most learners still needed support. The challenge that was faced was that of insufficient contact time and lack of resource material to enable learners to read during their spare time. Mentors are needed to support those learners.

4.2.5 Learners' standardised reading test: results

The standardised reading test, called Differential Aptitude Test Form K, subtests vocabulary and reading comprehension (DAT K), was given to the learner population to identify the learners' reading efficiency. The test was administered to all grade ten EFAL learners who were one-hundred-and-eight, in the two sampled schools. Assessment of this nature is necessary as it helps to spot the degree to which the learner is absorbing what the educator is trying to teach, and to compare the learner's progress and level of attainment with that of other learners of a similar age or class level. A reading test can also help the test giver to determine whether or not the subject's reading skills are as well developed as others of their age, and even monitor progress over time.

The first section of DAT K focused on assessing the learners' vocabulary (subtest vocabulary) while the second section focused on assessing the learners' reading comprehension (subtest comprehension). The researcher kept in mind the theory of schema which states that the learners' reading efficiency is determined by the knowledge and experiences stored in schema. So learners who command a number of words or are exposed to a broad vocabulary will be able to understand what they read, and will even have a better command of reading skills. The DAT K test assisted the researcher in addressing the fourth objective of this study, which is to establish the vocabulary and comprehension skills of English First Additional

Language in grade ten, and also the second objective, which is to identify the level of reading skills among learners.

After the test was marked, scores that were obtained by learners were distributed to a stanine scale and the test results was interpreted according to the stanine mark. The table below gives a description of how the stanine scale is used to interpret raw scores in a test.

Stanine	Description	Symbol
9	Very Good	A
7-8	Good	B
4-6	Average	C
2-3	Poor	D
1	Very Poor	E

Table 4.1 Stanine scale description

The bottom two levels of the stanine indicate that the specific aptitude is weak or underdeveloped, while a stanine of nine, the highest, can be described as strong. According to Coetzee, Vosloo and Claassen (2008:34), advantages of using stanines is that they are more stable than other types of standard scores and percentile ranks because they usually represent broad intervals of unprocessed sources. Furthermore, there is a less likelihood of misinterpretation and overgeneralisations of small and unreliable differences between unprocessed scores, except where the scores lie near the boundaries of the different stanine. As DAT K had two subsections, the first one tested learners' vocabulary and the second one tested their comprehension, the results are presented as such. The table below displays the results of DAT K sub-section vocabulary.

Stanine	Number of learners	Learner %	Description	Symbol
9	1	0,9	Very Good	A
7-8	19	17,6	Good	B
4-6	58	53,7	Average	C
2-3	20	18,5	Poor	D
1	10	9,3	Very Poor	E
Total	108	100		

Table 4.2 Results of DAT K sub-section vocabulary

For the vocabulary subsection, performance results were rated as follows; fifty-eight learners (53, 7%), constituting the most number were on average which is symbol C. The number was followed by twenty learners (18, 5%), whose performance was rated as poor, with a symbol D. Then followed nineteen learners (17, 6%) whose performance was good, with symbol B. Ten learners' performance (9, 3%), was rated as very poor, with E symbol. The last learner (0, 9%), fell under the description of very good which is symbol A. What was noted was that there were more learners who scored below average, who were rated as poor and very poor, than learners who scored above average, good and very good. Learners who scored above average were twenty (18, 5%) while those below average were thirty (27, 8%). The chart below, figure 4.4 displays a summary of these results.

FIGURE 4.4 RESULTS OF DAT K: VOCABULARY
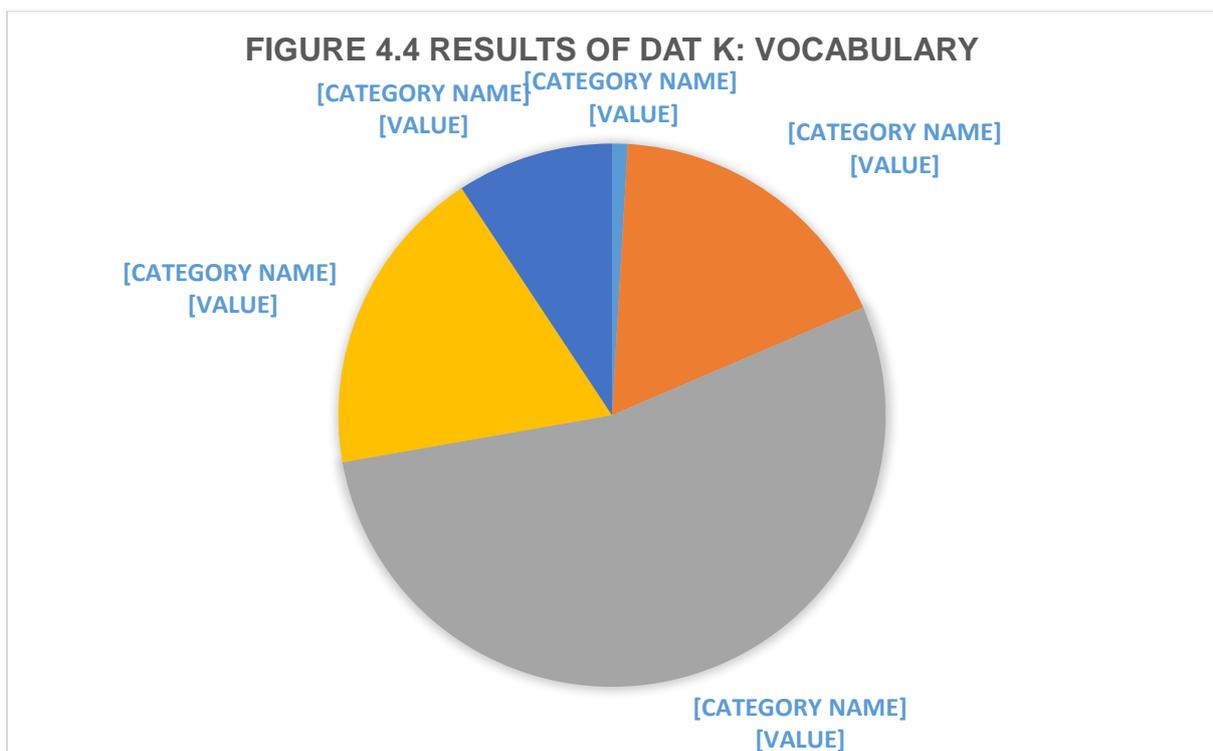
The second subtest was based on comprehension, where learners were given a short comprehension paragraph to go through and thereafter answer questions based on it. The results of the test are summarised in table 4.3:

Stanine	Number of learners	Learner %	Description	Symbol
9	0	0	Very Good	A
7-8	6	5,6	Good	B
4-6	62	57,4	Average	C
2-3	34	31,5	Poor	D
1	6	5,6	Very Poor	E
Total	**108**	**100.1**		

Table 4.3 Results of DAT K sub-section comprehension

For this subsection, most learners, that is, sixty-two (57, 4%), had an average description with symbol C. As with the test on vocabulary, more learners scored below average than above average. There were forty learners (37, 1%), who performed below average, and six learners (5, 6%), who were above average. There were no learners on stanine nine, that is, very good. Learners who scored high marks were on stanine 7-8, described as good. There were only six learners in that category (5, 6%). Most learners, sixty-two (57, 4%), fell in the category of average description, stanine 4-6. Thirty-four learners (31, 5%), were on stanine 2-3 which is described as poor. The last six learners (5, 6%), were on stanine 1, which is described as very poor. Here a bar graph was chosen over pie chart as it displays all categories of results, including zero in the 'very good' category. Figure 4.5 summarises the results of DAT K on the comprehension subsection.

FIGURE 4.5 RESULTS OF DAT K : COMPREHENSION
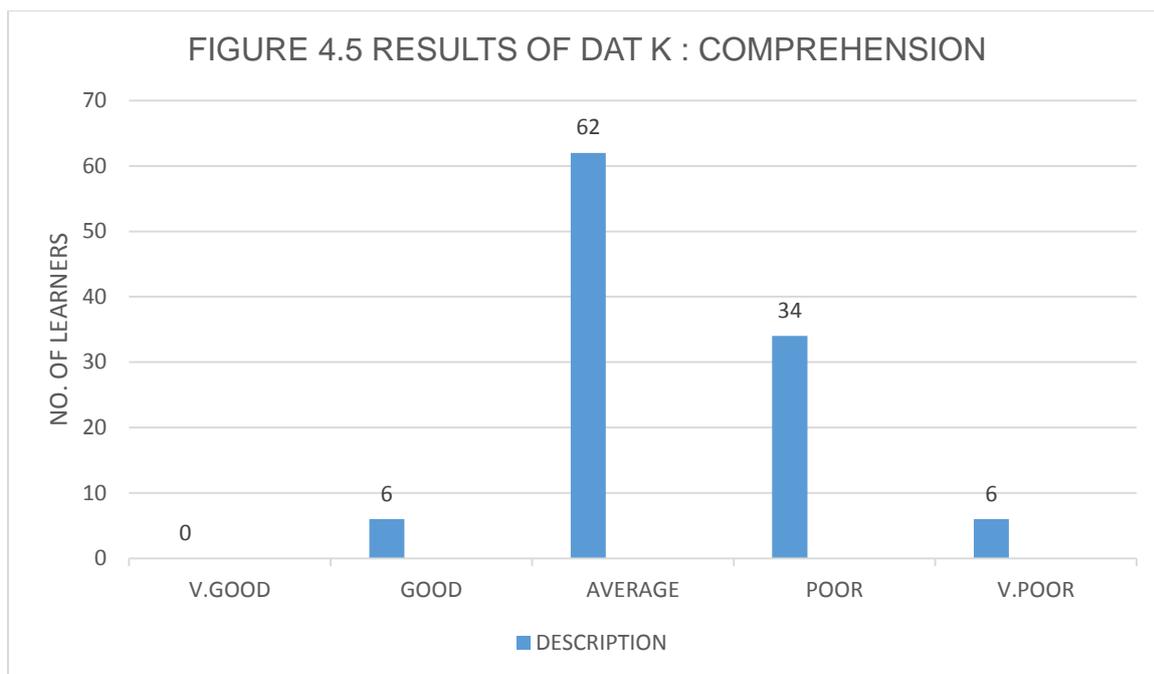
4.2.6 Discussion of results

The sub-test on vocabulary revealed that most learners, fifty-eight (53, 7%), received an average rating. Their command of vocabulary was developing well, or rather at an acceptable level. There was no need to develop these learners. On the other hand, stanine interpretation indicated that learners on stanine one to three are weak or underdeveloped. It was worrying to see thirty learners (27, 8%), falling in this category. There was a need for support to be offered to these learners. Without a command of standard vocabulary, as highlighted in schema theory (Bartlett, 1932), their reading might fall behind and in turn affect their academic progress.

There were nineteen learners (17, 5%), who fell under the description 'good'. Stanine description of 'good' meant that the learners were developed. This was the level where learners were expected to be, that is, Chall's fourth stage of reading development, called multiple viewpoints (Chall, 1983). At this stage, learners were able to deal with more than one viewpoint. They were also able to read more mature fiction, and through free reading of books, newspapers and magazines, their level of acquiring viewpoints was developed. Reading would help them to acquire ever-more-difficult concepts and continued learning how to acquire new concepts and new points of view (Chall, 1983; Camine, Silbert, Keme'enul & Tarver, 2004). The number of learners who were already developed was worrying. One would have expected to get a bigger number of learners in this category. There was one learner

(0, 9%), who displayed strong performance. This meant the learner was above expectations. It was not surprising to get a limited number of learners on the 'strong level'.

Looking at the subtest on comprehension, the results were almost similar to the ones of the vocabulary sub-test. Most learners are on the 'average level', sixty-two (57, 4%). What was noted was that the number was bigger than the one on average level of vocabulary, sixty-two as against fifty-eight. These learners' comprehension was developing well, or on average. It would enable them to deal with their academic demands. It was worrying to notice that learners who were weak or underdeveloped, as stated through the stanine scale was so large in reading with comprehension. Forty learners (37%), as against thirty (27, 8%), in vocabulary were underdeveloped. This was an alarming state which calls for various means of support for these learners. Their level of comprehension will not only affect their reading efficiency, but also their reading for learning purposes. Figure 4.6 summarises number of learners who were not yet developed in comprehension and in vocabulary.

FIGURE 4.6 COMPREHENSION AND VOCABULARY: UNDERDEVELOPED LEARNERS
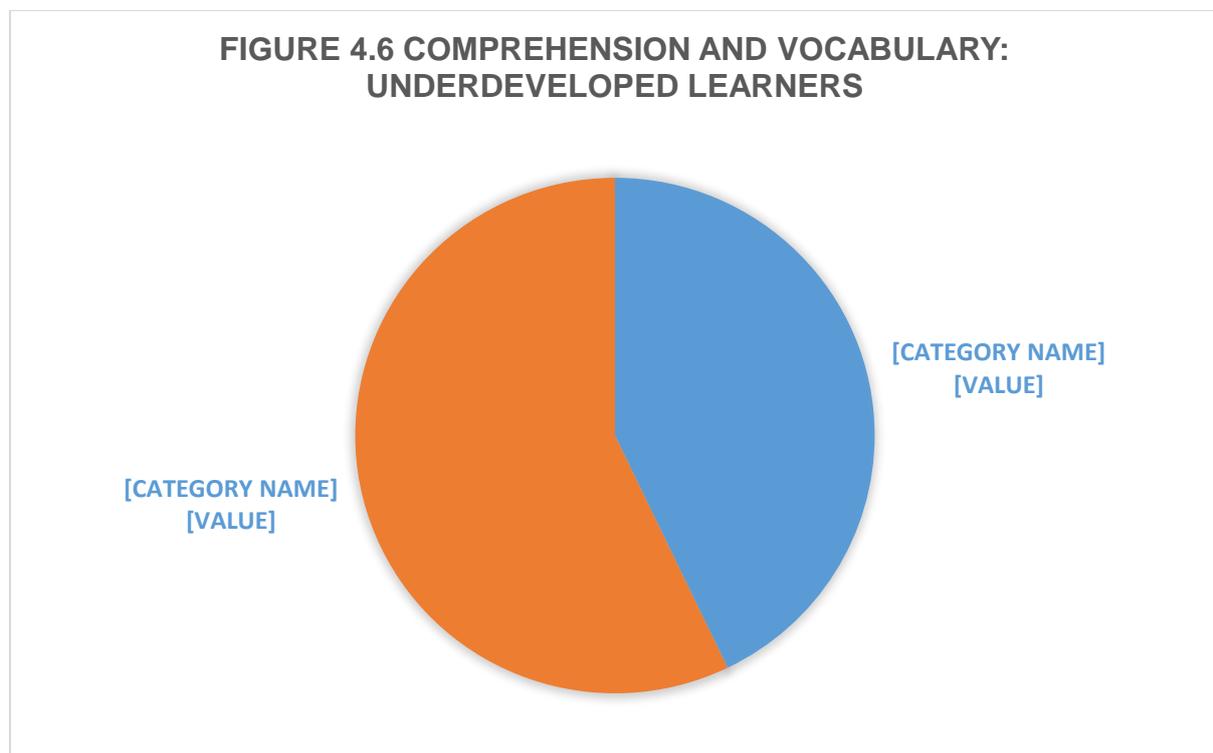
It is when learners are in this state that Du Toit, Heese and Orr (1995:12, 44) suggest the use of a reading technique that could be adopted to help learners, that

is, intensive reading or critical reading. As already stated in the literature, the development of this skill will help learners to improve their broad knowledge base, insight into subjects being studied, and performance in assignments and reading. However, when this skill has failed to develop, learners cannot cope with their academic responsibilities and they face reading difficulty, a state wherein they read at a level far below what might reasonably be expected. These learners need assistance in reading, as reading is a means by which further learning takes place.

The third level on the stanine scale is the one described as good. Learners here are developed, they are in the actual place where learners in their reading stage are expected to be. The results of the comprehension sub-test indicates that there were six learners (5, 6%) whose scores fell into this level. In the vocabulary sub-test, there were nineteen learners (17, 6%), in this category. The number is minimal and therefore worrying. If support to learners on average could be intensified, it would help to push the numbers from average to good. The highest level of description is very good, also called 'strong'. Performance here could be described as above expectation. The fact that there were no learners who scored under this description raised concern. It is an indication that more needs to be done, reading still needs attention. Figure 4.7 gives a summary on learners who are developed in comprehension and vocabulary.

FIGURE 4.7 COMPREHENSION AND VOCABULARY: DEVELOPED LEARNERS

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]
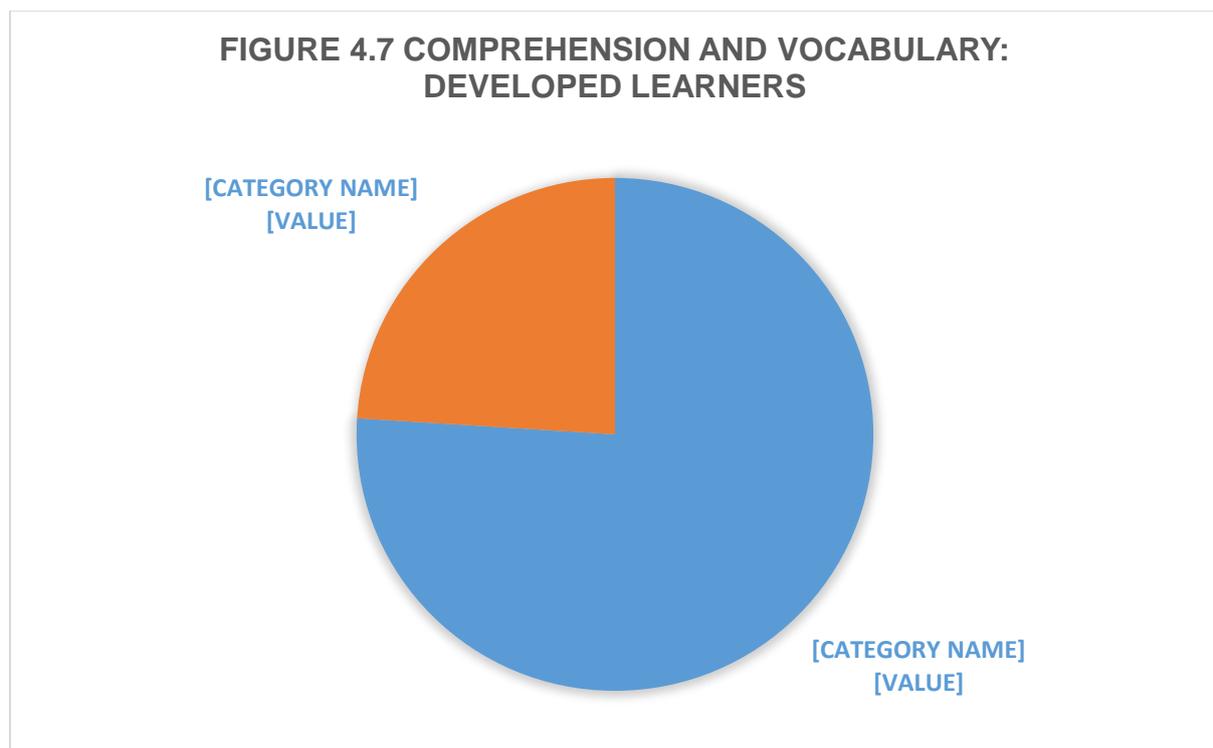
4.2.7 Learners' interviews: findings

One of the objectives of this study was to identify the level of reading skills of grade ten learners and determine whether they had attained the required skills at the end of the specified period. In an attempt to extract data from respondents that would help attain this objective, few questions were asked to learner respondents. They were asked which section of the English lesson they enjoyed most. The purpose was to determine whether reading still interested them. English First Additional Language (EFAL) has to address four sections which are listening and speaking, reading and viewing, writing and presenting, and language structures and conventions. Most learners, seven in number and constituting 58, 3%, indicated that they were interested in the oral part, which falls under the section of listening and speaking. Two respondents, that is 16, 7%, were interested in grammar which was language structures and conventions, and the other two (16, 7%), opted for reading and viewing. The last respondent (8, 3%), had an interest in creative writing which falls under writing and presenting. Reading activities can be executed either by reading aloud or reading silently. In reading aloud, criteria that are assessed are understanding of the text read, voice projection and mastery of reading skills, use of gestures, body language and facial expressions. The manner in which the reader responds to questions asked by audience and critical interpretation of the text are also considered. Silent reading, on the other hand, is interested in how the respondent comprehends the piece of text given.

When their opinions were elicited about their level of reading, five respondents (41, 7%), indicated that they read well, "*So far, I am doing well.*" They were classed in the category of good. Two learners (16, 7%), indicated that they were much better, "*I am in the middle, mam.*" These learners were on average. Four learners (33, 3%), indicated that they had problem in reading, "*I … I have some problems, I still need help.*" These learners were classed in the category of poor. There was one learner, last respondent (8, 3%), who struggled to understand the question despite many ways in which the interviewer tried to explain it. She responded to this question by asking, "*Motho yo a nrutang English?*" meaning "*Do you mean someone who is teaching me English?*" After further clarity was given, her response was "*Anytime I understand, anytime I don't understand.*" She actually wanted to say "Sometimes I understand and sometimes I do not understand." Most of her responses were

interrupted by her home language which is Sepedi. The learner was classified in the category of very poor. This means that out of a total population of twelve respondents, five learners (41, 7%), were confident about their reading, while it was obvious that the remaining seven (58, 3%), needed support.

In short, it can be concluded that learners who stated that they could read well were classified in category of good, and those who said they were better in reading were classified in the average category. There were learners who indicated that they had a problem, and they were classified in the category of poor learners. The last group of learners who were struggling were classed in the very poor category. All these results are summarised in Figure 4.8.

FIGURE 4.8 LEARNERS' OPINIONS ON THEIR LEVEL OF READING
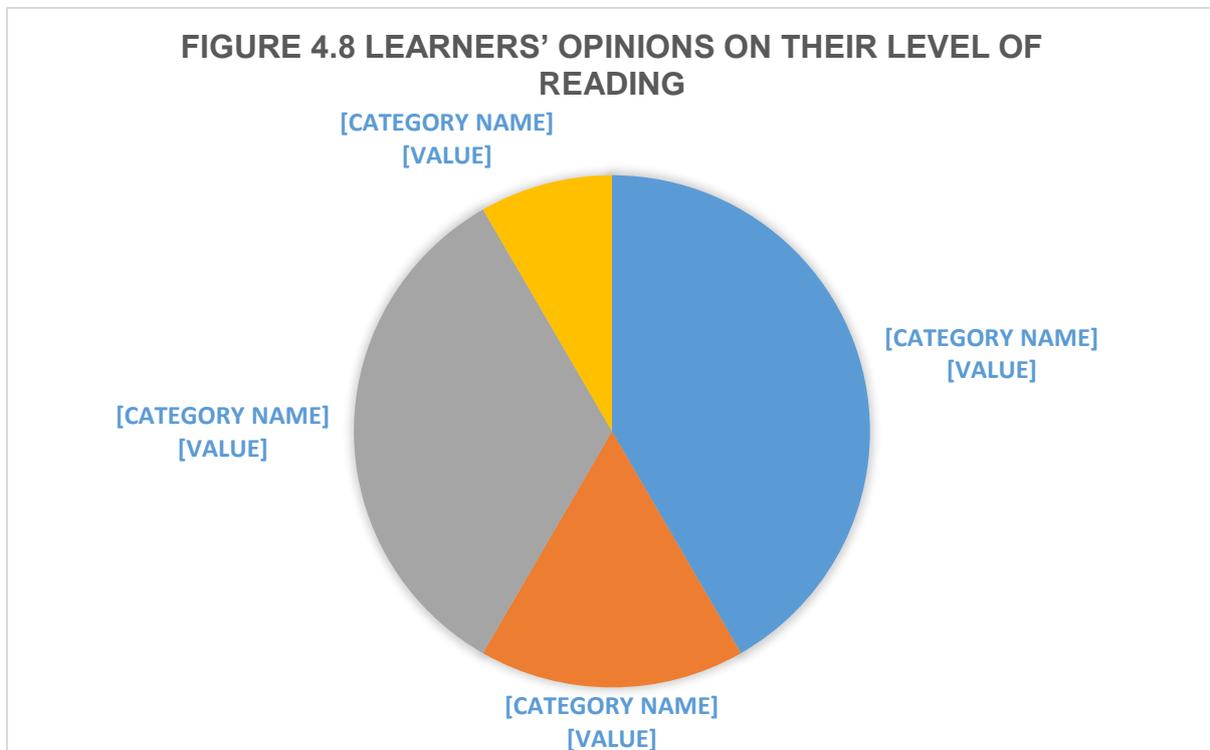
Respondents' opinions were further sought about the time that was allocated for reading, whether it was sufficient or not. Seven learners (58, 3%), believed the time was not sufficient. One respondent said, "*To me is like less, less because some children are very slow to read, so they need more time…can be morning study or on weekends*," while another one said, "*I don't think so mam, I think they must increase that...*" The last five respondents indicated that they were happy with the time that was allocated for reading. Their responses indicated that they (respondents)

benefitted more when the educator was with them in class, rather than when they were alone. They were satisfied with the given contact time. Some of their responses were, "*Yes, the time is sufficient because we learn more when the teacher is in our class*," "*Yes because we learning more…* (Switching to Sepedi) *ke gore ebile re kwešiša kudu go fetiša Sepedi*," "*…we understand more than we even do in Sepedi*." They did not think they needed time to study on their own. Figure 4.9 gives a summary of learners' opinions on the contact time that was allocated for reading.

