

**TEACHERS' CHALLENGES IN TEACHING READING TO ENGLISH
FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE LEARNERS: A CASE STUDY OF
SESHEGO HIGH SCHOOLS**

by

ANDRIES PUDUDU MOSWANE

A thesis submitted in fulfilment for the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

in

Language Education

in the

Faculty of Humanities

(School of Education)

at the

UNIVERSITY OF LIMPOPO

SUPERVISOR: Dr J W FONCHA

CO-SUPERVISOR: Prof M W MARUMA

August 2019

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, Andries Pududu Moswane, hereby solemnly declare that the thesis hereby submitted to the University of Limpopo for the degree Doctor of Philosophy has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other university, that is my own work in design and in execution, and that all materials contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

Signature

Date

DEDICATIONS

I humbly dedicate this thesis to my late father Machelane Phillip Moswane. “Thank you for always motivating me and believing in me even when it looked impossible at times. I know that you would be proud of me, and although no longer of this world, you remain the greatest influence in my life”.

I also dedicate this work to my beloved mother, Ntšoakae Francina Moswane. “Thank you for your patience and support through-out my studies. You are the pillar of my strength”.

Ke leboga kgodišo ya lena Bakgaditsi

Acknowledgements

I am greatly indebted to my supervisor, Dr J W Foncha, not only for his inspiring tutelage and guidance, but also for his timely appearance when I almost gave up on my studies. I have come to witness a great deal of growth from his ideas and feedback. Working with him has provided a wonderful and unforgettable opportunity to grow up both personally and professionally. Dr Foncha did not only offer guidance and advices but also showed brotherly love and consistent confidence in me during some trying times of this thesis. His affectionate care and emotional involvement acted both as a stimulus and synergy for me.

I will remain forever grateful to my co-supervisor Professor M W Maruma, Head of Department of Languages with whose deep knowledge, wisdom, limitless patience and understanding this journey was made possible. Her motivation, reassurance and immense knowledge have been a true blessing.

My deepest thankfulness goes to my soulmate Joyce Lekgatlana Moswane for being there to support me even during the trials and difficulties I encountered in the process of writing. My thanks to you cannot be expressed in words. “Kgets’a Marumo”.

My special thanks to my children Tsakani, Phemelo, Phogole and Ursula who are the reason why I decided to study up to this level as a pace setting for them.

I would further want to express my sincere gratitude to the Limpopo Department of Education in particular, the Head of Department, Ms NB Mutheiwana, District Director, Mr. KD Mothemane, Capricorn Polokwane District and Pietersburg Circuit manager, Ms SM Ratale for affording me an opportunity to carry out this study in the selected high schools in the Seshego circuit.

I would like to express my sincere feelings of appreciation and heartfelt gratitude to all the participants who made this study a success. My special thanks to you for availing yourselves to be interviewed and for attending the seminar sessions even with your busy schedule to share your personal experiences in order to make this study a possibility.

To all my friends and colleagues, thanks for your support and advice.

Last but not least, my profound gratitude to Almighty God for having protected the life of my supervisor, co-supervisor and myself. Thanks to God who granted me the courage, strength and wisdom to be able to go through this journey. It was not easy to complete this work but through God's presence and kindness in me, everything became possible from the beginning to the end.

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to explore the challenges encountered by teachers in teaching reading to EFAL learners in rural schools. This is based on the fact that reading is a fundamental skill upon which all formal education depends. In view of this, a child who does not learn reading early enough is doomed to underperform in their academic pursuits. Thus, any child who doesn't learn to read early and well would not easily master the other literacy skills and is unlikely to ever perform well in school or in life. However, teaching reading to English first additional language learners comes with a lot of challenges. To this effect, Sentsho (2000) argues that many teachers are not perfect in that regard and this imperfectness impacts negatively on the outcomes which is on the learners (child). If the teachers are incapable of using basic structures correctly, or if his/her pronunciation is so bad that the words are incomprehensible, he/she would not be able to teach the spoken language competently. Among the main challenges identified in the literature review, the lack of teaching skills, remuneration, lack of resources, overcrowded classrooms are the major challenges encountered by the teachers.

The study is located in the interpretive paradigm which sought to explore teachers' experiences and their views. The experiences and the qualifications of teachers were taken into consideration during the empirical study when the interviews, seminar and the observations were conducted. Qualitative research approach was adopted in the study with the intentions of finding as much detail as possible using a case study design. Participants for this study were teachers who teach English first additional language at rural schools in the Seshego Circuit in Polokwane, Limpopo. The empirical investigation revealed that teachers did not have necessary skills and expertise to teach reading to EFAL learners. They knew less about the approaches to teaching reading and that reading was treated as a separate entity from speaking and writing. The conditions that they found themselves were appalling due to lack of motivation and support from the Department of Education, overcrowding in classrooms, lack of resources, socio-economic status etc. and how these factors impact negatively on the teaching of reading. Also important to note was the fact that the teachers did not receive any form of in-service

training at their respective schools in relation to the teaching of reading. The investigation concluded that the teachers were qualified and had enough experience in teaching English but not reading per se.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

BICS...Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills

CALP...Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency

CAPS --. Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement

CDA.....Critical Discourse Analysis

DBE.....Department of Basic Education

DoE.....Department of Education

EFAL.... English First Additional Language

FAL.....First Additional Language

FET..... Further Education and Training

LiEP.....Language in Education Policy

LoLT.....Language of Learning and Teaching

LTSM..... Learner Teacher Support Material

NCS.....National Curriculum Statement

NRS.....National Reading Strategy

SACE.....South African Council for Educators

SACMEQ...South African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality

SADTU....South African Democratic Teachers Union

SAQA.....South African Qualification Framework

SASA.....South African Schools' Act

SGB..... School Governing Body

SLP.....School Language Policy

SMT.....School Management Team

ZPD.....Zone of Proximal Development

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Table illustrating the gender of the participants

Table 4.2 Table illustrating qualifications of participants

Table 4.3 Table illustrating qualifications and experiences of participants

Table 4.4 Table illustrating gender and qualifications of participants during the seminar

Table of Contents

DECLARATION	i
DEDICATIONS	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iii
Abstract.....	v
LIST OF ACRONYMS.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES.....	ix
Table of Contents.....	x
CHAPTER 1	1
GENERAL ORIENTATION	1
1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT	8
1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	8
1.3.1 Main research question.....	8
1.3.2 Sub questions	8
1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY.....	9
1.5 METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATION.....	9
1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY.....	10
1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS.....	10
1.7.1 Reading.....	10
1.7.2 Teacher.....	10
1.7.3 Learner.....	10
1.7.4 English First Additional Language (EFAL)	10
1.7.5 Language Proficiency	11
1.7.6 Home Language.....	11
1.7.7 Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT).....	11
1.7.8 School Governing Body (SGB)	11
1.7.9 School Management Team (SMT)	12
1.8 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS.....	12
1.9 CONCLUSION	14
CHAPTER TWO	15
LITERATURE REVIEW	15
2.1 INTRODUCTION.....	15

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	15
2.2.2 Scaffolding.....	23
2.2.3 The role of affordances	24
2.2.4 Ecological perspective of language	25
2.3 POLICIES AND LEGISLATIVE BACKGROUND	26
2.3.1 National Curriculum Statement (NCS)	27
2.3.2 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS).....	28
2.3.3 Language in Education Policy (LIEP).....	28
2.3.4 School Language Policy (SLP)	30
2.4 READING.....	31
2.5 Reading Theories.....	34
2.5.1 Psycholinguistic Theory.....	35
2.5.1.1 The Psycholinguistic View on Reading	35
2.5.2 Behaviourism	36
2.5.2.1 The Behaviourist View on Reading	36
2.5.4 Models of Teaching Reading.....	37
2.5.4.1 Gough’s Model.....	38
2.5.4.2 Era’s Model	38
2.5.4.3 Perfetti Restricted Interactive Model	39
2.6 READING PERSPECTIVE	41
2.6.1 Cognitive-psychological perspective.....	41
2.6.2 Psycho-linguistic perspective.....	41
2.6.3 Socio-political perspective	42
2.6.4 Socio-cultural perspective.....	42
2.7 CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED BY TEACHERS IN TEACHING READING	43
2.7.1 Unpreparedness of Teachers	44
2.7.2 Lack of Reading Resources.....	44
2.7.3 Insufficient Budget to Schools	46
2.7.4 Poor Remuneration of Teachers	46
2.7.5 Lack of Teaming	47
2.7.6 Parental Support	47
2.7.7 Poor Training of Teachers	50

2.7.8 Overcrowded Classrooms	51
2.7.9 Communication Difficulties.....	51
2.7.10 Teachers proficiency in teaching reading	52
2.8 WAYS TO IMPROVE THE TEACHING OF READING.....	53
2.8.1 Teachers' proficiency in teaching reading	53
2.8.2 Schools' support in teaching reading.....	54
2.8.3. Support from the Department of Education in teaching reading.....	55
2.8.4 Selecting a Proper Text	55
2.8.5 Guided Reading.....	57
2.8.5.1 Pre-reading.....	57
2.8.5.2 While-reading.....	58
2.8.5.3 Post-reading	59
2.9 Teaching Reading Comprehension	59
2.9.1. Question Generating and Question Answering	60
2.9.2 Reciprocal Teaching	61
2.9.3. Explicit Teaching.....	61
2.10 Approaches to Teaching Reading.....	62
2.10.1 Genre-based approach	63
2.10.2 Phonic approach	64
2.10.3 Language experience approach	66
2.11 STRATEGIES OF TEACHING READING	67
2.11.1 Reading aloud	67
2.11.2 Reading a lot	68
2.11.3 Peer tutoring.....	69
2.12 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)	70
2.13 CONCLUSION.....	76
CHAPTER THREE	77
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	77
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	77
3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS.....	78
3.2.1 Main Research Question.....	78
3.2.2 Sub Research Questions.....	78

3.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM	78
3.3.1 The Interpretive paradigm	78
3.4. RESEARCH APPROACH: QUALITATIVE RESEARCH	80
3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN	83
3.5.1 Case study	84
3.5.1.2 Setting	86
3.5.1.2.1 The physical setting.....	87
3.5.1.2.2 Phenomenology	88
3.5.1.2.3 Hermeneutics.....	90
3.6 POPULATION AND SAMPLING.....	91
3.6.1 Purposive Sampling.....	92
3.7 DATA COLLECTION METHODS.....	93
3.7.1 Seminar	93
3.7.1.1 Planning of the seminar	94
3.7.1.2 Conducting the seminar	95
3.7.2 Interviews.....	95
3.7.2.1 The semi-structured Interviews.....	96
3.7.2.1 Conducting the interviews	97
3.7.2.2 Pitfalls of Interviews.....	98
3.7.3 Participant Observation	102
3.7.3.1 Field Notes	103
3.8 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF DATA.....	104
3.8.1 CREDIBILITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS	105
3.8.1.1 Credibility.....	105
3.8.1.2 Trustworthiness	106
3.8.2 DATA TRIANGULATION	107
3.8.3 REFLEXIVITY.....	108
3.9 ETHICAL COSIDERATIONS.....	109
3.9.1 Informed Consent	110
3.9.2 CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY	111
3.10 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES	111
3.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	112

3.1. 2 CONCLUSION.....	112
CHAPTER FOUR	114
PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA.....	114
4.1 Introduction	114
4.2 Demographics of the participants in the interviews.....	117
4.2.1 Participants’ Background (gender of the participants).....	118
4.2.2 Participants’ Qualifications	118
4.2.3 Participants’ Experience in teaching English FAL.....	119
4.3 Demographics of participants in the seminar.....	119
4.4 Data Presentation	120
4.4.1 Unpreparedness of teachers.....	121
4.4.1.1 Data segment 1 (Interviews with the teachers)	121
4.4.1.2 Data segment 2 Seminar with teachers.....	122
4.4.1.3 Participant observation.....	124
4.4.2 Lack of reading resources	125
4.4.2.1 Data Segment: 1 interviews with teachers.....	125
4.4.2.2 Data Segment 2: Seminars.....	127
4.4.2.3 Data Segment 3: Participant Observation	128
4.4.2.3.1 Physical setting and infrastructure	128
4.4.2.3.2 Availability of resources (LTSM).....	129
4.4.2.3.3 Teaching and learning aids.....	129
4.4.3 Insufficient budget to schools.....	129
4.4.3.1 Data Segment 1: Interviews with teachers.....	130
4.4.3.2 Data Segment 2: Seminar.....	132
4.4.3.3 Participant Observations.....	133
4.4.4 Poor remuneration of teachers	133
4.4.4.1. Data Segment 1: interviews with teachers	134
4.4.4.2 Data Segment 2: Seminar.....	135
4.4.4.3 Participant Observation.	136
4.4.5 Lack of teaming.....	136
4.4.5.1 Data Segment 1: interviews with the teachers.....	137
4.4.5.2 Data Segment 2: Seminar	138

4.4.5.3 Participant Observation	139
4.4.6 Parental support	139
4.4.6.1 Data Segment 1: interviews with the teachers.....	139
4.4.6.2 Data segment 2: Seminar.....	141
4.4.6.3 Participant Observation	142
4.4.7 Poor training of teachers	143
4.4.7.1 Data segment 1: interviews with teachers	143
4.4.7.2 Data segment 2: seminar	145
4.4.7.3 Participant Observation	146
4.4.8 Overcrowded classrooms.....	146
4.4.8.1 Data segment 1: interviews with the teachers	146
4.4.8.2 Data segment 2: seminar	148
4.4.8.3 Participant Observation	149
4.4.9 Communication difficulties	150
4.4.9.1 Data segment 1: interviews with teachers	150
4.4.9.2 Data segment 2: seminar	152
4.4.9.3 Participant Observation	153
4.4.10.1 Data segment 1: interviews with teachers	154
4.4.10.2 Data segment 2: seminar	155
4.4.10.3 Data segment 3: Participants Observation	156
4.5 CONCLUSION.....	156
CHAPTER FIVE	158
DISCUSSIONS.....	158
5.1. Introduction	158
5.2. Subjectivity and Objectivity	158
5.3. Narration as a Way of Experiencing their Experience	160
5.4.1. Professional qualifications of the participants	162
5.4.2. Experience(s) of the participants	162
5.4.3 Demographics of participants in the seminar.....	163
5.5. UNPREPAREDNESS OF TEACHERS	164
5.6 LACK OF READING RESOURCES.....	166
5.7 INSUFFICIENT BUDGET TO SCHOOLS	168

5.8 POOR REMUNERATION OF TEACHERS.....	171
5.9. LACK OF TEAMING	173
5.10. PARENTAL SUPPORT	176
5.11 POOR TRAINING OF TEACHERS.....	178
5.12 OVERCROWDED CLASSROOMS.....	181
5.13 COMMUNICATION DIFFICULTIES.....	183
5.14. TEACHER PROFICIENCY	184
5.15 CONCLUSION.....	186
CHAPTER SIX.....	187
CONCLUSIONS, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	187
6.1 Introduction	187
6.2 Conclusions	187
6.2.1 Unpreparedness of teachers.....	187
6.2.2 Lack of reading resources	188
6.2.3 Insufficient budget to schools.....	188
6.2.4 Poor remuneration of teachers	188
6.2.5 Lack of teaming	189
6.2.6 Lack of parental support	189
6.2.7 Poor training of teachers	189
6.2.8 Overcrowded classrooms.....	190
6.2.9 Communication difficulties	190
6.2.10 Teacher proficiency.....	190
6.3 THE GENERAL FINDINGS	190
6.3.1 The Main research question: What are the challenges faced by teachers in the teaching of reading to EFAL learners?	190
6.3.1.1 The Sub-question 1: What is the level of the teachers’ proficiency in the language of teaching and learning?	192
6.3.1.2 The sub-question 2: What reading strategies are used in the teaching of reading?.....	192
6.3.1.3 The sub-question 3: How is the school supporting the teaching of reading?	193
6.3.1.4 The sub-question 4: What role is played by the DoE in training teachers towards the teaching of reading?	194
6.4 Recommendations	195

6.5 Implications for future research	198
6.6 Conclusion.....	199
REFERENCES.....	200
Appendix A: Ethical Clearance Certificate.....	239
Appendix B1: Permission letter from the Provincial Department of Education.....	240
Appendix B2: Permission letter from the Capricorn District Department of Education	242
Appendix B3: Permission letter from Pietersburg circuit	244
Appendix C: Consent letter to Teachers	245
Appendix D1: Interview questions for teachers	246
Appendix D2: The Seminar Questions for teachers.....	249

CHAPTER 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION/BACKGROUND

For the teaching of reading to be effective and efficient, both the curriculum developers and the teachers need to determine the instructional goals in various contexts. In view of this, many people in South Africa think that after the foundation phase, learners should be capable of switching from learning to read into reading to learn (Foncha et al., 2018). On the contrary, Kepe (2017) provides so much evidence of poor readership in South African schools which has become a major challenge for teachers of English first additional language that are teaching reading. In view of the above, reading is the fundamental skill upon which all formal education depends. Research shows that a child who doesn't learn basic reading early in their schooling career is unlikely to learn reading at all (Westwood, 2008). In this regard, Westwood further argues that any child who fails to learn to read early and well, might not easily master the other literacy skills and is unlikely to ever perform well academically in their school work or life. The failure to cope with the demands of reading and writing has an extremely detrimental effect on their self-esteem, confidence, attitude, and curriculum (Westwood, 2008: 10).

Secondly, reading is an important language skill that every learner has to acquire in order to access knowledge not readily available (Kilfoil & van der Walt, 2007:163). According to Richardson and Eccles (2007:34), reading shows a positive correlation with children's grades at school. It also entails improvement in their language vocabulary, verbal fluency as well as the enhancement of their general knowledge. However, teaching reading to English first additional language learners have its challenges as many teachers are not proficient enough in the language they use for instructions. Thus, Sentsho (2000) argues that many teachers are not perfect in that regard and this imperfectness impacts negatively on the outcomes which is on the learners (child). If the teachers are incapable of using basic structures correctly, or if his/her pronunciation is so bad that the words are incomprehensible, he/she would not be able to teach the spoken language competently (McGrath, 1974: 297).

Literacy is seen as teacher's key to master education curriculum. Teachers can become literate in terms of proficiency and compete only if they are willing to initiate their growth in reading. This can only be achieved if teachers can get enough support from higher education department by being exposed to the reading strategies, programmes, instructions and frequent training. This process should be properly monitored and supervised by literacy experts or specialists in order to ascertain that there is progress in teachers. In view of this, Dyers (2003) states that there are numerous challenges in South Africa as a developing country which affect and delay the development of learner's literacy due to specific challenges.

According to Kepe (2017); Maswanganye (2010), the main problem with the teaching of EFAL reading in South African schools is the lack of teaching skills and approaches that can make learners read. The same sentiment is shared by Mather (2012) who posits that glitches may be related to the insufficient training and inadequate knowledge of teaching reading to many South African teachers. The problem that go hand in hand with teachers who are given the responsibility to teach English classes at senior phase in secondary schools for which they do not have better command of the language is well known (Kepe and Foncha, 2017)). Not only do they lack sufficient subject knowledge, but they also lack the skills on how to teach English, the language of teaching and learning. Teaching reading to English first additional language learners have its challenges because teachers are not proficient enough in the language. Learners who are not taught by teachers proficient in English might not have the necessary foundation on which to build English language skills. Alexander (2000) argues that if learners from their first school year are taught in English by teachers not proficient in English, they would have problems with reading and writing either at home language or the language of teaching. The point of departure here is that in order to promote communication and reading comprehension amongst the learners, it is necessary to know whether teachers themselves have the skills and expertise to teach that language (English). As Lenyai (2011) comments that the key to achieving the goal for English literacy lies in teacher expertise in teaching reading.