FIGURE 4.9 LEARNERS' OPINIONS ON CONTACT TIME FOR READING

[CATEGORY NAME] [VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME] [VALUE]
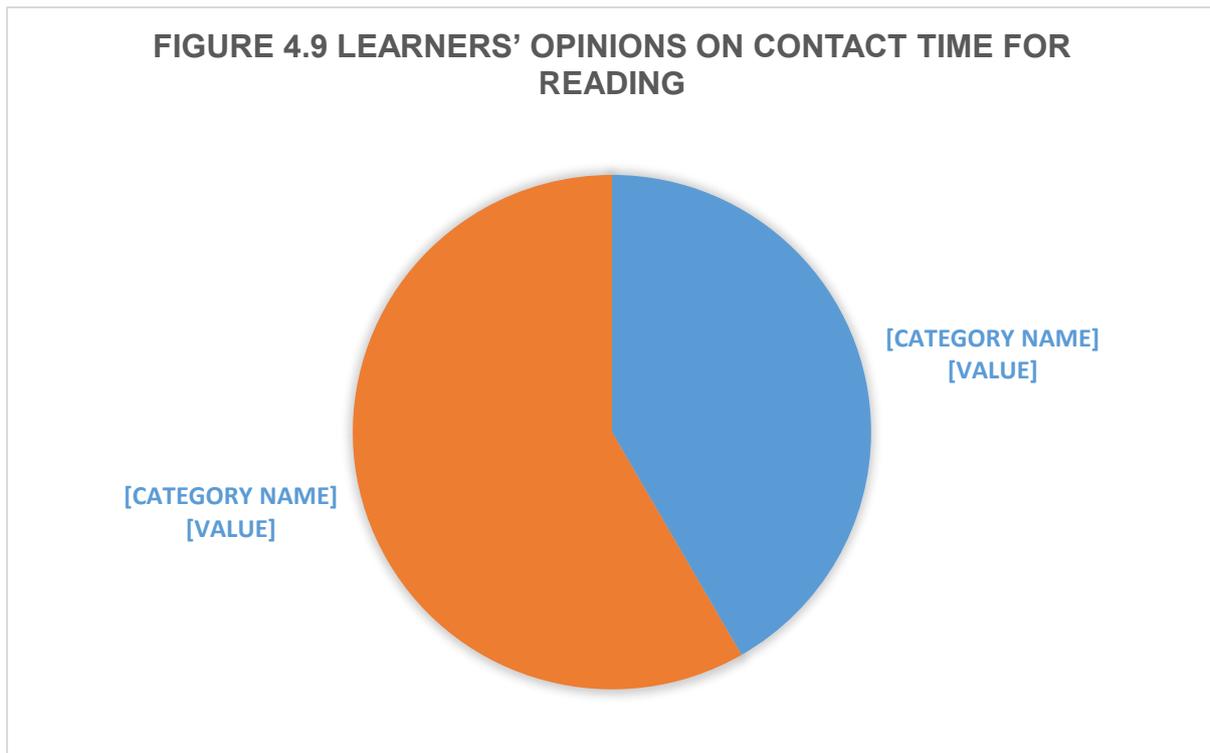
To determine their level of understanding, learner respondents were asked if they could read a comprehension passage well and be able to answer questions that were based on it. Nine respondents (75%), indicated that they did not encounter any problem in reading and answering questions. They said, "*I do read, if I can repeat comprehension (passage) that I am reading, I will be able to answer the questions*," "*I can read, and answer questions well*." The last three respondents (25%), stated that if there could be someone who would assist in reading the comprehension passage, they would not have any problem in answering questions. "*Sometimes I come across difficult words and I need help from the teacher*," "*If the teacher reads, I*

answer the questions well," "If learners reads, I understand." Figure 4.10 gives a summary of the information stated above.

FIGURE 4.10 LEARNERS' OPINIONS ON THEIR COMPREHENSION
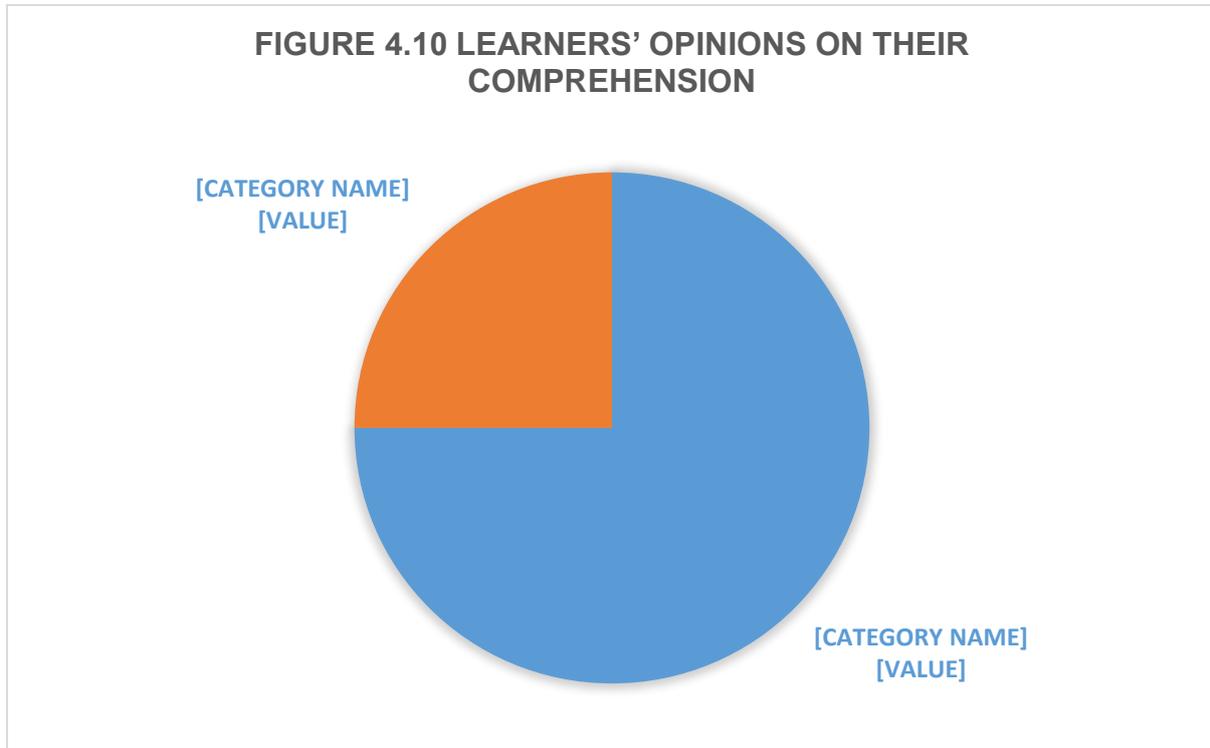
The interviewer further wanted to know whether there was other time that was used for reading besides the allocated contact time. Ten learner respondents (83, 3%), indicated that they created their own time to do reading. Most of the time, this was when they were at home, or staying behind at school to study on their own, "*Yes, after school. When people go home, I stay here at school*," "*Yes, at home, my brother helps me*," "*…when I am at home because I want to know the words that I don't know. Sometimes I use dictionary to check some other important words.*" The last two respondents (16, 7%), stated that they did not have time to read outside the actual contact time.

From the responses given most of the learners, seven (58, 3%), stated that they still needed assistance in reading. They were asked about the type of assistance that they would need from either their educators or their parents/ guardians. Six learner respondents (50%), stated that they needed more reading material, and to be supported at home. Some of their responses were, "*I think they should buy me more books, so that I can practise more often*," "*To do a library for us*," "*By giving me*

support and buying me magazines and story books." "*I need their (parents) help
where I feel like I have to share something with them so that they can listen to me…*"
Two learner respondents (16, 7%), needed assistance in the form of extra lessons, "*I
would tell them to take me to English extra lessons and Saturday school,*"
"*…someone like a mentor and going to the weekend extra lessons.*" The last four
respondents (33, 3%), indicated that they would prefer more contact time with their
educators, "*My teacher should give me help. She must always teach me to be
efficient,*" "*I need help to my teacher* (implying "I need help from my teacher"). "*I will
tell my teacher teach me English*, (switching codes) *ke kgone go kwešiša,*" (…so that
I may understand."). Figure 4.11 summarises the responses given.

FIGURE 4.11 TYPE OF ASSISTANCE LEARNERS NEED
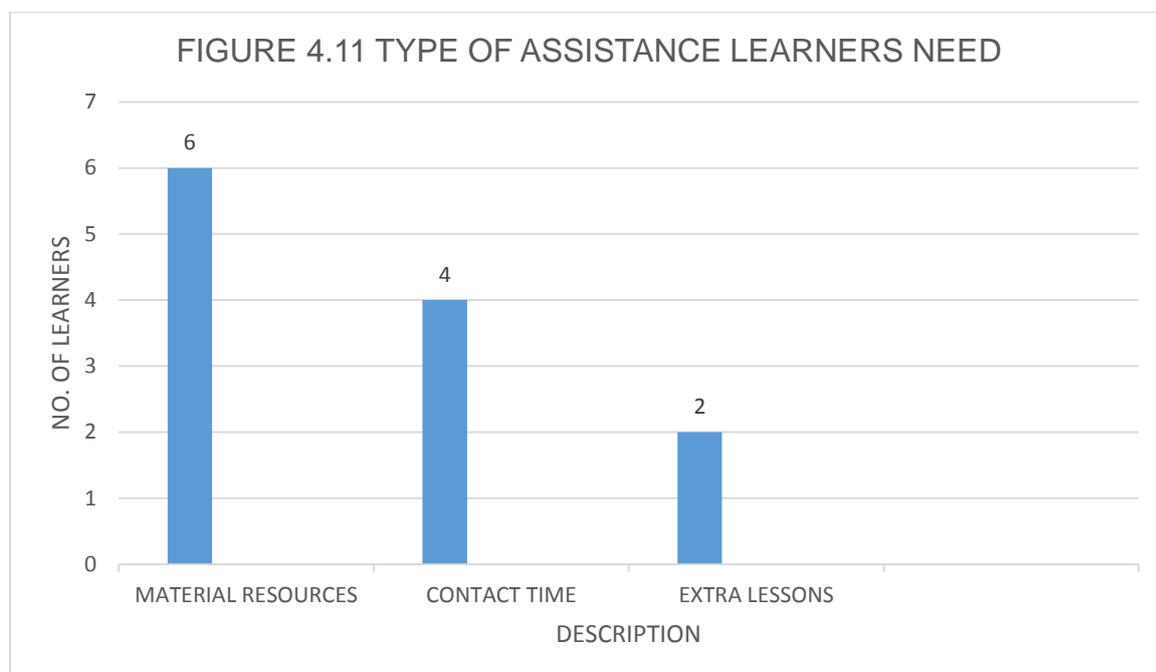
4.2.8 Discussion of findings from learners' interviews

Learners were asked about the section of English that they liked most. From the
responses given, it was clear that most learners did not have interest in reading.
Seven learner respondents (58,3%), indicated that they were interested in listening
and speaking, two learner respondents (16,7%), in language structures and
conventions, and one (8,3%), in writing and presenting. It was only two learners (16,
7%), who still showed interest in reading and viewing. Their choice of sections that

interested them may affect their schemata (personal store of knowledge gained through lifetime experiences) as schema theory propagates that background knowledge, gained through experiences which were accompanied by feelings and emotions, enhance the readers' ability to comprehend the text (cf 2.7.1). Reading helps in elevating readers' knowledge. It adds to their vocabulary bank which in turn increase their understanding. As they read, background knowledge will be combined with information in the text to help in comprehending that text. Although other sections of English may impact positively in this regard, reading still contributes much. It is of concern to realise that there are few learners who still take an interest in reading. Figure 4.12 displays in a summary form sections of English that learners like most.

FIGURE 4.12 SECTION OF ENGLISH THAT LEARNERS LIKE MOST

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]
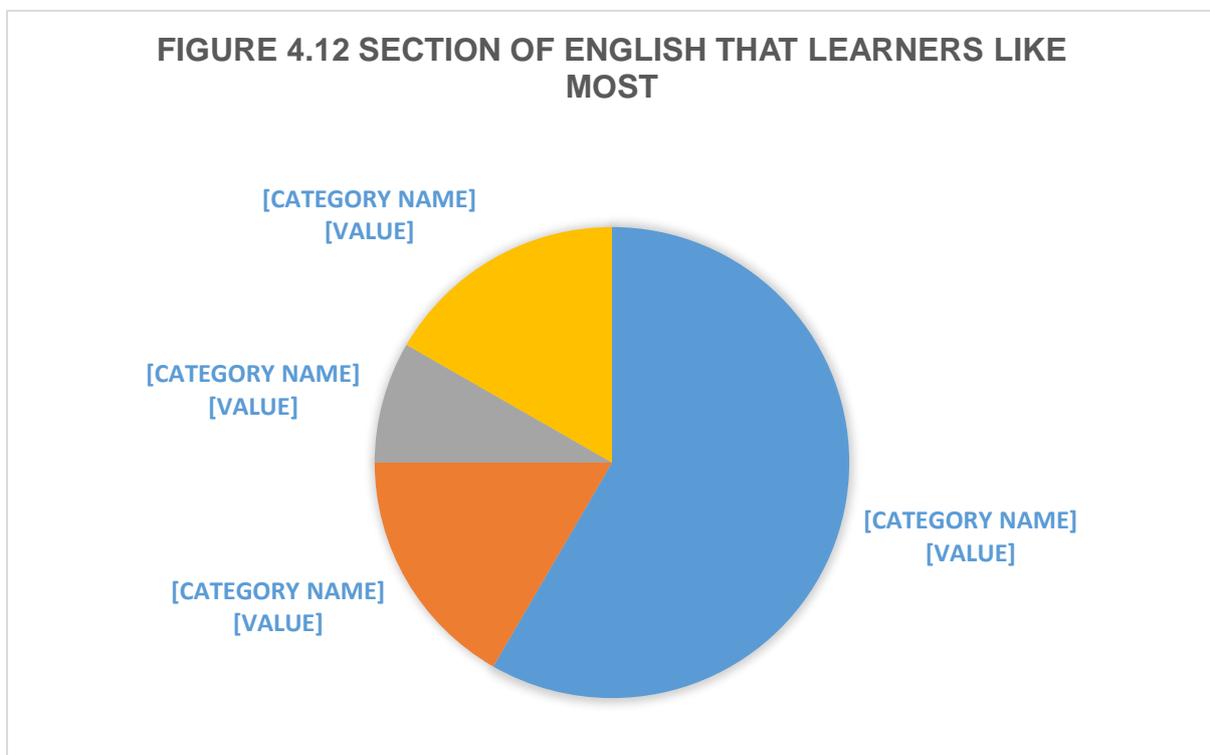
Another factor that needed attention was that of learners' opinions on their reading efficiency. Five learner respondents (41, 7%), were confident about their reading while seven learner respondents (58, 3%), indicated that they needed support. The number of learners who needed support indicated that there was still much that needed to be done to improve reading. Cognisance should be taken of the fact, as highlighted by Du Toit, Hesse and Orr (1995:3) that learners who cannot read cannot study on their own. They further indicated that to be an achiever as a student, it was necessary to become a competent reader. There is no doubt that reading

competence is closely linked to academic success. It is disturbing to realise that most of the learners (58, 3%), may discontinue their studies if they are not given support.

The interviewer further wanted to establish whether contact time that was allocated for reading was sufficient. Here again numbers were the same as that for their opinions on their reading efficiency. Most learner respondents, seven (58, 3%), indicated that they needed more time while five learner respondents (41, 7%), declared that they were happy with the existing time. This can be an alarming factor to the review of how time was spread over different sections in the teaching and learning of English. The previous curricula did not lay down specific times when reading should be done. What was considered important was the fact that specific reading content should be covered before summative assessment could be done. It is only CAPS that states specifically how much time should be given to different sections in the teaching and learning of English. Learners who were interviewed had three years of teaching under this new curriculum, which allocates most time to reading and viewing. Their responses to this question of availability of reading time may be an indication that educators have not yet adjusted their teaching to that demanded by the new curriculum, regarding time allocation. The table below shows a time spreadsheet on how much time should be given to different sections as required by CAPS. Time given to reading and viewing is commendable. Table 4.4 displays the information on allocation of time for various sections of English teaching.

Skills	Time allocation per two week cycle	Percentage
1. Listening and speaking	One hour	10%
2. Reading and viewing	Four hours	45%
3. Writing and presenting	Three hours	35%
4.Language structures and conventions (also integrated into four skills)	One hour	10%

Table 4.4 Spreadsheet of time allocation for different sections of English

When asked about their comprehension level when they read a text, most learner respondents, nine (75%), indicated they were doing well in this activity. The last three learner respondents (25%), needed assistance from people who would help in reading the text and explain unfamiliar concepts. The fact that most learners could read on their own and understand what they read, which would be reflected in the way they answer questions, gave hope that although 58,3% of learner respondents doubted their reading efficiency, their level of comprehension could increase their marks to enable them to pass the subject at the end of the academic year.

An effort was made by most learner respondents, ten (83, 3%), to get extra time to improve their reading. They would either stay behind at school after formal lessons for reading activity, or do it at home with the help of their elder siblings. It was only a few learner respondents, two (16, 7%), who indicated that they did not use any time outside the actual contact time to improve their reading. Finally, when asked about the type of support that they would need to improve their reading, half of the learner respondents (50%), indicated that they needed material resources in the form of newspapers, magazines and story books so that they could often practise reading. The last 50% preferred help in the form of human resources, which was educators or mentors.

It can thus be concluded that most learners, seven (58, 3%), did not attain reading skills when only the actual contact time was used. They required more time plus support in the form of material and human resources to augment their reading. They even indicated that they were not satisfied with their level of reading. The number of learner respondents, five (41, 7%), who were happy with the way they read, needed to be increased. So the objective of this study, which is to identify level of reading skills at the end of a specified period, was partially met in the actual classroom situation.

4.2.9 Educators' interviews: findings

Questions that were put to educator respondents were almost the same as the ones that were put to learner respondents. The intention was to note if responses from educator respondents were the same as those that were given by learner respondents. Questions asked were to address that objective of identifying the level of reading and determining whether learners attain those skills at the end of specified

period. The first question that was asked was on the section which is mostly preferred by educators when they teach English. The question was asked in an attempt to identify, from four themes of EFAL (listening and speaking, language structures and conventions, reading and viewing, and writing and presenting), the section that would receive more attention or delivered to learners with more determination. Three educator respondents (75%), stated that they preferred literature, which was the reading and viewing section. The third respondent also added grammar, which fell under language structures and conventions. The last respondent (25%), preferred language structure and conventions, delivered through a comprehension passage. The sections they preferred demanded more of reading activity.

The interviewer further asked educator respondents how well their learners could read with understanding. Two educators (50%), indicated that their learners had partially attained reading skills. Reading skills, according to EFAL assessment rubric for reading as designed by subject specialists (Annexure H), include understanding of the test, voice projection and fluency in reading, expressive reading, use of gestures, body language and facial expression, and response to questions asked by the audience. Their responses were, "*A few can, maybe ...umm…in some cases 50% can and others can't,*" "*Learners should have enough practice. They should be given different comprehensions.*" The last two educator respondents (50%), stated that their learners had attained reading skills already, "*They are able to explain and discuss what the author wrote about,*" "*They read so well, those who are reading in class are doing that on voluntary basis…even if there can be learners who cannot read, they are just a handful.*"

When asked if the time allocated to the activity of reading aloud (as it is the one that contains most criteria that determine the development of reading skills) was sufficient, responses were, "*In actual fact, <u>we don't have sufficient time</u>…* (The clause underlined was stated twice, indicating emphasis) *to administer reading. Reading needs…umm…serious contact with individual learner. But our classes have big numbers.*" Another response was, "*Not really. It is not easy. Teachers are faced with huge workload, especially teaching this language in another class, especially grade twelve.*" They also indicated that they had to make provision for extra lessons to cover some of the activities.

The educator respondents were then asked about the factors that could be contributing to learners' inability to read. Several factors were stated in this case. The first one was (a) the use of code switching in class, that is, switching between Sepedi and English in the classroom, "*Learning other subjects in Sepedi*," as stated by one respondent. There was again the issue of (b) non-exposure to the English language, stated as "*Not listening to English radio channels*." This means that learners do not have time, or rather, are not encouraged to practice language in informal situations. It was further indicated that (c) learners do not read non-academic material, for example, magazines and newspapers, to increase their vocabulary and comprehension. Another serious contributory factor was (d) use of technological devices, which made learners lose interest in reading. "*They prefer technological devices other than reading. They rather view, instead of read,*" said one respondent. Another respondent indicated that learners lack the basic foundation of reading, and confidence, "…*they come from lower classes not being able to read properly…another thing can be lack of confidence, they do not feel comfortable when they read in front of other learners.*" The latter statement indicates that learners sometimes get anxious as they read aloud in front of their peers. This may imply that they can do better if they engage in silent reading.

There was also an idea that (e) old methods of teaching should be used. In apartheid curriculum, Nated 550, memory lessons were training and also preparing learners' minds to grasp. This is what one educator respondent said about this issue, "*I think those old ways of teaching must, in a way, be brought back… Nated 550…their (learners') minds are not well trained to grasp. Learners of that time did not have problem at universities or tertiary education. Today these learners are struggling* (the underlined clause was uttered three times to show emphasis) *to keep the facts with them…*" Further, the use of continuous assessment, that is, multiple assessment activities to determine progress of learners to the next grade has an impact on lowering levels of reading. "*We were trained to read because we were going to have a test. These ones they have lot of tasks that they have to do together,*" said one respondent. "*Learners may rely on help of other learners, or copy work from other learners. Those joint activities help them progress to the next grade.*" This suggests that there should be a shift of focus from group work to individual activities. Lastly, it was indicated that (f) learners did not have resources, "…*they are forced to get*

answers from somebody. Just get answers, no engagement." The idea put forward is that there should be more material resources, for example, reference material, to enable learners to work independently.

When asked about the method of teaching which was used to enhance learners' understanding as they read, educator respondents had this to say, "*We do it (reading) together. I at times read and also give learners a chance to read. I can start reading the first two paragraphs, then from there I let learners read so that they can acquaint themselves with how to pronounce words, and reading with understanding as well.* <u>*As they read, I explain…*</u> (the underlined clause was repeated three times, emphasising the importance of the method that was used) *because they are second language speakers.*" Another respondent stated that he encouraged learners to practice English regularly, and even bought reading material for learners; "*By encouraging them to speak in English…supply them with newspapers and magazines.*" The third educator respondent indicated that she took the lead by giving background information of material read and analysing criteria, then allowed learners to alternate in reading. She said, "*Before reading the book, I give the background of the book, the plot, conflict…I make the learners alternate in reading. This helps them to practice reading.*" The last educator respondent, who indicated that most of the learners in her class read well, stated, "*Most of them do understand. Those who can't read well – I give them small paragraphs to practice reading, repeating until they get it right.*"

Educator respondents were asked about measures that could be taken to revive the culture of reading in schools. All respondents basically stated that competitions should be brought back in schools, and not only for the development of reading skills, but all the skills. "*…learners should compete in reading, compete in poetry, compete in drama. Bring back debate and take it very seriously…we should bring those things back into class, back into schools, back into circuits. As we compete in these, the culture of reading will be revived,*" "*By creating a reading period and having debating sessions twice a week.*" One respondent then said, "*Introducing debates…they (learners) will be forced to read as they prepare their speeches.*" The last educator respondent indicated, over and above debates, the issue of motivating these learners from early stages of schooling, to read. "*They should be motivated from lower classes. They should get extrinsic motivation.*" This was an indication that

the foundation for reading should be laid in primary school. Figure 4.13 displays methods that can be used to revive the culture of reading in schools as stated by educator respondents.

FIGURE 4.13 RECOMMENDED WAYS OF REVIVING READING

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]
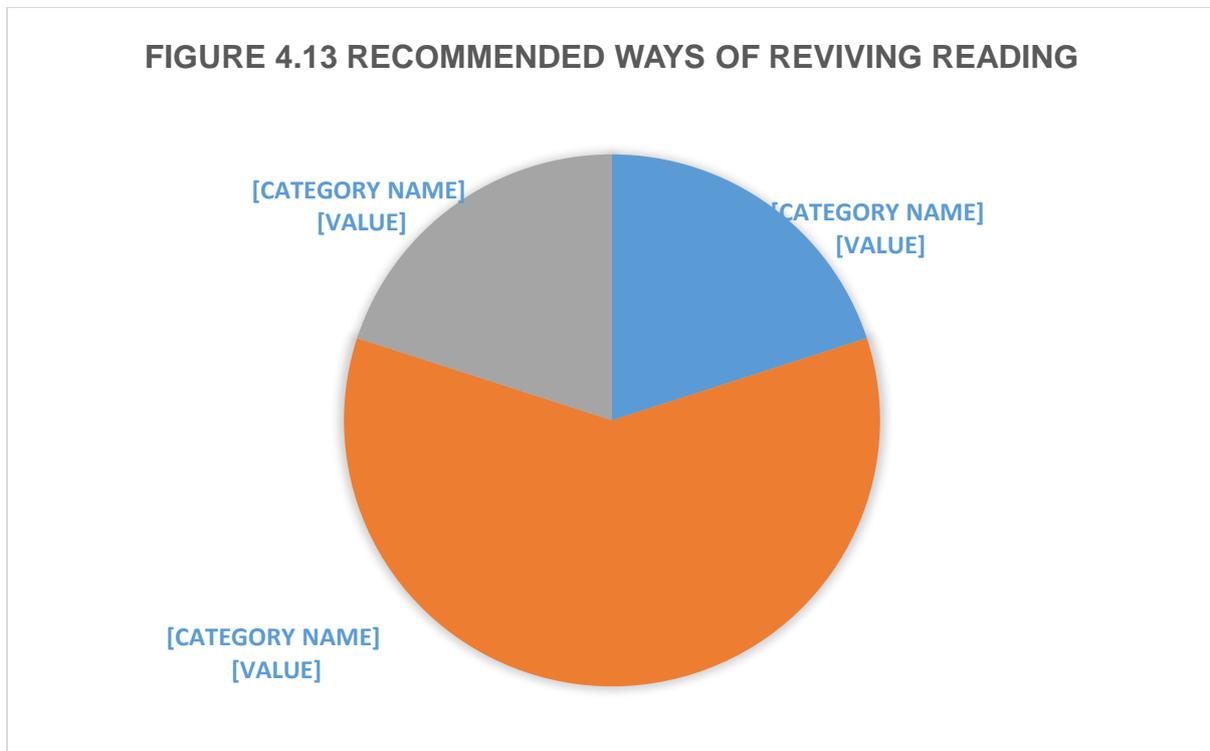
Another set of interview questions were asked with the aim of addressing the first objective of this study, which is to identify the relevant reading skills in C2005, NCS and CAPS and to determine the time allocated to reading in those curricula. The literature review had already shed some light on the level of reading in those curricula. Therefore, the researcher wanted to hear from educator interviewees about reading efficiency of learners, as they had experienced teaching in all the three curricula including Nated 550/ apartheid curriculum. This set of questions gathered data that focused on the aim of this study, which was to investigate the effect of curriculum change process on the reading ability of EFAL learners in grade ten.

Just as in the first set of questions which aimed at addressing the second objective of this study, questions asked were in a semi-structured form where the researcher broadly controlled the agenda and the process of the interview, whilst leaving respondents free-within-limits to respond as they best see fit (Ribbins, 2007:209).

Interviews were preferred here as the researcher had an opportunity of eliciting directly from educator interviewees much needed data on reading efficiency throughout the different curricula. To have a clear background and understand the effect of curriculum changes on reading ability of learners, the researcher decided to include Nated 550 to get a flow of performance in this respect. All respondents taught in the four curricula under study.

The first question asked was to establish their opinion on learners' level of reading or reading efficiency during Nated 550. Educator respondents not only taught English in this curriculum, but they were also the products of this curriculum. Responding to the question the first respondent indicated that there was diversity. There were learners who could read very well and those who could not even pronounce the vowels, "…*this type of skill was not particularly…um…assessed, it was not particularly taught…you will just give learners comprehension passage to read alone and answer questions…orally or in written form, then you will do with them corrections*." The respondent believed that learners who could read well had intrinsic motivation, "…*it was not a result of being taught to read, but I think maybe those learners who could read just had an interest or a particular background.*"

The second respondent stated that reading was excellent. Learners were inspired by the way their educators read, and they aspired to imitate them. Learners then put much effort into their work. The respondent put it "…*reading at that time was excellent… learners wanted to imitate their teachers. As the teacher read, they would also want to read exactly as the teacher read.*" The third respondent concurred with the response provided by the second respondent, going further to indicate that the spirit of team work among educators and reading competitions held across different schools kept learners motivated to work hard and not fell behind their counterparts in other schools. The respondent indicated that learners then read very well.

The last respondent declared that the level of reading was much better. He believed that it was due to the methods of teaching used then. The respondent gave his experience as a learner in Nated 550 curriculum stating "*We had a good base, though it was somehow rhetoric or in a form of recitation…we could recite verbs – today I see, yesterday I saw… We were reciting poems to such an extent that there*

were words that were built up in our minds." The respondent indicated that as they had a good foundation, reading with understanding was not a problem to them. The level of reading was commendable that "*When we had to read books, we could read a lot of words with understanding…we could understand that even without a dictionary*."

The responses given can be summarised as follows, three educator respondents (75%), agreed that during Nated 550 learners could read well, while the fourth respondent (25%), indicated that there were differences as some learners could read very well while others were struggling to read. Motivation, methods of teaching used then, and the spirit of competition among learners yielded these results.

Respondents were asked about the challenges they experienced as both educators and learners during Nated 550. The first respondent spoke about those learners who were struggling to read. Educators did not have time to support them. She indicated that time was a challenge as educators were not only teaching the language, but had other content subjects to focus on.

The second respondent touched on a lack of reading material. This was a challenge not only to the learners but also to educators. Parents were solely responsible for the education of their children and for those parents who were poor, this became a challenge. She stated, "… *well challenges are always there because, during that time, parents had to buy books for learners and not all parents could afford this as most of the parents were unemployed. So they could not buy their children books and for this reason, some of the learners did not have time to learn reading because of lack of books*." She went on further to say, "*During that time, there was no mercy, if you don't have books or you don't pay school fund, you will ultimately end up being at home. They will send you home straight away. So it was a very great challenge for the learners to be able to afford reading because you don't have money, it ends up there*." This respondent also reflected on another challenge for educators. Educators had to teach learners who were without books. She stated, "*It was <u>very difficult,</u>* (underlined clause repeated with emphasis) *because really if most of learners do not have books it's a real problem, especially if you have these big numbers of learners in class. <u>Very difficult."</u>* (underlined clause said with deep emotions and respondent shaking her head).

The third respondent did not mention any specific challenge recalled, he emphasised the support educators had from parents in school activities and the cooperation of educators who worked as a team. The last respondent indicated that lack of resource material, or rather, reading material was a major challenge. Parents who were impoverished had to buy all books for their children. The respondent stated, "*The only* (the clause repeated with emphasis) *challenge…we did not have enough books to read…we did not have libraries, we did not have the luxury of reading magazines.*" He indicated that he depended on the small magazines known as comics that his aunt, who was working as a domestic worker in a white household, brought home. Due to the reading background given, he could read those comics with understanding. While the first respondent (25%), indicated that lack of time to attend to individual learners who could not read was a challenge to her, the second respondent (25%), was happy with the curriculum to an extent that he could not remember any challenges experienced. The last two respondents (50%), agreed that lack of reading material impacted on learners' reading ability.

The third question that was posed to respondents was on the support they received following the challenges experienced. They were asked if they were given support to overcome such challenges. The first respondent indicated, "*There were no measures taken to support the learners.*" When further asked if educators were supported to help struggling learners her response was, "*Not at all. I don't even remember having a plan to identify learners who could not read… So there was no help. Ok, it was just survival of the fittest, learners with a very good background are the ones who survived.*" The respondent continued emphasising that as they were overloaded with work, there was no time left to give individual learners support, "*My schedule was always full as I did not teach only English, there were other subjects that I was teaching. So I did not even think of identifying learners and taking the issue further for curricula support. It didn't happen.*"

The second respondent indicated that although some parents showed interest in the education of their children, there was not much they could do because they were unemployed. When called to school they would come but "*they really had nothing to do because in the first place, most of the parents were unemployed and did not have money to buy books for their children. It was a real problem.*" "*Apart from that most*

parents were not educated, so there was no way, most even did not have interest in that (education)."

The third respondent was happy with the support that was received from parents and fellow educators, "*And then on the issue of parents, we would have the parents in front during debates.*" The statement shows that although parents did not have much to support their children with, they were there during school activities like debates, to offer their support. On the other hand, besides working as a team, educators were willing to work overtime as the interviewee declared, "*It was just a norm for every school, knocking off time was four o'clock…it wasn't very difficult for us.*" This means there was enough time that was dedicated to giving learners support that they needed.

When asked about the support they received to address their challenges, the last respondent declared, "*We did not have that luxury of one-to-one contact in terms of language.*" He continued to indicate how the sound foundation they received on reading helped in sustaining their reading competency, "*The basic teachings…were very much helpful, especially my grade eight and nine. It helped a lot that we could read books on our own.*" The respondent continued to indicate that in grade ten they did not have an educator of English. A temporary educator who had just finished grade twelve was hired. Learners could read books and set works on their own, and somehow the educator confessed that they (learners) understood more than she did. On the issue of support, it can be said that for most parents, poverty was hindering them from giving full support. Some educators went an extra mile to support learners while they, in turn, did not receive any support from the Department of Education. They depended on support from fellow colleagues and they made an effort to extend their working hours to help learners.

Finally, under this curriculum, respondents were asked how the learners progressed, taking into consideration the minimal or lack of support they had. The first educator respondent emphasised that it was 'survival of the fittest'. There was no help for learners who did not master reading skills. Such learners were left to repeat the class. The second educator respondent indicated that performance of these learners was satisfactory. She stated, "*Most were really excelling…doing very well. Their performance was very well because learners during that time…had what I would call*

intrinsic motivation. They were interested to learn, to know (clause said with emphasis) how to read, to know how to do things at school. That gave them courage and hence the performance itself became very high."

The third educator respondent indicated that learners put a lot of effort into their work and therefore hard work paid off, "*This thing of adding 2/3 marks to make the learner pass it was not there during our time. Learners took into account that their parents spent their last pennies to buy them books, so they had to plough back by progressing to the next grade at the end of the year.*" The last educator respondent responded by saying, "*I am just made to believe that a percentage of marks was added. They would condone learners just because they were on the border line or very close to a pass. This indicates that there were learners who passed on their own, out of their hard work, and only a few number of learners with promising average were condoned to the next grade.*"

The respondents were asked the same questions as for the Nated 550 curriculum. They had to give their opinion on the level of reading during C2005, the challenges that they experienced, the support they received and the way of assessing and progressing learners. Before giving their own opinion on reading efficiency, each educator respondent gave a brief background on what happened in the era of this curriculum. Most of their responses indicated the frustrations they faced then. Although their responses seemed to differ in words, what was important was that they basically indicated that education under this curriculum was almost stagnant.

The first respondent stated that this curriculum was characterised by confusion. Educators who were supposed to be primary implementers of this curriculum did not know what to do. She said, "*OBE was just learn on paper. There was no effective teaching or effective planning or effective assessment or effective feedback. Nothing happened because we took the whole time trying to understand the type of vocabulary, the jargon itself. We were just fighting as school…and we never reached any conclusion.*" The second respondent's comment on this curriculum was, "*I think this curriculum, to me it was confusing to both the learners and the teachers.*" The third respondent indicated that the curriculum was not only a challenge to educators, but also to department officials. Just mentioning C2005 made the last respondent to laugh. This is what he said, "*That one caused a lot of problems to us educators.*

Um…we were not well trained so we did not <u>understand actually what they</u> <u>wanted…"</u> (The underlined clause was uttered in a subdued voice as if this was a secret the speaker had to reveal).

Respondents' opinions were then asked about the learners' reading efficiency during this curriculum. The first respondent's answer was very short, "*There was nothing that was happening, more especially in terms of reading. There was no plan…*" The respondent meant, the reading activity was an assessment to give learners marks that had to be submitted as part of an annual activity. There was no attempt to teach reading. The second respondent indicated, "*Learners could not grasp reading because most of the content was not there. You had to depend on the learner to say something. There was no preparation based on content, so reading was going to be very difficult for the learner.*"

Upon answering this question, the third respondent indicated in a comparison form how learners were not competent in reading as compared to those in Nated 550. He stated, "*When we compare the learner of today and that of the past, that one had a very big challenge when it came to reading, very very big challenge.*" The last respondent, after explaining many things that were not done well during C2005, the interviewer had to rephrase the question to get a clear answer to learners' reading efficiency. The question asked was "Were you not happy with the products you received then?" The response was, "*No, never!* (The clause uttered with great emphasis). *Some of them up to now cannot read well.*"

The question that followed was on the challenges they experienced during the implementation of this curriculum. The first respondent indicated that for most of the time they were out of class attending workshops which were not helpful. She stated, "*Remember there was a lot of workshops that we need to attend, the curriculum is new, we do not understand it, we used a lot of time attending workshops... So it wasn't successful for me. In terms of reading like you have been asking, I do not even remember having a fully flashed planned lesson already. That did not happen.*" The response of the second respondent indicated the frustration that the educators faced, where learning had to start from the learner, educators were just facilitators.

The response of the third respondent was, "*No, this one, even the department officials it was very difficult for them.*" He indicated that educators were called to

workshops and as they came back to implement, there would be another workshop to correct, or rather amend what they were told previously. The last respondent indicated that as facilitators, they had to take into cognisance that learners knew something. This is what he stated, "*As facilitator, you don't teach. You almost open a discussion on what you want to teach. You can just add here and there, learners know.*" The challenges were revealed during testing or assessment. Those learners, who came to school knowing something, had poor results. The respondents indicated, "*…testing revealed something different, that these learners do not know… Learning has to do with grasping certain facts, and to grasp means there is something that you have to impart… You can't say learners know certain things, can't do that. There is certain content that need to be grasped.*"

After the challenges were stated, the interviewer wanted to know what support was given to address the challenges. The first respondent indicated that the Department of Education tried to support educators by conducting various workshops. She stated, "*We went to workshops, workshops were not effective, you came to school, you were told to do your own plan, own design as a teacher…*" The second respondent had this to say about support, "*As I think very well, from school the support was not there. The teacher had to see how to come out. The department was trying to give us workshops but even the coordinators themselves were not sure of what to do.*" The third respondent indicated that the support that there was no support as compared to the period of Nated 550. He said, "*During apartheid one there was support. This one we don't get support. The only thing we got was when we went to some workshops and then that is it.*" The last respondent indicated that despite various workshops that were conducted to support and orientate educators in the new curriculum, the workshops were not successful as he indicated, "*...we were not well trained, so we did not understand actually what they wanted.*" From what the respondent mentioned, it appeared the facilitators of the workshops, or those officials who were doing the training, also did not understand this curriculum. It can thus be concluded that, although the Department of Education tried to organise workshops for educators, the workshops failed to realize their goals.

The last question posed to respondents was on assessment and progression of learners. This curriculum was short-lived because of the many flaws it had. So respondent number one stated, "*To tell the honest fact, I do not even remember well*

what was happening, because most of the time everyone was trying to implement what he/ she think was right." The second respondent did not have much to say except, "*There was a drop, a very big drop in results.*" She could not remember the finer details of what happened but what she could remember was that learners were not competent as those in the previous curriculum. The third respondent indicated that the issue of progressing learners was also questionable. He declared, "*Well, we cannot say we were happy. A lot still had to be done.*" The response that was given by this respondent on learners' reading efficiency indicated that although learners were progressed to the next class, educators were not happy with the way learners were reading. He said, "*No, never! Because some of them even now cannot read well.*" All the responses given by educators show that C2005 was characterised by confusion among educators, numerous workshops which were not profitable as educators came back from these workshops more confused, and curriculum advisors were also confused and not sure about what was to be done.

The third curriculum that was examined was the National Curriculum Statement (NCS). The same questions as those that were asked in the two curricula, Nated 550 and C2005 were asked for this curriculum. The first question which was asked aimed at determining the respondents' opinions on the reading ability of learners in grade ten. The first respondent indicated that in this curriculum, there was no emphasis on the teaching of reading; reading skills or an attempt to enhance learners' comprehension. Her response was, "*Reading during that time, mam…was just for marks. We were just complying with curriculum demands…to tell the honest truth, I have never sat down and said this is the preparation for reading. Unlike what is happening now, there was no specific teaching sessions on reading skills.*" She went further to say that most of the educators' time was consumed by planning, visiting other subjects to determine the possibility of integration. The heads of departments focused more on written preparation than on what was happening in the classroom.

In response to this question, the second respondent differed with the first respondent. She stated that there was improvement in terms of reading ability during this curriculum. She believed this emanated from a little content that was to be added to teaching, although it came in the form of themes. Her response was, "*Um, I think reading was much better here because you had, a content hold-on…a theme.*" A theme that was given enabled an educator to direct a lesson in class. The third

respondent declared that there were minor changes noted in reading during NCS. Although NCS was never implemented for many years, there was hope in the new curriculum as compared to what happened in C2005. The respondent indicated, "*There were some changes so far, curriculum was going to work for us…should it have been given much time (to implement).*" The last respondent indicated, "*There was a little bit of change but it was not different because the approach was still OBE. There was little improvement.*" The last respondent stated that changes in reading ability of learners were just minor. What was important was the fact that improvement was noted.

In response to the question of challenges that they experienced during the time of this curriculum, the respondents did not have much to say. The improvement that was noted and the direction, or rather, the understanding the educators had of teaching made challenges less visible. The first respondent had something to say about the challenges, "*There was a lot of planning and there were a lot of assessment standards which were linked to other subjects…so you had to choose, sometimes you did not even know where the demarcation was.*" Besides a lot of writing educators had to do, the respondent indicated that overcrowding of classes made it difficult for educators to give learners who could not read individual attention. The respondent also touched on the issue of allocating underqualified educators to teach English First Additional Language (EFAL). This happened in most cases when there was staff shortage, where educators would be given languages, be it either primary language or FAL to teach despite the fact that they were not trained to teach that language. This was due to the thinking that languages were simple and that every educator could teach them. The respondent provided a solution to this problem by saying that allocating educators subjects that they were trained for and could teach, and even conducting effective workshops could have made the curriculum work.

The second respondent indicated that unlike in the previous curriculum, challenges were less. She stated, "*Challenges were reduced, <u>very much</u> (the underlined clause said with emphasis) because … learners had a theme or content to learn, and a teacher was able to prepare thoroughly…*" The third respondent mentioned that despite the fact that educators would sit together drafting strategies that would help to improve the results, nothing was done to ensure those improvement strategies

were implemented. He stated, "…*It was just on paper…then it would gather dust in the cupboards.*" The last respondent did not remember any serious challenges experienced with this curriculum.

The interviewer asked the question concerning support during the NCS curriculum. The first respondent stated that nothing was done to help educators improve their teaching, or address the challenges they experienced. The second respondent had a different opinion. She said that there was support offered. She stated, "*Yes, they used to send us to workshops. We met with curriculum advisors, discussed those themes…at least the guideline was given.*" She also stated there were learners whom you could deduce had support and assistance of parents at home, but some did not have such support, "*In this era most of the learners at school were children of parents who at least schooled, so parental support was much better.*" The third respondent responded by saying, "*Not definitely, because it was very rare to find the officials just coming to our schools…sitting with individual teachers or whole staff, and then we get what we want from them.*" The statement indicated that educators did not enjoy support from departmental officials. The last respondent stated, "*There was much support. They were trying to help where they can.*" In short, two educator respondents stated that educators received support from departmental officials, while the other two could not remember such support.

The last question asked was on assessment of reading and how learners progressed to the next grade. All educators interviewed did not have much to say on progression of learners. There was nothing specific that was done on reading to help improve learners' results. Learners progressed to the next level on the combined efforts of all educators in different subjects. It was only the last interviewee who indicated that results were better, and reasons forwarded were: "*To a limited extent, educators were no longer just facilitators. We had to guide these learners, and they were better than… purely OBE.*"

The last batch of questions focused on Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). The questions were the same as with the other curricula. What was important was to get respondents' opinions on all curricula. The data gathered from the empirical sources on curriculum change was used to address the research aim of this study.

Considering the experience educator respondents had on teaching under different curricula, they were first asked to give their general opinion on CAPS. This was done to identify whether or not educators were gradually finding it easier to teach under this curriculum. The first respondent had this to say about the curriculum, "*I think this CAPS is better because the type of documents we have…explain well what we must do and again the demarcation of the skills. There is time for doing reading, the time for writing, the time for being assessed on oral work… I think because it is well and clear to teachers, it is simply implemented unlike the previous ones.*" Over and above this, the respondent also indicated that as the work plan was clearly stated, with assessment tasks stipulated, educators could easily identify sections which were problematic to learners, and plan on something to correct that. Educators' and learners' portfolios are moderated on a quarterly basis to determine not only the progress of learners but also the pace at which educators were working.

The second respondent confessed that CAPS is much better compared to the previous curricula. The third respondent's comment was, "*This one is very good. Should it be done the right way, it will definitely work for us.*" The last respondent confessed, "*CAPS almost takes us back to Nated 550, and mixed all of them (curricula). Most of the things in CAPS…are the same as the ones in Nated 550. The teacher has to go to class and teach.*" The respondent went further to say that most educators now were still those who served under Nated 550, "*So they are very comfortable with it, that is why this great improvement with it.*" What can be noted from the responses given is that all the respondents were happy with this curriculum.

They were then asked about the learners' reading ability under CAPS. The first respondent stated that there was a great deal of improvement in terms of reading. She further explained that reading was not only addressed in comprehension passages, but also in the literature sections. She said, "*Learners do a lot of reading. So I think it helps as well…they have reading process, which is pre-reading, reading and post reading.*" By the process of reading, the respondent was indicating the attention that was given to the teaching of reading, with the improved method. The second respondent applauded the method that was used to teach reading when stating, "*I think this one too is much better because, learners, if they have to use pictures…they can be able to analyse the picture and give ideas about those pictures…give vocabulary that they can associate with such pictures.*" Emphasis was

on the first step of teaching reading, which is pre-reading. The respondent was impressed with how the use of visual material associated with the text to be read, before the actual reading, could help to stimulate the learners' minds. She also stated that she was expecting positive results in reading, and improvement compared to reading in the previous curricula.

The third respondent had this to say on reading, "…*they are improving.*" His concern was that learners were not taking reading for study purposes seriously. He concluded by saying that it needed to be corrected. The last respondent indicated that reading had improved dramatically. He went further to say that as learners were exposed to their programme of assessment, they knew that they had to work hard on their own in order to cope with these assessment activities.

With regard to challenges, the first, second and fourth respondents had no comment. The third respondent was worried about parental involvement, or rather, commitment to the education of their children. He stated that they seemed to have left everything in the hands of educators. It can thus be concluded that since the inception of this curriculum, educators were starting to enjoy their work. They now understand what they have to do with the learners.

Considering support that was given to educators, all educators indicated that they enjoyed support from curriculum advisors. The third respondent had the concern that the support was enjoyed only during briefing sessions, from there curriculum advisors would speak to the educators through their portfolios when they were submitted for moderation. All comments on the work of educators are stated in the portfolio. The last respondent said, "*There is a lot of support. Curriculum advisors are trying their best…they are supportive. They are helping and if they can keep on doing that, at one point we can see learners passing.*" All the data presented by respondents on CAPS indicated that although they might be minor loopholes, generally they were looking forward to the improvement of reading among learners.

4.2.10 Discussion of findings from educators' interviews

Educators' interview questions were aimed at extracting information from interviewees that would enable the researcher to address the first and second objectives of this study. The first batch of questions asked aimed at getting data that would help the researcher identify learners' level of reading skills and also determine

whether they attained the required reading skills by the end of the period stated in the pace setter. The second batch of questions aimed at gathering information that would help the researcher address the first objective of this study, which was stated previously as identifying relevant reading skills in C2005, NCS and CAPS and to determine the amount of time that was allocated for reading in the past and present curricula.

Just as in learners' interviews, educator respondents were asked about the section they preferred when they taught English. This was done to determine if reading still received attention from educators. Their responses revealed that many of them (75%), spent most of their time teaching reading and viewing, as they teach literature. The last educator respondent (25%), indicated that he preferred language structure and conventions, delivered through comprehension passages. It is interesting to note that comprehension passage still formed part of reading and viewing. Both literature and comprehension passages demand more of reading than the other sections. So it could be assumed that learners here had more time for practising reading while their educators could informally continue to assess their reading skills, vocabulary and comprehension.

The responses received on determining whether grade ten learners had attained reading skills indicated that 50% of educator respondents were happy with how their learners were reading, that they had mastered reading skills. They further indicated that there was just a few learners who were lagging behind. The other 50% of educator respondents indicated that few learners had partially attained reading skills, and much had to be done to help the remaining learners. The general feeling from educator respondents was that practice was still necessary.