Based on this, teacher's challenges in teaching reading are not only a South African problem but a global one. To this effect, teaching reading is a job for an expert contrary

to the popular theory that learning to read is natural and easy; learning to read is a complex linguistic achievement.

One of the international studies conducted on the teaching of reading exposed reading crisis in USA as well. Teaching reading requires considerable knowledge and skill acquired over several years through focused study and supervised practice (Moaths, 1999). Educators have the opportunity to make a huge impact on students but with that opportunity comes many challenges. Many teachers wish their training programmes did a better job of preparing them for these real classroom issues with regard to teaching of reading (Schwartz, 2008).

It is noted in America that teachers are exposed to unnecessary illness due to the lack of consideration of the parents and the non-existent or enforced policies of administration regarding sick learners in schools as a result of unhealthy environment (Schwartz, 2008). Schools should demonstrate strong and clear definitive rules and consequences need to be put in place regarding parent's compliance with regard to learner attendance.

There are parents who are reluctant to help with teaching their learners to read at home. It is noted by Ryde (2009) that learners learn so much more effectively when there is effective communication between school and home. Therefore, it is the responsibility of the teacher to invite parents to assist with reading at home or after school hours

The teacher who is doing his or her work more effectively in teaching reading, he/she feel discouraged and to a greater extent very demoralized when his or her stunning work is not appreciated by colleagues. Some teachers appear to be more jealous if a colleague is doing his or her work effectively and productively and this affect the performance of the learners.

Schwartz (2008) maintains that teachers get frustrated as they try to fit in important reading lessons and activities in each period as a result of lack of time. Most of the teachers spend their time doing planning in classrooms, collaborations work, making copies and making calls and as such compromising the valuable time they should be spending time teaching learners in class. The other challenge of emotional stress as experienced by American teachers include amongst others, lack of self-esteem from the

teachers themselves, social problems, lack of motivation, teachers not getting enough salaries/wages for the good work they are doing and also teachers not having enough learner teacher support material. Poor facilities, for example, not having a library at school or within the community contribute negatively the teaching of reading in the rural schools in particular in the Seshego Circuit.

American researchers like Ryde (2009) and Goodwin (2012) reveal that the following difficulties contributes to the poor teaching of reading as faced by teachers that is, the challenge of differentiation, struggling with classroom management and lack of teaming. It is for this reason that one-size-DOES-Not-fit –all (Ryde, 2009). Therefore, it will be important for teachers to face challenges of meeting learners from different diversity by preparing well-crafted reading lessons and programs to different classes. If a teacher is unable to manage his or her class well, effective teaching and reading in particulars will not be possible (Goodwin, 2012). The job of teaching reading can be made easier through cooperation and collaboration amongst English teachers. According to Ryde (2009), effective teaming will lead to better results in the improvement of reading for both teachers and learners.

Involving Australia as the country that use English as FAL was recognized as imperative in this study. A study conducted by Goodwin (2005) divulged that literacy learning is still under debate since teachers around the world were found to teach reading differently. That was the case as teachers use different styles and approaches when teaching reading.

In China, the unavailability of resources which include teaching material as well as teachers was found to be a huge challenge in teaching China learners to read in English as a first additional language (Valencia et al, 2006).

Indian teachers were found to teach reading while proper teaching methods were lacking. Teachers were found teaching without proper knowledge and they used different methods that were suitable for them. Some teachers were found to teach only what they know about the teaching of reading (Ramanathan, 2008). He added that, it was because the Indian Department failed to provide proper support in the form of training for teachers.

According to Yeats (2010) the contributing challenge faced by teachers in India was the problem of large class sizes. Teachers found it difficult to assist poor readers as there were many learners in the classrooms.

The study conducted by Mulkeen and Chen (2008) in Tanzania revealed that the huge challenge teachers faced in the teaching reading in rural schools is the issue of support. Teachers were also teaching without proper support from the Department of Education.

In Kenya research highlighted that teachers who were new in the field of teaching were not afforded with orientation programmes since it was predicted that they proficient in teaching as they teach in Kenyan schools (Crouch et al, 2009). Other related challenges faced by teachers include:

- Large number of learners in the classrooms
- Poor reading background as a result of poor instruction in pre-schools
- Lack of resources including reading books
- Less use of English than Home language
- High rates of absenteeism

The problem of poor teaching of reading in English as first additional language is also noticed in Nigeria. The skills acquired in reading can promote the acquisition of language skills like listening, speaking and writing. Some (secondary) educators find it difficult to read and understand despite the fact that reading is indispensable. Some show a carefree attitude towards reading (Ajibola, 2006). Reading is a lifelong activity. Those who enjoy reading, desire pleasure and satisfaction from it. Adigun and Oyelude (2003) observe that skill in reading will not only assist pupils in organizing their thoughts and jotting down important facts while reading; but also equip them to comprehend entire texts. In this regard, Oyetunde and Unoh (1986) list impediments to positive reading and attitude. These includes lack of materials, poor preparation of teachers, poor reading facilities, home background and lack of adult readers as models.

Research in South Africa indicates that teacher's reading skills are poorly developed and this applies from primary school to tertiary level (Pretorius & Machet, 2004). In this regard, many teachers have reading problems and there has been a misunderstanding of

whether it is the role of the teachers in teaching reading or the National Curriculum statement or continuous Assessment policy statement (CAPS) that can be blame for the reading difficulties of learners. To this effect, many teachers believe that they do not have to “teach” reading but instead they simply have to “facilitate” the process. This is to suggest that it is the duty of the learners to learn by themselves to read Hugo (2010) and DOE (2008b). Hugo worsens the situation by arguing that teachers do not know how to teach reading. In South African schools, the challenge facing teachers in the FET phase is that they have to develop their own teaching materials and reading programmes. These teachers neither have the required experience nor the expertise to develop the required materials because in the past the Department of Education provided them with prescribed books for the different grades (DOE, 2008). The DOE further insists that most of these teachers need in –service training on the teaching of reading. They need to be well versed with teaching in strategies and methods applied to teaching EFAL learners to read.

According to Moats (1999), classroom teaching of reading instructions needs to be considered as critical factor in preventing reading problems and must be the central focus for change. Banda (2009) also shares the same sentiment that teachers acquisition of the teaching skills necessary to bring about the development of literate language competency are critical, especially since South Africa has many assumptions that largely do not question how reading should be taught as a high quality practise in classrooms.

Based on this, Stollers and Grabe (2001) emphasize that the requirements for the development of reading fluency requires that teachers as well as curriculum development to determine what instructional goals are required in various contexts. According to Linake (2015), the accepted assumption in South Africa is that after the foundation phase of schooling, learners should be prepared to make a switch from “learning to read” to “reading to learn”. During the intermediate phase, these learners should be able to use the default language of instruction in reading and writing. On the contrary, most studies conducted on reading in South African are revealing poor reading skills of learner’s and the denunciation is shifted to the teachers. This poor reading amongst EFAL learners in the senior phase was apparent since 2002 in the South African Consortium for monitoring

Educational Quality (SACMEQ) report. This project was aimed at monitoring quality education among schools in Africa.

The NRS as a campaign initiated in 2008 was another response to the reading crises. The activities and approaches to develop reading skills were also afforded in this survey (DoE, 2008). The DoE highlighted most of the challenge that were affecting the teaching of reading for the teachers to be conscious about them. Mhlongo (2012) asserts that NRS aimed at recuperating and encouraging reading to all that are involved in learner's education. She added that it was also the inspiration to advance and encourage for teachers, learners and communities (Mhlongo, 2012). Mqgwashu (2007) revealed that the teaching of reading EFAL in African schools is still a challenge for the existing and future government. The local study conducted by Mather (2012) and Singh (2010) highlighted that teachers face many challenges as they teach learners to read. They identified the following challenges in relation to the teaching of reading English in EFAL learners. They include amongst others lack of reading resources, teacher training and support as the most common noticeable challenge(s) in teaching reading to EFAL in South African schools.

Maphumulo (2010) observes that the lack of reading resources as a huge challenge that affects reading development. Thus, Thunzini (2011) states that it become very difficult to teach where the resources were not available. Emerging Voices (2005), a project conducted in rural schools highlighted libraries as the important resources that were lacking in the rural schools. The scarcity of libraries had some negative effects in reading.

Teaching skills are lacking as the teachers are not assisted with enough training to teach reading (Maswanganye, 2010 and Mhlongo, 2012). Teachers are not getting support in the form of training and guidance from the Department of Education as they teach learners to read (Singh, 2010). Additionally, Theron and Nel (2005) assert that where teachers teach FAL reading without proper training and knowledge of making learners to read, reading development will be difficult to be attained. The study at hand is aimed at providing the data on approaches and strategies that will be utilised by senior phase teachers and benefit them.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The point of departure here is that in order to promote teaching of reading amongst EFAL learners, it is necessary to interrogate whether teachers themselves have the skills and expertise to teach reading in English first additional language (Linake, 2015). This is in line with Lenyai (2011) who thinks that the key to achieving the goal for English literacy lies in teacher's expertise. In this regard, Mather (2012) posits that teachers face many challenges in teaching reading. The study reveals that teachers themselves found it difficult to pronounce words from certain texts understand language structure and use correct methods of teaching learners to read. Above all teachers also expose that they were lacking the in- depth skill of teaching learners to understand what they were reading.

In view of the problematic captured above, this study seeks to investigate causes of teacher's unpreparedness in teaching reading EFAL at the senior phase. In line with this, this researcher has observed that these challenges are eminent among language teachers emanating from the lack of expertise and the good knowledge of the LoLT. Since most South African teachers are struggling to teach reading to learners who are learning in English as an additional language to them, it appears that not enough attention has been given to research concerning EFAL learning and teaching.

In this study, the researcher felt it necessary to conduct a research of this nature under study since the senior phase is regarded as the "entrance level" of the secondary education where strong foundation has to be laid.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.3.1 Main research question

What are the challenges faced by teachers in teaching reading English to English first additional language learners?

1.3.2 Sub questions

- What is the level of teachers` proficiency in the language of teaching and learning?
- What reading strategies are used in the teaching of reading?

- How is the school supporting the teaching of reading?
- What role is played by the department of Education in training teachers towards the teaching of reading?
- How can these challenges in the teaching of reading be overcome?

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to investigate the challenges encountered by teachers in teaching reading English texts in English first additional language. This is vital because when the learners learn to read texts very well, they can eventually read these texts to learn.

1.5 METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATION

This study is a qualitative interpretive case study which adopted phenomenology as an approach for the data collection. It is carried out in rural schools within the Seshego Circuit. The participants were English first additional language teachers in all the High Schools within the Circuit. The research is conducted in real-life situations and non-invasive means of data collection is used (Nieuwenshuis, 2007:79). Phenomenological research design is considered since “it seeks to explore, describe, and analyze the meaning of individual lived experience: how they perceive it, feel about it, remember it, make sense of it, and talk about it with others” (Patton, 2002). This study is located in the interpretive paradigm which seeks to explore people’s experiences and their views. The sample for the study constituted 25 teachers who are currently teaching English as first additional language in the senior phase in 10 different high schools situated in the Sepedi –speaking, lower-income, rural community in Seshego circuit in Limpopo province. Data collection instruments included field notes, participant observation, seminar and face to face interviews with the teachers. The data was coded under themes that were generated from the review of literature or the data itself. The coding then afforded the researcher the opportunity to put it side by side with the literature and to form an opinion. Critical Discourse Analysis acted as a guide to the researcher’s interpretation of the data.

1.6 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The study would help EFAL teachers to identify the challenges they may confront in the teaching of reading. It is envisaged to come up with strategies that may help teachers to teach reading more efficiently. The findings of this research may help the department of education to come up with programmes that would help to train teachers to improve in their teaching of reading. This study can inculcate the culture of reading amongst teachers and learners. Effective teaching of reading may lead to effective culture of learning to read which will ultimately lead to effective culture of reading to learn.

1.7 DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

1.7.1 Reading

Reading is a combination of automatic and accurate decoding which allows for an understanding of what is being read (Leppanen *et al.*, 2008).

1.7.2 Teacher

The South African Schools Act (Act No 84 of 1996) refers to a teacher as an individual trained to teach or a specialist in the theory and practice of education. A teacher is a person who systematically works to improve others understanding of a topic.

1.7.3 Learner

The Education Law and Policy Handbook (1999: 2A-4) define a learner as any person who receives education or who is obliged to receive education from employed professional educators in a formal education institution. In this study, the term will mean a person at a primary or secondary school who is learning or being taught by an educator or educators.

1.7.4 English First Additional Language (EFAL)

Phatudi (2014: 244) defines a first additional language as, “the language that is learnt formally at school in addition to the home language”. English in this case. In the context of this study, the EFAL learners can be defined as those learners who speak a different

language, but, are taught in English as this is the language of learning and teaching (LoLT) on their school. According to Singh (2009) teachers are expected to combine methods of teaching FAL that consider diversity to benefit all learners in the classroom.

1.7.5 Language Proficiency

Within the context of this study, language proficiency will refer to the teachers' knowledge of the English language and their ability to use that knowledge as used in listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. The mastery of these skills per se is important since the use of English first additional language as classroom language without their basis may be counterproductive (Mitchell, 2000: 58).

1.7.6 Home Language

This is the language which is spoken most frequently at home by the learner (DBE, 2010:3).

1.7.7 Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT)

This refers to the language medium in which learning and teaching, including assessment, takes place (DBE, 2010:3). According to Alexander (1999), it refers to the language used by the teacher and the pupils for learning and teaching activities in the formal classroom. LoLT is also known as the medium of instruction in a particular institution of learning.

1.7.8 School Governing Body (SGB)

The Education Law and Policy Handbook (1999:24-17) defines a governing body as a statutory body of people who are elected to govern a school by virtue of an Act of Parliament, in particular the Schools Act (Act 84 of 1996). The school governors are the people serving on a governing body, who represent the school community. The governance of every public school is vested in its governing body. Within the context of this study, a school governing body shall be deemed a body with a membership of educators, learners and parents.

1.7.9 School Management Team (SMT)

A school management team (SMT) is a team of professional specialists led by the school principal (Calitz, 2002). This study will refer to the school management team as a joint venture driven by a professional management team comprising of the principal, the deputy principal, heads of departments and subject's heads.

1.8 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The purpose and methods of this study imply that a particular plan for addressing the problem under investigation is necessary. In an attempt to meet the aim of the study and to address the problem in a scientific manner, it was necessary to organise the study in the form of chapters, each of which contributes to the holistic approach in investigating the problem. The chapters were organised as follows:

Chapter One: General Orientation

The chapter provides the general orientation and the introductory background of the problem under study. The problem statement of the study is also outlined and the research questions are identified. The rationale as well as the purpose of the study is highlighted. The research methods, the research design and the limitations of the study are also presented. In this chapter, key concepts and the structure of the thesis are also outlined.

Chapter Two: Literature Review

This chapter introduces the relevant existing literature relevant in providing what is important about the teaching of reading to English first additional language learners in South Africa, in particular the rural high schools. International, national and local trends of teaching reading are viewed and discussed. The chapter commences by providing an overview of the policy context in the teaching of reading. This includes the National Curriculum Statement (NSC), Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), Language –in Education Policy (LiEP) and School Language Policy (SLP). This chapter provides Vygotsky's theory of Social Development, which is the theoretical framework underpinning the study. The literature review sought to present factors relating to the

teaching of reading to EFAL learners, as well as strategies teachers employ to address challenges emanating from related issues. The review of literature forms a base for the development of the instruments that will be to collect data will be discussed in detail in chapter three.

Chapter Three: Research Methodology

This chapter gives an account of the empirical research methodology and explains the research population and how it was sampled. The research questions for the study are presented in this chapter. The detailed discussion of the paradigm as well as research design for the study is also discussed. The chapter also gives the details of the research methods for the data collection as well as the justification for the inclusion. This chapter comments on how semi-structured interviews, seminar, participant observation and field notes were conducted. The issues of sampling, ethical considerations as well as limitations that guided the study are also highlighted.

Chapter Four: Presentation and Analysis of data

In this chapter data collected through the interviews, seminar, participant observation of the reading lessons and field notes was presented and analysed.

Chapter Five: Discussions of data

This chapter deals with the in-depth analysis and interpretation of the participants' responses as presented in chapter four of this study. The findings that are related to what the teachers experience as they teach EFAL reading to the learners of the rural high schools are discussed in relation to the literature that was reviewed in chapter three. The chapter commences by providing the bio- data of all the participants and their experiences in teaching reading to EFAL learners.

Chapter Six: Conclusions and Recommendations

The final chapter provides the main findings of the study. It reconsiders the collected data and thereafter, draws some conclusion. The whole study will be discussed and

summarised in order to draw conclusions. Recommendations towards the improvement of teaching reading in the senior phase of the rural high schools will be suggested.

Furthermore, this chapter seeks to answer the research questions underpinning this research thesis. In general, the material will be presented under headings and sub-headings to facilitate the retrieval of subject matter which is of most interest to the reader without his/ her having to wade through a mass of information.

1.9 CONCLUSION

The first chapter highlighted the general orientation and research questions for the study. It is where the background and the rationale for conducting the study are discussed. More important, the key concepts that shape the study were also discussed. Thereafter, an overview of the layout of the study was offered. The next chapter unpacks the literature that was reviewed in relation to the research topic and to the research questions for the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

The cornerstone of academic achievement and the foundation for success across the curriculum is learning to read and write proficiently (Wilson & Trainin, 2007). Teaching reading to EFAL learners from different backgrounds can be a challenging task in developing countries in general and South Africa in particular. Research revealed that teaching reading to EFAL learners at foundation phase in schools has been widely researched on, but reading challenges remain under researched (Lessing & De Witt, 2002, Manyike & Lemmer, 2008, Singh, 2010).

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Borgatti (1999) defines theoretical framework as a collection of interrelated concepts that guide a research determining what things a researcher should measure and what statistical relationships should be expected. Escalada (2009) also claims that theoretical framework guides research, determining what variables to measure and what statistical relationship should be looked for. In other words, a theory is selected based on how best it can explain the relationship within and between variables. Escalada (2009) further states that a theoretical framework strengthens the research by;

- a. explicitly stating the theoretical assumptions, which when stated become available for critical evaluation;
- b. connecting the researcher to existing knowledge; guided by a relevant theory, a researcher has a basis for the hypothesis and choice of research methods; and
- c. articulating the theoretical assumptions of a researcher, the study forces the researcher to move from simply describing a phenomenon observed to a more structured way of dealing with information which is achieved by addressing questions of why and how a phenomenon is what it is.

In a nutshell, a theoretical framework specifies which key variables influence a phenomenon of interest. It alerts the researcher to examine how those key variables might differ in varied populations. In this study, the theoretical framework from which the

research draws on assists the researcher in guiding and strengthening claims that are made by the researcher. The theoretical framework also forms the basis of the research assumptions and influences the choice of research methods for the study.2.2.1 Constructivist perspective.