Realising that the educator respondents acknowledged the fact that there were some learners who lacked readability, they were asked to state factors that could have contributed to lack of readability. Various factors were stated, which included allowing switching of codes in class – from English to Sepedi; non-exposure of learners to the English language; learners' inability to access and also read non-academic material; use of technological devices which encouraged viewing rather than reading; and an oversight on teaching methods – where some methods that were used in Nated 550, like that of teaching through memory lessons were still

recommended. Lack of material resources was also highlighted. All inputs given confirmed that much still needed to be done before grade ten EFAL learners could be at their actual reading level, as stated in Chall's stage development theory of reading. The fourth stage of this theory, multiple viewpoints (cf 2.7.2) demands that learners should be able to deal with layers of facts and concepts added onto those acquired earlier. Viewpoints referred to here are acquired through knowledge learned earlier or through formal education, that is, the assignments in various school textbooks, original and other sources, and through reference works in the biological and social sciences. Chall (1983) shows how the reading of more mature fiction and through the free reading of books, newspapers and magazines can help in acquiring viewpoints. Learners in grade ten are expected to be able to deal with more than one set of facts, various theories and multiple viewpoints, and learn how to acquire new concepts and new points of view through reading (Chall, 1983; Camine, Silbert, Keme'enul & Tarver, 2004). Responses that have been given here indicate that some learners are not yet at this stage of reading development. The fact that their focus has shifted from reading to viewing, which is encouraged by the use of technological devices, is an indication that something should be done, to make these devices help learners practise reading.

Concerning time that was allocated for reading, responses given by all educator respondents highlighted the fact that time was not sufficient. They further indicated that it was frustrating as they could not have extra lessons with grade ten learners. As all grade ten educators were also teaching EFAL in higher grades, that is, grades eleven and twelve, the extra lessons organised were used for grades eleven and twelve. It was in rare cases where grade ten would be included in these lessons. They were left to practice reading on their own, and contact time was used for formal assessment.

Different efforts are made by educator respondents to improve the reading skills of their learners. The first respondent was more concerned with enhancing learners' understanding. He served as reference resource for the learners, by explaining unusual concepts and figures of speech, as he kept in mind that his learners were not native speakers of English, but only second language learners. The second educator respondent believed that 'practice makes perfect'. He encouraged learners not to switch codes between Sepedi, which is their mother tongue, and English

during the English period. They were motivated to stick to English, and here also provided with non-academic reading material.

The third respondent believed that if learners could be given background knowledge of the text, and what was expected from them after reading the text, the learners would be investigative as they read. That would also help to enhance their understanding. Then, as they alternated in reading, they would be practicing reading skills. The last educator respondent believed in the method of rehearsing the text, which was, reading the text repeatedly until they decoded it well. As they got corrected along the way in pronunciation, voice projection, punctuation marks, and other criteria of reading aloud, they would soon be acquainted with understanding of that text, while at the same time mastering criteria assessed in reading aloud. All these methods which have been mentioned are an indication that educators are determined to see their learners performing well. In the process they do not leave learners with learning barriers behind. They have extra activities prepared for those learners.

The responses to the question on measures that could be adopted to revive the culture of reading in schools indicated that all educators agreed that competitions should be encouraged. The old curricula encouraged competition among learners other than group work. That was beneficial as individual learners realised their responsibility in learning. Educator respondents mentioned that although group work might be beneficial to some learners, it encourages laziness among other learners, where they just relax and know that group members would do the work for them. Another factor that was highlighted was that learners in various grades were already lagging behind with the stages of reading development as they entered secondary schools. Educators appealed that this problem be given attention even in lower classes. The respondents stated multiple reasons that would help enhance reading ability, hence the number of responses exceeded that of interviewees. Table 4.5 shows opinions from educator respondents on how to revive the culture of reading in schools.

Description	Number of educators who suggested method
Using both old and new methods of teaching	1
Introduction of competitions and debates	3
Revisit methods of teaching in primary schools	1

Table 4.5 Educators' opinions on how to revive the culture of reading in schools

Besides addressing the research objective that was stated earlier, which enquired about learners' level of reading, and whether the time used for reading was sufficient, the responses given can be summarised as follows; curricula change had an impact on the reading ability of learners. This was manifested as some of the methods of teaching used in Nated 550 were still recommended in CAPS. The use of continuous assessment (CASS) and group activities were disclosed as some measures that retarded the development of reading skills.

The discussion that follows is based on the second batch of questions that aimed at addressing the first objective of this study, which is to identify the relevant reading skills in C2005, NCS and CAPS and to determine the time allocated for reading in those curricula. Again this set of questions gathered data that focused on the aim of this study.

The general feeling of educator interviewees was that learners could read well during the time of Nated 550. Although there were no methods of teaching reading that were specifically stipulated, learners were highly motivated and the spirit of competing with counterparts from other schools kept the learners focused. It can also be said that learners had a vision. They aspired to be like their educators. They would do everything to imitate their educators, including reading. This reiterates what was stated by Ralenala (2003:143) that a good command of English was highly valued. He indicated that in South Africa for a person to be educated meant, among other things, to be competent in the English language usage. So learners were

convinced that a good command of the English language was a stepping stone towards attaining the best education.

The only serious challenge that was encountered was the lack of material resources. There were no libraries and education of learners was solely in the hands of parents. At times parents could not afford to buy prescribed books and stationery for their children, pay school or building funds, or even make a top-up of extra reading materials. The outdated magazines, which were highly treasured were the only sources some lucky learners could access. Again there were no efforts to support learners who struggled to read.

Then followed a period of doom, not only in the history of South African education system but also in the teaching and learning of reading. C2005 confused all who were engaged in implementation, from curriculum advisors to educators. There was no proper training on how this curriculum worked or even how to implement it. Most of the time was spent in workshops, and at school educators spent most of their time struggling to understand what was required of them and in designing lesson plans. All these consumed teaching and learning time. One of the educators indicated that the curriculum assumed that learners knew something. As facilitators, educators had to extract from the learners knowledge. The respondent declared, "…*testing revealed something different, that these learners do not know*…" Despite all this confusion, learners kept progressing to the next grades.

The frustrations of this curriculum necessitate a revisit to the literature review (cf 2.7.3) which stated the importance of observing phases of curriculum development, which would usher in curriculum change. Three phases of curriculum development have been stated previously as curriculum design, curriculum dissemination and curriculum implementation. Curriculum design involves looking at factors such as content which must be included, how it should be presented and how it should be evaluated. Then, curriculum dissemination phase is concerned with creating a climate for envisaged change and ensuring that all users are prepared for it. Curriculum dissemination comprises preparation of curriculum utilizers through the distribution or promulgation of information, thoughts and concepts in order to make them aware of the envisaged curriculum. The preparation can also be seen as an

empowerment process. Curriculum dissemination determines how acceptable the curriculum will be to the consumers (Carl, 2012:113-115).

In the last phase, called curriculum implementation, empowered educators have to apply appropriate curriculum skills and knowledge that they have developed. Successful implementation depends on the extent to which all consumers are informed or have been prepared for the envisaged change and whether they are also prepared to associate themselves with it. Many curriculum initiatives failed as curriculum developers underestimated the importance of implementation (Carl, 2012:135). Considering all the confusion that accompanied C2005, it becomes questionable whether the time was right for this curriculum to be introduced or it was introduced prematurely before the 'ground' could be prepared. This curriculum was short-lived and it was followed by NCS.

NCS marked the end of a chaotic period and the dawn of new hope in the education system of South Africa. The fact that little content was introduced gave educators new hope in their profession. Although the focus was not yet specifically on reading, as educators were trying to get a foothold into the whole system again, what is important is the fact that educators could reclaim their position and authority as professionals, as educators and not as facilitators in their classrooms. All respondents indicated that this approach brought immediate improvement in the performance of learners. One respondent stated that for reading, they addressed only assessment activities rather than teaching and learning of reading. This curriculum gradually revived the spirit of teaching among educators.

The CAPS curriculum, revealed that there was thorough planning of the curriculum. Curriculum design and curriculum development, according to Carl (2012) as stated earlier in chapter two has to emanate from situational analysis. Then the results of a situational analysis should serve as strong guidelines for the design to follow. In this curriculum, it seems that most of the complaints, although not all, that were highlighted by educators are addressed. Situational analysis might have revealed that educators are desperately in need of content to be taught. They need their authority to be reinstated in class. The learner-centred approach did not work for them. So CAPS seemed to be a step in the right direction.

The method of teaching reading was also revisited, and focus was shifted from assessment to the basics – teaching and learning. This is revealed in the process of teaching reading, which has three steps; pre-reading, reading and post reading. Pre-reading takes into consideration what is propagated by Schema theory; that background knowledge, gained through experiences which were accompanied by feelings and emotions enhance the reader's ability to comprehend the text (cf 2.7.1). Learners' memories are reawakened by visual and written guidelines during the pre-reading stage. They are ordered to brainstorm the topic and even give a prediction of what would happen. Then as they approach the text during the reading stage, they would be approaching it in the right context. This would help in enhancing their comprehension as they read the text.

Post reading, which comes in the form of assessment will then reveal that learners received guidance for that particular text. Answering questions would be easy as learners were given a chance to think of everything they knew around that topic before they could approach the text. Generally, all respondents were happy with this curriculum. There was one respondent who indicated that most learners were tuned out from reading for study purposes. So educators had to find a way to tune them in again.

4.2.11 Observation of reading aloud lesson: findings

There were two sets of observations that were done. In the first one, the observer focused on how educators prepared their learners for reading. As oral activity for reading aloud has one formal assessment task per annum, educators were expected to prepare their learners thoroughly for this activity as there was no second chance to improve marks. This is a formal activity with marks allocated here being recorded for continuous assessment. The researcher considered observing the lesson prior to the assessment activity to see how educators were preparing their learners for this formal assessment task. Educators were expected to guide learners on how to make a choice of text, how to prepare for reading and even explain the criteria that would be considered during assessment.

The second observation aimed at displaying how assessment of reading activity was carried out, and also assessing of reading. There was an assessment tool, in the form of a rubric that was used to assess learners as they read aloud (Annexure H).

The rubric consists of five different criteria. Each criteria is allocated marks based on levels and codes. Level seven, which is outstanding achievement ranges between 80 and 100%. It is followed by meritorious achievement, level six, ranging between 70 and 79%. Then comes substantial achievement, level five which ranges between 60 and 69%. Adequate achievement, level four ranges between 50 and 59%, and moderate achievement, level three which ranges between 40 and 49%. The last two levels raise a concern, that is, learners who are rated there need support. It is elementary achievement, level two which ranges between 30 and 39%, and the last level, not achieved or level one between 0 and 29%. Table 4.6 gives a summary of how achievements are categorised.

Description of achievement	Percentage	Level
Outstanding	80 - 100	7
Meritorious	70 – 79	6
Substantial	60 – 69	5
Adequate	50 – 59	4
Moderate	40 – 49	3
Elementary	30 – 39	2
Not achieved	0 – 29	1

**Table 4.6 Description of achievement levels**

This is in short what was observed from the four lessons prior to the reading aloud assessment activity. On guiding learners with choice of text, two educators (50%), were silent about this. Another educator (25%), decided to use a novel that was prescribed for the grade as a set-work. The book was not yet covered in class. Learners had the freedom of choosing pages from which they would be reading. The last educator (25%), ordered learners to look for a text with a specified number of words. They were further instructed to make two copies of the text, one for the reader and the one for the assessor.

On explaining assessment criteria as they appear in the rubric, there was an educator (25%), who gave each of his learners a rubric which outlined all the assessment criteria. Learners were made aware that this was a tool that was going

to be used to score them during assessment. There was no further explanation. The other three educators (75%), did not supply learners with a rubric, but a basic summary of what was expected. In giving the summary, one educator emphasised reading skills of fluency, pronunciation, expressive reading and eye-contact, while the other one emphasised voice projection, understanding what is read, being dramatic when reading and answering questions properly. The last educator remained silent on the issue of the rubric and did not explain how marks would be scored. In all lessons, there was no demonstration of reading or rehearsal done in class. The researcher was expecting to see practical activity going on before implementation of the final assessment.

There were learners who brought their own texts that they were going to read. The assessor had the same copy of the text which helped as she was assessing readers. The assessment rubric used for reading aloud in EFAL, grades 10-12 was used. It consisted of five criteria that were to be assessed in determining the reading ability of learners. Other learners read from their set-work books. The first criterion that was used when reading was done is that of comprehension, or rather, reading with understanding. Marks that were allocated to learners indicated that learners read well. Six learners (50%), obtained outstanding marks (between 80 and 100%), while the remaining six learners (50%), obtained meritorious achievement (70 to 79%). This implied that there was no problem with this criterion. Figure 4.14 gives a summary of learners' comprehension during the reading aloud activity.

4.14 READING ALOUD ACTIVITY: COMPREHENSION
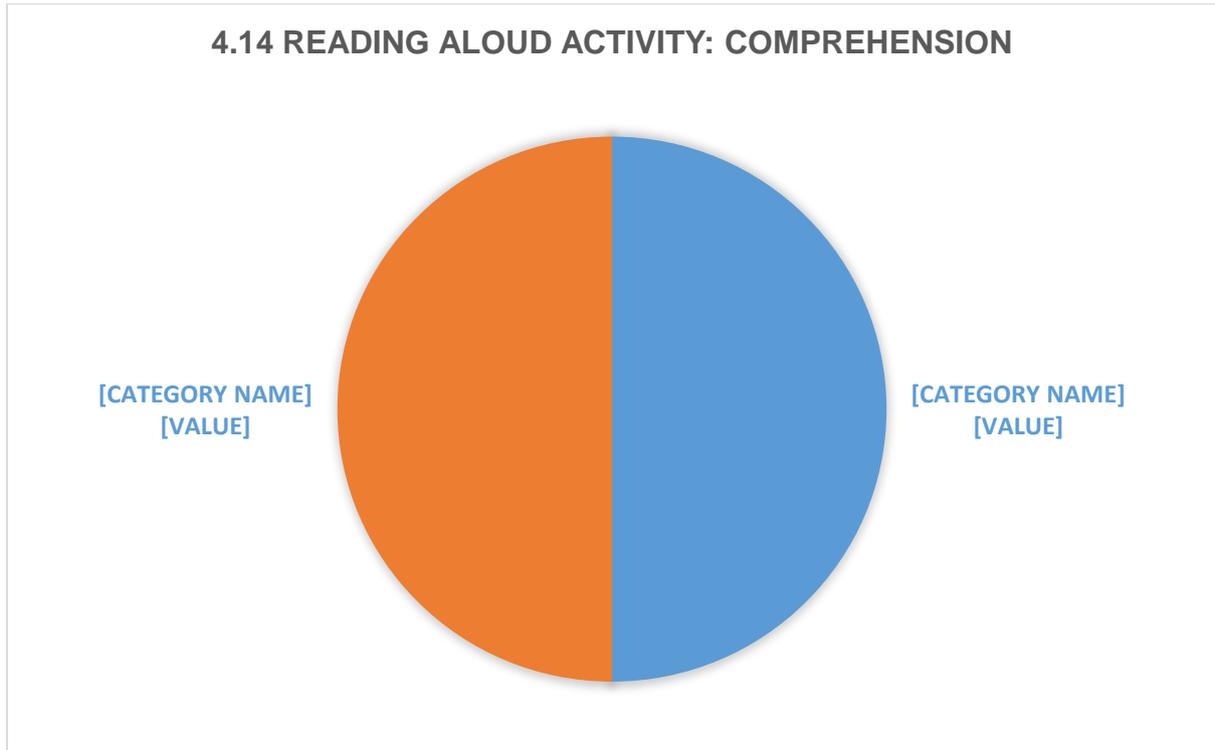
The second criterion was on the use of voice and mastery of reading skills. Reading skills here were fluent, entertaining reading, voice projection and diction which enhances meaning, and expressive reading that conveys atmosphere or feelings. For this criterion, three learners (25%), obtained outstanding achievement (between 80 and 100%), eight learners (66, 7%), obtained meritorious achievement (between 70 and 79%), and the last learner (8, 3%), obtained substantial level (between 60 and 69%). This also shows that this criterion was well mastered. Table 4.15 gives a summary of these results.

FIGURE 4.15 USE OF VOICE AND MASTERY OF READING SKILLS
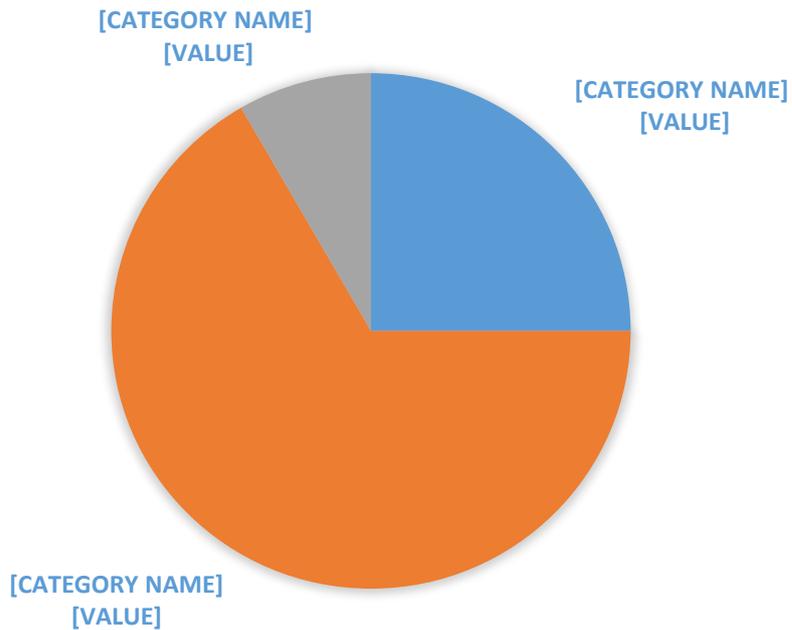
There was a criterion on the use of gestures, body language and facial expression. Here readers were assessed on their ability to maintain eye contact with audience as they read, their use of gestures, facial expressions and body language. One learner (8,3%), showed outstanding performance (80-100%), four learners (33,3%), had meritorious achievement (70-79%), five (41,7%), substantial achievement (60-69%), and the last two learners (16,7%), had adequate achievement (50-59%). It could be concluded that generally learners performed well in this criterion. Figure 4.16 shows the summary of results in the use of gestures, body language and facial expression when the reading aloud activity was executed.

**FIGURE 4.16 USE OF GESTURES, BODY LANGUAGE AND FACIAL EXPRESSION**
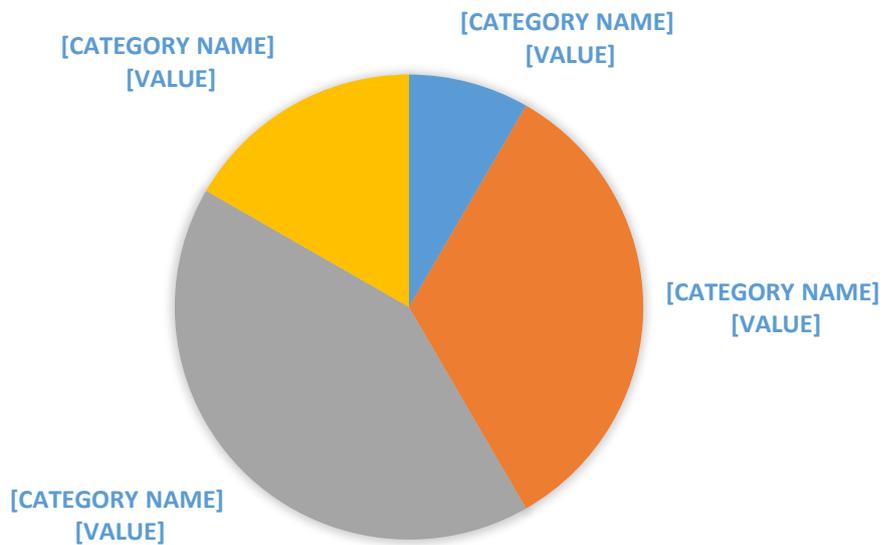
After learners had finished reading there were some questions that were asked by the audience. Each learner was asked questions based on the text they read. It was here that three learners (25%), gave outstanding answers (80-100%). Five learners (41,7%), had meritorious achievement (70-79%), three learners (25%), had substantial achievement (60-69%), and the last learner (8,3%), had elementary achievement (30-39%). Among learners who had meritorious achievement, there was a learner who switched from English to Sepedi as she answered, but the answers provided were all correct. The last learner, on elementary achievement was only confident as he answered, but most of the questions were not correctly answered.

FIGURE 4.17 RESPONSE TO QUESTIONS ASKED BY AUDIENCE
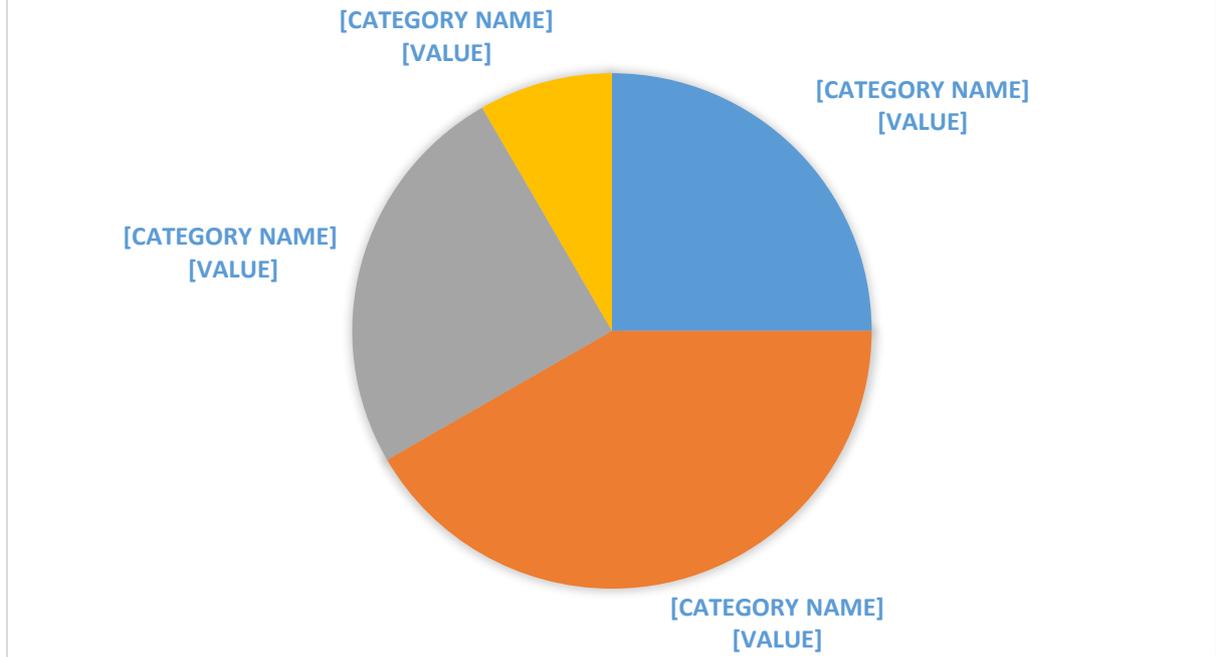
The last criterion looked at was on choice of text and preparation. According to the assessment rubric, the text is expected to be outstanding or interesting, and have impact on the audience while the reader should show thorough preparation of the text. For this criterion, five learners (41,7%), showed outstanding performance (80-100%), six learners (50%), had meritorious achievement (70-79%), and the last learner (8,3%), showed moderate achievement (40-49%). Performance on this criterion can also be rated as satisfactory. Figure 4.18 shows results based on choice of text and preparation.

FIGURE 4.18 CHOICE OF TEXT AND PREPARATION

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]

[CATEGORY NAME]
[VALUE]
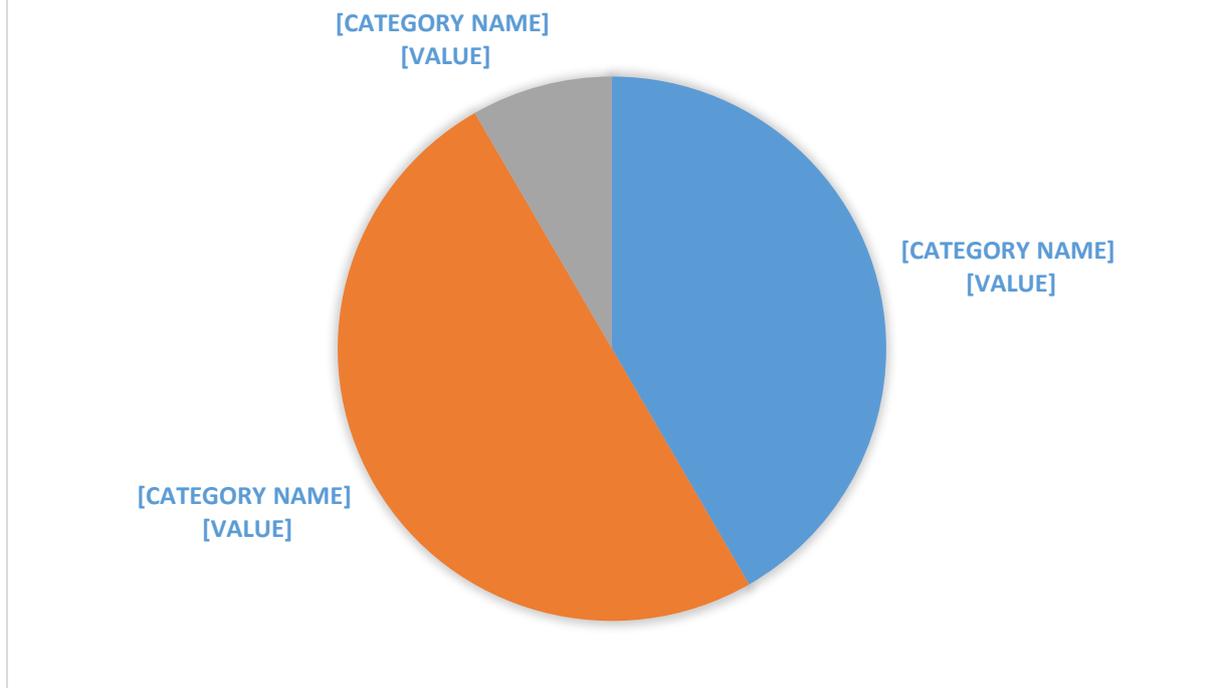
4.2.12 Discussion of findings from observations

According to the rubric used to assess the reading aloud activity, there were marks allocated for choice of text. It was noted that there was only one educator who guided her learners on the choice of text, emphasising the theme around which the text should be based and the number of words, or rather length of the text. So allocation of marks on that criterion can be regarded as fair as learners were made aware of what was expected from them. The second educator made a choice for the learners. Learners were to read from a novel that was prescribed for the grade but not yet read in class. The researcher assumed that this could be due to the fact that there was scarcity of reading material, and educators knew that learners were going to encounter a challenge of getting their own reading materials. Learners of the last two educators also used some set-work books that were given to the class. On the choice of text criterion, the first educator could confidently allocate marks for that, knowing that learners made their choice of text independently, and adhered to guidelines that were given regarding choice of text. Learners from other classes obtained more marks with the help of educators, as they were told where to get their texts from.

The researcher was again expecting to hear educators explaining to their learners how marks would be allocated as they were reading aloud. For this, the rubric had to be explained thoroughly to the learners including how marks would be scored. Two educators touched on various criteria that needed to be considered when reading was done. The last educator supplied learners with a rubric which stated all criteria that would be assessed when reading was done. There was no attempt to explain to the learners these criteria, and as a result the researcher did not assume that learners would go through the rubric on their own. It was possible that some might read the rubric and some might not bother to read it. The last educator did not bother to give learners a hint on what was expected from them as they were reading aloud. This could impact on the marks that learners obtained in this activity. The way in which educators handled this aspect was grossly inadequate. The researcher was expecting more from educators, as already stated, as there was only one summative assessment for this activity per annum which contributed towards continuous assessment marks.

This was followed by observation of reading aloud. The focus here now shifted from educators to the learners. Learners were assessed as they were reading aloud. Reading results provided indicated that learners read well and could easily respond to the questions asked. This shows mastery of reading skills and even reading with understanding. Most of the criteria stated in the rubric were met as they were reading. This is an indication that learners rehearsed their texts, and also had an understanding of what they were reading about. It could be said that from learners who were sampled in the reading aloud activity, reading efficiency of learners in grade ten was developed.

4.2.13 Document analysis: findings

Policy documents of various curricula that were implemented in South Africa during the period under review were examined with the intention of determining the manner in which reading in English was taught. Again the issue of time that was allocated to the reading activity was examined. This was done as a way of addressing the first objective of this study, which is to identify the relevant reading skills in C2005, NCS and CAPS, and to determine the time allocated to reading in the past and present curricula. During the apartheid curriculum, the Nated 550 method of teaching reading in grade ten was not specified. Educators would focus on certain criteria during

assessment, which would determine if the learners were able to read or not. Reading with understanding, which was manifested by the way the reader responded to questions posed, reading with fluency and proper decoding of words were basically what was assessed.

C2005, as already explained in chapter two (cf 2.5.1), blurred boundaries between school subjects. School curriculum was rooted in the everyday life of the child. Emphasis was thus put on attaining outcomes stated rather than considering performance in the individual subject. This curriculum further aimed at empowering learners to succeed in real life after leaving school. In their analysis of this curriculum, Schlebusch and Thobedi (2004:35) stated that one of the main aims of teaching the English language, for example, was to develop communicative competence. This implied the ability to linguistically apply the language correctly in authentic situations. The language skills considered important to implement task-based activities were writing, listening, reading and speaking. Even though the aim of teaching language was stated, implementation of this curriculum was a challenge. It was loaded with jargon which confused implementers. They spent most of their time trying to unpack and understand what was required from them. Educators, on the other hand, had to find a way of linking learners' everyday knowledge with conceptual knowledge. No specific method or procedures were stated on teaching reading. Time that should be spent on this activity was also not stated. As a result of this confusion, C2005 was short-lived, to be replaced by National Curriculum Statement (NCS).

As stated previously in chapter two (cf 2.5.2), NCS continued blurring subject boundaries with knowledge integrating theory, skills and values. Subjects were viewed as dynamic, always responding to new and diverse knowledge that had traditionally been excluded from the formal curriculum. They were further defined in terms of Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs), not by its body of content. Just as in OBE, subjects described knowledge, skills and values that learners should acquire by the end of Further Education and Training (FET) band. LOs were statements of intended results of learning and teaching while ASs described what a learner should know and be able to demonstrate at a specific grade (Department of Education, 2003:6-7). ASs gave a clearer indication of what was to be achieved than the range statements or performance indicators in OBE.

They also showed progression across grades which was completely absent in C2005 (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:162,164).

By looking into the language EFAL, NCS took into account the linguistic and cultural diversity of South Africa, and aimed at enabling citizens to communicate across language barriers while fostering cultural and linguistic respect and understanding. Learning of FAL aimed at promoting multilingualism and intercultural communication. LOs provided for levels of language proficiency that meet the threshold levels necessary for effective learning across the curriculum, as learners may learn through the medium of their FAL. This included the abstract cognitive academic language skills required for thinking and learning. While Home Language (HL) put emphasis on developing learners' skills of reading and writing, and Second Additional Language (SAL) emphasised development on skills of listening and speaking, FAL put equal emphasis on all four skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing. Language teaching in FET band, therefore, aimed at broadening and deepening of language competencies developed in lower grades, which would be visible in the appropriate use of language in different situations for various purposes (Department of Education, 2003:9-11). This curriculum also was not clear with the way in which reading should be taught, the clause '…aimed at broadening and deepening of language competencies developed in lower grades…' seemed too general. So educators would use their own discretion on how to teach and assess reading, and even allocate time for reading activity. It could also be said that teaching of reading was emphasised in lower grades where learners were taught to decode words, than in higher grades where learners were to be taught reading for learning purposes.

The way learners comprehend what they read can be taken as a performance indicator, indicating whether the reading lesson was successful or not. This is what Burns, Roe and Ross (1996:14) meant: learners learn to read so that later in life they can read to learn. The value attached to teaching of reading is recognised by Du Toit, Hesse and Orr (1995:3) who stated, "To be an achiever as a student, it is necessary to become a competent reader. There is no doubt that reading competence is closely linked to academic success." Reading is considered to be a means by which further learning takes place.

The introduction of the National Benchmark Tests (NBT) commissioned by the Higher Education South Africa (HESA) in 2005, with the purpose of assessing entry level academic literacy and school level exit results (National Benchmark Test, 2012:1; Addinall, 2011:1), and the noticed drop in quality of education led to the need to revise the NCS. NBTs were conducted following the introduction of the new National Senior Certificate (NSC) which was written for the first time in 2008 (National Benchmark Test, 2012:1).

Realising the existence of gaps and flaws in the NCS, the Minister of Basic Education, Angie Motshekga, introduced another curriculum, National Curriculum Statement for Grades R-12, also known as Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). CAPS did not only build on the previous curriculum, but also updated it by aiming to provide clearer specification of what is to be taught and learned on a term-by-term basis. NCS had identified different levels of language teaching, that is, home language (HL), first additional language (FAL) and second additional language (SAL). It further stated the skills that different language levels focused on. Learning Outcomes and Assessment Standards were stated as a way of clarifying knowledge that was to be imparted to learners. CAPS expatiated more on different language levels (cf 2.5.3). As this study is on FAL, the focal point will be on EFAL.

One of the aims of learning additional language has been stated as enabling learners to:

- use their additional language as a means of creative and critical thinking: for expressing their opinions on ethical issues and values; for interacting critically with a wide range of texts; for challenging the perspectives, values and power relations embedded in texts; and for reading texts for various purposes, such as enjoyment, research and critique.

(Department of Basic Education, 2011a:9)

In the policy document of CAPS, reading is addressed in detail. The value of reading is acknowledged hence the intensive specification of activities that are to be executed during the teaching of reading. Teaching of reading skills is regarded as a process; hence the use of reading steps. It is again a three-phase activity which

models independent reading strategies for decoding and understanding the text. Learners are expected to learn and apply strategies for decoding and understanding texts, and learn and apply knowledge of text features.

As already stated in chapter two (cf 2.5.3), the teaching of reading has three steps which are pre-reading, reading and post-reading. It is in the pre-reading step that educators implement all strategies to prepare learners for reading. To activate their prior knowledge and help them make sense of the text, learners are encouraged to make predictions about the text based on the title. This step is in line with schema theory of reading, which describes the process by which readers combine their own background knowledge with information in a text to comprehend that text. Schema theory emphasises the role of background knowledge in language comprehension and explains how readers retrieve or construct meaning from their own pre-existing knowledge and past experience. New information, concepts and ideas can only have meaning when they can be related to something already known by the individual (Kant, in UK essays, 2014).

Pre-reading is followed by the second activity, which is reading. Reading then implies making meaning of the text and paying close attention to its language features. It involves close reading of the text supported by educator's questions and development strategies. It is in this step that learners have to answer questions about meaning of the text; consider how word choice, use of language, imagery and others affect the meaning of the text. They will also be expected to use comprehension strategies such as inference. The last activity is post-reading which enables learners to view and respond to the text as a whole. At this stage learners view and assess the text. They are expected to answer questions based on the text from lower order to higher order. They will then synthesise, that is, pull together ideas in the text, summarise ideas, compare and contrast different aspects of the text, evaluate the text, draw conclusions, and express their own opinions (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:13-14).

It is interesting to realise how the policy document on CAPS gives a clear guideline on how reading should be taught, taking educators step by step through activities that should be done, and even showing the importance of following various steps in this process. With the teaching of reading addressed in this manner, it would be

expected that learners who are taught reading through this method, or under CAPS curriculum would have much better results, not only in EFAL, but also in other subjects. Learners' reading development and efficiency can then be assessed against the stage development theory of reading. In order to cope with academic responsibilities, learners in grade ten should be in the fourth stage of reading.

As stated earlier in Chapter Two (cf 2.7.2), stage development theory of reading (Chall, 1983) indicates that learners in grade ten are in the fourth stage of reading, which is multiple viewpoints. At this stage learners are expected to deal with more than one point of view. Learners are expected to attend to layers of facts and concepts added to those acquired earlier. Other viewpoints can be acquired from knowledge learned earlier through formal education in the form of assignments and through reference in the physical, biological and social sciences. Chall (1983) and Camine, Silbert, Keme'enul & Tarver (2004) go on to explain that when learners are dealing with more than one set of facts, various theories and multiple viewpoints, they get practice in acquiring ever-more-difficult concepts and in learning how to acquire new concepts and new points of view through reading.

CAPS further elaborates on content that should be taught and learned in the process of reading. It identifies three different focuses on reading. As stated earlier, learners first practise intensive reading of short texts for comprehension, note-taking, summary and critical language awareness. Texts are drawn from a wide range of written and visual sources and may include extracts from novels, short stories, articles, adverts, graphs, cartoons, photographs and film clips. The second focus is on the study of setworks. Attention is given to aesthetic and cultural qualities of texts such as plays, poems, films, novels and short stories. Setwork study allow learners to engage creatively with important cultural and aesthetic texts, and to explore their own reality through this engagement. Setwork study introduces learners to the meta-language or rather, technical terms used in literary criticism, for example, plot, character, long shot. Meta-language enables learners to explore their understanding of the text more deeply and should not be learned for its own sake.

 It is again expected that learners should be involved in extensive reading of a variety of written and visual texts. They should know how to access the classroom, school or public libraries and films and the internet, if and where available. Educators

should guide learners in selecting texts for the right level which are interesting and accessible (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:14). The content that has been selected for intensive reading helps to enhance learners' level of comprehension. Setworks are, on the other hand, studied to arouse cultural and aesthetic interest in learners, while extensive reading helps to restore the culture of reading among learners.

The analysis of curricula that were practised in South African education system, and the history of teaching and learning of English language indicate that although teaching of English started on a good note, there was a period when educators faced challenges in schools. Hartshorne (1992) and Booyse, Le Roux, Seroto and Wolhuter (2011) looked into the quality of education in the South African education system. From what they stated in the literature review (cf 2.4.3), it is evident that between 1910 and 1948 academic standards were good and, as African languages were not yet recognised fully for matriculation purposes, learners in secondary schools, especially grades eleven and twelve had to take English A (mother tongue level) to satisfy the requirements laid down. During this period, with competent and committed educators, learners who survived the stringent requirements and went on to Fort Hare or one of the English medium universities and were able to compete comfortably with their white compatriots (Hartshorne, 1992:63).

Although it cannot be traced how educators then approached the teaching of reading, the products that English medium universities received is an indication of the quality of learners that were produced by secondary schools. This reveals that reading that was taught not only addressed decoding but also comprehension for the learners' academic benefit.

When the National Party took over from the South African Party after 1948, cracks were noted in the quality of education. The situation was aggravated in 1953 with the introduction of Bantu education, which was used to further the political interest of the ruling party which was to consolidate a policy of separate development. The quality of education was affected amongst others, by the quality of educators employed in secondary schools. Some had no professional qualifications, while others were trained as primary school educators. Only 36.8% of secondary school educators had suitable minimum qualifications for the work they were doing (Booyse et al, 2011).

On average there were not sufficient graduate educators to provide one per secondary school. Better qualified educators were young and inexperienced. Due to their higher qualifications, many of the graduate educators were placed in promotion positions for which they did not have experience or maturity of judgement, and this at a time when the pressure on educators was almost unbearable (Booyse et al, 2011:78).

When the policy of separate development came into effect with its challenges to the education system, the teaching of English was not an exception. The quality dropped along with the syllabus of the time. Again here, although there was no clear indication of how reading was taught and learned, it could be concluded that learners who were produced by underqualified educators in overcrowded classes experienced challenges on their academic route. The students uprisings of 1976 which was fuelled by the government's attempt to enforce bilingual education (English and Afrikaans), on top of inferior Bantu education, was an antagonistic response given to the government by dissatisfied black learners. They were against the government's plan that compromised the goal of secondary education at the expense of furthering its political desires.

Nated 550 was a curriculum that was practised at that time. It was characterised by, amongst others, underqualified educators, lack of learner teacher support material, overcrowded classes, curriculum differentiated according to population groups of the country (inferior education received by black learners), with an emphasis put on rote learning. When democracy dawned in South Africa, the new government had the task of amending all the flaws of apartheid government, including revision of the curriculum. C2005 was tasked with redressing malpractices of Nated 550. When C2005 became too complicated and found not to be user-friendly by implementers, NCS was introduced. Although it tried to address most of the flaws, it was found to have some flaws too, hence the introduction of CAPS.

The policy document on CAPS addresses the teaching of reading in a better way as compared to previous curricula; stating content clearly, which has to be taught, and giving guidelines on methods that can be used to teach reading. Time, which should be used to teach different activities of EFAL is also indicated. The pace setters which come along with policy documents, go further to distribute activities within the

contact time, as a way of guiding educators on time management in their classes. Table 4.7 gives a brief history of what happened in the South African education system with regard to the teaching of reading in English.

Government	Curriculum	Reading content (English)	Subject Level	State of results
South African Party	Not named	Not stated	English Home Language	Excellent
National Party	Bantu Education	Not stated	English High Grade/ Standard Grade	Results dropped
National Party	Nated 550	Not stated	English High Grade/ Standard Grade	Results dropped
Democratic government	C2005	Not specified	English HL, FAL, SAL	Results dropped
Democratic government	NCS	Learning Outcomes – no specific content	English HL, FAL, SAL	Results dropped
Democratic government	CAPS	Content specified	English HL, FAL, SAL	Still under surveillance

Table 4.7 Brief history of English teaching in South African education system

4.2.14 Discussion of findings from document analysis

The discussion of results stated here is derived from the policy documents of various curricula that were practised in South Africa, and also information that was gathered through the literature review. The teaching and learning of reading was tracked throughout these curricula, the manner in which reading was to be taught, content that had to be taught and the time that was allocated to this activity. This was done to address the second objective of this study, which is based on identifying learners' reading skills and determining whether they are able to attain the required skills at the end of the specified period. These documents also helped in excavating

information that addressed the first objective of this study, which is to identify relevant reading skills in Curriculum 2005, National Curriculum Statement and Curriculum and Policy Statement, and to determine time allocated to reading in the past and present curriculum. Over and above, this information helped in addressing the main aim of this study.

Documents, unlike other sources of information are very important as they provided information that addressed the aim and all objectives of this study. The other tools of research addressed only a specific objective, although, when used together they were able to gather important information that was used to answer the research questions.

Table 4.7 indicates that the drop in the quality of education, especially in the literacy level, is not a problem that can be attached to the government of national unity, or rather, democratic government of South Africa. History shows that this malice can be traced back to the period of the National Party government, when the Bantu Education Act was passed in 1953. The government represented by South African Party was marked by excellent results, when black learners were doing English as a Home Language, and could compete comfortably with their counterparts at English universities. Although the finer details about the teaching of reading cannot be traced, the results show that educators then, and even the curriculum, had a better way of addressing reading.

Table 4.7 also justifies the student uprisings of 1976 (National Party period), when their grievance stemmed from the inferior education they received through Bantu education. It was during the period of democratic government that the government acknowledged openly that there was a problem with the system of education and tried to address it. The attempt to redress the situation was characterised by trial-and-error throughout various curricula, which went on to impact on the quality of education. With the newly introduced curriculum, CAPS, which seems to have taken everything into consideration (content, method and time factor), an expectation will be to see improvement not only in the quality of reading in EFAL, but even in the quality of education.

4.3 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

This chapter presented and analysed the primary and secondary data which were collected with a purpose of addressing different objectives of this study. Quantitative data, collected from learners through questionnaires and DAT K reading test were presented and analysed using SPSS. This statistical package was also used to analyse educators' questionnaires. As this study followed a mixed methods approach, parallel data analysis was given preference. Then qualitative data gathered from educators and learners, and from documents were presented and analysed. Instruments used to collect qualitative data were interviews conducted with learners and educators and observation of reading lessons. Secondary data was collected from documents, that is, policy documents of different curricula that were practised in South Africa (CAPS, NCS and CAPS). Different steps were followed to present and analyse data from documents. All data that was presented was linked to the three objectives of this study.

The different instruments that were used to gather data for this study, that is, quantitative and qualitative displayed some similar results. There were times when results obtained through quantitative and qualitative instruments differed. Through triangulation, the researcher compared many sources of evidence, in this case data gathered through quantitative and qualitative instruments in order to determine the accuracy of phenomenon. The findings in this chapter helped the researcher to work on recommendations in the next chapter and also offer suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The aim of this study as discussed in Chapter One, was to investigate the effect of the curriculum change process on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten. The literature study in Chapter Two outlined what reading entails, and delineated an intense study of curriculum and curriculum change and the impact it has on the country's education system, in particular, on the implementers. This was followed by empirical research design, wherein, target population, research sample, research instruments and data analysis were stated. Triangulation was also included. The collected data was presented, analysed and interpreted in Chapter Four. Findings from data gathered through literature review, questionnaires, standardised reading test, interviews, observations and document study were also summarised in Chapter Four. In this last chapter of the study, the researcher gives an overview of the study, followed by conclusions drawn from the findings and results. Chapter Five presents the researcher's conclusions on the research study, recommendations and areas for further research.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study as stated above and the research problem as stated in Chapter One (cf 1.2) served as the researcher's point of departure in this study. To attain the research aim, the following objectives needed to be realised:

➤ To identify the relevant reading skills in Curriculum 2005 (C2005), National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) and to determine time allocated for reading in the past and present curricula

➤ To identify the level of reading skills and determine whether learners attain the required reading skills by the end of the period stated in the pace setter

➤ To make recommendations on measures that could be taken to enhance learners reading skills.

➤ To establish the vocabulary and comprehension skills of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten.

Chapter Two outlined a comprehensive literature study to highlight what reading entails and the purpose of teaching and learning reading skills. The teaching and learning of reading in EFAL was studied across different curricula that were practised in the South African education system. Curriculum was also scrutinized in order to have an idea of how it was implemented in schools, all matters surrounding curriculum change, and the impact that curriculum change had on implementers. The study of curriculum and curriculum change was not only focused on the education system of South Africa. To have a broad picture of curriculum change, curriculum as implemented in United States, one of the First World countries, and also in China, a member of BRICS, a developing country, was studied. Challenges that went along with curriculum change were noted and also strategies that were adopted to address these challenges. When the study of various curricula that were practised in South Africa was done, the researcher ensured that she did not lose track of teaching and learning of reading during the period of those curricula. Theories on reading and on curriculum change were carefully selected in order to provide a lens through which this study should be viewed.

The third chapter was devoted to present the research method and design. It laid out a detailed explanation of how the research aim and objectives informed the selection of the research strategy, which is a mixed methods approach. Methods of data collection, which were both qualitative and quantitative were used in a parallel manner, and data processing techniques observed both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Finally, because of the scientific nature of this study, and as demanded by social sciences research, ethical measures were observed.

The data that was gathered through the literature study, the policy documents and the empirical data gathered from educators and learners who were selected to be participants in this study, was presented in Chapter Four. After analysis and interpretation was done, findings from data were summarised. This was done to address the aim and objectives of this study. Chapter Five, the last chapter, presents the researcher's conclusions on the research study, recommendations and areas for further research.

5.3 OBJECTIVES ACHIEVED

In this concluding chapter, it is proper for the researcher to recap on the objectives of the study as stated in Chapter One and indicate whether the objectives were achieved or not. Each of the four objectives are looked at vis-à-vis the literature study in Chapter Two and/ or empirical research findings and results as presented in Chapter Four.

5.3.1 Objective one

The first objective, which was intended to help in achieving the aim of this study, was to identify the relevant reading skills in Curriculum 2005 (C2005), National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) and to determine time allocated to reading in the past and present curricula. The study of literature was intensively done to distinguish the reading skills that were targeted in the different curricula of South African education system.

It was previously indicated in Chapter Two (cf 2.5.1) that C2005 outlined the aim of teaching language, as to develop communicative competence. Sixty-six specific outcomes dealing with desirable knowledge, skills and values for learning, which were to be achieved at the end of a phase (three years) were stated. It was the responsibility of the educator to organise the content per grade. As this curriculum was inaccessible due to complex language, or rather, jargon which confused implementers, and the lengthy period (phase) after which the skills were to be assessed; it was not easy for educators to identify and even assess the skills. They spent most of their time trying to unpack and even understand what was required from them. This also affected the teaching of conceptual knowledge which was ultimately submerged in everyday knowledge, to the advantage of well-resourced educators and schools rather than educators in poor schools. The curriculum policy document was also silent on how time should be allocated for the teaching and learning of different language skills, and also methods and procedures of teaching reading.

In the succeeding curriculum, NCS, the scope and purpose of learning in Languages were consolidated in four Learning Outcomes (LOs), which, though listed separately, were to be integrated when taught and assessed. LOs were identified as Listening and Speaking (LO1), Reading and Viewing (LO2), Writing and Presenting (LO3), and

Language (LO4). LOs comprised Assessment Standards (ASs), content and context of study. Reading and Viewing (LO2) reflected four Assessment Standards (ASs) which described expectations from the learner at the end of a learning period. The ASs, as stated in Chapter Two (cf 2.5.2) are:

Learners were expected to be able to

- demonstrate various reading and viewing strategies for comprehension and appreciation,
- explain the meaning of a wide range of written, visual, audio-visual texts,
- recognize how language and images may reflect and shape values and attitudes, and
- explore the key features of texts and explain how they contribute to meaning

(Department of Education, 2003:22-28)

To add to ASs, competence descriptors were also stated, but varied according to scales of achievement. Competence descriptors for reading and viewing were that, by the end of grade ten learners were expected to be able to interpret, analyse and explain texts effectively and confidently when reading and viewing; demonstrate good insight and clearly assert and justify own opinions; show sensitivity to a range of different views and cultural issues (Department of Education, 2003:60). Assessment Guidelines only specified tasks that were to be carried out as formal assessment activities. Educators were at liberty to use their own discretion on time allocation when they taught different knowledge and skills.