Theoretically, this study is structured within Kepe's (2017) framework of constructive view of language learning which seeks to investigate teachers' practices and experiences in the teaching of reading to EFAL learners in high schools. In view of the above, language teaching is seen as a social practice. The teaching of English as social practice should be understood against the backdrop that the meaning of the words that we use, our actions and our behaviours, are socially constructed and personally interpreted (Dyers & Foncha, 2012). In other words, language (the use of words and signs) is unable to present an objective world (Foncha *et al.*, 2016). In this regard, Sivasubramaniam (2011) observes that words are not pictures of the world – but a representation of social practices that allow a community of human beings to understand each other. In light of this, there does not seem to be any universal language through which reality can be explained. Thus, an understanding of a given context can account for the degree of competency in the language being used (Foncha, 2013). Nunn (2016) explains that there is no central community where we can define norms or standards of English competence for all communities. In view of this, competence in academic language use is a holistic construct that needs to be pluralised to reflect the broad diversity of international settings in which it is used (Nunn, 2016). This implies that every individual has a different perspective of any given phenomenon. In other words, each EFAL teacher in a particular school applies his or her own approach and interpretation in teaching reading. Based on this, negotiation and re-negotiation of meaning becomes indispensable for knowledge to be generated. Thus, there is no quick fix approach to teaching reading but rather, it is a context that determines which approach(es) may be suitable for teaching reading in schools. It is on these grounds that constructivists insist on co-construction of knowledge for the good of all.

The verve of the above argument can be extrapolated through the quotation below which states that:

every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later on the individual level; first, between people (inter-psychological) and then inside the child (intra-psychological). This applies equally to voluntary attention, to logical memory, and to the formation of concepts. All the higher functions originate as actual relationships between individuals (Vygotsky, 1978: 57).

Vygotsky postulates that a child's interaction with the environment contributes to success in learning. In other words, the experience a child brings to a learning situation can immensely influence the outcome. The suggestion here points to the learner-centred-approach to learning where the learner rather than the teacher is at the centre. In this sense, the teacher plays the role of a facilitator by either scaffolding or modelling the child into discovery.

In addition, Vygotsky contends that – unlike animals that only react to the environment – humans can alter the environment to promote their own purposes. Thus, the adaptive capacity distinguishes humans from lower forms of life (Schunk, 1996). One of Vygotsky's central contributions to psychological thought was his emphasis on socially meaningful activity as being an important influence on human consciousness (Kozulin, 1986). Vygotsky considered the social environment as being critical for learning and thought that the integration of social with personal factors produces learning (Hendricks, 2013). In view of this, social activity is a phenomenon that helps explain changes in consciousness and establishes a psychological theory that unifies behaviour and the mind (Kozulin, 1986; Wertsch, 1985). According to Hendricks (2013), the social environment influences cognition through its "tools" that are its cultural objects (e.g. cars, machines) and also its language and social institutions (e.g. churches and schools). In light of this, cognitive change results from using cultural tools in social interactions, and also from internalising and mentally transforming these interactions (Hendricks, 2013). Vygotsky's most controversial contention was that all higher mental functions originate in the social environment (Vygotsky, 1962). Based on the continuing argument, Vygotsky thought a critical component of psychological development was mastering the external process of transmitting cultural development and thinking through such symbols as language, counting and writing. In light of this, and once these processes are mastered, the next

step involves using these symbols to influence and regulate one's thoughts and actions. Semiotic budget is of utmost importance stressing the importance of an enabling environment for teaching and learning. In view of this, marks should not be the basis for learning as this may result in fear and anxiety. Children should learn for the love of discovery, not for marks.

In contrast, Bereiter (1994) observes that children mentally figure out much knowledge about how the world functions – long before they have an opportunity to gain it from the culture in which they live. In view of this, indications also point to children having a biological predisposition to acquire certain concepts (e.g. understanding that adding increases quantity) that do not depend on the environment (Geary, 1995). As mentioned earlier, socio-cultural theory emphasises partnership and negotiation which are the bedrock of learning as a social practice where fear and anxiety are taken away from the learner to create an enabling environment void of intimidation. In light of this, Hendricks (2013) postulates that although social learning affects world knowledge and concept learning, the claim that all learning involves the social environment appears to be overstated. Nonetheless, it is known that the learner's culture is important and needs to be well-thought-out in explaining learning – which conditioning and information processing theories often have not done (Hendricks, 2013).

Another important concept in Vygotsky's (1978: 86) theory, is the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), which is defined as:

The distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers.

The ZPD represents the amount of learning possible by a student – given the proper instructional conditions (Day, 1983). It is a test of a student's readiness or intellectual level in a specific domain (Campione et al, 1984), and can be viewed as an alternative to the conception of intelligence as an IQ test score (Belmont, 1989). In the ZPD, a teacher and learner (adult/child, tutor/tutee, model/observer, expert/novice) work together on tasks that the learner could not perform independently because of the level of difficulty. The

ZPD captures the Marxist idea of collective activity, in which those who know more or are more skilled, share that knowledge and skill with those who know less about accomplishing a task (Bruner, 1984). Over and above that, cognitive change occurs in the ZPD as teacher and learner share cultural tools, and it is this culturally mediated interaction that produces cognitive change when it is internalised in the learner (Bruning *et al.*, 1995; Cobb, 1994). Working in the ZPD requires much guided participation (Rogoff, 1990); and children do not acquire cultural knowledge passively from these interactions, nor is what they learn necessarily an automatic or accurate reflection of events (Hendricks, 2013). Rather, learners bring their own understandings to social interactions and construct meanings by integrating those understandings with their experiences in the context. The learning often is sudden – in the Gestalt sense of insight – rather than reflecting a gradual accretion of knowledge (Wertsch, 1985b).

Based on Vygotsky's ideas, an immense application involves the concept of *instructional scaffolding*: the process of controlling task elements that are beyond the learner's capabilities, so that the learner can focus on and master those features of the task that he or she can grasp quickly (Bruning *et al.*, 1995). The analogy has five foremost functions: providing support, functioning as a tool, extending the range of the learner, allowing the attainment of tasks not otherwise possible, and using selectively only as needed. Although scaffolding is not a formal part of Vygotsky's theory, it fits well within the ZPD. The scaffolding concept is also found in Bandura's (1986) *participant modelling* technique (Chapter 4) – in which a teacher initially models a skill, provides support, and gradually reduces aid as the learner develops the skill. According to Hendricks (2013), the use of scaffolding is appropriate when a teacher wants to provide students with some information or to complete parts of tasks for them, so that they can concentrate on the part of the task they are attempting to master. Thus, if a teacher were working with students on organising sentences in a paragraph to express ideas in a logical order, the teacher might assist the students by initially giving them the sentences with word meanings and spellings, so that these would not interfere with their primary task. As they become more competent in sequencing ideas, the teacher might have students compose their own paragraphs, while still helping with word meanings and spellings. Eventually, students will assume responsibility for these functions (Hendricks, 2013).

Correspondingly, another area of application is *reciprocal teaching*. Reciprocal teaching is discussed (Bandura, 1986) in the context of reading comprehension. This technique involves an interactive dialogue between a teacher and small group of students. Initially, the teacher models the activities – after which teacher and students take turns being the teacher. Thus, if students are learning to ask questions during reading comprehension, the instructional sequence might include the teacher modelling a question-asking strategy to include checking of his or her own level of understanding (Hendricks, 2013). From a Vygotskian perspective, reciprocal teaching stresses social interaction and scaffolding – as students gradually develop skills. Another important application area is *peer collaboration*, which reflects the notion of collective activity (Bruner, 1984). When peers work together on cooperative tasks, the shared social interactions can be used as a teaching tool to clarify concepts that are beyond the students' cognitive capacity. Cooperative groups are most effective when students each have assigned responsibilities, and all must attain competence before any are allowed to progress (Slavin, 1983). In light of this, the emphasis today in using peer groups for learning in fields such as mathematics, science and language arts (Cobb, 1994; Cohen, 1994; DiPardo & Freedman, 1988; Geary, 1995) attests to the recognised impact of the social environment during learning. Slavin (1983a) observes three levels of cooperative learning: a) academic achievement b) race relations and c) mutual concern among students. In addition, Other outcomes include *inter alia*, student learning, improved self-esteem, time on task, identification of concepts, analysis of problems, judgement and evaluation and ability to take the perspective of another person.

In this regard, Kepe (2017) argues that the teaching of reading in schools should start from encouraging learners to read what they like so that they may develop voluntary love for reading and once such a love is developed for reading, then learning to read has begun. When learners are now conversant with reading, they can then read to learn and in a way, a reading culture has developed. There are quite a number of techniques used by Kepe (2017) which include:

- 1) Sustained Silent reading where as a teacher, he engages his learners in intensive reading during the first 10 minutes of all English first additional language class. He chooses the material that is grade-specific.
- 2) Book review where he requested all his learners to read any one book for every week and make a summary of such a book every week. Learners were expected to read ten books each term.
- 3) Journal entries where the learners were asked to capture everything that they read. Given that reading and writing are two sides of the same coin, he attempted to read the journals and gave the learners feedback which they worked on for the improvement of their writing. After three years working with these learners, there was a massive improvement in their writing, not only in English, but in all the other subjects.
- 4) Media journal where learners were required to use any media (newspapers, journals, magazines, television, radio, etc.) as source of information and capture in their own words

At the end of his study in 2017, Kepe noticed a marked improvement in his learner's ability to read with understanding and to write with minimal errors. Their performances academically were also a testimony.

Major influence on the rise of constructivism has been the theories of and research into human development of Vygotsky (Schunk, 2008:235). Vygotsky's theory of constructivism forms the cornerstone of the constructivist movement. It is anchored in the role of social mediation of knowledge construction that is central to many forms of constructivism. His theory lies in a dialectical constructivist perspective which holds the idea that knowledge derives from interactions between persons and their environment. As a social constructivist, Vygotsky stresses that social group learning and peer collaboration is useful and that learning and development cannot be dissociated from their context (Schunk, 2008: 241).

According to Glaserfeld (2003: 351-360), constructivism is a "viewpoint in the learning theory which holds that individuals acquire knowledge by building it from innate capabilities through interacting with their environment". The constructivist theory suggests

that as learners learn, they do not simply memorise or take on others' conceptions of reality; instead, they create their own meaning and understanding. Mergel (2011) defines constructivism as a perspective that emphasises that humans generate knowledge and meaning from interactions between their experiences and their ideas.

In line with the constructivists, social constructivism provides a psycholinguistic explanation for how learning can be fostered effectively through interactive pedagogical practices (Mitchell & Myles, 1988). To this end, learning takes place in a socio-cultural environment which views learners as "active constructors of their own learning environment. This emphasises that human beings learn not as isolated individuals, but as active members of the society. What they learn and how they make sense of knowledge depends on where, when and what (social context). It is from this stand point that Vygotsky (1978) claims that leaning occurs through dialogue. Wilson (1999) agrees that this dialogue takes place between a text and the readers. Whenever teachers and learners engage with a text, there is dialogue taking place as the learners try to make meaning not from the reader's view point but from their reader's interpretation.

Vygotsky (1978) asserts that learners make sense from what is said or written through internal or intramental dialogue. Thus learning is both interactive in the sense that learners interact with sources of ideas and knowledge in social settings, as well as that they take an active part in reconstructing ideas/knowledge within their own minds. Vygotsky (1978) further points out that learning depends on the purpose or motivation for learning. Lantolf (2000) calls it "activity theory" because it helps the learners to select and to focus on their learning, and how they go about it. In view of this, learners acquire knowledge differently if they are preparing for a test on irregular verbs, or if they are reading an email from a pen-pal or a magazine article about their favourite music.

To this effect, learning should be situated in realistic settings where testing is integrated with the task rather than with a separate activity. The bottom line is that learners should be actively involved. At the same time teachers should not teach through instructions to learners, but they should facilitate learning. A constructive assumption is that teachers should not teach in the traditional way but should structure reading lessons such that

learners are actively involved (Schunk, 2008). In view of the above, the Constructivists view reading as an active process through which learners discover concepts.

Based on the above principle, teachers need to play a large part in setting up a learning environment which can exploit different learning purposes. Thus, what should really matter is how learners themselves view an activity. In view of this, the interest of the language learner is to make sense of the situation in the context which the study refers to as interpretation. For learners to interpret adequately, they need to take the context seriously and also to identify with the text through their experiential knowledge since no knowledge exists without a knower. The constructivist framework could be helpful in the sense that it assists the teachers to have a clear view of the scope of the issue at hand and the principles that govern it. Also, it shows the direction of the research and what gaps exist for possible future works. Therefore, the practices teachers employ in teaching reading are influenced by the environment in which they are and so are the challenges and strengths of the teachers in a particular school.

In view of the above, reading is viewed not only as a cognitive process but also a social process. Although reading deals with mental processes in the head of an individual, the reader is surrounded and affected by a number of factors in his/her learning environment that influence understanding and interpretation. Without such an assumption, it becomes difficult if not impossible for teachers to appreciate why some learners struggle with reading and writing (McIntyre et al, 2011).

2.2.2 Scaffolding

Another fundamental concept in social constructivism is the idea of scaffolding. In its literal sense, scaffolding is a support structure that is erected around a building under construction. When the building is strong enough, the scaffolding may be removed but the building would remain strong and stable. In the metaphorical sense used by Vygotsky (1978), scaffolding refers to the support provided by others such as parents, peers, teachers or reference sources such as dictionaries which enable learners to perform increasingly well. It is essential to note that in the process of scaffolding, there is collaboration and negotiation taking place between the teachers and the learners. The

teacher under such a situation becomes a facilitator who guides the learner until the discovery stage.

In view of the above, Hammond and Gibbons (2001) refer to scaffolding as high challenge, high support. In other words, teachers need to set up tasks which challenge learners to perform beyond their current capacity. To enable students to achieve these tasks, teachers also need to provide support measures which would make it possible for learners to perform at this new level. If the task is not challenging enough, learners might be bored and possibly become demotivated. However, if there is not enough support, learners may become frustrated and may give up on the given task. Thus, scaffolding enables learners to achieve great leaps forward in their learning which in turn assists them to be proficient in the task they are undertaking. Scaffolding may also be linked to what Vygotsky's ZPD. By this he is referring to the range of tasks and activities which the learner may achieve with scaffolding, but which may be beyond their current abilities if they are unassisted. In this regard, teachers need great skills in assessing and then exploiting learner's ZPD. One of such skills could be the provocation of the learners' experiential knowledge.

2.2.3 The role of affordances

In this study, the term "affordances" is used to suggest an aspect or quality of an ecology which can facilitate action but not necessarily cause it to happen. In the context of this study, affordances offer an alternative way of looking at the dynamics of a language. The researcher uses the term 'affordances' in this study to suggest an aspect or quality of an ecology which can facilitate action but not necessarily cause it to happen (Foncha *et al.*, 2016). According to Foncha (2013: 23), affordances affords action depending on what an organism does with its environment and what it wants from its environment. However, this does not change the fundamental properties of the organism. In the same way, language can offer different affordances to its learners or users who may find them encouraging in their meaning constructions. To this effect, Van Lier (2000: 252) maintains that affordance in this scheme of inquiry is viewed as a dynamism that underlies the relationship between language and its learner/ user. In most cases, affordances are defined and understood as the offer of an object or an action request (Jenkins, 2003). This request, directs the

attention of a user on the relevant object. Thus, every object acts as a usage requirement for the person who requires that person to do something.

In addition, what people perceive when looking at objects are their affordances, not their qualities” (Gibson, 1986). This understanding of affordances as “perceived affordances” was popularised by Norman (2002) who talks about human interaction with objects and the relationship between properties of the environment. For instance, some objects can be manufactured or designed in such a way that the user would know explicitly what s/he deals with, without having read the instructions before (Norman, 2002). Nevertheless, there is always room for interpretation, as the perception of an object and the affordances ascribed to it may be different with every individual user. Hence, affordances are the relation between the perceived surroundings and the interpretations of the users (Chemero, 2003).

In this regard, humans make objects and the objects are thus outcomes of intentional design and manufacturing processes. They are real things, material or abstract, with properties that may have causal potential. The properties may be intended or unintended. The objects become part of the user’s live since they are also powerful forces acting to reshape human activities and their meanings” (Gibson, 1986). This simply means that people make a living by extracting resources from the environment and so do all organisms. This enables humans to describe and investigate the perceived features and values of objects that users interpret, which consequently guide their understanding on how different objects function (Gibson, 1986).

2.2.4 Ecological perspective of language

Like affordance, ecology is defined as the study of interactions of organisms with their environments and each other (Jenkins, 2003). She further defines ecology as the study of the distribution and abundance of organisms. She compares both ecology and human ecology by defining human ecology as the study of the interactions of humans with their environments. This means that they are more or less the same somehow. In view of this, the constructivists regard ecology and affordance as conducive environments which provide harmonious atmosphere for students to interact closely with their parents at home

and with their teachers and peers in the classroom using texts during the learning process. To this end, Chemero (2003) postulates that an ecological approach to language learning avoids a narrow interpretation of language as words that are transmitted through the air, on paper or along wires from a sender to a receiver. It also avoids seeing learning as something that happens exclusively inside a person's head. Moreover, he asserts that ecological educators see language and learning as relationships among learners and between learners and their environment. This does not deny the cognitive processes, but connects these cognitive processes with social processes (Chemero, 2003).

Van Lier (2000) asserts that an ecological view of language looks at every phenomenon of a language as an emergence and not as a reduced set of components that present phenomenon. To van Lier, an ecological view also stresses the perceptual ability and social involvement of a learner that can be seen in his/her interaction, and which can serve as a means of learning in this context. Foncha *et al.* (2016) posit that, an ecological view of language also supports a complete explanation of cognition and learning. Thus, learning cannot be acquired on the basis of the process that takes place inside the brain.

In the same light, Norman (2002) highlights that language is connected with kinesics, prosodic and other visual and auditory sources of meaning. This has resulted in new ways of practicing and theorising language education. This means that the ecological perspective therefore places a strong emphasis on contextualising language into other semiotic systems, and into the contextual world as a whole. It also calls for a re-examination of assessment practices that attempt to locate success in the solitary performance of the students and of reading practices that are cast in the form of instructional delivery systems. The usefulness of an ecological approach in this study was that it brings out an emergence of language learning, and in particular the teaching of reading.

2.3 POLICIES AND LEGISLATIVE BACKGROUND

This chapter begins by providing an overview of the policies context and legislative background in the teaching of reading in schools. This is important to understand reading and to relate what the teachers are doing to what is expected to be done. Policies draw

attention to the regulations and principles of languages which include reading as the main skill of languages. Also these policies provide guidance on language teaching.

DOE (2003) states that the language teacher has an important responsibility in ensuring that languages are fully utilised across the curriculum. This is also supported by Goodwyn and Findlay (2003) that it is generally accepted that teachers of English have the leading role in providing learners with the knowledge, understanding and skills they needed to write, read and listen effectively. In addition to this, Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) stipulates that every teacher is a language teacher. This is in view of the fact that each subject has its own language. This falls in line with the view of academic writing as discipline-specific (Foncha, 2015). In as much as the language teacher teaches the basics of communication, it is the place of content teachers to assist in the teaching of discourses within the given discipline. In this light, the role of the language teacher becomes oversimplified.

To this effect, the policies that were reviewed in this study included, amongst others:

- a. National Curriculum Statement (NCS)
- b. Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)
- c. Language-in Education Policy (LiEP)
- d. School Language Policy (SLP)

2.3.1 National Curriculum Statement (NCS)

In South African schools, there is a misunderstanding about the teachers' role in teaching reading in the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) (NCS, 2005). Most teachers believe that they do not have to teach reading, but to facilitate the process for learners to teach themselves to read (DOE, 2008: 8).

The second challenge facing NCS teachers is that they have to develop their own teaching materials and reading programmes. These teachers in question neither have the required experience nor the expertise to develop the required materials because in the past, the Department of Education provided them with prescribed books and the literature books for the different grades (DOE, 2008).

Thirdly and most importantly, most teachers in the intermediate and senior phases are not language teachers and therefore they need in-service training on how best to teach reading, and also need to be well versed with teaching in strategies and methods applied to teach EFAL learners how to read (DOE, 2008: 8).

2.3.2 Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)

From 2012, the teaching of English as a first additional language (EFAL) was given priority alongside mother-tongue and has been taught from grade 1. Time allocation to EFAL was increased by 1 hour per week in the foundation phases as from 2012. The introduction of Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) as it pertains to English first additional language in the foundation phase offers more time for the teaching of EFAL from as early as grade 1 on, thus, acknowledging the need for greater exposure to English in the foundation phase before transition to English as LoLT in grade 4 (DOE, 2010:14).

The implementation of the new Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement required the following adjustments;

- a. New textbooks, workbooks and readers for all grades;
- b. Training of provincial officials, principals, heads of departments and teachers;
- c. In-depth training of teachers over the next few years; and
- d. Communication with parents.

Both the NCS FAL (2003) and CAPS FAL (2010) clearly state that language structures should be taught in the context of the skills of listening and speaking, reading and viewing and writing and presenting and that “learners also need to know the basics of language; grammar vocabulary, spelling and punctuation (DBE, 2010:14)”.

2.3.3 Language in Education Policy (LIEP)

After the transition from the apartheid South Africa to full democracy in 1994, a new South African Language -in-Education Policy was formulated to meet the needs of the society in transformation (Barnes, 2004). Probyn *et al.* (2002) argue that this policy was designed to allow freedom of choices while adhering to the underlying principle of equity and the need to redress the results of the past discriminatory laws and practices and that policy was regarded as the most progressive in the world. According to Barnes (2004) that newly

formulated language-in-education policy was conceived as an integral part of the new government's strategy to build a non-racial nation in South Africa. The South African constitution envisages that all learners be fluent in at least two of the official languages, hence the formulation of the Language-in- Education Policy in 1997 (DOE, 1997).

The Language in Education Policy (LiEP) was published in 1997 and was incorporated in the Revised National Curriculum Statements of 2002 (DOE, 2002). It aimed at providing guidance on how the official languages have to be imparted in schools (LiEP, 1997). This view was asserted by Joshua (2007) that LiEP aimed at providing the foundation of articulating school language policies that substantiate the new curriculum development which aimed at maintaining home language while additional language was advanced.

Mda (2000) also attested that the importance of LiEP for its determinations in considering equivalency, independency and contribution to the nation. The LiEP also aimed at promoting multilingualism and the development of all official languages (LiEP, 1997).

According to the South African Schools' Act (SASA) 84 of 1996, all learners in South African schools should be exposed to at least two official languages. One language has to be offered as a first language (L1) which is considered as the home language of the learner while the other is offered as first additional language (FAL). In other words, as maintained by the LiEP (1997), that learners 'home language is expected to lay foundations for the FAL learning acquisition.

It needs to be taken into consideration that when the Department of Education in 1997, adopted the Language in Education Policy, it provided a strong foundation for the protection and advancement of the country's diverse cultures and languages (Heugh, 2002). The research by Joshua (2007) revealed that schools needed to promote education that allows learners to use their home language while providing access to quality English acquisition. This exercise will to a greater extent supports the development and the recognition of more than one language.

The Language in Education Policy (1997) recommends that school(s) language policies should support an additive approach to bilingualism That is to say that schools have to maintain the home language(s) of the learners while providing learners with access to an

additional language(s). To this effect, it cannot be overstated that most learners in South Africa prefer English as their first additional language (Linake, 2015). Forbes (2006) concurs that most learners in South Africa prefer English as their first additional language since “English dominates as the language of language of power and access. The general perception and belief amongst the EFAL learners is that if a learner is proficient in English, in future he/she stands a better advantage in the labour market as well as would earn a better salary than a learner who is not proficient enough in English. This is a large contributing factor to the high demand for English education in South African schools.

The LiEP (1997) provides the school governing bodies (SGBs) an opportunity to choose languages of their choices for their respective schools. It is after choosing the languages of their choices that schools are expected to design their own school language policies. The researcher felt that this policy is relevant in this study since it is meant to facilitate communication across the barriers of colour and language while fostering an environment in which respect for all languages as well as language policy matters.

2.3.4 School Language Policy (SLP)

The School Language Policy was directed by the principles that are consequential to the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa as well as the South African Schools Act (84 of 1996). This commended the importance the Language in Education Policy and also the recognition of Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) in teaching languages (reading in particular). This duty was the sole responsibility of the SGBs to draw their own language policies based on their needs.

Teachers were guided by the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS, 2011) on all skills to be taught in all subjects. To this effect, reading was regarded as one of the main skills for languages and it was envisioned that a learner should be capable of reading English well by the time he/she is in grade 3 (DOE, 2011). Singh (2009) observed that reading as an important skill for languages necessitates development in the learner's early years. With the ability to read, learners would be able to acquire the content of what they read and therefore reading to learn which the goal of effective teaching of reading is.

Probyn *et al.* (2002) maintain that there is a gap between the Language in Education Policy goals and what is happening in schools. Their research revealed that there is little SGB involvement in Language in Education Policy debates and development. They concluded that it is of great concern to note that although the huge responsibility of implementing the Language in Education Policy in schools is vested on the SGBs, they were never capacitated. Also what is to be taken into consideration is the fact that the SGBs are made up of parents, most of whom are not educated and know nothing about policies which could lead to their less or no participation in the policy implementation.

According to Probyn *et al.* (2002), it was found that the failure of the schools (SGBs in particular) to implement the school language policies is as the result of the following;

- a. SGBs do not have knowledge of the policy.
- b. SGBs do not understand the extent of their powers and responsibilities.
- c. SGBs lack experiences and expertise in developing their own policies.
- d. SGBs lack support from the Department of Education.

In line with the above, Taylor and Vinjevold (1999) highlighted that very few schools have developed their own language policies in as far as the LiEP is concerned.

2.4 READING

For most people living in today's modern world, reading is an everyday ordinary task to which little thought is given. Yet, it is one of the most important skills that learners acquire in schools that forms the foundation for all further learning. Reading is a transactional process as the reader brings meaning to the text and constructs personal meaning through exchange with the author. Davenport (2002) asserts that reading is an active search for meaning that involves the relationship between thought and language. Reading is also seen as a cultural process in which what counts as acceptable reading is culturally defined. In light of this, Oberholzer (2005) describes "reading" as the basic life skill and a cornerstone for a learner's success at school throughout life. Johnson *et al.* (2002) concur that reading is an essential learning tool which if learners have not properly mastered may

handicap their potential for success in a learning context. In line with the above, Gunning (2007) argues that reading is important for learning as it gives learners independent access to a vast world of information as well as fulfilment and enjoyment. It is also important to note that the National Department of Education acknowledges that reading is part of nation-building and that it is the most important linguistic skill that needs to be developed in young learners (DoE, 2008a). It is for this reason that Schimidt *et al.* (2002) posit that the ability to read is a critical component of school success and a strong correlation exists between poor reading ability and school failure.

To this depth, reading is regarded by Lyster (2003) as an important process which involves perceptive, emotional and societal issues. That includes the mind, senses as well as the community around the person who is reading and developing. Montgomery *et al.* (2000) thinks that reading looks at the involvement of societal and the historical context around the person involved in the process of reading. They further argue that reading involves making sense of what one is reading. It focuses on the basis of one's view about the world and also understanding other's possible views. Bettelheim and Zelan (2001); Mackie (2007) observe that learners enjoy reading a text when they are involved which happens when the teacher is proficient and reassures conversations and when the society around the learners is also involved. To this effect, Weaver (1994) defines reading as a socio-psycholinguistic process because it takes place within a societal and situational context. Learners read better when surrounded by the society that can read. Moreover, getting meaning from what one reads is also regarded as important (Weaver, 1994). Msimang (2012) defines reading as the ability to approach the text while understanding print information as an individual and the confidence of reading is gained. She also emphasises that reading with understanding allows one to gain information from the text. Perfetti and Marron (1998) concur that the education goal of achieving literacy is conception of what you are reading.

Additionally, reading involves not only understanding the text being read but also involves the elucidation of the language of the text (Nehal, 2013). Alyousef (2005) and Wessels (2011) add that even if the writer of the text is not available, reading provides the support for the collaboration between the reader and a text and also a discussion between the

writer and the reader. Elucidation of the skills to make sense of the author's objective and the understanding of language used are involved in reading (Mitasha, 2013). Without the knowledge of the language of the text being read, meaning making would be inconsequential. A reader needs to know the letters and sounds in order to acquire and grasp information from the text being read (Graves *et al.*, 1998). Thus, understanding letters and sounds can never be possible without the presence of the teacher who is in a good position to impart skills and knowledge of reading to the learner. When a learner does not understand what he or she is reading, that has also no value (Joubert *et al.*, 2008). Hence, proper value can be rewarded when each learner is able to form a picture of a concept in his or her mind that is considered as important.

In this regard, reading is an important skill that allows the reader to retrieve information (Pretorius, 2000). This means that reading is a contrivance for constructing practical knowledge structures; it includes the awareness of language. Meanwhile, Ganasi (2009) articulates that it as a skill which influences a person's life. On the other side, Maphumulo (2010) asserts that reading is an important feature of teaching and learning in all the languages. Alsamanadi (2008) also says reading is the skill that develops all the other language skills and which is necessary for all learners' academic development.

2.4.1 Efferent reading

In efferent reading, the reader's attention is to the information acquired after an act of reading. The information taken out of the text will relate to the logical solution to a problem, the actions to be taken that regard the ideas that need to be retained. In this type of reading, the main concern of the reader is to cull out information or carry away information from the text. This process in which information becomes a take-away is known as efferent reading (Rosenblatt, 1978: 1995).

2.4.2 Aesthetic reading

By contrast, in aesthetic reading the reader is mainly concerned with how his expressive potential helps in the recreation of the text. So, the reader attends to the images, assertions, and concepts that the words emphasise. In addition, the associations, feelings, attitudes, and ideas shown in the text are made to form a whole through a match

making that the reader attempts. Thus, attention is anchored in what he/she is experiencing as a 'living through' during the reading encounter with the text (Rosenblatt, 1978: 23-25). The efferent stance on the other hand, discussed above, is not conducive to promoting a response approach to reading literature. Based on this, if literary texts are used to target information – extraction practice, it will deplete and diminish the potential literature has for effecting educational and social changes. Meanwhile, aesthetic reading treats literary text as a blue print for realising a plurality of meanings by the reader. Such a stance is reminiscent of a post–structuralist position, which views the literary text as a dynamic entity encouraging the use of alternative meanings (Iser, 1978; Rosenblatt, 1995; Eagleton, 1983). The former and the latter thoughts and insights expressed in this chapter suggest that readers construct the genre's situation out of their changing material realities. Consequently, the academic texts our learners read and process could change their genre participation after a period of time. This is synonymous with a wondering view of understanding, which operates eminently in reader response applications. It is this perspective that can definitely account to what extent our learners are capable of using their written text to address issues of discursivity and, provisionality of the meaning they encounter, as a basis for voicing their agency and subjecthood.

2.5 Reading Theories

For many decades, educational psychologists have grappled with the problem of how reading occurs, which to date has proved to be much more complex and intriguing than previously thought, as reflected by theorists in various theories on reading (Jansen, 2003). Mergel (2011:2) infers that theories provide frameworks for interpreting environmental observations and serve as bridges between research and education. According to Jansen (2003:1), a theory is about thinking and reflecting; it is an initial idea or model that needs to be tested to determine its validity and to provide an explanation for a specific phenomenon. Overall formal theories are used to explore how children learn and develop have to be reliable, valid and true in order to be useful and theories will only be valid and reliable up to a point, as human beings are involved. A number of theories of learning and their connection to instructional designs are briefly outlined below.

2.5.1 Psycholinguistic Theory

Psycholinguists hold the view that readers use knowledge of their language and their environment to make sense of what they read. They perceive reading as a process that goes from the whole to the parts (top-down model) (Joubert *et al.*, 2008: 84).

2.5.1.1 The Psycholinguistic View on Reading

According to psycholinguists, reading is global and all the skills are implemented simultaneously to make sense of the written text. Reading is comprehension driven, with the reader bringing prior knowledge to the text, as learners make predictions and question the text. Meaning is most important and forms a foundation for reading.

Learners continue to learn to read throughout their lives, with no end point. Silent reading is essential for reflection and comprehension (Joubert *et al.*, 2008: 85). Teachers that follow the psycholinguistic view on reading regard reading as a holistic process in which readers' aims and expectations determine what they read and how they read. The process is not fragmented but comprises a meaningful whole. Attaching meaning to and understanding the text are the foundations for reading. Reading readiness in this context is seen as the immediate introduction and exposure to books. Learners play with books and discover that the written text has meaning. Learners' own sentences, written down by the teacher, are often the first text that is "read" and a variety of reading matter is used, for example, advertisements, recipes, riddles, jokes, and brochures (Joubert *et al.*, 2008: 85).

The learners work individually, in pairs or in groups, randomly selected and not according to their reading ability. They read to each other, to the teacher or to anyone willing to listen. Much silent reading is done but the book is also discussed. New words have to be learned before a book is tackled. Attention is also paid to phonics and sight vocabulary but it is more important to speak to learners about making meaning from the text (Joubert *et al.*, 2008: 86).

2.5.2 Behaviourism

Behaviourism is based on observable changes in behaviour and focuses on a new behavioural pattern being repeated until it becomes automatic. It concentrates on the study of overt behaviour that can be observed and measured, viewing the mind as a blank box in the sense that response to stimuli can be observed quantitatively while ignoring the possibility of thought processes occurring in the mind (Mergel, 2011: 3). According to Schunk (2008: 73), behaviourist theorists explain learning in terms of environmental events and mental processes are not necessary to explain acquisition, maintenance and generalisation of behaviour. Practice is needed to strengthen responses and complex skills can be accomplished by shaping progressive small approximations to the desired behaviour. Instructions should have clear measurable objectives, proceed in small steps and deliver reinforcements. The behaviourist theorist postulates that conditioning occurs in an automatic, unconscious way and does not involve any cognitive processes.

Behaviourist theorists stipulate that learners learn to read by being taught a sequence of skills that form the building blocks of reading. They also believe that a student can be taught to perform any task successfully if the unit of learning is small enough. The Behaviourist theory has influenced teachers who adhere to the bottom-up model of the reading process in which learners learn to read by proceeding from the parts to the whole (Norton, 2007: 20).

2.5.2.1 The Behaviourist View on Reading

According to the behaviourists, reading is a process that moves from the parts to the whole (bottom up). One first learns separate letters and their characteristics, then diphthongs and other letter units that represent sounds, thereafter single words, phrases and sentences, and lastly the meaning of the text. The reader must first master the mechanical and technical aspects of written language before attention can be paid to comprehension and understanding, and once the learners have mastered these skills they will be able to read (Joubert *et al.*, 2008: 71).

Teachers who subscribe to the behaviourists' view with regard to reading are of the opinion that reading aloud is essential for reading beginners. They regard reading as a

complicated skill made up of sub-skills, and reading readiness programmes need to be implemented before a learner can be allowed to read. The teachers use a series of graded readers to teach learners to read, after they first master the sounds of words, develop sight vocabulary words and thereafter read aloud to the teacher and peers. The learner's reading ability is assessed on the basis of his or her ability to read single words as well as sounding letter combinations correctly. Repetition of the same word in a text is a common way of addressing word recognition (Joubert *et al.*, 2008: 71), and according to Schunk (2008: 32), reinforcements and rewards encourage good behaviour.

According to Samuels and Kamil (1988: 25), the emphasis on behaviourism treated reading as a word-recognition response to the stimuli of the printed words, where "little attempt was made to explain what went on within the recesses of the mind that allowed the human to make sense of the printed page."

2.5.4 Models of Teaching Reading

A reading model is theory of what is going on in the reader's eyes and mind during reading and comprehending (or miscomprehending) a text (Davies, 1995). These models of reading process try to explain and predict reading behaviour. They are the bases on which reading instructions are built.

Wilson and Peterson (2006) argue that education has always been saturated with new ideas about learning and teaching reading. Moreover, teachers have their own pedagogies that they use in the acquisition of reading. The models that are included in this study were identified as the pedagogy used by teachers in the teaching of reading. They were found assisting in the improvement of reading. However, it was those models that were identified as theories by other researchers (Perfetti & Marron, 1998). Understanding how the models were used might assist in teaching development as well as in reading development. Perfetti and Marron (1998) found models of teaching reading very supportive in the acquisition of reading as well as in development for learners' ability to read. The models that were identified as useful are Gough's model, Era's model and Perfetti Restricted-Interactive model.

2.5.4.1 Gough's Model

The model of teaching reading that was identified by Gough considers the two important stages of reading and those are initial graphical association stage as well as translation-based learning stage (Perfetti & Marron, 1998). The knowledge of interpreting or translation is inattentive in the first stage and the learner uses several possible source of information provided by the teacher to discriminate one word from another and by doing this, the visually accessible vocabulary is developed. Gough emphasises that all the letters that are available in the text have to be administered separately before the reader can give meaning to any group of letters (Redondo & Mancha, 1998). Although the learner is not making sense from what he or she is reading in the first place, accessible vocabulary words are advanced. That leads to the development of phonological awareness and thereafter to letters of the words and later to the identification of words (Perfetti & Marron, 1998).

Reading is taking place in the progressive process because it is based on the effect that it is the processing of information that creates several intellectual developments (Gough, 1972). Readers translate the parts of letters into speech and then part of the sounds together in order to form individual words and thereafter that word assist in understanding the message from the text. Reading produces different intellectual development for the learner and that is based on the alphabetic principle and for the learner it is obligatory to adopt a procedure until he reaches the limits of learning associations.

This makes it clear that reading skills were not just acquired by the learner but they were taught. Gough considers that reading needs to be taught step by step until the learner understands what he or she is reading. Teaching reading for this model requires alphabetic principles and knowledge of phonological structure. However, making meaning from what the learner is reading was regarded as important.

2.5.4.2 Era's Model

Beech (2005) provided a concise analysis of Ehri's influential four phases of reading development which are pre-alphabetic, partial alphabetic, full alphabetic and consolidated alphabetic reading. The learner in his first stage of reading only articulates the words that

are part of all the logos around him (Beech, 2005). Learning to read was expected to start from the known to the unknown. That happens as they do not have a clear understanding of what they are reading.

This model regards stages of reading as very important in learners' development to read. In the second stage, partial alphabetic stage learners are expected to learn letters of alphabet and are expected to combine those letters in the word and try to pronounce the word (Beech, 2005). Learners need to be taught those words that are alphabetically similar so that they will be able to read well (Ehri & Wilce, 1985). The example of that is teaching part letters of words as in the word donkey, DKY is learnt for the learner to be able to recognise the word. In the full alphabetic stage, a reader can be assisted in the development of the phonemes of those words that have been read before (Beech, 2005).

Teachers need to expose the learners to more sight words that were seen in the second stage as that will make it easy to read. This highlights that those learners with full alphabetic skills recognise more words than those who were not (Beech, 2005). That means that they are able to learn to read new words by combining the produced articulations. The consolidated stage involves learning by consolidating repeated letter patterns of words. The "word 'chest' can be learned by two units 'ch' '-est' compared with 'ch, e, s, t'" (Beech, 2005: 52).

The knowledge of letters of alphabet is indispensable in Ehri's model. Teachers were expected to teach letters of the alphabet for the learners to be able to read and thereafter make meaning from what they are reading. Without the knowledge of the letters of alphabet, it can be difficult to read.