The recent curriculum, CAPS, state clearly the aim of learning an additional language. It is expected that by grade ten, learners should be confident, independent readers in their FAL, selecting texts for their own interests and tastes. In approaching this skill, educators should first assess learners' reading comprehension in order to plan teaching accordingly. Teaching of reading skills is regarded as a process; hence the use of reading steps. It is again a three-phase activity which models independent reading strategies for decoding and understanding the text. Learners are expected to learn and apply strategies for decoding and understanding texts, and learn and apply knowledge of text features. There is also a guideline on time allocated to activities in language teaching and learning. In addition to suggested time stipulated, there are also pace setters which state specifically activities that

should be done in the forty weeks of an academic year. They also include assessment activities.

The study of literature also referred to stage development theory of reading (Chall, 1983) which focuses on explaining the process of reading, laying out different stages of reading. This theory illustrates that there was a similar path that most learners follow as they read. Five stages of reading development were identifiable, of which grade ten learners are in the fourth one, called multiple viewpoints. Learners at this stage must deal with more than one point of view. This stage essentially involves the ability to deal with layers of facts and concepts added to those acquired earlier. This stage is acquired through formal education, that is, the assignments in various school textbooks, original and other sources, and through reference works in the physical, biological and social sciences. The reading of more mature fiction and through the free reading of books, newspapers and magazines also help in acquiring viewpoints.

Empirical data from educators' interviews, as stated in Chapter Four, distinguished the fact that skills that were to be taught in reading were not easily identifiable in C2005 as a result of the confusing jargon that was used. The confusion overlapped to NCS where focus of heads of department in schools was on educators' lesson preparations rather than on what was executed in classes. They were also interested in results of formal assessment activities. As educators could not easily identify reading skills, they used their own discretion regarding what to assess. In CAPS, there are criteria that are stated in the assessment rubric for reading. Even the three steps in the process of teaching and learning reading give clear guidance on what needs to be done in each step.

During the observation of a reading lesson in progress (cf 4.2.11), the researcher realised that the rubric that was used to assess readers consisted of five criteria, which served as a guideline for assessment. The criteria were on choice of text and preparation, comprehension, use of voice and mastery of reading skills, use of gestures, body language and facial expression, and response to questions posed by audience. All the data gathered around this objective indicated that it was in the last curriculum, that reading was given the necessary attention. CAPS addressed all the misunderstandings and confusions that were encountered in the other curricula.

Reading skills are clearly stated and also time that has been allocated for reading and viewing criterion is clearly visible in the forty week academic period.

Concerning time that was allocated to reading, this is what documents say. C2005 and NCS had their focus on the outcomes, not on single tasks that were to be carried out in the classroom. C2005 concentrated on outcomes of a specific phase. There was no clear indication of contact time allocated for reading activity. Decision on how, what and when to teach reading was left in the hands of educators. CAPS is the only curriculum that comes clear with this. In CAPS, four out of nine hours in the time allocation as per two week cycle, that is, 45% of contact time has been allocated to reading and viewing. The other three sections of EFAL teaching, which are listening and speaking, writing and presenting, language structures and conventions, share the remaining 55% of contact time (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:17). In conclusion, it can be said that data gathered through literature review in the second chapter of this study enabled the researcher to deal with this first objective in a successful manner.

5.3.2 Objective two

The second objective of this study aimed at identifying the level of reading skills in grade ten and determining whether learners attain the required reading skills by the end of the period stated in the pace setter. Various instruments were used to gather data for this objective. There was self-report from learners through questionnaires and interviews to state their opinions on their level of reading. The same instruments were used to extract similar data from the educators. A formal assessment task in the form of standardised reading test, Differential Aptitude Test Form K with subtests vocabulary and comprehension (DAT K) was administered to all grade ten learners. The results of this test were intended to build on the data already gathered through the first instruments. Observation of reading lessons also solidified data gathered through DAT K. While DAT K assessment focused on silent reading, which was revealing the learners' ability to understand material being read, observations of reading aloud lessons alluded not only learners' ability to understand material being read but also their art of decoding. All these covered the current curriculum, CAPS.

There was an intense study of policy documents of different curricula, and the study of literature which helped in guiding the expected level of learners' reading skills.

C2005 referred to sixty-six specific outcomes, and some performance indicators. All that were stated in the outcomes and performance indicators were hidden behind jargon that was used, and educators were unable to access that. NCS used Learning Outcomes (LOs) and competence descriptors as guidelines. Competence descriptors for reading and viewing were that, by the end of grade ten learners were expected to be able to interpret, analyse and explain texts effectively and confidently when reading and viewing; demonstrate good insight and clearly assert and justify own opinions; show sensitivity to a range of different views and cultural issues (Department of Education, 2003:60).

Data for CAPS was also gathered from policy documents, educators, learners' self-report and the assessment activity of silent reading in DAT K test and reading aloud that was observed. Educators indicated that most of the learners were able to read, while there were others who still needed assistance. Self-report by learners concurred with what was said by educators. The results of DAT K test helped in exposing areas of challenge in reading. There are learners who are underdeveloped in the reading skill of comprehension, and those whose vocabulary bank still needed to be expanded. Not much can be said about the level of reading in C2005 and NCS, as the report by educators showed that there was confusion even among educators, who were at times not really sure of what was expected from them. All what they could say was that reading was not taught, it was only assessed for the purpose of obtaining marks that were required as part of formal assessment task. However, 75% of educator respondents agreed that the reading level was much better during Nated 550, the apartheid curriculum under which they schooled and during the time they started teaching.

What can be said in short about this objective is that, most educators were happy with the level of reading during Nated 550. When C2005 was introduced, confusion was the order of the day as educators could not access the curriculum that was hidden behind the jargon that was used. With no plan for teaching of reading, no specified content to be taught and the educators as facilitators who had their point of departure as the level of learners, the level of reading skills dropped. All the efforts of Nated 550, the preceding curriculum, diminished. The NCS, which was trying to uncover what was expected from educators was short-lived. It can be said that during the NCS period, improvement on the level of reading was noticed. This,

according to the respondents, was basically due to the fact that a little content was added, in the form of themes, to what they had to do in class. Educators, who had been 'lost' facilitators in the previous curriculum (C2005), regained their confidence as educators. This curriculum was short-lived! In spite of the short period of implementation, educators' responses forecasted improvement on the reading level of learners. They observed that there was fire that was already being kindled in the teaching of reading during the NCS period.

A few years after the inception of CAPS, the results were as follows; the reading level of most learners cluttered around average performance, with a few above average level (developed in reading) and more below average level (under-developed in reading). Learners performed better in skills of decoding, as reflected in the observations, than in reading for comprehension activity, displayed by results of DAT K test. All these indicate that not all learners attain required reading skills by the end of period that is stated in the pace setter. The second objective of this study was successfully satisfied.

5.3.3 Objective three

The third objective aimed at making recommendations on measures that could be considered to enhance learners reading skills. The recommendations mentioned here were those that were given by the educators and the learners, as per data gathered through questionnaires and interviews. Responses to educators' questionnaires uncovered the fact that learners did not have resource materials to enable them to have regular practices of reading. Their recommendation here was that measures should be taken to see to it that learners should have sufficient reading material. Libraries and computer laboratories should be erected in schools. Again, as there are some learners who do not receive reading support at home, mentors can be organised for such learners from a pool of educators who are available at school. Finally, since reading has been detected to be a problem for learners, it was advanced that most of the contact time in language teaching should be used for teaching reading.

There were some questions in the interview that were focused towards this objective. Here educators suggested that some of the methods that were used during Nated 550 curriculum could still be used now to boost the learners' level of reading. They

showed how memory lessons were preparing learners' minds to grasp information as they read. They further indicated that modern methods that put emphasis on team or group work encouraged the spirit of laziness among some learners. Learners relax knowing that marks obtained for that specific activity that was done in a group will be allocated equally to all group members not considering who contributed most in the activity or who contributed less. Educators even highlighted the fact that lack of material resources encouraged learners to rely on other learners who were fortunate to access such material. The problem was that those learners do not engage with the material towards getting the right answers, they would merely rewrite what had been written by their fellow learners without understanding how those learners arrived at such answers. They then encounter problems during summative assessment. The recommendation here reiterated that point of establishing libraries and computer laboratories at schools, so that all learners can have the opportunity to access material resources. Another comment emanated from the old methods of teaching, which stated that reading competitions and debates should be brought back in schools. This will not only help in enhancing reading skills, but all skills that are relevant for the first additional language. Finally, it was recommended that methods of teaching reading which were used in lower grades should be revisited. Learners' recommendations were the same as those of their educators. What could be added is the fact that learners esteemed the importance of extra lessons as the contact time was not enough for them to grasp whatever they were taught.

This third objective intended to gather all suggestions that were made by educators and learners to help in enhancing learners reading skills. In short, that included a combination of selected methods of teaching reading that were used in the previous curricula and the recent one, revisiting methods of teaching reading in the lower classes, bringing back reading competitions and debates to boost individualism in learning which seem to be submerged by group work, try to get material resources to help learners read frequently, and lastly organise extra lessons for the learners. This objective was met.

5.3.4 Objective four

This was the last objective which was intended to help in attaining the aim of this study as stated previously. The objective sought to establish the vocabulary and

comprehension skills of EFAL learners in grade ten. This emanated from the literature review, which reflected that learners' level of vocabulary is an aspect that affects reading comprehension. Hart (2014) indicated that learners who possess expansive vocabulary are more likely to understand textual writing, and are less likely to be confused or frustrated. Knowledge of words is imperative if one has to read with understanding (cf 2.6.5).

Mohamad (1999) on the other hand, has shown the importance of comprehension in the reading process. His explanation of reading comprehension starts by identifying three main levels of comprehension which are literal, interpretive and critical comprehension. Level one, which is literal comprehension, involves surface meaning, and is also appropriate to test vocabulary. In the second level, known as interpretive or referential comprehension, learners go beyond what is said and read for deeper meanings. Their ability to read critically and analyse carefully what they have read is tested. In the last level, which is critical reading, ideas and information are evaluated. Critical evaluation occurs after learners have understood ideas and information that the writer has presented (cf 2.6.3). Further, the role of background knowledge in language as advocated by Schema theory cannot be underestimated. Literature review has indicated that this background knowledge which emanates from past experience is contributing towards the comprehension of the text (cf 2.7.1).

The instrument that was used to gather data for this objective was standardized reading test, Differential Aptitude Test Form K (DAT K). The test comprised two subtests, Vocabulary and Reading comprehension. Learners were engaged in silent reading, after which they were expected to answer questions. The purpose of conducting DAT K was to find out about the concepts that learners have in their vocabulary bank, and assess their comprehension level as they were busy with silent reading. The results of this test helped to address the fourth objective of this study which is to establish the vocabulary and comprehension skills of EFAL learners in grade ten.

The results of DAT K Vocabulary indicated that out of one-hundred-and-eight learners who wrote the test, the score of fifty-eight learners was on average, twenty above average, and thirty below average. In other words, the thirty learners were underdeveloped in terms of vocabulary. As it was stated in Chapter Four, without an

average command of standard vocabulary as highlighted in schema theory (Bartlett, 1932), the reading of these learners might fall behind and in turn affect their academic progress (cf 4.2.6). The scores of DAT K Comprehension indicated that sixty-two learners were on average, six above average, and forty below average (cf 4.2.5). Learners on average (62) indicated that their comprehension was developing well and could help these learners deal with academic demands. The number of learners who were below average (40), that is, underdeveloped or weak was a call for concern. Only six learners were above average, and their comprehension level could help them deal with academic demands (cf 4.2.6). In conclusion it can be said that the results of DAT K helped in attaining the fourth objective of this study.

5.4 BRIEF REVIEW AND CONCLUSIONS

After the researcher selected suitable data to address different objectives of this study, there was still valuable data that could not be left unused. That data was carefully analysed and ultimately used towards the achievement of the aim of this study as stated in the introductory paragraph. During the literature survey and the empirical investigation, there were important themes and topics that emerged, and were discussed in chapters two and four. Those themes and topics are briefly reviewed and integrated with theories.

- Curriculum change goes along with challenges
- The significance of reading efficiency and the impact it has on academic responsibilities
- Curriculum development models that influenced South African curriculum
- Language teaching in rural schools
- Contact time allocated for reading activity
- Reading efficiency of grade ten learners
- Other factors that affect reading achievement

5.4.1 Curriculum change goes along with challenges

The literature survey highlighted the fact that curriculum change went along with challenges, which displayed far-reaching implications. In as much as it is necessary that at certain stages curriculum has to be reviewed, in most cases it becomes difficult for the consumers to adjust to a new curriculum. As already stated in chapter

two, curriculum change in New Zealand was challenged by staff turnover, and staff who had taught for many years being apathetic and at times resistant to change. At times there was no intense professional development that built deep understanding of curriculum theory and practice, and as a result, schools were defaulting to traditional practice dressed up as a new curriculum. In Hong Kong, educators' heavy workloads and their inadequate understanding of the reform were identified as challenges. A recap of the three major curriculum change processes that were fully discussed in chapter two is presented to enable the researcher to present the conclusion of this study and recommendations.

The study of curriculum change process in the education system of China was conducted as a way of determining how developing countries were responding to the change. From this literature, it became clear to the researcher that although the new curriculum, called *Suzhi jiaoyu* was introduced in China to reduce learners' excessive workload which was impacting negatively on their psychological well-being, the cultural attitude and the issue of educator remuneration (based on the subject the educator was offering and the results obtained) remained stumbling blocks to the acceptance of this curriculum by most Chinese people. They believed in the motto that goes as follows: "Chinese learning for fundamental principles, Western learning for use," which was coined in the 1860s when people called for adoption of Western learning to strengthen China's superior civilisation. It was again noted how the people kept clinging to their old curriculum, despite the positive effect that this new curriculum had on the well-being of learners. Xiwai International School and others were cited as icons of curriculum change, even known to be shining schools who blended western education, which is learner-centred and the eastern education that is examination-centred. The cultural attitude that prevailed among the Chinese could not be out-rooted. In these schools, classroom teaching moved from simple inculcation of knowledge to 'come alive' where learners obtained knowledge through reading, exploration, reflection, observation, manipulation, questioning and creating. The fact that hierarchical and highly centralised series of government of examinations were the stepping stones to official status and power encouraged them to maintain status quo, resisting the change. They criticized discovery learning that was recommended by new curriculum for prioritising social life while denying acquiring knowledge and retaining knowledge paradigm.

What is highlighted with the teaching of languages is the fact that even though there was resistance to acceptance and implementation of new curriculum, the Chinese wanted to maintain high quality of language teaching in their schools. The cultural attitude that demanded rigorous, academic and examination-oriented curriculum focused even on the teaching of classical essays as one of the subjects taught to learners. Educators retained former methods of teaching when offering languages. They offered good content for teaching reading. Classical texts were believed to be full of flair and potentially inspiring to readers. Therefore educators and officials were encouraged to come up with fresh ideas of helping learners to find joy in reading old-age pieces of writings. All these show that reading received more attention to an extent that educators were not willing to compromise their efforts for education that prioritised social life; as the learner-centred curriculum was perceived. They wanted to retain their good results by continuing to teach in a traditional way.

The researcher went on to study curriculum change in the United States (US) to determine the manner in which the First World Countries were responding to curriculum change. From this study it was realised that US curriculum change stemmed out from the political demands that affected the country at that particular time. Americans wanted to redress some situations through curriculum. There was curriculum change after the World War II, and another one during Cold War when Post-Sputnik curriculum was introduced to counter the Russian space race. Not much is said about language teaching in US education system, hence nothing is said about developing reading skills. Less has even been said about the challenges that were encountered. Focus was on the study of maths and science for the purpose of political dominance of the whole world.

The literature study has also outlined how, in South Africa, change in curricula did not go without hiccups. There were challenges that were encountered, which were mostly felt by curriculum consumers. What was observed from the document study is the fact that curricula with outcomes-based approach, that is, Curriculum 2005 (C2005) and the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) were superficial about the content that should be taught and learned, and even the method that should be used to deliver that content. Educators became confused by many outcomes. There were general outcomes that were derived from the constitution of the country, critical outcomes that were to guide teaching and learning, and specific outcomes which

were to be achieved at the end of the phase (after three years). It was not easy for educators in C2005 to extract exactly what was to be taught to learners to attain the outcomes that were stated. NCS, on the other hand, tried to address flaws in C2005 by indicating progression across the grades, and also defining subjects in terms of Learning Outcomes (LOs) and Assessment Standards (ASs) and not by body of content. It was when educators were trying to gain their foothold in exactly what they had to teach in reading that new curriculum, CAPS was introduced. There was deterioration in the teaching and learning of EFAL reading in C2005. In NCS reading became better as there was content hold-on in the form of themes. Educators were regaining their confidence as educators again, no longer facilitators. Although it cannot be said reading efficiency this time was commendable, there was an improvement as compared to the previous curriculum. Other activities that were given to learners as continuous assessment helped the learners in progressing to the next grade. The last and current curriculum, CAPS, was well-documented with content, method and time that was allocated specifically for reading.

The literature study has also pointed out that when a new curriculum is introduced, it is important to consider the fact that curriculum that is to be introduced is standardized, addressing the needs it is expected to address. Models have been developed around approaches to curriculum development as stated in chapter two (cf 2.7). Tyler introduced a four-step approach to curriculum development, being (a) the school's or country's aims and objectives – which should be clear with educational purpose, (b) content that should be taught to achieve these objectives, (c) how teaching should be organised - the schools should plan how they will deliver learning experience, and (d) how to determine whether purposes are being attained – coming clear on how learning will be assessed and teaching evaluated (Hoadley & Jansen, 2012:56-57).

What has been learned is the fact that phases of and approaches to curriculum change, as advocated by Carl (2012) were not given full attention. The phases of and approaches to curriculum change show the importance of preparing the field before new curriculum can be introduced. Phases of curriculum change include (a) curriculum design, which states the content that has to be included, how it should be presented, and the way it should be evaluated. The curriculum design is followed by (b) curriculum dissemination which involves creating a climate for envisaged change

and preparing all users for that. This can also be looked at as the empowerment process, where the attitudes of future consumers are prepared for new curriculum through distribution of information. The last step in the phases of curriculum change is (c) curriculum implementation. Here, the empowered educators apply appropriate skills and knowledge they have developed.

5.4.2 The significance of reading efficiency and the impact it has on academic responsibilities

Language is an important feature in all societies. It is the vehicle through which the society inculcates its values, culture, tradition, knowledge and skills to its young ones. In South Africa, the literature review (cf 2.4.3) has indicated how language was used by the indigenous population, though orally, to transmit the values, culture, tradition, knowledge and skills to its children. This was followed by a colonial period where there was a formal way of schooling. Focus was on teaching reading and writing of Dutch and French. Then the succeeding governments of the South African Party and the National Party marked a shift from Dutch and French as languages studied, to English and Afrikaans as official languages. The value of the skill of reading has been displayed in chapter two, as a means through which learners can access knowledge. It was stated that learners are taught to read so that in future they can read to learn not only the language but even to learn sciences, mathematics, social studies, literature and all other subjects (Burns, Roe & Ross, 1996:14). For learners who could not attain reading competency, learning become a problem.

5.4.3 Curriculum development models that influenced South African curricula

It is a fact that knowledge should be organised into curriculum so that it can formally be transmitted to learners. The study of literature has displayed several curriculum development models that aimed at organising knowledge into curriculum. The competence model of Basil Bernstein, the British sociologist, and the performance model caught the researcher's attention. In the competence model, knowledge was not imported from outside but was drawn on competence that learners already have, while the performance model had its focus on developing high level of understanding, often in particular subjects. Although Michael Young, one of the main theorists in the world regarding curriculum change upheld the idea of powerful

knowledge that can be equated to performance model, there were subjects that were classified under competence approach while others were classified under performance approach. The South African curricula were assessed against these models, to see the one that yielded best results in the teaching and learning of reading in EFAL.

From what has been stated in the literature study, one can conclude that Nated 550 was founded on the performance model, where content that was to be mastered was clearly outlined. Educators who were interviewed were satisfied with the products they received from this curricula, stating that although there was no specific lessons on reading, learners were so motivated to master reading. Reading competitions that were held across different schools and the methods of teaching that were used then, helped in developing the reading skills, and even in improving learners' performance. Despite these good practices that are applauded, Hartshorne (1992) reflected on some flaws that were noticed. They include the colonial background that promoted great respect for academic achievement, and an insistence on academic standards, which over-emphasised and over-depended on examinations, certificates and diplomas based on them. Secondary education was perceived as authoritarian, educator-dominated, content-oriented, and knowledge-based. While the educators were happy with the way learners were taught and even the results yielded, the literature reviewed and the government of South Africa did not have the same opinion as educators hence curriculum reform was introduced.

The second curriculum, C2005 was based on the competence approach, which drew knowledge from competence learners already have. A brief review of how this curriculum is associated with curriculum development models, follows. Despite good intentions that this curriculum had, that is, developing a democratic spirit where learners were encouraged to work together in group discussions and even shifting from rote learning that was targeted at passing of examinations, there was the flaw in progression of learners to the next level. Progression was determined in terms of phases rather than grades. This made it difficult for educators to determine the time that was needed to develop the reading skills in English FAL, and the areas or content that needed attention. The educators were not really happy with the results they obtained from this curriculum. Progression of learners was based on sixty-six Specific Outcomes (SOs) that were to be achieved at the end of a phase. The

outcomes, specified in Assessment Criteria and Performance Indicators were highly inaccessible to educators due to the complex language. Further, time allocation was not stipulated according to skills or content, but was limited to contact time.

With content not clearly specified, and outcomes not clearly stated in grades, it became difficult for educators to determine what to teach and how to assess. Educators agreed that not much was done in the classrooms to improve teaching of reading. Their focus was always on understanding the new curriculum and even on how to apply what they had learned. The educators further stated that it was the period of survival of the fittest. The drop in the efficiency of reading could be justified as educators were confused, and the workshops they attended did not yield any positive results.

NCS was an attempt to improve weaknesses noticed in C2005. It was, just as C2005 still based on an outcomes approach. The curriculum took a moderate approach towards Bernstein's competence model since the groups that were working on this curriculum were instructed not to reproduce the content-laden prescriptive syllabuses of the past, that is, Nated 550. Rather, they were to specify only the minimum standards per grade, leaving some room for educators to make their own interpretations and decisions about what and how to teach, but ensuring that all learners achieve the same minimum standards. Minimum standards stated a clear indication of what learners had to achieve (Hoadley & Jansen, 2009:162,164). Emphasis was thus put on attaining outcomes stated other than considering performance in an individual subject. There were again Programme Organizers, cutting across eight learning areas, which were identified as central integrating theme, for example, transport; and lessons would be structured around that theme. Minimum standards together with Programme Organizers shed light into the teaching-learning situation, reducing confusion that was amongst educators. Educators reported that teaching was better this time as there was a content hold-on in the form of a theme. Although reading efficiency was not commendable, educators were able to claim back their positions not as facilitators but as educators they used to be. Learners progressed basically on the combined efforts from different subjects.

The last of these curricula is CAPS. This curriculum is in line with what Michael Young calls powerful knowledge, attained at school. It is also a good example of the

performance model advocated by Basil Bernstein. Focus of the performance model, as stated in chapter two, is on developing a high level of understanding, and often in particular subjects. On the issue of content, it is almost similar to Nated 550 curriculum. CAPS, as stated earlier, does not only build on NCS, but also updates it and aims to provide clearer specifications of what is to be taught and learned on a term-by-term basis. While NCS aimed at developing a high level of knowledge and skills in learners, and even specifying minimum standards of knowledge and skills to be achieved at each grade, CAPS, on the other hand, built on what actually needed to be done at different levels of languages. Aims of learning additional languages in CAPS, have been identified, amongst others, as enabling learners to use their additional language for academic learning across the curriculum, and even preparing them to use their additional language to access and manage information for learning across the curriculum and in a wide range of other contexts.

Not much has been done yet in literature to evaluate how this new curriculum is faring. A comment by Prof McKay, Acting Dean of Education at UNISA, after the first results of CAPS were released (2014 matric results) was that a drop in the 2014 pass rate could be attributed to curriculum changes. She went on further to state that because CAPS specified content, the workload was higher compared to Outcomes Based Education (OBE) which depended on the educators' interpretation of the Learning Outcomes. She also stated how poor performance in English impacted on other subjects (News 24, 2015). However, from the educators' side, they seemed happy with the new curriculum. They stated that educators were reinstated as educators not as facilitators. Most of the educators indicated that on paper CAPS was a good curriculum and should it be implemented correctly, it would produce good results. They were further impressed by the manner in which reading is addressed in the CAPS policy document, taking it step by step through the pre-reading, reading and post-reading processes. They indicated that the main concern were learners who lacked self-motivation.

5.4.4 Language teaching in rural schools

The literature survey (cf 2.7.3.4) has indicated how subjects have been classified as weak and as strong, resulting from what Michael Young referred to as specialised knowledge. Hoadley and Jansen (2012:95) defined weakly classified subjects as

subjects which do not have many special terms or specialist language that must be understood in order to understand the subject, for example, life orientation while strongly classified subjects are those with clear boundaries that distinguishes them from other subjects. These are subjects like mathematics, history and science. The researcher has noted from her experience as an educator that languages, in particular, English, are treated as weakly classified subjects. In rural schools where they encounter staff shortages, English is allocated to underqualified educators.

With regard to classifying subjects as weak and strong, which encourages 'looking down' on subjects, the Department of Education should take the responsibility for practising justice at schools by seeing to it that subjects are allocated to relevant educators, where possible. Educators who find themselves teaching subjects in which they are underqualified should be developed and be given the necessary support.

5.4.5 The contact time allocated for reading activities

Just as in Nated 550, C2005 and NCS did not state specifically what was to be done during a reading lesson. As the two curricula (C2005 and NCS) had their focus on the outcomes, there was no clear indication of contact time allocated for this activity. Decision on how, what and when to teach reading was left in the hands of educators. CAPS is the only curriculum that is clear about time. In CAPS, four out of nine hours as per two week cycle, (that is 45% of contact time) has been allocated to reading and viewing. The other three sections of EFAL teaching, which are listening and speaking, writing and presenting, language structures and conventions, share the remaining 55% of the contact time (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:17).

In the literature study (cf 2.3.1) where different types of curricula have been outlined and the impact they have on learning of specific skills, the time issue has also been hinted on. The overt curriculum, also called official curriculum was defined in terms of subjects that will be taught, the identified mission of the school, and knowledge and skills that the school expects successful students to acquire. It was further identified in terms of time on task, contact hours, or Carnegie units (high school credit courses), and qualified in terms of specific, observable, measurable learning objectives (Ebert II, Ebert & Bently, 2011:3).

Despite the above factors being stated as basics to include in a curriculum policy document, there are times when curriculum designers and/ or educators decide on what to include or what to leave out based on a number of different factors, being it either a pervasive or unexamined motive. It was also reflected that the same criteria for inclusion may apply to those who write the curriculum. Marsh and Willis (2003) showed how these choices are sending messages to learners that certain content and processes are not important enough to study. In congruence with Eisner (1994:103), Marsh & Willis (2003) referred to this as null curriculum, whereby, that which is not taught at schools, pass to learners the message that those elements are not important in their educational experiences or in their society. Based on all these, the researcher realised that lack of time on task or contact hours for reading activity in C2005 and NCS could have sent the same message not only to learners, but to educators as well, who in turn disregarded the teaching of reading.

Educators' responses during interviews also touched on the lack of contact hours specified for reading. They indicated that reading was not taught, but was only assessed in order to get marks that were required as part of assessment activities or continuous assessment. All educators interviewed had taught in all the curricula stated above, and had experienced the teaching of reading then and now.

5.4.6 Reading efficiency of grade ten learners

Before stating whether learners in grade ten are doing well in reading or not, the researcher had to identify their expected level of reading. Several literature visited gave a synopsis of what is expected from grade ten learners. Although not all curriculum policy documents outline that, in some documents, one can deduce what can be regarded as competence descriptors. Department of Education (2003:9-11) in chapter two has already stated the aim of learning First Additional Language (FAL) as the promotion of multilingualism and intercultural communication, considering the linguistic and cultural diversity of South Africa. The policy document of NCS, on the competence descriptors for reading and viewing, declared that by the end of grade ten learners are expected to be able to interpret, analyse and explain texts effectively and confidently when reading and viewing; demonstrate good insight and clearly assert and justify own opinions; show sensitivity to a range of different views and cultural issues (Department of Education, 2003:60).

CAPS on the other hand, stated that FAL is used for the purpose of thinking and reasoning, thus enabling learners to develop their cognitive academic skills needed to study other subjects. It is expected that learners in grade ten should be reasonably proficient in their FAL, with regard to both interpersonal and cognitive academic skills (Department of Basic Education, 2011a:7-9). Competence descriptors of reading and viewing in CAPS are; learners should be able to use their additional language for academic learning across the curriculum, and again use their additional language to access and manage information for learning across the curriculum and in a wide range of other contexts.

The study of literature has revealed what stage development theory of reading (Chall, 1983) says about learners in grade ten. They are in the fourth stage of reading development, known as the multiple viewpoints. This stage caters for learners who are aged between fourteen and eighteen years. It is expected that these learners must be able to deal with more than one point of view. This stage is acquired through formal education, that is, the assignments in various school textbooks, original and other sources, and through reference works in the physical, biological and social sciences. The advice was that reading of more mature fiction and through the free reading of books, newspapers and magazines learners can acquire viewpoints. Learners at this stage get practice in acquiring ever-more-difficult concepts and in learning how to acquire new concepts and new points of view through reading (Chall, 1983; Camine, Silbert, Keme'enul, & Tarver, 2004).

After the policy documents and literature review displayed competence descriptors of EFAL learners in grade ten, it became important to determine whether the reading efficiency of participants under study was in line with what was expected. Data collected through observation focused on the skill of decoding and understanding the passage that was read. All learners performed well except for one, and it can be concluded that reading skills have been mastered by the learners. The learners' responses from questionnaires on their level of understanding as they read indicated that most learners are confident about their level of understanding. More leaners declared they were good while a few indicated they struggled to understand. The interviews with learners revealed that the comprehension level of most learners was good, a few being on average, and more learners stating they are poor. There is a slight difference between interview findings and what has been reported in

questionnaire responses. There was finally standardised reading test, DAT K that was administered to all learners, constituted by sub-test on comprehension and the other one on vocabulary. Most learners, both in comprehension and in vocabulary, were on average performance. There were few learners in the good and very good category, while some learners were in the poor and very poor categories. These results of the standardised test indicate that although most learners were on average performance, there are more learners who are underdeveloped in their reading skills.

In short, there was a difference in performance between what was reported by the learners and the results from the standardised reading test, DAT K. Questionnaire results indicated that most learners could read with understanding, more were good, while there were a few who stated that they were struggling to comprehend what they read. Interview responses agreed that most learners were good or could read well, but a few reported that they were on average, while more learners stated that they were poor. There was a very small number who were really struggling and classified in the category of very poor. On the other hand, half the number of educators indicated, through the interview responses, that they were happy with their learners' level of reading, while the other half indicated that their learners had partially attained the reading skills.

5.4.7 Other factors that affect reading achievement

It has also been noted that besides curriculum change there are other factors that affect the reading ability of learners. The literature study highlighted factors such as short attention span (Coles, 2010), life experiences and learners' level of vocabulary (Hart, 2014), reading activity at home and physical factors (Rowe, 2012), and the technological devices (eNotes, 2009).

Coles mentioned that short attention span, also known as focused attention span would severely cramp the learners' ability to understand what they were reading. As they read, being not able to follow along with each word, they would eventually drift off the topic and reading interest would also diminish.

Hart (2014), on the other hand, showed how the background knowledge, or life experiences impact on reading comprehension. The implication is that learners who have many life experiences that they can draw upon from their memory bank, or with sound background knowledge to link what they already know to the text, may be

more apt to follow along with a given reading selection. Hart (2014) again touched on how learners' level of vocabulary affect their reading comprehension. It is stated that learners who possess expansive vocabulary are more likely to understand textual writing, and are less likely to be confused or frustrated. Knowledge of words is imperative if one has to read with understanding. The more learners are able to connect the written work to something personal, the more apt they are to fully understand, and the more insatiable their thirst for reading will become.

Rowe (2012:1-3) additionally highlighted how reading activity at home, regardless of the family status, has significant positive influences on measures of learners' reading achievement, attitude towards reading, and classroom attentiveness. A child who grows up in a home where reading is supported, viewed as important, and where reading material is available may often develop stronger reading skills as well as love for reading than a child from the opposite environment. A child who does not see adults and siblings at home valuing reading may disparage reading as something to be endured rather than enjoyed. What Rowe (2012) declares is not only limited to a home situation. It goes beyond that to cover the whole community. Most families in rural areas where this research was conducted, are child-headed or children are living with the elderly. As an educator in such schools, the researcher has realised that most families in those communities do not prioritise education. Some parents and guardians do not even bother to know what is happening to their children at school. They will not avail themselves to parents meetings and consultation meetings called at school. Learners from such backgrounds do not see the value of studying and reading in particular. Furthermore, academic guidance, language models, levels of family literacy, parental participation and aspirations for the child are some of specific processes operating within the home that are more directly related to the learner's achievement.

Rowe (2012) presented again the physical factors that may impact on reading with comprehension. They included native intelligence, eyesight, neural processing, and prior knowledge. Reading was defined as a complex combination of skills, where the human brain had to act like a computer. Data is taken in via the eyes or fingers in case of Braille, processed within the brain, interpreted and become information. Coordination in the whole process is important for readers to comprehend what they are reading. Lack of coordination might result in lack of comprehension. An example

of elementary schools was cited where there are cases whereby a learner can decode well enough to read a passage aloud, but cannot restate what has been read in order to demonstrate that it was actually comprehended.

 It is also believed that technological devices such as televisions and computers, as stated in eNotes (2009) have affected learners' concentration power. It becomes difficult for them to stay in one place and read. The reasons that were stated were that television was much easier to watch than to actually take the time to read the whole book. Moreover, plays that people used to read are presented in television as movies or soap operas. Most people prefer to watch rather than reading.

As learners reported on the factors that affect their reading ability, television was on top of the list, followed by chatting over cell phones, then home chores, coming fourth was spending time with friends, and lastly a few learners indicated that they were spending most of their time on sporting activities.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS ON IMPORTANT FINDINGS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of curriculum change process on the reading ability of EFAL learners in grade ten. Although the basic focus of recommendations is on the objectives of this study, it is also important to counsel on other related aspects that emerged during data analysis which can help to improve learners' level of reading. The following recommendations are based on the three objectives of this study and the seven themes that emerged during data analysis:

5.5.1 Recommendations on objectives of this study

The first objective of identifying relevant reading skills and determining time allocated for teaching reading was met, and the suggestions based on findings are that curriculum consumers, in particular educators and subject specialists should at all times keep their subject policy documents at hand to make sure that their efforts are geared towards achieving the learning outcomes as required.

The second objective aimed at identifying level of reading skills and determining whether the learners attain those skills by the end of the stated period. As findings and results have indicated that most of the learners were on average performance in this skill, with more learners in the underdeveloped bracket and a few in the developed category, there is a need to push learners who are falling behind from

underdeveloped bracket to a better one. Various means of enhancing learners' vocabulary and comprehension as mentioned under the third objective can help to enable those learners to attain the required reading skills.

The third objective was intended to gather measures that could be taken to enhance learners' reading skills. This objective was achieved as educators and learners recommended that reading material should be made available to learners to enable them to practise reading regularly. Educators should assume the responsibility of being mentors to provide support to the learners in need, while extra classes should also be given attention. Learners should also be advised on how to use technical devices to boost their vocabulary and comprehension.

The fourth objective was intended to establish the vocabulary and comprehension skills of learners. The objective was achieved as these were established. Learners, more especially those who are weak or underdeveloped, could benefit out of availability of reading material and efforts by educators to go an extra mile in assisting and supporting these learners.

The recommendations that follow are based on the themes that emerged during data analysis:

5.5.2 Curriculum change goes along with challenges

Findings in research indicated that the challenges that are going along with curriculum change affect not only the curriculum consumers but the quality of education as well. Educators are unable to teach what is supposed to be taught because of lack of proper orientation and training in the new curriculum or resistance to change. On the other hand, the time that was wasted on trial and error in the application of new curriculum caused damage to the quality of education. Based on that, the researcher urges that curriculum change should not be introduced overnight. It should be treated as a process. The state should come clear with the aim of education in the country. Curriculum designers should then come up with the way knowledge should be organised into curriculum, that is, curriculum development model based on the feasibility study and environmental scanning of the country. This is vital as South Africa is a multicultural country with population groups differing in economic status and settlement areas. Then the new curriculum can be drafted,

which, after public comment, can be piloted in different sampled schools. Curriculum design measures, curriculum dissemination (preparing and empowering utilizers), and curriculum implementation (applying appropriate curriculum skills and knowledge) as stated by Carl (2012) should also be observed.

From the educators' responses, the researcher noted that there were some good trends that were practised in some curricula that could have been retained even in the new curriculum for the benefit of the learners. Nated 550 used memory lessons and recitations which helped learners' minds to grasp the content. It is therefore advised that when curriculum is replaced, the good practices in the outgoing curriculum should be retained.

5.5.3 The significance of reading efficiency

Realising the value of language and the significance it has both in society and in the education system, it is important that learners be prepared to be able to access every information that would lead to gaining of knowledge. Reading is considered one of the basic skills for learners to access what Michael Young, one of the leading theorists in the world regarding curriculum change, refers to as powerful knowledge.

To ensure that the reading process is developed as stated in Chall's stage development theory of reading (Chall, 1983), the researcher recommends that reading should be intensified from the early stages of learning, that is, foundation phase. Just as Annual National Assessment (ANA) has been the government's attempt to assess literacy and numeracy level of learners, assessment programmes should be introduced at the exit point of each phase, Foundation, Junior, Senior/ General and Education Training (GET), and Further Education and Training (FET), to secure consistent assessment. What is important is the fact that the government should have a way of acting on results that are obtained to help the learners who struggle to read. There should be programmes to support these learners. Much as the programmes are developed for grade twelve learners, which are implemented during school holidays either at schools or in camps, programmes designed for struggling readers can be treated as such. Curtis and Longo (2010:1) cited an example of a reading programme created for older struggling readers. The programme noted what failed to develop, what has developed differently, and what still need to be developed (cf 2.7.2). The main purpose was to help the struggling

learners to attain reading efficiency that will help them take their academic responsibilities confidently.

Since the issue of lack of material resources for reading and absence of libraries has been identified as one of the challenges that leads to lack of readability, as stated by both learners and educators, the researcher recommends that language educators, together with management at schools come up with a means of erecting small libraries at schools, so that the spirit of reading should be inculcated in learners. Educators and local people with interest in education can be the first donors of reading material for that library. School management can help in providing classroom which can be used as library while educators who have been trained in library sciences may be asked to help in the daily management of such a library. The government should then take the responsibility of establishing libraries even in rural areas. Learners have even suggested that there should be mentors to help those learners who are struggling in reading. The recommendation here is that educators should officially be given such a responsibility.

Educators have also stated the use of competitions engaged in during Nated 550, as one way that motivated learners to read, so that they should not fall behind their counterparts. Although this may seem to be against democratic principles, which encouraged learners to work together, in group discussions, on assignments, in posing and solving problems, with their strengths and weaknesses being pooled, the researcher advocates that, competitions should not be totally ruled out. They should be used positively to inculcate in learners the spirit of individual hard work that would benefit not only the learner but also the whole group.

5.5.4 Curriculum development models that influence South African curricula

Different models were studied, trying to get the actual models that were used to guide curricula development in South Africa. All the models stated had their pros and cons. What the researcher counsels is that if the existing models cannot give South Africa the desired curriculum, then new models should be developed considering the South African situation/ context. This means an environmental scan, feasibility study and history of curricula development in a country should be used as points of departure.

5.5.5 Language teaching in rural schools

The issue of specialised knowledge, as referred to by Michael Young, went further to classify the subjects as weakly classified subjects and strongly classified subjects. In the literature survey (cf 2.7.3.4) Hoadley and Jansen (2012:95) define weakly classified subjects as subjects which do not have many special terms or specialist language that must be understood in order to understand the subject, for example, life orientation; while strongly classified subjects are those with clear boundaries that distinguishes them from other subjects. These are subjects like mathematics, history and science. From the researcher's experience as an educator in rural secondary schools, it has been noted that weakly classified subjects are not given the necessary attention at schools. In case of schools where they encounter the challenge of staff shortages, these subjects are allocated to underqualified educators. The educators are called underqualified as they did not receive formal training in teaching those subjects. In such cases, subjects like life orientation, languages which include English First Additional Language (EFAL) are the victims. Educators are not competent in teaching those subjects and the support they receive from school management is minimal, if there is any. Besides problems which are curriculum related, one may also question the competency of educators who are teaching those subjects, in this case, English. It is therefore recommended that to ensure that learners receive quality education, all the subjects, weakly classified and strongly classified should be taught by qualified educators. The school management can help in executing this activity.

5.5.6 The contact time allocated for reading activities

It has been noted how the absence of contact time and specific content to be taught caused damage to the reading ability of learners. Realising how things that can be perceived as minor may have a negative effect on teaching and learning of certain knowledge or skills, the researcher therefore recommends that curriculum designers should ensure that the curriculum that is presented for use is full of details, for example, contact time and subject content. The organisation of time in curriculum suggests that we value certain kinds of knowledge and not the other. Repetitive patterns occurring in many school time tables may convey to learners, over a number of years particular way of classifying knowledge and skills as important or

unimportant (cf 2.3.4). For this reason, time should be properly spread to address all the knowledge and skills in English First Additional Language (EFAL). Overlooking the issue of content in the competence approach model of curriculum development has affected the quality of education in South Africa. Content that should be taught and assessment techniques should be stated at all times, as demanded by performance model in curriculum development (cf 5.4.3). Room may be left for implementers to add to what they may deem important for the benefit of learners, and also as a way of displaying their professional compatibility.

5.5.7 Reading efficiency of grade ten learners

The findings from observations indicated that most educators do not prepare their learners thoroughly for reading aloud activity. Despite that oversight, learners performed well in the activity. The recommendation is that educators must execute all that they have to do as instructed by the policy document, in this way they will be in a position to account for the results they get after assessment. This can be done by following all the steps of teaching reading as stated in the recent curriculum, CAPS. Activities in the pre-reading, reading and post-reading stages should be executed to move towards the mastery of reading skill. It was also noticed that some of the educators did not have policy documents at hand to refer to. Their main focus was on assessment. Heads of department at schools should see to it that their departments are organised, and have access to material resources required.

Learners' questionnaire results and interview findings reflected that most learners were happy with their reading efficiency although there were some who indicated that they needed assistance. There were a few who reported to be seriously struggling in reading. Educators' interviews revealed that half of the educators were happy with the reading level of their learners while the other half confirmed that while there were learners who were doing well, there were still learners who needed their attention. The results from these self-reports differed slightly with the ones that were obtained from standardised reading test, DAT K. In the reading test that was assessing vocabulary, fifty-eight out of one-hundred-and-eight learners were on average, meaning their reading was developing well. There were twenty learners who were on strong description, or who were developed, and thirty learners who were weak, that is, under-developed. In the comprehension assessment, sixty-two

learners were on average, developing well, six strong, developed, and forty weak, which is, under-developed.

To act on these results, the researcher recommends that learners' vocabulary should be boosted through exposure to reading material, be it on technological devices or on hard copies in the form of books. Availability of reading material and libraries can help in this regard. This will add to their lifetime experiences and vocabulary, as stated in Schema theory, thus enhancing their reading ability.

5.5.8 Other factors that affect reading achievement

The findings in the literature study indicated that educators alone cannot help the learners to improve their reading. Most people need to join efforts to work on this. The literature study has reflected on issues like short attention span, the physical impairment, background knowledge of the reader, reading activity at home, and the technological devices that cramp concentration power. Educational psychologists and all relevant professionals should be engaged to help in addressing the challenge of short attention span and physical impairment. On the other hand, parents should be made aware of the role they play in the child's development of reading as they give support. They should support the reading activity at home and also buy reading material for their children. With reference to the use of technological devices, learners may be assisted in the use and also manage their time in a correct way. Correctly used, learners can benefit from these devices, in terms of adding to their vocabulary.

In the questionnaire results, learners have reported that most of the time, their reading time is consumed by television, followed by chats on social media, then home chores, friends, and in few times, sporting activities. In this case, the researcher suggests that learners should be taught how to manage their time. They should know that sport is good, refreshing is good but all that should not overlap into the time that should be dedicated to their books. The Chinese curriculum, which kept learners focused on their books most of the time, has shown that hard work pays. Although the new curriculum, *Suzhi Jiaoyu,* wanted to relieve learners, parents and their children were so used to working hard that they believed education systems in other countries could not challenge theirs.

5.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The results of this study were not generalised to rural public schools in Limpopo Province, but limited to schools in the Capricorn District. Further research can therefore be conducted on the same topic but being extended to other rural schools in the different districts in Limpopo Province. The same topic can even be explored among participants who do not learn or teach English in a foreign language learning context, including schools in urban areas and former Model C schools. Another avenue that needs to be researched is the extent to which countries observe phases of, and approaches to curriculum development when the new curriculum is introduced. The researcher even suggests that further study should be done to examine measures that could be taken to help learners progress in line with the reading development stages, as expected.

5.7 SUMMARY OF CHAPTER

The researcher ventured into this study driven by the research objective of identifying the reading skills in Curriculum 2005 (C2005), National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) and to determine time allocated to reading in these curricula. Another objective was that of distinguishing the level of reading skills and determining whether learners attain the required reading skills by the end of the period stated in the pace setter. There was an objective of noting the recommendations that were forwarded by educators and learners regarding the measures that could be taken to enhance the reading skills of learners. The last objective was based on establishing vocabulary and comprehension skills among the learners.

The ultimate aim of this study was to investigate the effect of curriculum change process on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten. In order to achieve this aim, research was conducted to explore the reading ability of grade ten learners, and find out from grade ten EFAL educators who taught in all the stated curricula their opinions about the reading ability of grade ten learners in EFAL, and even their experience of curriculum change process. Literature surveyed revealed the experiences and responses of other countries, that is, United States and China to curriculum change process. Curriculum policy documents outlined how the different curricula were packaged, or rather, the

components of those curricula. What was noted with concern was how, what schools neglected to teach impacted on the value of that knowledge or skill, and even on the kinds of lives the learners led. Here the focus was on the teaching of reading.

There were different theories that were studied, which shed some light on the reading development process and background needed to support learning of reading, and even factors that needed to be considered when the new curriculum was designed and developed. The findings and results obtained from participants and the documents study verified that curriculum change process, although it might be ushering in a good or an inconvenient curriculum in the education system of every country, had its own challenges. In South Africa, the impact was felt even in the subject EFAL, whereby it affected the reading ability of learners.

Mixed methods approach was followed to realise the objectives integral to the research aim. The studied literature, documents, and sampled participants adhered to the qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis method. The results and findings were presented in a thematic form. It can thus be concluded that this is a worthy study because in it, the significance of reading ability was uncovered, and the way in which reading was addressed in different curricula. This study even elucidated the models that should guide curriculum design based on the needs of a country. Finally phases of curriculum development and curriculum development approaches were amplified.

5.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This study explored all avenues of reading, that is, defining and explaining all aspects pertaining to reading, which included the pros and cons of reading ability and reading problem amongst learners. Relevant theories around reading were identified which helped in the understanding of reading process, and the teaching and learning of reading. The same was done with curriculum. The paths that were followed by different countries when curriculum was changed were scrutinized. Challenges and the good practices emanating from new curricula were also noted. Reports were also gathered from educators' experiences as they were teaching reading, and learners' experiences as they were learning to read. The four objectives helped in attaining the aim of this study. Recommendations forwarded in the last chapter of this study highlighted the value of reading ability and the importance of

following the relevant steps when curriculum is changed, or a new curriculum is introduced.

Based on the data gathered, and the findings and recommendations presented, the researcher believes that this study succeeded in meeting its destiny, namely, to add to a body of knowledge. In conclusion, I want to stress the fact that the role which is played by educators in executing curriculum should not be underestimated. It determines the success or failure of curriculum. Preparation of educators for the implementation of the new curriculum, in the form of training or any other way should not be superficial or a once-off activity. There should always be follow-ups and support measures. Progress of learners in the new curriculum should be assessed nationally, thereby drawing attention to common areas of lack that may solicit immediate attention or support from the government.

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LIMPOPO

PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION

Enquiries: Dr. Makola MC, Tel No: 015 290 9448. E-mail: MakolaMC@edu.limpopo.gov.za.

799 ZONE 4
SESHEGO
0742

LIMPOPO PROVINCE

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

2013 -03- 1 5

H.O.D'S OFFICE

PRIVATE BAG X9489 POLOKWANE 0700

Dear Rapetsoa JM

RE: Request for permission to Conduct Research
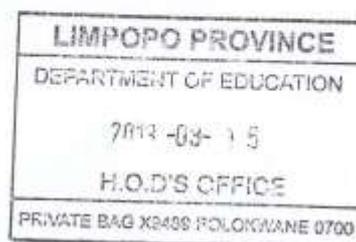
1. The above bears reference.