2.5.4.3 Perfetti Restricted Interactive Model

Perfetti and Marron (1998: 11) assert that learning the alphabet, is the key that moves a child into the first stage of reading, resulting in a stage called "phonetic cure reading". Learners' first chance towards reading was to use the names of sounds of letters as encouragement to word identification. Although it was letters of alphabet that provided reading opportunity, letter names do not generally appear as they have enough phonetic

connection to be used. For example, the learner may use letters D and G to remember the word dog.

Perfetti Restricted-Interactive model of teaching reading accepts that the illustrations for regular and irregular words are not qualitatively different. That is found to be divergent to the models that accept that only regular words contain valuable phonological information (Perfetti & Marron, 1998). They referred to it as a way of signifying knowledge that the learning reader acquires to that he can later consider in an adult learner. Their study revealed learning to read as the acquisition of developing numbers of words that the learner can be able to read. It is recommended that learners be taught the correct pronunciation of words in connection to the individual letters to read. In establishing those connections, phonemic awareness and then increasing context-sensitive decoding knowledge is required. That assists in moving from the practical lexicon which allows reading, to the independent lexicon of reading (Perfetti & Marron, 1998).

There was a need for understanding all the models of teaching reading as all the learners were different and therefore, learn to read differently. Gough' model considers the importance of translating what the learners were reading. Ehri looked at the reading levels while Perfetti considers the information obtained from the text. The three models can be used together in reading development as they all highlight the important aspects of reading.

Although the three theories presented in this chapter share an essential assumption that moving into a true stage of reading necessitates some use of the alphabetic principle, some knowledge of phonological structure is also involved (Perfetti & Marron, 1998). The acquisition of reading skills differs from one learner to another learner and that requires different models in teaching reading. This will mean understanding the kind of learners that you are teaching. However, more approaches and guidelines are essential in the teaching of reading. Different approaches in the teaching of reading will be discussed in the section below.

2.6 READING PERSPECTIVE

Teaching reading perspectives provides teachers with skills and ideas that can assist in the improvement of reading. Hall (2003) together with other well-known reading scholars used different perspectives on reading to clarify reading. Moreover, they were found to be useful to other researchers and the teachers of reading. Four reading perspectives are discussed in this chapter and those are: cognitive-psychological perspective, psycho-linguistic perspective, socio- political perspective and socio-cultural perspective.

2.6.1 Cognitive-psychological perspective

Cognitive-psychological perspective relates to the traditional phonetic approach, whereby children are taught to interpret words by building awareness of the part structure of language (Hall, 2003). This perspective involves the systematic teaching of word recognition when learning to read (Levy, 2011). He added that one specific postulation for this perspective is that children learn to read in stages. The first important stage of this approach was discovered by Gough and Hillinger (1980) as the paired-associated learning where learners learn to read in their environment. They added that learners at this stage begin reading from the environmental print. Moreover, Stanovich and Stanovich (1999) regard the stage as normal and when it was achieved the learner advance to the next stage.

Berkowitz (2008) discovered that cognitive-psychological perspective contemplates the importance of being able to comprehend the text that you are reading. In addition, the approach focuses on the development of metacognition strategies that can improve reading comprehension and improve writing abilities. The notion of comprehending the text was also highlighted by other researchers who considered the importance of reading and understanding what you are reading (Joubert *et al.*, 2008). Providing the title of the text being read is important in recalling what was read (Sternberg, 2000).

2.6.2 Psycho-linguistic perspective

Unlike the cognitive-psychological perspective, in the psycho-linguistic perspective attention is not on comprehending the text but it is based on the importance of language

when reading (Hall, 2003). Its emphasis is on the pronunciation of language words in the text that you are reading. Goodman (1976) asserts that the focus of psycho-linguistic perspective is on word identification. Language needs to be pronounced in the correct way for the learners to be able to read. This perspective contemplates that the real reading should be from the real book and it is asserted as the real book approach (Waterland, 1985). The real book approach is regarded as “an idea of teaching and learning that centres on the book, child, teacher and the whole interaction with the book, to ensure that the task is meaningful for the child” (Levy, 2011:12). Learners are also provided with the opportunity to guess and thereafter after corrected when reading the book (Levy, 2011). This encourages thinking when reading.

2.6.3 Socio-political perspective

The socio-political perspective regards reading as being implanted within the discourses of power (Levy, 2011: 13). However, Luke and Freebody (2000) argued that teaching to read included cultural, political and social practice. Similarly, Openshaw *et al.*, (2002) found that the reading programmes were being protected within the political and cultural context. Moreover, Hall (2003) mentioned that society, masculinity, social class and disability were important. This involved the issue of support and the connection between the learner, parents and school was also considered. This perspective is normally found to be used in countries with high standards of reading among their children population (Openshaw *et al.*, 2002). That is where the importance of context within the construction of meaning in texts was also receiving attention (Hall, 2003). The relationship between gender and reading was also observed to be useful in the reading development. Understanding gender differences in the school have been recognised (Millard, 1997).

2.6.4 Socio-cultural perspective

The socio-cultural perspective involves social and cultural contexts in making learners read. That means that the environment around the learner was considered as essential in the improvement of reading. Heath (1983) asserts that children’s language development depends on the cultural context and is extremely inclined by the community discourse within which the child belongs. The reading improvement may be affected by

the community that is not considering reading as its culture. Moreover, when the community does not speak the language being read, it becomes very difficult to develop. Hadi-Tabassum (2005) argued that learners learn the language more when surrounded by people speaking that language. Although the way that the child interacts with the text at home differs from what is done at school, Marsh (2003) argues that it is the home literacy that is recognised when the learner is learning to read at school.

2.7 CHALLENGES ENCOUNTERED BY TEACHERS IN TEACHING READING

Reading forms the basis for all the subjects, and it is expected that all children succeed in the process, and this expectation has not become a realisation for many children as majority of them are unable to read with comprehension in FAL (UNESCO, 2011). The success of language learner is largely influenced by his or her reading practiced. According to Harmer (2007), “reading is useful for language acquisition...the more they read, the better they get. Reading also has a positive effect on students’ vocabulary knowledge, on their spelling and their writing. It is therefore the responsibility of the teacher to develop reading habits in his/her learners in order to help them enhance target language efficiency (Neymam, 2002). The researcher in this study has observed that most learning at school depends largely on reading competence, which is a challenge to most teachers who teach English as first additional language in schools. It is the researcher’s opinion in this study that reading is important since it enables people to act creatively and critically in our competitive world, since it provides access to new information and knowledge. Abraham and Graham (2009) describe reading as the fundamental skill for children that is seen as the key to knowledge that opens up the worlds. Reading is an important process of getting information from written language.

In this study, the following have been identified as the major teachers’ challenges in teaching reading more efficiently in the rural high schools. They include amongst others;

- Unpreparedness of teachers
- Lack of reading resources
- Insufficient budget resources
- Poor remuneration of teachers

- Lack of teaming
- Parental support
- Poor training of teachers
- Overcrowded classrooms
- Communication difficulties
- Teacher's proficiency in teaching reading.

2.7.1 Unpreparedness of Teachers

Within the context of this study, unpreparedness would refer to a situation whereby English language teachers fail to choose a particular text for a particular lesson. Teachers come to class unprepared and not knowing which text to read and as such they end up delivering a long lesson on the text that they have chosen not knowing exactly what direction to take. Teachers do not care whether the text is appropriate to the grades or not. All they need to do is to be in class for the duration of the given lesson so that they may justify their pay cheques. The teacher who is supposed to model and scaffold the learners as a facilitator is completely lost and cannot guide the learners to any direction. This is a serious challenge among our teachers and something needs to be done about it. This challenge of unpreparedness makes it difficult for EFAL teachers to teach reading more effectively and they end up developing negative attitudes towards it.

2.7.2 Lack of Reading Resources

There is no clear cut policy on funding schools with libraries and to this effect those libraries that are found in our communities are ill-equipped, lack proper sitting accommodation, have unqualified staff members, or either lack relevant information resources such as books and other educational materials. Books and libraries are essential especially in this information age where knowledge and information have acquired the materiality of capital and commodity, whose uneven accumulation will dictate the wealth of countries or otherwise (Igwe, 2011). In order to achieve a total national consciousness of the value and benefits of reading, all stakeholders in the reading chain including, writers, publishers, booksellers, the media, teachers at all levels, librarians, the NGOs, the Government, religious community, etc. must join hands in supporting and

participating in this clarion call. Libraries are vital to education, and research has shown that current lower levels of proficiency in reading are due to under-funding of libraries and their services (Eyo, 2007).

It is common knowledge that less money means fewer resources. The learner teacher support materials (LTSMs) and shortage of libraries are common factors in our rural secondary school and this eventually makes it difficult for teachers to teach reading effectively (Eyo, 2007). In many rural schools as observed by the researcher in and around the Seshego circuit where there is a prevalence of EFAL learners, there is lack of reading resources. Pretorius and Mampuru (2007); Makoe (2007); Machet and Pretorius (2004) and Minskoff (2005) all state that schools are not well-resourced with libraries not having books/reading materials. Hugo (2010: 141) notes that there is a lack of readers as well as appropriate reading materials in many schools. Given that the libraries do not have books and reading materials or teacher's guides to teaching, it makes things impossible for the teachers to prepare their lessons. To make matters worse, teachers lack materials that they could use for teaching reading and at times have to read what they have for learners to listen only. This situation does not provide an enabling environment for teaching reading.

To this effect, Kruizinga and Nathanson (2010: 73) think that there is a lack of level Guided Reading books which makes it very difficult for teachers to implement the Guided Reading Approach correctly. Beukes *et al.* (2010: 33) share the same sentiment that insufficient amount of necessary resources causes teachers to be restricted in the teaching activities that they make use of in their classrooms. Adequate supply of schools with resources like books and libraries or any reading materials by the government will impact positively on improving the teaching of reading. It is through libraries that learning and reading can and do change the lives and they have a role to play in determining the future of our society.

This study is also augmented by a research conducted by Singh (2009) who propagates that the aspect of lack of resources is the biggest challenge faced by teachers in the teaching of reading to EFAL learners in rural secondary schools.

2.7.3 Insufficient Budget to Schools

According to Meador (2016) school finances have a significant impact on a teacher's ability to maximise their effectiveness. In most cases, rural schools are often forced to make cuts of their budgets and this has a negative impact on curriculum delivery. In view of this, budget decreases usually lead to unequal distribution of funds and standard money from the National Department of Education. This tends to affect the rural schools negatively as these schools suffer the most because their reduced budgets tend to restrict them from doing the right procurement. Budget decreases is also associated with lower morale and greater stress on the school management and teachers (Hurst, 2013). In this regard, teachers may eventually leave their rural teaching posts to go for greener pastures, probably to urban schools where their budgets are flourishing. Once this takes place, the quality of teachers recruited in the rural schools may fall short of expectation and would not deliver academically as required. This explains why the teaching of reading by poorly trained or unqualified teachers may not be up to scratch.

2.7.4 Poor Remuneration of Teachers

There is justifiable evidence that more South African teachers are taking up permanent positions in the Middle East, Australia, London and other countries abroad simply because they are sufficiently remunerated and also have good working conditions (Vegas, 2005: 435). According to Wragg (2004: 224), in London, for example, English teachers receive pay increases year-on year after appointment for about eight years until they reach a threshold, which is not the case with South Africa. South African teachers are prepared to relocate and to do whatever is required of them as teachers in first world, especially if it enables them to earn an income that compares favourably with local (SA) teacher's remuneration packages. Whitlow (2002: 243) maintains that paying teachers good salaries and offering them attractive benefits is part of the solution for their departure from the teaching profession. If the government is committed to retaining competent and experienced teachers in the teaching profession, it must offer them attractive fringe benefits that would motivate them to work even harder. Improving teachers' incentives leads to retention of the best teachers in the teaching profession (Prince, 2003: 91). It is therefore the responsibility of the government and the Department of Education in

particular to design attractive policies that would aim at recruiting competent and retaining effective teachers in the system. The government should make provision of incentive program for teachers at district or circuit level with the purpose of providing professional support and development on an ongoing basis.

It is evident that an attractive remuneration would push teachers to perform optimally in producing good academic performance among their learners. Such payment would take away some of the stress and depression that is common among teachers. Teachers also should be paid in accordance with their qualifications as this would encourage better performance and the overall improvements of academic results. Attractive remuneration would lead to high performance as attractive packages would be the motivation for why teachers would put in their all to develop personally and professionally.

2.7.5 Lack of Teaming

Team teaching is important for any institution to be successful. Ryde (2009) believes that the job of teaching can be made easier through cooperation and teaming leading to better results for both learners and teachers. Foncha *et al.* (2018) argue that teaming provides an opportunity for teachers to develop professionally. This may be organised in the form of workshops or seminars where teachers come together to share the strategies and methods that are easing teaching in their classrooms. Such workshops would create chances for novice and struggling teachers to seek help from the more experienced and qualified teachers. It is my belief that, if English language teachers can work together as a team in teaching reading, they may empower themselves.

2.7.6 Parental Support

Parents have a vital role to play in the development of the reading habit of their children. Yet, not all parents know how to become involved meaningfully in school- related activities (Fagnano & Weber, 1994: 57). This is because most parents are not fully aware and sufficiently knowledgeable about the education of their children. A majority of parents prefer to leave the teaching–learning processes in the hands of teachers to whom they think is responsible for educating their children. These parents are described as being desperately concerned for their children, uncertain of themselves and their roles,

confused and lacking in confidence about which questions to ask (Wolfendale, 1989: 02). There is a need for teachers to involve parents in the education of the learners. This is based on the fact that education extends beyond the classroom into the homes and community at large. In view of this, parental participation in the education of children becomes indispensable. In light of this debate, Eyo (2007) reveals that in Nigeria, 70% of the problem associated with the poor reading in our children is traceable to many social and environmental factors including parents. It is therefore the responsibility of every parent to monitor his or her own child's work after normal school hours as these parents assist their children with homework and other exercises that may help in children's development. Thus, parental morale and self-confidence have a direct effect on the children's educational achievement and so schools need to be aware of their own potential for influencing parents and therefore children's self-esteem and educational expectations (Blenkin & Kelly, 1996: 93). In this regard, the vital relationship between home and school could be viewed as a "triangle" within the context of learning with the child at the top, the parent(s) in one corner, and the teacher in the other corner (Dawn & Sedgwick, 1996:12). It is against this background that families and schools should not operate in isolation from one another.

Solomon (1991) argues that learners who receive educational support from parents or other adults at home, the community, teachers and others at school, tend to perform well in their academic work. Solomon further argues that effective parental involvement may very well be essential for helping more learners to reach the ambitious education goals that nations often set for themselves for the future. Therefore, parents should not only see teaching as the task of the teachers alone.

Particularly in rural communities, there is lack of supervision of children's school work by parents and as a result of this, many parents lack time, knowledge or do not make any effort to assist their children with reading activities at home. This is because those parents may not have reading skills as the majority of them are not educated enough and hence they do not understand the written work themselves (Singh, 2010). Teachers have gradually lowered their expectation in response to pressure from parents who think their children need "less homework", more play time and life outside the school (Mc Ewan,

2007: 44). By helping their children with reading activities parents may be closing the reading gap that already exists and in a way creating a reading culture which might ultimately bear positive results. Parents should make a point of duty that adequate resources are available and ready at school to boost the educational activities of their children. This could be achieved if parents assist in donating books and other reading materials to schools. If needs be, parents should be encouraged to establish private libraries at home in order to encourage the reading of their children. For example, a large room provided with shelves and reading desks can be set-aside in the house to achieve this notion.

Based on this, it may be argued that, parental workshops on educational affairs and some kind of adult literacy programmes should be introduced in schools or in circuits and districts so as to reduce parental ignorance and inability to assist their children with homework. If this task is carefully planned and well carried out, it would benefit both the school and the home and more importantly the overall child's performance. In order to involve parents more meaningfully in their children's learning, it is therefore of great significance for the schools to establish communication channels that would promote positive co-operative working relationship amongst all the stakeholders (that is; teachers, parents, children and government officials from the Department of Education). By properly communicating with parents, teachers will;

- a. fulfil their responsibilities in telling parents of their children's progress;
- b. explain the academic program to parents and solicit their understanding and assistance, and
- c. enlist parents' help in their children's work.

All the above seems to suggest that:

- children's learning requires a more effective learning environment, including extra reading materials to improve their facility in the classroom;
- schools should be provided with extra personnel and human resources, including possibilities of small interactive groups that are capable of reading, writing and speaking the language of education; and

- bridges of communication and interaction must build between home learning and school learning.

2.7.7 Poor Training of Teachers

The National Reading Panel's (2000: 19) in the USA shows that professional development is important in order for teachers to obtain adequate information on reading comprehension strategies so as to distinguish the most effective strategies suitable for different learners. In addition, it further attempts to present and model strategies that should be used in the classroom. McKeown *et al.* (2009: 229) share the same sentiment that the success and effectiveness of the teaching of reading relies partly on the training of teachers in reading comprehension strategies. In line with the above, it is only when teachers' motivation is rekindled that the training can be meaningful. The reason for recruitment of unqualified teachers is pushed by a shortage of qualified teachers which is a serious challenge affecting both developed and developing countries (Moore *et al.*, 2008). Based on this, many schools are forced to employ unqualified teachers to deliver lessons they are not trained for. Sterling (2004) reports that the continuous shortage of teachers is contributing to an increased number of underprepared teachers joining the profession without any formal pedagogical training. Many of such teachers cannot demonstrate subject matter competence and they do not have formal training as teachers nor prior experience in teaching reading (Futernick, 2003). More so, Fakeye (2012) reflects on the poor performance of English language among learners in Nigeria since 1960. He observes that "it takes a competent teacher to be able to teach the language skills effectively and to make them competent users of English language".

Concerning the teaching of reading, Moats (1999) states that teaching reading requires considerable knowledge and skills, acquired over several years through focused study and supervised practice. Hence, Maswanganye (2010) and Mhlongo (2012) postulate that teaching skills are lacking since the teachers are not being assisted with enough training. It is evident that teachers lack support in the form of teacher training and guidance from the Department of Education as they teach learners to read. In this regard, Singh (2010) highlights and emphasises the need for in-service training for the teaching of reading to the foundation phase teachers. Moreover, the same training should also be provided at

the senior phase and FET. It is in this belief that Theron and Nel (2005) assert that where teachers teach FAL reading without proper training and knowledge of making learners to read, reading development becomes very difficult to be attained. Thus, the lack of available professional development opportunities is a significant concern amongst the teacher (Hurst, 2013). It can be argued that there are no in-service training sessions or reading workshops for language teachers organised by the Department of Education either at national, provincial or district level. As a result of poor training, the schools end up hiring more newly-unqualified teachers because of the shortages of teachers. To this effect, teachers use their own self designed programmes and methods to teach reading.

2.7.8 Overcrowded Classrooms

Many schools in the rural areas are overcrowded because they cannot reject admission to local learners as requested by the Department of Education. Such a request is based on the traditional belief that the school belongs to all residents of that particular community in which the school is located. In rural schools in South Africa, teachers face a serious challenge of overcrowded classrooms (Hugo, 2010: 141). As such, the teachers are not always able to pay the necessary attention to individual learners in classrooms. Due to lack of space in the classrooms, the teacher-learner ratio is ignored and the teachers therefore find it difficult to implement various teaching activities and strategies.

With South Africa as a Second World economy, the problem of overcrowded classrooms is still prevalent most especially in the rural areas (Hugo, 2010). Even after twenty-two years into democracy, this challenged is still not attended to with the urgency it deserves.

2.7.9 Communication Difficulties

Skinner (2010: 82) identifies communication difficulties as being one of the main problem faced by teachers. Furthermore, teachers sometimes use learners who are competent in English language as interpreters in their classrooms since most of the learners do not have English proficiency. In light of this, Gan (2012: 49-50) asserts that inadequate English vocabularies prevents both teachers and learners from expressing themselves clearly, thus affecting fluency of communication. This would in one way or the other affect

the teaching of reading since many learners would not be able to understand lessons in English as a subject and as language of learning and teaching.

In trying to close the existing communication gap between teachers and learners, teachers who teach EFAL resolve to use teacher-centred approaches to teach reading rather than learner-centred approach (Fareh, 2010). This can be attributed to the fact that English language is new to EFAL learners and with limited English proficiency, teachers find difficulties to actively engage with learners. The foregoing statement amplifies why Chiu (1998: 78) stresses that teachers also experience challenges such as learners expressing displeasure towards learning English as additional language.

2.7.10 Teachers proficiency in teaching reading

Proficiency in English has a prestige factor among many black South African with regard to the teaching of reading (Eiselen, 1969: 6). This is because most people who teach English are in fact not native speakers. Alexander (2000:11-12) concurs that in South Africa, teachers who are not native speakers of English, teach the language in schools. Therefore, the English proficiency acquired by both learners and teachers is in fact at a second level. The major challenge is that teachers who are not English language speakers turn to pronounce words differently.

Language as a means of communication is a very important tool in the classroom and the mastery of it would enable teachers to talk, read, think and write. Meganathan (2009) states that teachers in rural schools are faced with challenges in terms of teacher proficiency, and this affects the teaching of reading. According to Wallace (2003:8), language mediates learning hence it is regarded as a prerequisite to learning.

English language proficiency amongst teachers emerged as a barrier and has a definite impact on the teaching of reading to EFAL learners. In line with the above, Cumin (1980:177) argues that when teaching reading to English first additional language learners, teachers should make a clear distinction between two types of language proficiency:

BISC (basic interpersonal communicative skills) and CALP (cognitive academic language proficiency). Makoe (2014:51) explains:

Language proficiency in the LOLT and learning cannot be separated. The more proficient learners are in a language, the more likely they are to perform well and to master the fundamentals of literacy at school. Cooke and Mayiam (2001: 101) maintain that teacher's lack of exposure to the LOLT tends to low quality education.

In this study, the challenge faced by EFAL teachers was that they were able to follow instructions and express themselves in English (BICS) and not act at level of CALP. Moreover, one can argue that in the context of this study the challenges experienced by teachers in the teaching reading to EFAL learners can be attributed to the fact that English and Sepedi are very different languages. Consequently, teachers switch to their native language (Sepedi, in this regard) to clarify certain concepts.

2.8 WAYS TO IMPROVE THE TEACHING OF READING

There are quite good number of techniques and strategies that could be used in the teaching of reading to learners. A good number of studies have delft into these strategies and now act as some indicators to this study. It is therefore needful to bring in this indicators to gist the readers that contexts play a vital role in the selection of reading strategies. These strategies include:

- Teacher's proficiency in teaching reading
- School support
- Support from the Department of Education

2.8.1 Teachers' proficiency in teaching reading

Proficiency in English per se has a prestige factor among many black South Africans (Eiselen, 1969: 6). This can be attributed to the fact that English is generally associated with higher socio-economic status. It is evident that most EFAL teachers in South Africa lack proficiency in English which is a language of teaching and learning (Foncha *et al.*, 2016). Even in instances where teachers and learners are proficient in English, such

proficiency is only limited to oral English. It is in this light that most teachers use indigenous languages in the teaching of English. Linake (2015) argues that the teaching of reading in English is limited by teacher's lack of proficiency in the language of teaching and learning. Thus, teacher's proficiency in English therefore becomes a pre-requisite in the teaching of English. This calls for in-service training by the Department of Education to empower teachers who lack proficiency in English to get up to speed and be developed to a level where they can do what is required of them professionally and also pedagogically.

2.8.2 Schools' support in teaching reading

Teachers have a great job to perform in a school and therefore they need to be supported by the school administrators, parents and other stakeholders to be adequately inducted and trained in teaching reading in an efficient manner. Without this support, their efforts of mediating for learners with reading difficulties will not bear good results. In this regard, Maswanganye (2010) and Mhlongo (2012) exposed that teaching skills were lacking as the teachers were not assisted with enough training to teach reading. They further highlighted that teachers were lacking support in the form of teacher training and guidance from the Department of Education as they teach learners to read. Singh (2010) shared the same sentiment and emphasised the need for further training for the teaching of reading for the foundation phase teachers and to a larger extent to the senior phase teachers too. Additionally, Theron and Nel (2005) assert that where teachers teach FAL reading without proper training and knowledge of making learners to read, reading development will be difficult to attain.

Furthermore, Klaassen (2002) highlighted the significance of teacher training and affirmed that where a second language is the medium of instruction, teachers not only require proficiency in the medium of instruction, but also training in specific strategies and techniques is essential. Hurst (2013) affirmed that the demand for competent reading instruction, and the training experiences necessary to learn it, have been seriously underestimated by universities and by those who have approved licensing programs, or a management of a reading program based on assessment. As a result of this poor training of teachers with regard to reading in particular, the consequences for teachers

and learners alike have been disastrous (Hurst, 2013). To this effect, Honan (2015) postulates that teachers should provide an integrated approach to reading that supports the development of oral language, vocabulary, grammar and reading fluency. Hence, there is need for the use of diverse strategies by language teachers in the teaching of reading.

2.8.3. Support from the Department of Education in teaching reading

Maleki *et al.* (2014) is adamant of the inadequacy of high school English textbooks and therefore feel that the Department of Education is not doing enough to support teachers in the teaching of English. In view of this, they list the following as challenges:

- a. The use of unattractive, boring, outdated and incoherent texts in the book;
- b. The use of incoherent, inappropriate and unattractive pictures;
- c. The lack of cohesion and proper relevance among the lessons and the texts of subsequent books;
- d. The lack of coordination between the size of contents and the time dedicated to them; and
- e. Shortage of variable activities.

The resources distribution system that ensures that everyone has access to a wide range of reading materials, regardless of economic status or geographical location is not properly taken care of by the Department of Education. An education system needs to integrate reading, library use and information literacy education at the core of the curriculum at all levels of education. This should be done to encourage reading for pleasure and lifelong learning. A government that vigorously promotes the value of reading at national, geo-political, state, local and community levels is one that cares about educating its population. In effect, the Department of Education has failed to provide this to schools and as such not giving the necessary support that schools require from them.

2.8.4 Selecting a Proper Text

Selecting a proper text is important for teachers to teach reading in class. CAPS recommends the use of the appropriate level of text for the teaching of reading. The topics selected should be of contemporary interest. It is difficult to select an appropriate text fit

for the readers, yet some proper steps should be practiced to ensure the right choices. Text should be selected according to the linguistic level of the learners and the purpose of reading. In light of this, Shahidullah (1995-6: 226) states that “students present linguistic level, and the level of their content and cultural schemata have to be taken into consideration in selecting texts for them”. Candlin (1984: x) concurs with this and says further that;

Texts do not have unitary meanings potentially accessible to all, they rather allow variety of interpretation by different readers, governed by factors such as purpose, backgrounds, and the relationship established in the act of reading between the reader and the writer.

A good teacher should take all of the above when selecting a text to teach reading. If a text is carefully selected, the readers at that level will not have problems with the vocabulary.

Nuttall (1996: 70) points out three main criteria for a good selection of a texts;

- a. **Suitability:** it is essential to ensure “that the text should interest the reader- preferably enthral and delight them.”

- b. **Exploitability:** it is “facilitation of learning”, and its importance is next to suitability. “A text you cannot exploit is no use for teaching even if the students enjoy reading” because “the focus in the reading is neither language nor content, but the two together: how language is used in conveying content for purpose”. According to Williams (1996: 36) exploitation is used ‘in broad sense’ to refer what is done in the three phases involved in reading the pre-reading, while reading and post reading phases.

- c. **Readability:** it refers to the combinations of structural and lexical difficulty. As the linguistic and structural levels are not the same for all the students, “it is necessary to assess the high level for the students” (Nuttall, 1996: 174) in terms of vocabulary and structure into account.

According to Urquhart and Weir (1998: 205), texts should be selected considering intended audience, intended purpose, source, length, lexical range, rhetorical structure, topic familiarity, relationship to background knowledge, and channel of presentation. Most teachers do not take all these into considerations and therefore find it difficult to teach reading since learners would be unable to respond to or interpret the text.

2.8.5 Guided Reading

Guided reading is a teaching approach used to improve the teaching of reading with all readers, struggling with reading (Iaquinta, 2006). Fountas and Pinnell (2001) note that guided reading is one of the components that the teacher may use to help his/her learners learn to use reading strategies such as context clues, letter and sound knowledge. The goal of guided reading is for learners to use these strategies independently on their way to becoming fluent, skilled readers.

Williams (1996) has suggested that for effective teaching reading in the classroom, a well-guided reading lesson ought to follow the three important stages as indicated below.

2.8.5.1 Pre-reading

Pre-reading stage is important because it can “whet” the learners’ appetites to read. According to Greenwood (1998: 15), pre-reading can provide a ‘need to read to complete an activity or confirm an idea, and it can persuade the learners that as far as perception or hypothesis is concerned there are no right or wrong answers, only different ones’. In pre-reading stage, the teacher’s duty is to, firstly, set the purpose for reading, and secondly, to introduce new vocabulary, to make predictions and design activities that prepare the learners mentally to accept what he/she is going to teach about.

Some pre-reading activities as suggested by Urquhart and Weir (1998: 184) include;

- a. Thinking about the title
- b. Checking the edition and date of publication
- c. Reading appendices quickly
- d. Reading indices quickly
- e. Reading the abstract carefully

f. Reading the preface, the forward and the blurb carefully

The main objectives of this stage according to Williams (op.cit) are as to;

- a. introduce and arouse interest in the topic;
- b. motivate learners by giving a reason for reading; and
- c. provide some language preparation for the text.

2.8.5.2 While-reading

In the while-reading stage, the teacher's role is to guide learners as they read, to provide enough opportunities to give feedback, and give clues as needed by individual learner, such as, "Try that again", "Does that make sense?", and "Look at how the word begins". Greenwood (1998: 59) asserts that during while-reading stage, learners should be involved in activities which enable them to respond cognitively, emotionally and imaginatively to imaginative writing.

Shahidullah (1995-6) suggested the following activities associated with while-reading approach;

- a. Guessing meaning from context
- b. Analysing sentences
- c. Surveying text structure
- d. Extracting specific information
- e. Getting detailed information
- f. Answering pre-set questions
- g. Matching texts with picture, diagrams, etc.
- h. Guessing meaning of unfamiliar words

Williams (1996: 38) indicates that the while-reading stage is the most active significant stage because proper activities enable the learners to;

- a. understand the writer's purpose;
- b. understand the text structure; and
- c. clarify text content.

2.8.5.3 Post-reading

During this stage, the teacher should strengthen the comprehension skills and provide praise for strategies used by learners during reading. This stage is designed to evaluate what the teacher has taught in the while-reading stage. The activities at this stage do not refer directly to the text, but “grows out” of it.

According to Williams (1996: 39), the post reading stage enables the learners to;

- consolidate or reflect upon what has been read; and,
- relate the text to the learners’ own knowledge, interest, experience or views.

According to Fountas and Pinnell (2001), the most important element for a teacher when using guided reading with students in a classroom is to select and introduce texts for particular group of learners who share similar developmental needs at a point in time creates a context that supports learning. Teachers should give learners that they are familiar with. In addition, laquinta (2006) argues that the teacher’s goal is to strive to provide the most effective instruction possible and to match the difficulty of the material with the learner’s current abilities.

2.9 Teaching Reading Comprehension

Teaching reading comprehension as a strategy of improving teaching of reading forms basis for academic learning. The common approaches to teaching reading in schools are sight-vocabulary instruction and instruction and phonics (McCray & Vaughn, 2011). Sight instruction attempts to teach random lists of words, usually with flash cards. As the flashes the card, the learners pronounce it. The learners go through the cards repeatedly until they have memorised them, as evidenced by their ability to pronounce each word presented.

Reading comprehension strategies have to do with methods, instructions or procedures that teachers, reading practitioners and researchers depend on in order to improve learners’ reading comprehension. In support of the above observation McNamara and Kendeou (2011) note that reading comprehension involves the construction of a coherent mental representation of the text in reader’s memory. The National Reading Panel report indicated that there are several cognitive strategies that are important and are known to

improve reading comprehension. The strategies include; activating background knowledge, questioning, searching for information, summarising, organising, and structuring (NRP, 2000).

Manning and Manning (1984) state that teachers can monitor learners when they read texts that are appropriate in terms of their difficulty levels. The teacher's duty therefore, would be, to teach learners how to coordinate the use of different strategies as mentioned above when interacting with the texts. Teachers should always encourage the re-reading of texts because this would improve reading comprehension for learners. Teachers should allow learners to read in pairs as this would assist to master reading comprehension well.

According to Gee (1990), Heath (1983) and Street (1995), it is very important to develop strategies for classroom literacy teaching that uplift literacy and socio-cultural practice in the South African context. Street (1995) points out that children who learn literacy benefit from teaching approaches that see literacy as a social and cultural practice.

Barone *et al.*, (2006) have introduced the following comprehension strategies that would help teachers in improving teaching of reading. They are;

- Question Generating and Question Answering
- Reciprocal Teaching
- Explicit Teaching
- Models of Teaching Reading

2.9.1. Question Generating and Question Answering

This strategy equips the students with the knowledge of answering questions. An important instructional comprehension strategy is to teach learners to generate their own questions about written material (Vacca & Vacca, 2009). In addition, six reading strategies, namely, prediction, think-aloud, using text structure, using visual cues, summarisation, and answering and question identified by Cunningham and Allington (2007) are said to provide readers with skills to improve comprehension. On a similar note, Booth and Swartz (2004) and Miller (2002) emphasise the importance

of learners using comprehension strategies while they are reading, making effective comprehension summaries of what they have read, generating questions, making predictions about what is to come, clarifying the text.

2.9.2 Reciprocal Teaching

Reciprocal teaching (RT) is a classical method of teaching reading strategies, coined by Brown and Palinscar (1989). It is used to enhance learners' reading comprehension. This method allows the teacher and the learners to interact with each other as they engage in a dialogue to construct meaning from the text. RT encourages learners to work independently as they are taught use strategy with each segment of the text. Brown and Palinscar (1989) point out teachers and learners must work together when using the collaborative approach to text comprehension. It is important for the teacher to teach learners how to work independently. These authors further declare that it is the teacher's responsibility to teach learners how to determine what is worth knowing from the text or how the text needs to be interpreted. Secondly, in a classroom setting, is it important for the teacher the learners how to construct meaning from the text. The teacher needs to show learners how he/she arrived at the answer. In addition, Stahl (2004b) points out that reciprocal teaching still has a strong research base among primary graders.

2.9.3. Explicit Teaching

Another method of teaching reading strategies is explicit teaching. According to Sweet and snow (2003), training in vocabulary and fluency on its own does not improve learners' reading comprehension does. Sweet and Snow further (2003) explain that cognitive strategies are also teachable in the classroom setting in an instructional manner. Teachers can teach these strategies to learners, resulting in good readers who frequently use the strategies when they encounter a text. Sweet and Snow (2003) claims that if teachers teach comprehension strategies explicitly, it will make a different to learner outcome, especially, for low achieving learners.

Anderson (1999) mentions that teachers need to make students aware of the full range of strategies available to them. Furthermore, second language learners have a variety of strategies to choose from, in case they encounter a difficult word. They can use word

analysis strategies, where they can divide the word into prefix and stem. Another strategy is context clues which help the learners to guess the meaning of a word. Dewitz (2003) confirms that strategy instruction enables the study by the National Reading Panel (NRP) (2000) showed that teaching reading comprehension strategies enables learners to become active readers who understand what they are reading. Teachers need to equip learners to develop and apply reading comprehension strategies to improve their understanding, as this is linked to the learners' achievement. Learners' achievement in the school environment is also highly influenced by the literacy practice in the home environment.

2.10 Approaches to Teaching Reading

Approaches are regarded as the methods that the teachers use when teaching reading. Effective teachers have always been varied, choosing purposefully from the collection of accessible approaches to certify their learners have pre-eminent possible learning experience and effects (Ferreira, 2009). Children whose mother tongue is not English have more phases to go through when they are learning to read in English. In response to the question: How is English first additional language reading is taught? Different approaches in the teaching of reading were discovered. Various approaches may be important in introducing the learners to foreign language reading, due to the teachers' practical philosophies around the teaching of reading which they have advanced while they were at their training and also because of their experiences in the teaching of reading. Variety of approaches needed to be discussed in this chapter since all learners are found to be different and different approaches needed to be used.

Many researchers assert reading as a very important skill that needed to be attained to learn new information (Alsamanadi, 2008; Ganasi, 2009; Maphumulo, 2010; Msimango, 2012). Reading is taken as an essential that every individual needs to fully develop and to explore the world. Alsamanadi (2008) looked at reading as a skill that develops all other skills and it is vital for learners' academic success. He further explained that, no matter which approach is used for reading, it is considered as important and all approaches are a way to reading. Ferreira (2009) avers that different approaches can be used for teaching

learners to read. However, different experiences can make teachers to prefer the approaches that they use when teaching reading. In this study, the following approaches would be discussed;

2.10.1 Genre-based approach

Firkins *et al.* (2007) divulged that genre-based approach offered teaching methodology that enables teachers to present clear instructions in a highly proficient and reasonable manner. The point of departure in this approach is to teach the learners to identify whole words and to read sentences without sounding the words. In other words, learners would read the complete sentences and to attach meaning to what they have read. Norton (2007: 15) refers to this type of approach as the whole language approach. This is because teachers would help the learners to concentrate on the whole meaning of a passage.

The conviction is that learners' cognitive association of information will be advanced. Firkins *et al.* (2007) added that genre-based approach is based on a teaching-learning cycle where approaches such as modelling texts and combined structure are supported. This suggests that the learners are directed to deconstruct the organisation and language features of model texts, and thereafter build new texts in the same genre. Rose (2012) found that to be done by using the text organisation and language features identified in the deconstruction. The teacher and the learner share the reading.

During the shared reading sessions, the teacher may find it suitable and convenient to model a range of reading strategies for the learners. This will show the learners what to do and how to pronounce some words in a text. The teacher assists in decoding unfamiliar words and gradually the learner is given the opportunity to take over the task of reading.

Rose (2012) argue that genre-based approach endeavours to address and recognise the social and cultural diversity in a classroom. Moreover, Painter (1986) asserts that it is an approach based on learning through assistance. He added that learners learn better when they are assisted by both their teachers as well any member of the community. This highlights that teachers and parents needed to intervene and work together in learners attempt to read.

This approach considered the importance of modelling the text that you are reading to the learners. This will help the learners to follow and copy the adult that is demonstrating the text. That was done until the learner can be able to read on his own. The teachers would be able to assist the learners to select materials of personal interest as a result they are more motivated to read it. Based on the research, it becomes easy to read after text was modelled. Phonic approach is discussed in the next section.