2. The Department wishes to inform you that your request to conduct a research has been approved- **TITLE: THE EFFECT OF CURRICULUM CHANGE AND ASSOCIATED FACTOR ON THE READING ABILITY OF ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN GRADE TEN.** i.e. Capricorn 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 both the Circuit Offices and the schools concerned.

   3.3 The conduct of research should not anyhow disrupt the academic programs at the schools.

   3.4 The research should not be conducted during the time of Examinations especially the forth term.

   3.5 During the study, the research ethics should be practiced, in particular the principle of voluntary participation (the people involved should be respected).

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

Page 1 of 2

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.

Thamaga MJ

Head of Department

2013/08/15
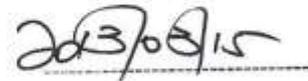
Date

ANNEXURE B

University of Limpopo
Department of Research Administration and Development
Private Bag X1106, Sovenga, 0727, South Africa
Tel: (015) 268 2212, Fax: (015) 268 2306, Email:noko.monene@ul.ac.za

TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS
COMMITTEE CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

MEETING: 06 May 2015

PROJECT NUMBER: TREC/42/2015: PG

PROJECT:

Title: The effect of curriculum change on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in Grade Ten: A case study

Researcher: Ms JM Rapetsoa
Supervisor: Prof RJ Singh
Co-Supervisor: N/A
Department: Language Education
School: Education
Degree: PhD in Education
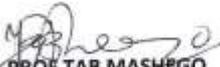
PROF TAB MASHEGO
CHAIRPERSON: TURFLOOP RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE

The Turfloop Research Ethics Committee (TREC) is registered with the National Health Research Ethics Council, Registration Number: REC-0310111-031

Note:
i) Should any departure be contemplated from the research procedure as approved, the researcher(s) must re-submit the protocol to the committee.
ii) The budget for the research will be considered separately from the protocol.
PLEASE QUOTE THE PROTOCOL NUMBER IN ALL ENQUIRIES.

Finding solutions for Africa

LETTER TO CIRCUIT MANAGER: MAUNE CIRCUIT/ MOLETJI CIRCUIT

To the circuit manager

My name is Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa. I am a student at University of Limpopo. I would like to ask for permission to collect data from English educators and learners for my PhD research project. I am interested in investigating the effect of curriculum change on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten. I will not interrupt the normal running of the school. My task if permission is granted would be to interview educators and learners when they are available, and observing. The data collected will be treated with high level of confidentiality. The names of schools, educators and learners will not be used in the analysis of data and the data will be destroyed after six months.

Educators who will be part of the study will benefit from the enlightenment that will arise from the data; hence the investigation will not only benefit me as a researcher. I hope you find sense from the above and grant me the permission to do research.

Do not hesitate to contact me for any correspondents arising from this letter.

Cell: 079 413 6507 or 072 219 3026

Email address: jm.rapetsoa@webmail.co.za

Yours Faithfully

JM Rapetsoa

I _____ as Circuit manager of Maune circuit, Capricorn District in Limpopo Province Department of Education hereby give consent to Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa to be part of her investigation. However the data that will be collected from schools should be used for the research presented to me by Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

MK SATHEKGE PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES
Maite Kate Sathekge (Clinical Psychologist)
Psychology (UNILIM)
Practice number: 086 000 0320986

P. O Box 361
Ramokgopa
0811

Contact numbers: 082 809 6858
015 297 2829 (H)

Kate.sa14@gmail.com

Enquiries : Sathekge M.K

Date : 19 August 2016

To whom it may concern

RE: COLLECTION OF DATA FOR MRS RAPETSOA

This serves to confirm that I administered, scored and interpreted the DAT-K Vocabulary and Comprehension test for research purposes as requested by Mrs. Rapetsoa. I hope you will find this in order and please do not hesitate to contact me should there be any questions or queries pertaining to the contents of this letter.

Thank you

Regards

Maite Kate Sathekge
Pr No. 086 0000320986
STD (Modjadji College) MA (Clin Psych University of Limpopo
CLINICAL PSYCHOLOGIST
CONSULTING ROOMS
87A Hans Van Rensburg Str.
Polokwane 0699
CELL: 082 809 6858
CELL: 079 619 8977
E-mail: rocks@mweb.co.za

POSTAL ADDRESS
PO BOX 361
Ramokgopa 0811
Tel: 015 297 2899 (h)
Fax: 086 648 4895
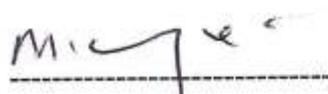
Sathekge M.K
Clinical Psychologist

ANNEXURE E

LETTER TO EDUCATORS

To the educator

My name is Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa. I am a student at University of Limpopo. I would like to ask for permission to collect data from you as an English educator for my PhD research project. I am interested in investigating the effect of curriculum change on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten. I will not interrupt the normal running of the school. My task if permission is granted would be to interview you as an educator when you are available, and observing. The data collected will be treated with high level of confidentiality. The names of schools, educators and learners will not be used in the analysis of data and the data will be destroyed after six months.

Educators who will be part of the study will benefit from the enlightenment that will arise from the data; hence the investigation will not only benefit me as a researcher. I hope you find sense from the above and grant me the permission to do research.

Do not hesitate to contact me for any correspondents arising from this letter.

Cell: 079 413 6507 or 072 219 3026

Email address: jm.rapetsoa@webmail.co.za

Yours Faithfully

JM Rapetsoa

Consent form

I _____ an educator at _____ school hereby give consent to Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa to be part of her investigation. However the data that will be collected from me and my class should be used for the research presented to me by Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

LETTER TO PARENTS/ GUARDIANS

To the parent/ guardian

My name is Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa. I am a student at University of Limpopo. I would like to ask for permission to collect data from your child as an English learner for my PhD research project. I am interested in investigating the effect of curriculum change on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten. I will not interrupt lessons in the normal running of the school. My task if permission is granted would be to interview your child when he/ she is available, and observing. The data collected will be treated with high level of confidentiality. The names of schools, educators and learners will not be used in the analysis of data and the data will be destroyed after six months.

Learners who will be part of the study will benefit from the enlightenment that will arise from the data; hence the investigation will not only benefit me as a researcher. I hope you find sense from the above and grant me the permission to do research.

Do not hesitate to contact me for any correspondents arising from this letter.

Cell: 079 413 6507 or 072 219 3026

Email address: jm.rapetsoa@webmail.co.za

Yours Faithfully

JM Rapetsoa

Consent form

Please indicate whether or not you allow your child to participate in this project by checking the statements below, filling in names and signing it.

I _____ a parent of _____ hereby **give consent** to Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa to work with my child in her investigation on **The effect of curriculum change on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL)**

learners in grade ten. However the data that will be collected from my child should be used for the research presented to me by Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa.

I _____ a parent of _____ hereby **do not** give consent to Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa to work with my child in her investigation on **The effect of curriculum change on the reading ability of English First Additional Language (EFAL) learners in grade ten**. However the data that will be collected from my child should be used for the research presented to me by Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa.

Signature: _____ Date: _____

ANNEXURE G

SEPEDI VERSION OF ANNEXURE F (LETTER TO PARENTS/ GUARDIANS)

Go motswadi/ mohlokomedi

Leina la ka ke Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa. Ke moithuti Unibesithing ya Limpopo. Ke kgopela tumelelo go hwetša ditaba go ngwana wa gago bjalo ka moithuti wa English, Leleme-Tlaleletšo la Pele, go dinyakišišo tšeo ke di dirago dithutong tša ka tša PhD. Ke lebeletše taba ya ka moo go fetolwa ga Lenaneothuto/ kharikhulamo go amilego go kgona go bala ga baithuti ba leleme le kreiting ya lesome. Nka seke ka tsenatsena dithuto le tshepedišo ya sekolo. Ditaba tšeo di kgoboketšwago go tšwa go baithuti di tla hlompša gomme tša felela go monyakišiši le moithuti. Maina a dikolo, barutiši le baithuti a ka se šomišwe ge go dirwa tshekaseko ya tšeo di hweditšwego, gomme mabohlatse ka moka a tla šwalalanywa ge go fetile kgwedi tše tshela.

Baithuti bao ba tsenelago dinyakišišo tše ba tla holega ka ditaba tše dingwe tšeo di ka tšwelelago go dinyakišišo tše. Mošomo wo ga se wa go hola fela monyakišiši. Ke kgolwa gore le tla bona bohlokwa bja se gomme la ntumelela go tšwela pele ka dinyakišišo.

Le se dikadikeng go ikopanya le nna ge le nale moo le gakanegago go:

Nomoro ya sellathekeng: 079 413 6507 goba 072 219 3026

Aterese ya emaile: jm.rapetsoa@webmail.co.za

Ke nna

JM Rapetsoa

Foromo ya Tumelelo

Nna _____ motswadi/ mohlokomedi wa _____ **ke dumelela** Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa go šoma le ngwana wa ka go dinyakišišo ka **Ditlamorago tšeo go fetolwa ga mananeothuto/ kharikhulamo go bilego le tšona bokgoning bja go bala ga baithuti ba kreiti ya lesome polelong ya English leleme-tlaleletšo la pele.** Le ge go le bjalo ditaba tšeo di kgoboketšwago di swanetše go šomišwa fela go morero wa dinyakišišo tše.

Mosaeno   _____   Tšatšikgwedi

_____

Nna _____ motswadi/ mohlokomedi wa _____ **ga ke dumelele** Johannah Mapotlakishe Rapetsoa go šoma le ngwana wa ka go dinyakišišo ka **Ditlamorago tšeo go fetolwa ga mananeothuto/ kharikhulamo go bilego le tšona bokgoning bja go bala ga baithuti ba kreiti ya lesome polelong ya English leleme-tlaleletšo la pele.**

Mosaeno   _____   Tšatšikgwedi

_____

ANNEXURE H

LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

ORAL TASK – PREPARED READING

Marks obtained

....

10×2

$= 20$

ASSESSMENT TASK NO ....   ASSESSMENT DATE ....

NAME OF LEARNER   ....

NAME OF SCHOOL   ....   GRADE................

INSTRUCTIONS

1. You are required to select a passage of approximately 250 words from a novel, short story, folk tale, magazine or newspaper article
2. Choose a passage on someone or something you find interesting.
3. The passage you have chosen must be suitable for your current level/grade. (Please do not choose children's bedtime stories in Grade 12)
4. Practice your prepared reading passage before doing it in class, either with friends or relatives as audience. The audience must be able to give you feedback.
5. Have a copy of the passage (photocopied) for the teacher to follow as you read your own copy.
6. when you read the passage aloud in class please remember the following:
   6.1. stand relaxed – any movement like swaying or rocking will distract your audience.
   6.2. read slowly enough to be clear, but fast

Educator (Print).. Signature.................................Date......................

School Moderator (Print)...Signature................................Date....................

ASSESSMENT RUBRIC FOR READING ALOUD – FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE (GRADE 10 - 12)

LO 1 AND 2	Code 7 (Outstanding) 8-10	Code 6 (Meritorious) 7	Code 5 (Substantial) 6	Code 4 (Adequate) 5	Code 3 (Moderate) 4	Code 2 (Elementary) 3	Code 1 (Not achieved) 0-2
1. Demonstrates an understanding of the text and conveys meaning to the audience	Reader demonstrates an excellent understanding of the text	Text is fully understood	Text is understood	Reasonable understanding of the text	Reader conveys some of the meaning to the audience	Some evidence of text interpretation, but cannot convey message to the audience	Reader shows very little understanding and cannot communicate with the audience
	Audience reaction shows a high degree of interest in the text	Audience reaction largely showing interest and involvement	Audience reaction showing interest and involvement	Most members of the audience show interest	Some members of the audience show interest	The reader fails to capture the attention of most of the audience	Very little audience interest and almost total lack of communication
2. Use of voice and interplay of reading skills	Fluent, very entertaining reading.	Fluent reading.	Reading with an effort at fluency.	Reads reasonably fluently	Reads with limited fluency.	Reciting not fluent	Halting reading
	Reads expressively and creates atmosphere – conveys feelings exceptionally well	Reads with expression and attempts made to convey feelings or atmosphere	Reads with expression and attempts made to convey feelings or atmosphere	Reads with not quite enough expression	Reads, but with not quite enough expression	Meaning can be followed but no expression	Too poor to be expressive Meaning lost
	Excellent voice projection and diction which enhances meaning	Very good voice projection and diction which enhances meaning	Good voice projection and diction which enhances meaning	Reading is clear and audible and diction enhances meaning	Reading is audible and pronunciation does not affect meaning	Reading not always audible and many words are mispronounced	Poor pronunciation and poor delivery make the delivery almost incomprehensible
3. Use of gestures, body language and facial expression	Appropriate eye-contact	Very good eye-contact	Good eye-contact	Successful efforts to make eye-contact	Eye-contact adequate	Unsuccessful attempts at eye-contact	Almost no eye-contact
	Gestures, facial expressions and body language used appropriately to enhance meaning	Gestures, facial expressions and body language used to convey meaning effectively	Gestures, facial expressions and body language used correctly to convey meaning	Suitable gestures, facial expressions and body language enhances meaning	Suitable gestures, facial expressions and body language some of the time	Very few helpful facial expressions or gestures. Evidence of nervous gestures	Distracting gestures and inappropriate body language Extremely nervous
4. Responses to questions asked by the audience and critical interpretation of the text	Handles questions with confidence, ease and sensitivity to the text	Handles questions confidently and responds sensibly when answering questions on the text	Handles questions and responds sensibly when answering questions on the text	Understands questions asked by the audience and can provide some answers to questions based on the text	Understands questions asked by the audience and provides adequate answers to questions on the text but sometimes flawed	Misinterprets questions posed by the audience and is sometimes unable to adequately answer questions based on the text	Is mostly unable to understand or respond to questions from the audience
5. Choice of text and preparation (choice of text is only appropriate when the learner chooses own text for prepared reading)	Attitude and opinion confidently sustained and justified.	Opinion well sustained and justified	Able to sustain opinion and justify it.	Opinion reasonably confidently supported	Opinion sometimes adequately supported	Unable to substantiate opinions	Very hesitant to express an opinion
	Outstanding choice of text which has a strong impact on the audience	Very interesting text which has a strong impact on the audience	Interesting text which has a strong impact on the audience	Reasonably interesting text which captures the interest of the audience	Text likely to be of interest to some members of the audience	Randomly chosen text which is of little interest to the audience	Very boring or totally unsuitable text
	Reader is exceptionally well prepared and confident	Reader well prepared and reads with confidence	Reader prepared and reads with confidence	Text is adequately familiar with the text and has made an effort to prepare	Limited amount of preparation. Reads with moderate confidence. Evidence of nervousness	Reader may have read the text, but has not prepared the text for presentation. Reader obviously nervous	No evidence of preparation Reader is very nervous and demonstrates a lack of commitment

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR LEARNERS

1. Do you feel the time allocated for reading in English is sufficient?

    Probe: Yes   No – Suggest the actual time you will require

2. Which section of an English lesson do you enjoy most?

    Possibilities

    Grammar, Comprehension, Literature, Extended/ creative writing, Orals. Why?

3. Which section of English helps to improve your vocabulary?

    Probe: How do you benefit from this section?

4. What is your opinion about your level of reading in English?

    Possibilities

    Read well with understanding, read fluently and loudly, misses pronunciation sometimes thus affecting the meaning of a sentence.

5. Besides the contact time (time provided on the timetable) is there any other time that is used for reading?

6. Do you think the time spent on reading is sufficient or more time is needed?

7. Can you read fluently and with understanding?

8. If your teacher gives you a comprehension passage, can you read the passage fluently and answer questions based on it?

9. When you are taught literature, who usually reads a setwork (poem, drama, novel) for the class?

10. Can you understand a setwork when you read it on your own?

11. What do you do when you realise that you cannot understand the work you are reading?

12. How is a comprehension exercise taught to you?

    Possibilities

    The educator reads the passage for the learners, and then the learners have to answer the questions

    The learners are given passage to read and after reading it on their own they have to answer questions

    The educator gives learners the strategies of reading a passage and tackling questions

13. Can you understand the passage well using this method?

14. Is there another method that can be used to enhance your understanding of the passage?

15. What do you think should be done to help the learners read fluently with understanding?

16. For how long can you pay attention in a reading lesson?

√ 17. Do you sometimes have difficulty in reading?

   Probe: What causes that?

18. How can educators and parents help you to read?

19. Is there anything else regarding reading that you would like to share with me?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR THE EDUCATORS

1. As a language educator, which part of language do you enjoy teaching?

    Possibilities

    Grammar, Comprehension, Creative writing, Literature, Orals

2. When you are teaching reading, which aspect of reading can help to improve learners' language proficiency?

    Probe: Can you explain how?

3. How well can the learners in your class read comprehension passage and understand it?

4. How do you teach comprehension passage to the learners?

    Possibilities

    Read the passage, allow them to answer questions, let them go through the passage on their own and answer the questions

    Probe: What type of results does this method yield?

    Is there any other method, besides this one that you can use?

5. Besides the actual contact time, is there any other time that is used for reading?

6. Is the time that has been allocated for 'reading skill – orals' in the pace setter sufficient? Explain.

7. In your literature teaching, who would normally read the setwork for the class?

    Possibilities

    Educator, Learners

8. To what extend do you think the learners understand the setworks, for example, poetry, novel, drama, when they read on their own?

9. What do you do to ensure that all learners understand their setworks?

10. How do you rate your learners' level of fluency in reading and their ability to comprehend?

11. What do you think can be done to enhance learners' comprehension in particular language?

12. What steps do you think can be taken to help the learners to read fluently in English?

13. Do learners in your class manage to pay attention for the whole period?

14. What do you think can be the approximate actual attention span of your learners?

15. In your opinion, what are the factors that contribute to learners' inability to read?

16. What do you think should be done to establish the culture of reading in learners?

17. Is there anything that you feel is important, regarding reading, that you can highlight?

ANNEXURE K

The following five questions were asked as a second batch of interview questions to all educator respondents. All four questions were asked across these curricula; Nated 550, Curriculum 2005 (C2005), National Curriculum Statement (NCS), and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS).

1. What is your opinion on the learners' level of reading in English First Additional Language (EFAL) during … (name of curriculum)?
2. Were there any challenges that were encountered?
   Probe (If necessary)
3. Was there any means of support to meet these challenges?
   Probe (If necessary)
4. How did the learners perform after such support?
5. How were the learners progressed to the next grade?
   Probe (What is your opinion on that progression method?)

ANNEXURE L

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EDUCATORS

This questionnaire serves to determine the level of reading among learners, and the availability of resources that help them to improve their reading.

The questionnaire is completed anonymously and will take approximately ten minutes of your time.

Cross the appropriate box in each question, depending on your opinion.

Thank you for your cooperation.

1. How do you teach reading comprehension?

Read passage for learners and allow them to answer questions on their own		Just give learners a passage to read and answer the questions		Help them with techniques of reading the passage and answering questions		Other (Specify) ____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

2. If your learners have to write a summary from a paragraph given, will they be able to remember the facts stated in the paragraph?

Not all		A few		Most	

3. If you do a reading comprehension with them, will they be able to remember the facts in the paragraph?

Not all		A few		Most	

4. What is the average time that learners who read well need to read a normal length paragraph (6-7 lines) with understanding?

6-7 minutes		3-5 minutes		1-2 minutes		Other	

5. What is the average time that learners who have difficulty reading need to read a normal length paragraph (6-7 lines) with understanding?

6-7 minutes		3-5 minutes		1-2 minutes		Other	

6. Can all the learners identify sentences which reflect different figures of speech from a paragraph?

Some		Most		All	

7. Have your learners been taught how to look for axioms and idioms when reading a paragraph?

Yes		No	

8. Have you taught your learners how to identify with the main character and come up with solution to his/ her problem?

Yes		No	

9. In your opinion, can reading efficiency be linked to academic success?

Yes		No	

10. How do you prepare your learners for reading comprehension test?

Read with understanding		Look for similar concepts in questions and paragraph		Other (specify) _____ _____ _____

11. Besides the school material, what else do learners normally read?

Magazines/ Newspapers		Literature books not prescribed for them		Religious/ Devotional books		Career related books		Other (specify) _____ _____		They do not read	

12. Do you ever provide learners with material for leisure reading?

Yes		No		Sometimes	

13. What kind of material do you provide to the learners as an educator?

Magazines/ Newspapers		Literature books not prescribed for them		Religious/ Devotional books		Other(specify) _____ _____ _____

14. What is the socio-economic status of the community where learners come from?

No income		Depends on social grant		Middle class/ the professionals		Other (specify) ____ _____ _____

15. In your opinion can the learners that you teach read properly?

Some		Most		All	

 Explain your answer
_____
_____
_____
_____

16. Do you think the time that is allocated for reading aloud (orals) is sufficient to help the learners master the reading skills?

Yes		No	

17. If the answer to question 16 is **No**, how much more time will be required to enhance learners' reading skills?

One hour per week		One and half hours per week		Two hours per week		Other (specify) ____ _____ _____

18. In your opinion, does the family background contribute to the learner's level of reading?

Yes		No	

Explain your answer
_____
_____
_____

19. Do you ever use technology appliances when teaching your learners?

Yes		No		Sometimes	

20. In your opinion, will the learners who are exposed to technological appliances read better than those who are not exposed to that?

Yes			No	

Explain your answer
_____
_____
_____

21. What do you think should be done to enhance learners' level of reading?

_____
_____

ANNEXURE M

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS

This questionnaire serves to determine the level of reading among learners, and the availability of resources that help them to improve their reading.

The questionnaire is completed anonymously and will take approximately ten minutes of your time.

Cross the appropriate box in each question, depending on your opinion.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Gender

Male		Female	

Language spoken at home

Sepedi		Tsonga		Ndebele		Other(Specify)_____

Age

15 – 16 years		17 – 18 years		Other (Specify)_____

1. When you are reading a paragraph to make a summary, are you able to remember all the facts after you have finished reading?

Yes		No		Some facts	

2. After reading the paragraph twice, are you able to remember more facts?

Yes		No		Some facts	

3. If someone reads a paragraph aloud for you, are you able to remember the facts?

Yes		No		Some facts	

4. How much time would you require to read a normal paragraph (of about six to seven lines) with understanding?

6-7 minutes		3-5 minutes		1-2 minutes		Other	

5. Can you identify sentences which reflect different figures of speech from a paragraph?

Yes		No		Some	

6. Do you easily take note of idioms and axioms when you read a paragraph?

Yes		No		Some	

7. Can you identify yourself with the main character and try to come up with solution to his/ her problems?

Yes		No		Sometimes	

8. Does reading increase your chance of passing a test?

Yes		No	

9. If you are going to write a test, how many times do you have to go through your material to ensure that you know it?

Once		Twice		Three times or more	

10. How do you prepare yourself for a test?

Read with understanding		Memorise the notes	

11. Besides school material, what else do you read?

1. Magazines/ Newspapers		2. Literature books		3. Other textbooks of content subject	
4. Religious/ Devotional books		5. Career guidance books		6. Other (specify) _____ _____	

12. How many hours per week do you spend on reading for pleasure?

1 – 2 hours		3 – 5 hours		6 – 7 hours		Other	

13. With whom are you staying at home?

Parents		Grand parents		Siblings		Other	

14. What is their level of education?

Parents		Primary education		Secondary education		Tertiary education	
Grand parents		Primary education		Secondary education		Tertiary education	
Siblings		Primary education		Secondary education		Tertiary education	
Other		Primary education		Secondary education		Tertiary education	

15. Who is the breadwinner at home?

Parents		Grand parents		Depend on social grant		Other	

16. If you have siblings, in which grades are they?

Primary school		Secondary school		Tertiary institution		No siblings	

xxx

17. Do you get help with your school work at home?

Yes		No	

18. What is available at home for your leisure reading?

Magazines/ Newspapers		Religious books		Books loaned at school		Leisure books at home		Other	

19. If you want to read a book that is not related to your studies, are your parents/ guardians willing to buy it?

Yes		No		Not applicable	

20. Which technological devices are available at home that helps you with your reading?

Television		Computer		Cell phone		Other(specify)_____		None	

21. Do you read books that are not related to your studies?

Yes		No	

22. What type of reading material do you prefer?

Fiction (not true stories)		Non-fiction (true stories)	
Magazines/ Newspapers		Other (specify) _____	

23. State the activities that you are doing at home that takes your reading time (you can choose more than one answer if that is applicable to you).

Home chores	
Chatting with friends through cell phone	
Taking a walk with friends	
Spending time watching television	
Other (specify)	
Not applicable	

24. If learners cannot read properly, what could be the cause?

| |
| |
| |
| |

25. Do you think the time that has been allocated for reading aloud (orals) in your class is sufficient to enable learners to read well?

| Yes | No |

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" F r o m M o t i v a t i o n T o I n s p i r a t i o n "

23 January 2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I wish to confirm that I have edited the Doctoral Research Work of Ms MJ
Rapetsoa.

Yours faithfully

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