2.10.2 Phonic approach

Phonic approach relies on the appreciation that written language is directed to the spoken language. The approach focuses on phonetics, which is the way of articulating speech sounds (Joubert *et al.*, 2008). Sound values of letters as well as letter combinations which build the word according to the rules are included. Learners are taught the letters of alphabet, and the combination of letters, phonically as they are actually pronounced. Phonic approach explains the correlation between the letters of written language and the individual sounds of spoken language (DoE, 2008). This approach is also promoted in the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). It also seeks to prepare learners for language use in real world situations. Although this approach can become complicated as all the pronunciation rules are introduced, it can be a very useful way into reading for those learners who are not familiar with the language.

The Phonic approach seems to work well with most learners, but it depends on the extent to which each learner receives individual instruction in pronouncing and reading the words (Joubert *et al.*, 2008). Teachers who adopted this approach discovered that there is a strong connection between phonemic awareness, the ability to process words automatically, fast and reading attainment (Wallace, 1992). Moreover, clear instructions needed to be given to the learners to learn through this approach.

Hugo (2010) and Joubert *et al.* (2008) divulged that the phonic approach regards reading as a 'bottom-up' approach, which requires the reader to learn individual letters and letter features first before the single words are read. It considers the relation between sounds and symbols in a text. Bottom-up approach accentuates the improvement of sub-skills which later lead to intricate reading skills (Joubert *et al.*, 2008). Bottom-up approaches to

reading are based on the view that readers learn to read by decoding, and that reading difficulties can be relieved through the advance of phonic skills Tindale (2003); Reitzel and Cooter, (2000). Nunan (1991) supports the above statement that in this approach, reading is viewed as a matter of decoding a series of written symbols into their aural equivalents in the quest for making sense of a text Gray and Rodgers (as cited in Kucer, 1987) emphasise that in bottom-up approach, reading is viewed as a linear process by which readers decode a text word by word, linking the words into phrases and then sentences.

Flanagan (1997) states reading is considered as a translating process and the teaching of reading should concentrate on the translation of the units of written language to units of spoken language. Pretorius (2002) contends that phonic approach is not necessary to the teaching of reading since it is not adequate for learner development to read. She further explained that learners who are able to translate might be able to read with confidence and correct pronunciation, but have no idea what they are reading. Reading is about understanding what you are reading.

Tindale (2003) disagrees with the above idea as he considers bottom-up approaches generally as the reading skills evolving at the level of word recognition. He added that, there was a little connection to the text and to the readers' background information. Moreover, Pretorius (2002) agrees that the learner's background knowledge is important in this approach. The support from the other approaches is highlighted as rote learning is also encouraged in this approach.

Landsberg *et al.* (2005:164) concluded that teachers using this approach for reading instruction can use a synthetic approach in which letters, sounds and syllables are used to build meaning. Carrel (1988) and Swaffar *et al.* (1991) also maintain that in using this type of approach, linguistic clues would be built through literal comprehension of a text. To this effect, teachers in this approach would put emphasis on decoding skills and they would spend more time helping emerging readers what they read as readers.

2.10.3 Language experience approach

Language-experience approach is based on the child's verbal language (Flanagan, 1997). Once the learners are able to read and express their thoughts in writing, their teachers can introduce them to the language-experience approach. Learners write about what they see and hear and also learn to write about their experiences (Wessels, 2011). In this approach, learners are encouraged to write their own stories and thereafter assisted to read what they wrote. Flanagan (1997) found that it sometimes happens that the teacher writes down a sentence which is based on what the learner has said and the learner should be given the opportunity to read. Learners may find it immensely motivating to read what they composed and what was familiar to them. Wessels (2011) asserted that teachers who use this approach work together with their learners and write stories with them so that they can read the books they wrote together. This familiarises the reading to the learners.

Language-experience approach is similar to the whole language approach in a way that both involve language. It is suggested that reading should be taught in a holistic approach rather than as a set of single and sequestered skills in the Language-experienced approach (Savage, 1994). Flanagan (1997) added that for this approach to be operational, teachers' attitudes towards the learners and their attitudes are important. Teachers need to communicate their interest with the learners so that they will be able to perceive what they have to say. Through this approach, a range of important strategies which include creativity and others can be learnt. Approaches worked well with other strategies for teaching reading.

Joubert *et al.* (2008) asserted that no single approach can be successfully used in teaching reading to young learners. They recommend the use of different approaches as well as the importance of the teachers who are teaching learners to read. However, knowing the kind of learners in your classroom is of vital importance in choosing the approach that can be helpful to your learners.

The DBE (2011) recommended other the activities of teaching reading that can be used for reading development. Those are: exposure to environmental print, shared reading,

group- guided reading, paired and independent reading, phonics, word recognition and comprehension.

Norton (2007:11) refers to this approach as the “balanced approach”, and points to the sub skills approach to reading in which teachers using this approach believe that there is a set of sub skills that have to be mastered by learners in order to read proficiently.

2.11 STRATEGIES OF TEACHING READING

Teachers need to use various reading strategies to provide learners with reading proficiency skills. There are many reading strategies; however, only three of them that are relevant to this study will be discussed. These three reading strategies are; reading aloud, reading a lot and peer tutoring.

2.11.1 Reading aloud

Little and Hines (2006: 13) suggest that novice learner readers must be exposed to reading aloud for them to benefit. This practice has long been recommended in reading instruction. In 1985 the Commission on Reading reported that the single most important activity for building the knowledge required for eventual success in reading is reading aloud to learners. Reading aloud is a common practice in primary grades (Little & Hines, 2006: 13). They also discuss this in detail and its importance in the intermediate grades (Little & Hines, 2006: 13). Little and Hines (2006) argue that people read aloud to learners in order to model fluent reading and for learners to experience and hear how new words are pronounced, to learn more about the world, and finally to develop a love for reading. According to Minskoff (2005: 3), reading aloud is also used to improve comprehension strategies and engage learners in trying out new reading strategies.

Teachers who engage in reading aloud not only support reading growth through overall literacy exposure, but also model reading enjoyment and broaden learners’ exposure to different types and levels of books. Learners whose first language is not English benefit from this exercise, especially if the reader is eloquent and can articulate the language appropriately (Little & Hines, 2006: 14).

Trelease (2006:137) explores this notion by pointing out that reading aloud serves to “reassure, entertain, inform, explain, arouse curiosity and inspire our kids”. Harvey and Goudvis (2007) warn that we should not read aloud for the purpose of instruction because that will ruin the intention of reading aloud. People need to read aloud every day for enjoyment. This is supported and emphasised by the Department of Education reading campaigns. Harvey and Goudvis (2007: 40) argue that reading aloud is a key to effective instruction across all grade levels. They claim that in interactive reading-aloud, one reads aloud to discuss with learners a range of high quality fiction and non-fiction texts. Reading aloud builds vocabulary and background knowledge and expands comprehension. As educators read, they have a brief conversation with learners around the ideas in the text. Harvey and Goudvis (2007), explore the importance of a conversation before, during and after reading the text as this supports understanding. The learners participate by listening; thereafter they emulate the reader, and thus enhance their reading abilities and learn how to be proficient readers (Harvey & Goudvis, 2007: 40).

To this effect, this approach seems to be appropriate in this study because it would help to capture the listeners’ attention, keep them engaged and would be embedded in their memory for years. Reading aloud also would help to prepare learners to succeed in school and let alone to apply this approach as a favourite classroom activity.

2.11.2 Reading a lot

While reading aloud is supported by quite a number of researchers as shown earlier, Krashen in Hinkel (2005: 563) explores the notion of reading a lot. He is of the opinion that learners who read a lot acquire language skills involuntarily and without conscious effort. These learners will become adequate readers, acquire a large vocabulary and develop the ability to understand and use complex grammatical structures. According to Krashen (2005), the readers will reach fluency, develop syntax and pragmatics and ultimately develop a reading culture (Hinkel, 2005: 563). To this end, Hinkel (2005: 69) thinks that for second language learners, reading may be both a means-to-the-end of acquiring the language, as a major source of comprehensible input, and-an-end-in- itself as the skill that many learners most need to employ to learn language and to read.

Many learners of FAL rarely communicate in English in their day-to-day lives but may need to read it in order to access the wealth of information recorded exclusively in this language. To complement this, reading can serve as an excellent source for authentic language learning. Hinkel (2005: 563) maintains that meaningful and authentic language must include every feature of the second language learned. Even though reading a lot seems to be a good model or strategy for teaching reading, peer tutoring seems to be the most commonly practiced method amongst the formerly disadvantaged schools (Hinkel, 2005: 563).

2.11.3 Peer tutoring

The learners team up with work partners during collaborative practice. Paired reading has a variety of goals. Learners may be paired around a common interest, question or topic of study. Paired reading makes sure that everyone has access to the information. It nevertheless teaches learners that listening has the important functions: paying attention, thinking about, and responding to what the partner is reading. The skill of listening is seriously enhanced as learners listen to their peers reading aloud with an intention of emulating them (Harvey & Goudvis, 2007). However, Veerkamp *et al.* (2007) argue that while the effects of peer tutoring on reading skills for elementary school children are abundant, little evidence exists to support the use of peer tutoring for improving reading among intermediate phase learners (Harvey & Goudvis, 2007; Hinkel, 2005: 563).

Fields *et al.* (2008: 108) reported that in peer tutoring children memorize words they do not understand; they view peer tutoring as an artificial form of learning and it does not in any way serve as a basis for further academic or intellectual development. They claim that oral and written language develops at the same time; hence little children attempt to write even before they can speak (Fields *et al.*, 2008: 151). They also asserted that the focus should be on the interconnection between listening, speaking and writing; however, these are usually taught as separate skills by most language educators.

2.12 Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

Since reading, identity and culture are discursively constructed in this study through the use of language; it is useful to make use of the Critical Discourse analytical framework (CDA). “Discourses” in this context is a difficult and fuzzy concept as it is being used by social theorists (Foucault, 1981), critical linguists (Fowler *et al.*, 1979) and critical discourse analyst (van Dijk, 1979), each of whom define discourse differently, being influenced by their various theoretical and disciplinary stand points.

The analysis of discourse is necessarily the analysis of language in use. As such, it is not restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which these forms might have been designed to serve in human affairs (Brown & Yule, 1983: 1). “Discourse therefore is, a culturally and socially organised way of speaking where the context of interaction is the key to meaning making” (Foncha & Sivasubramaniam, 2014: 38).

In view of the above, language is used to “mean something and to do something” and that this “meaning and doing” are linked to the context of its use (Talbot, 2007). Therefore, for one to interpret a text properly, “one needs to work out what a speaker or a writer is doing through discourse and how this ‘doing, can be linked to wider inter- personal, institutional, socio-cultural arm of social practice material contexts”. “Text” in this sense refers to “the observable product of interaction”, whereas, discourse is, “the process of interaction itself: a cultural activity” (Talbot, 2007: 9).

This view of language as action and social behaviour as emphasised in CDA see “discourse –the use of language in speech and writing as a form of social practice” (Foncha, 2014: 38). It is this definition of discourse as a social practice that is most useful for the analysis of discourse construction, since it involves a two-way relationship between a “discursive event” (i.e., any use of discourse) and the situation, institution and social structure in which it may occur: discourse can be shaped by these but it also can shape them (Fairclough, 1992: 62). In other words, language represents and constitute to the (re) production of social reality. This definition of discourse, establishes a link to reading culture as a gateway to EFAL competence as engaged in “reality construction”.

Foucault, does not think of discourse as a piece of text, but rather as “practices that systematically form the objects of which they speak” (Foucault, 1981: 49).

By discourse, Foucault means “a group of statements, which can provide a language for talking about – a way of representing the knowledge about – a particular topic at a particular historical moment (Hall, 2000: 291). Discourse as Foucault further argues governs the way that a topic is meaningfully talked about. It also influences how ideas are put into practice and it is also used to regulate the conduct of others. This means discourses (or discourses in the social theoretical sense) limit and restrict other ways of talking and producing knowledge so that through a reading culture learners can improve their speaking, writing and reading skills.

According to Fairclough (2003) languages are to be appropriated, to legitimise, negotiate and challenge particular identities. Corson summarises this argument in the following quotation as: The life chances of students are determined by their ability to interact critically with the discourses around them, while still avoiding the temptation to be seduced by the disempowering messages those discourses often contain. The discourse surrounding children teaches them who they are, what their place is in the world and what they need to do to become autonomous and valuable citizens. Language, critically acquired, is potentially empowering for people as they constantly build on previous encounters with the words in their unique search for meaning and value (2001: 14).

In line with the above argument, discourse analysis is therefore seen as a qualitative study that has been adopted and developed by the social constructionists (van Dijk, 1986). This could be due to the prevalence of the different perspectives that evolve around discourses in terms of understanding and interpretation. This notion is of the view that any study of discourse analysis is context based static and only applies to one context and not the other. In view of this, Ains-worth (2000:1-3) defines discourse as “the production of knowledge through language and representation and the way that knowledge is institutionalised, shaping social practices and setting new practices into play.” Eventually, the classroom as a setting for social practice uses the discourses around it as a text in order that learners might acquire knowledge. The above definition is simplified by Foucault where he observes that “a discourse is whatever constrains but

also enables writing, speaking and thinking within such specific historical limits” (Foucault, 1981: 49). Discourse in this sense, should embody both spoken and written texts, with each being able to construct what its interlocutors might be. Thus, it is very important that students should have critical understanding of the discourses around them in order to avert misunderstanding or misinterpretation in and outside the classroom. There are three types of values that all textual features need to possess. According to Pienaar and Bekker (2007), these are;

- The experiential value which is said to describe text – producer’s experience of the text;
- The rational value, which supposedly describes the social relationship enacted by the text through the linguistic choices made; and
- The ‘expressive’ value, by which is meant the text training, the text producer’s appraisal of the reality represented in the text.

In terms of its aims van Dijk (1986) describes CDA as one that aims to explain the intricate relationship between text, talk, social cognition, power, society and culture. In terms of this, CDA can be said to facilitate an understanding of how macro-level social relations are enacted at the micro-level of a text, to produce a range of intersecting, overlapping and sometimes conflicting ideologies.

2.12.1 Why CDA is relevant for the purposes of the current study

The following factors help to explain why this approach is considered relevant to this study:

At the core of CDA’s political agenda is its emancipatory goal by which it seeks to have an effect on both social practice and relationships which seem to suggest the ecological and constructivist view of language learning (Foncha, 2014). Since it appears to be more concerned with social problems, it attempts in a way to make human beings aware of the reciprocal influences of language and social structure of which they are ‘normally unaware’. CDA should also be said to allow its analysts with the opportunity to explore the ways in which particular categories should be constructed, power relations being

communicated via the kind of discourse being employed, CDA can be said to study both power 'in' and 'over' discourse (Foucault, 1981). Language issues that are right at the heart of these concerns, with language use being seen as secretly ideological, CDA can be said not be concerned with language or the usage thereof as such but with the linguistic character of social and cultural process and structures. In terms of this, society and culture can be said to be dialectically related to discourse (Foncha, 2014). In other words, society and culture appear to be shaped by and at the same time constitute discourse (Foncha, 2014). According to Wodak (1996), every single instance of language could reproduce or transform society and culture, with this including power relation. While the relationship between text and society can be said not to be a direct one, but rather manifested through some intermediary such as the socio-cognitive argument within the socio- psychological model of text comprehension, it is Titscher's (2000) perspective that linguistic signs is the domain of class struggle, a struggle that concerns the significance of signs,

While qualitative methodologies other than discourse analysis work towards understanding or interpreting social reality as it may exist, Merriam (2001: 6) argues that such an approach on the other hand endeavours to uncover the way in which this social reality should be produced. It examines how language constructs a phenomenon but not how it reflects and reveals it. Even more important for analysts who are seeking to understand issues around empowering and or disempowering discourses as its primary goal, the advantage that comes with such a deconstruction could be that CDA is able to demonstrate that things can be better (Willig, 1992). In light of this, CDA also demonstrates that people's customary ways of categorising and ordering phenomena should be reified, and interest driven rather than single, reflections of what people considered (Foncha, 2014). It is precisely this message that this study wishes to communicate to learners and language practitioners, i.e., Language learning might not necessarily be hereditary, but that with the appropriate kind of environment (affordances) learners do and can succeed. This could possibly be achieved by an attempt to mobilise all the relevant stakeholders (e.g learners, teachers, etc.) into action within their environment.

2.12.2 How CDA is applied in this study

According to Willig (1992: 2), discourse analysis is concerned with the ways in which language constructs objects, subjects, and experiences, including subjectivity and a sense of “self”. Willig, therefore, conceptualises language as consisting of experience rather than representational or reflective which suggests an ecological perspective of language. The linguistic categories people use in order to describe reality are not in fact reflections of intrinsic and defining features of entities (Sivasubramaniam, 2011). Rather they bring into being the objects they describe. Furthermore, the researcher contends that there is more than one way of describing something. People’s choices of how to use words to package perceptions and experiences give rise to particular versions of events and of reality. It is in this sense that language is said to construct reality. Like all other researchers in their approaches to discourse analysis, Willig (1992) differentiates between two kinds of analysis, both of which address psychological activities though different in terms of their focus. Both approaches focus on discourse practices that are concerned with what people do with their talk and writing something which this study defines as the action orientation discourse. This approach can be said to allow analysts to explore the role of discourse in the construction of objects and subjects, and with the “self” included.

2.12.3 The analytic shortcomings of CDA in this study

Over and above other analytic shortcomings associated with discourse analysis, Burman (2007) attempts to caution against the possible danger of under analysis by suggesting three ways in which this can be achieved:

- Uncontested readings
- Decontextualisation, and
- Not having a question

There are two reasons why the kinds of problems listed above have to be highlighted. Which are;

- To scotch the sort of errors that give comfort to the traditionally minded who accuse discourse analysis of being an ‘anything goes’ approach; and also

- To help those who are said to approach discourse analysis enthusiastically but in an environment where there is no support and less opportunity to test and refine methods among sympathetic learners (Burman, 2007);

To guard against these possible shortcomings, the researcher has taken care in the current study:

- Not to summarise or describe at the expense of genuine analysis
- Nor to allow his opinion and/ or political commitments to substitute for the analysis despite it being said to be difficult not to take sides.

In line with the latter the reader will, from time to time, find evidence of the solidarity/ hostility or 'sympathy/ scolding' dichotomies suggested by (Burman, 2007: 3);

- To make its analysis in relation to a declared set of rhetorical presuppositions, as well as specific questions generated in relation to these, Burman (2007: 3) is said to provide the basis on which the analysis can be evaluated, and
- To take seriously how the tools of his own discursive practice inevitably speak of their own assumptions.

CDA as a school or paradigm is characterised by a number of principles, all approaches are problem –orientated, and are thus necessarily interdisciplinary and eclectic. Moreover, CDA is characterised by the common interests in de-mystifying ideologies and power through the systemic investigation of semiotic data (written, spoken or visual) (Foncha, 2014). CDA also attempts to make their own positions and interests explicit while they still remain self-reflective of their own research process. The following quotation elucidates the above observation:

Beyond description or superficial application, critical science in each domain asks further questions, such as of responsibility, interests, and ideology. Instead of problems, it starts from prevailing social problems and thereby chooses the perspective of those who suffer most, and critically analyses those in power, those who are responsible, and those who have the means and the opportunity to solve such problems (van Dijk, 1986: 4).

The issue at stake is teachers' challenges in the teaching of reading. There is need to imbibe a culture of teaching reading in schools so that EFAL learners can become

competent even so with the native speakers of English and that is congruent with the stance of the researcher that English should be taught as a lingua franca. Thus, for competence to take place in context there needs to be a motivation or promotion of teaching reading in schools. Ideologically, people socialise or learn languages for personal reasons and are only aware, sensitive and compromising with differences with “the other” if they possibly have something to profit from it. This is due to limitation of the world view of the all humans in different context.

Out of these investigations a very important concept of schemata emerged. It is defined as prior knowledge of typical situations which enable people to understand the underlying meaning of words in given text. This mental framework is thought to be shared by a language community and is activated by key words or context in order for people to get the message. From a contextual perspective, CDA is seen as “a theory and method analysing the way that individuals and institutions use language” (Richardson, 2007: 1). Critical Discourse analysts focus on “relations between discourse, power, dominance and social inequality (van Dijk, 1986: 249) and discourse (re) produces and maintains these relations of dominance and equality”.

2.13 CONCLUSION

This chapter has outlined the theoretical framework which will inform the study and reviewed some of the literature regarding the challenges encountered by teachers in the teaching of reading to EFAL learners in the senior phase of high schools. It has attempted to show the relevance of the socio-cultural theory in supporting teachers experiencing difficulties in teaching reading. It started by discussing the policy context in teaching languages and reading in particular. The chapter also provided background knowledge of reading in the South African context and the issue of diversity was regarded as important. The chapter has shown that assessment, prevention and remediation can help bring on course every learner and that this should be anchored on relevant models of reading. It is clear from this chapter that teaching reading let alone teaching reading to learners with reading difficulties requires a lot of expertise from the teacher.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Rodolo (2008:15) defines research methodology as

[A]study of a research process in all its broadness and complexity. The various methods and techniques that are employed, the rationale that underlines the use of such methods, the limitations of each technique, the role of assumptions and presumptions in selecting methods and techniques, the influence of methodological preference of the type of data analysis employed and the subsequent interpretation of findings.

Relying on the above definition of research methodology, the researcher opted to explore the methodology as applied in this study to gain a complete understanding of the context in which teachers teach reading in EFAL and the conditions in which they find themselves.

The previous chapter focused on the literature review that was relevant to the research questions as well as knowledge presented by different researchers regarding the difficulties experienced by teachers in the teaching of reading to EFAL learners. The research design as well as methods used in the collection of data is presented in this chapter. They are both regarded as the outcomes of the decisions taken based on the information obtained from the literature and also from the previous studies conducted (Marshall & Rossman, 2011). The rationale and objectives of this study have guided my choice of methodology. In addition, the purpose of the study is to understand the experiences of those teachers who encounter challenges or difficulties in teaching reading to EFAL learners specifically in rural high schools in the Limpopo Province of the Republic of South Africa. This study was premised within the interpretivist paradigm based on a qualitative research approach. It is a case study design. The sampling procedures and techniques, process of data collection, validity and reliability of data and ethical considerations for the study have also been dealt with. This chapter closes with a conclusion.

3.2 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The questions which shape this investigation are presented below.

3.2.1 Main Research Question

What are the challenges faced by teachers in the teaching of reading to English first additional language learners?

3.2.2 Sub Research Questions

1. What is the level of the teachers' proficiency in the language of teaching and learning?
2. What reading strategies are used in the teaching of reading?
3. How is the school supporting the teaching of reading?
4. What role is played by the department of Education in training teachers towards the teaching of reading?
5. How can these challenges in teaching reading be overcome?

3.3 RESEARCH PARADIGM

3.3.1 The Interpretive paradigm

For the purpose of this study, "research paradigm" is defined according to Gibbons and Sanderson (2002) as a framework of thinking which can be used by researchers when carrying out their research. This means that researchers need to have a guiding philosophy which would make it possible to put in place principles that may systematically lead to valid steps towards examining a phenomenon. The selected research paradigm served as a guiding philosophy for conducting the research (Craib, 2011). In this study, it would be of great importance to the researcher to have a good understanding of the fundamental basics of what teachers lack in teaching reading to EFAL learners in the rural contexts. Therefore, this theory would help the researcher to be able to interpret experiences teachers are exposed to in some classroom situations.

Also, Mwiri and Wamuhlu (1995: 114) define paradigm as “a set of interrelated assumptions about the social world that provide a philosophical and conceptual framework for the organised study of the world”. This definition provides an anchorage that underpins a researcher’s underlying logic and channels one’s views to take on systematically well thought ways of viewing reality. According to Mertens (2005:07), a paradigm is a way of looking at the world, it is composed of philosophical assumptions that guide or direct thinking and action. Becker and Bryman (2004) state that a paradigm is a collection of beliefs which are associated with a worldview about how scientific practice should take place.

The researcher adopted an interpretivist paradigm, which according to Benton and Craib (2011) is an alternative view to the positivist view of knowledge developed about social worlds as only obtainable through objectivity. Interpretivism is more interested in people and the way they interrelate. It further attempts to understand phenomena through the meanings that people assign to them. This is to argue that the researcher attempts to retell the story of the participants/respondents the way he/she understands it based on the subjective evidence given by the participants.

The researcher selected interpretivism as the paradigm for the study as it enabled immersion in the research context, talking to participants, observing them in their natural life world setting, and interrelating face to face with them while taking notes of their thoughts, feelings and ideas so as avoiding miscues and constructed information. In view of this, the researcher made sure that the topics that were provided to the teachers and the questions from the interview were precise and not bias in a way that these participants could have a clue of what is required by the researcher. In light of this, Creswell (2003: 09) argues that the interpretivist or constructivist research tends to rely on the participants ‘views of the situation being studied and recognises the impact of the research of their own background and experiences. That is to argue that meaning or interpretation is perspectival and therefore a form of negotiation is required to reach consensus. Thus, meaning is socially constructed within a given context.

In view of the above, the interpretivist research paradigm relied on the participants in this study who are English language teachers. The afforded the researcher the opportunity to

dig deeper into their experiences on the teaching of reading to EFAL learners in rural high schools. The researcher's intention for using this paradigm to gather as much detail as possible with regard to challenges teachers encounter on the teaching of reading to EFAL learners in their classrooms. Moreover, the interpretivist paradigm allows investigation of the subject matter by the social sciences where human beings can interpret the environment, their experiences and themselves (Hammersley, 1992). This approach stresses the way the people shape society.

According to Willis (2007), interpretivists favour qualitative methods of data collection like interviews and observations because they are better ways of getting how humans interpret the world around them. Thus, a paradigm in qualitative research is based on the social sciences which, according to De Vos *et al.* (2005: 41), involve the study of people. Qualitative research is an approach useful for understanding experiences drawing from personal reflections and the past research (Creswell, 2005). A similar view is shared by Babbie and Mouton (2005) that qualitative research aims to produce factual descriptions based on face to face knowledge of individuals and social groups in their natural settings. By natural setting, the researcher is referring to a situation where the participant is not placed under any kind of pressure but rather these participants should feel that they have total control over their contributions. In line with the above, the researcher in this study felt it necessary to spend time in the natural setting (going to the selected schools and talking to the EFAL teachers), so as to be able to understand the context in which the experiences happen. In addition to that, teachers' views were heard and taken as factual as they were explored from the relevant participants in the natural setting.

3.4. RESEARCH APPROACH: QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Airasian and Gay (2009: 7) define qualitative research as "the collection, analysis and interpretation of comprehensive narrative data to gain insights into a particular phenomenon of interest". They further explain that the central focus of qualitative research is to provide an understanding of a social setting or activity as viewed from the perspective of the research participants. In order to achieve this focus, the researcher gathers data directly from the participants, an approach that the researcher followed in

this study. In addition, Leedy and Ormond (2005: 134) are of the opinion that qualitative research enables the researcher to gain new insights, develop new concepts or theoretical perspectives about an event, a phenomenon, personality, and act etc. or discover the problems that exist within a particular phenomenon. It is against this background that the researcher chose a qualitative research approach in order to elicit and analyse teachers' experiences in teaching reading and in the process, identify the challenges they are encountering on daily basis and also the strategies with which to deal with the challenges.

The study was carried out through a qualitative research approach so as to gain a complete understanding of the context in which teachers teach reading in EFAL classrooms and the conditions they find themselves in. Patton (2002) asserts that qualitative approach provides a chance to get close enough to the people and the circumstances so as to capture what's happening. The seminar, interview schedule and classrooms observation afforded the researcher the opportunity to live the life of the research participants.

According to Litchman (2010: 12), "Qualitative research attempts to provide a thorough understanding of the human experience". The use of this type of approach allows the researcher to research a situation holistically, taking a number of variables into consideration (Litchman, 2010: 12). This is in agreement with the view of Nieuwenhuis (2007b: 79), who suggests that qualitative research takes place in some real-life contexts. This characteristic makes it a suitable approach to use in an educational setting where participants can be observed in their natural setting and thus their behaviour should remain unaltered by the experience.

Creswell (2008:46) defines qualitative research as a type of educational research in which the researcher relies on the views of the participants, asks broad and general questions, collects data consisting largely of words or text from the participants, then describes, analyses and conducts an enquiry in a subjective, biased manner. The researcher adopted a qualitative approach for the study as defined by McMillan and Schumacher (2006:315) as "an inquiry in which researchers collect data in face-to-face situations by interacting with selected persons in their setting". Qualitative research often

employs inductive reasoning and an interpretive understanding that looks at deconstructing meanings of a particular occurrence (Thorne, 2000). This re-echoes the constructivist view of life where meaning is a co-construction of knowledge. In addition to the explanation above, Denscombe (2005) argues that what actually separates qualitative research and gives it its distinctive identity is the fact that it has its own special approach to the collection and analysis of data, which marks it out as quite different from its quantitative counterparts. In other words, the quantitative approach relies on numbers and measurements which cannot describe exactly how life is led but merely rely on statistical analysis that are not true to life. According to Finch (1985: 114), qualitative methods are theoretically grounded and gives analytical accounts of “what happens in reality in ways which statistical methods cannot accomplish”. Qualitative studies therefore reflect the subjective reality of the people being studied. Qualitative methods tell and retell the stories of the participants subjectively the way they are being understood by the researcher. In this case study, the researcher was not concerned with the number of teachers but their experiences and challenges with regard to teaching of reading to EFAL learners and the employment of qualitative research approach was therefore necessary. The researcher opted to use the qualitative approach in this study because of the following advantages;

- a. It is exploratory, in the sense that it involves in depth interviews. It also gives the researcher the chance to use different instruments to follow up on issues that were not clear from the onset. Additionally, the use of other tools helps to authenticate other instruments.
- b. It allows the researcher to be flexible throughout the research process. That is, the researcher may use a variety of tools and have the liberty to probe further to get to the depth of the story.
- c. It emphasises people’s lived experiences so that their perceptions can be discovered and explained. The researcher interacts with the participants and get first-hand information

However, it is needful to say that despite the advantages that the qualitative method enjoys, there are also a number of disadvantages. Based on this, one of the major

disadvantages of qualitative research is that the subjectivity of the inquiry leads to difficulties in establishing the reliability and validity of the approach and information (Adam, 2010). In order to ensure validity and avoid subjectivity, Stenbacka (2001) suggests that the researcher must remain non-judgemental throughout the study process so that the report may be constructed in a balanced way. In view of the above, the researcher in this study considered reliability and validity when the research was conducted in avoiding subjectivity. On the basis of the above, the qualitative research approach was deemed suitable for this study because it aims to explore teachers' reading with the rationale of providing the most effective reading strategies and methods to be used in order to improve and broaden their knowledge and interest in reading and in literacy as a whole.

3.5 RESEARCH DESIGN

Ragin (1994: 191) provides a comprehensive definition of research design as “[a] plan for collecting and analysing evidence that makes it possible for the investigator to answer questions he or she has posed.” The design of an investigation touches almost all aspects of the research, from the minute details of data collection to the selection of techniques of data analysis. Further to this, Burns and Grove (2003: 195) define a research design as the “blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings.” From another front, Denzin and Lincoln (2003) describe a research design as a plan that indicates how the researcher intends to investigate the research problem. Moreover, Olabiyi *et al.* (2009) argue that a research design is a useful plan for gathering data ahead of real investigation.

Robson (2011: 70) shares the same sentiment that research design is concerned with turning the research question into projects. Therefore, the research design adopted herein (which is the case study) identified methods used to collect data, which would answer the research questions. For the purpose of this study, a research is defined according to Nachmias and Nachmias (1992: 77-78) as a plan that:

guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analysing, and interpreting observations. It is a logical model of proof that allows the researcher to draw inferences concerning casual relations among the variables under investigation.

Based on the quotation, a research design may be viewed in the context of this study as the manner in which the entire research process is planned and managed until its final stage of report writing. This is true because it provides guidelines and structure to the research process in order to prevent haphazard procedures. This implies that the logical plan allowed the researcher to navigate the way from the first point of the study to the end when presenting the findings and making recommendations. Above all, a research design describes the purpose of the given study and the kind of research questions being addressed, the techniques to be used for collecting data approaches to selecting samples and how the data are going to be analysed. Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 85) maintain that the research design provides the overall structure for the procedure the researcher follows, the data the researcher collects, and the data analysis the researcher conducts.

3.5.1 Case study

A case study is an in-depth investigation of an individual, group or institution (Gay, 1992: 225). Gillham (2000) defines a case study as a unit of human activity embedded in the real world which can only be studied or understood in context. In this study, the cases that will be studied are ten high schools. A case study is a specific instant that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle. It is the study of an instance in action. It provides a unique example of real people in real situations, therefore enabling readers to understand ideas more clearly than simply presenting them with abstract theories or principles (Cohen *et al.*, 2006).

Thomas (2011) claims that the case study method is a kind of research that concentrates on one thing, looking at it in detail not seeking to generalise from it. When doing a case study, you are interested in that thing in itself as a whole. A case study is about a particular rather than the general.

This research under study qualifies as a case study since it focuses on a single group or unit which is English teachers in high schools of the Seshego circuit. The study makes

use of a case study design in which the researcher collected data from the teachers on the challenges on the teaching of reading in the senior phase through seminars, interviews and participants observations. It is the researcher's belief that the findings of this study would help learners, parents, teachers, and the department of Education to reflect on their teaching methods and strategies and assisting in suggesting possible remedial measures on how to deal with those challenges encountered during the teaching of reading at classroom level. The researcher chose ten high schools which are found in rural area of Seshego, reason being that they all offer grades 8 and 9 which are the entry level in the senior phase and the researcher is also teaching the same grade in his school.

Merriam- Webster's dictionary (2009) defines a case study as an intensive analysis of an individual unit (as a person or community) stressing developmental factors in relation to environment. Abercrombie and Turner (1984: 34) define case study as: the detailed examination of a single example of a class of phenomena, a case study cannot provide reliable information about the broader class, but it may be useful in the preliminary stages of an investigation since it provides hypothesis, which may be tested systematically with a larger number of case.

The above quotation states that a case study cannot be generalised with other cases but can help as a starting point for other researchers to verify other cases. In view of this, Yin (2009: 18) defines a case study "as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

According to Yin (2003: 59), a good case study investigator should be able;

- a. To ask good questions- and interpret the answers.
- b. To be a good "listener" and not to be trapped by her own ideologies or preconceptions.
- c. Adaptive and flexible, so that newly encountered situations can be seen as opportunities, not threats.

The central tendency among all types of case study as observed by Yin (2009: 17), is that it tries to illuminate a decision or set of decisions; why they were taken, how they were implemented and with what results.

The qualitative case study lends itself best to situations where the phenomena being investigated cannot be separated from the context. In supporting the above statement, Gary (2009) cites Yin (2003b) defining the case study as an empirical inquiry that investigate a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. Case study explore subjects and issues where relationships may be ambiguous or uncertain.

This approach was useful for the study hence it was investigating the experiences and difficulties encountered by teachers who teach reading to English first additional language in their classrooms. In this case, the study looked specifically at the challenges encountered by teachers who teach reading in English first additional language in the rural high schools of the Seshego circuit.

3.5.1.2 Setting

For the purpose of this study, the research would take place in one high school in Seshego circuit which is situated between eight kilometres from Polokwane in Capricorn district of the Limpopo province. Out of ten schools sampled, four of them are situated in the semi-urban Seshego township area and the remaining six schools are situated in the rural areas of Bloodriver and Makgofe villages respectively.

Semi-urban schools in this study would refer to those schools which have adequate supply of resources and services. In contrary to that, rural schools would refer to those schools which have less or nothing at all in terms of the availability of resources. According to the Emerging Voices (2005), rural is the term related to insufficient job and money, the land that is being inconsiderate and demanding, schools, which include the old rural practices with schools that are under resourced and scantily staffed. In addition, rural schools are found to be poor and have been the most neglected in the provision of resources. Understanding what constitutes rural was important for the study as it was conducted in the rural schools.

These are no fee schools with their quintile ranging from four to five. The schools draw their learners from a predominantly Sepedi speaking communities whereby Sepedi is used as an official language in all high schools and also English was used as their first additional language in the school curriculum. The above communities have deep levels of poverty, the unemployment is high, single parenting is common, and violence and crime is every-day experience of learners. Churches and other organizations in and around these communities make use of the schools for their church services, meetings and gatherings.

Having prior knowledge of the rural area lifestyle motivated the researcher to conduct the study in that area. The knowledge was attained while the researcher was teaching English first additional language in that area.

3.5.1.2.1 The physical setting

The physical setting for this study appears to be the attraction for the diverse participants. This sample site is a Sepedi-medium school in the rural area of Seshego wherein English was offered as one of the subject and as first additional language. The majority of the school population are black learners who travel to school from the surrounding villages and informal settlements.

The school was chosen due to the availability and willingness of the teachers who taught English first additional language in that school. This school was chosen through purposeful sampling since it wanted to explore how teachers were engaged in the pedagogical function of reading while exploring the experiences in the rural teaching of reading English texts.

The quintile system in South African schools is used to categorise schools according to their financial status. Quintile one includes the poorest schools whilst quintile five represents the wealthiest schools. The school under study fell under quintile one which is the poorest category.

The school had an enrolment of 690 learners, 21 teachers, 3 heads of department, 1 deputy and 1 principal. Even though the medium of teaching in that school was English, it was also taught as a first additional language because Sepedi was the home language

in that school. The school was located in a poor community and it has a large feeding scheme for learners (that is, the national school nutritional program) since most learners come from impoverished families.

The physical structure of the classrooms are large bricks classrooms. The school had four blocks and each with four classrooms. There was fencing right around the school perimeter, with one main entrance leading to the administration block and the smaller gate leading from the street. There was a security guard at the main gate for control. All the gates were locked when the school day starts. There were no sports amenities. The school was not well maintained with signs of vandalism and broken windows. The school had no laboratory and no library facilities. As a result of this learners' books were kept in the teachers' possession. There was no school hall and the toilet facilities were not up to scratch. In the English classes I observed there were no workbooks and readers and also no charts hanging around the chalkboard. The school time table did not have reading session on English periods.

The two observed classrooms were over crowded with the teacher ratios of 1: 58 and 1:54 respectively. The school started at 7h30 and knockoff at 14h30 daily. Classes usually started after staff meetings and prayer sessions that were held in the morning.

3.5.1.2.2 Phenomenology

Cohen *et al.* (2006) describe phenomenology as a theoretical point of view that advocates the study of direct experience taken at face value and one which sees behaviour as determined by the phenomena of experience, rather than by external, objective and physically described reality. Gary (2009) views phenomenology as exploring how people's taken for granted world is experienced and how structures of consciousness apprehend the world. Steward and Mickunas (1974: 3) maintain that phenomenology is a reasoned enquiry that aims to discover the inherent essences of appearances. They further argued that, in phenomenology, "an appearance is anything of which one is conscious" and anything that appears to consciousness is deemed a legitimate area of philosophical investigation and thus researchable.

De Vos *et al.* (2011) also expose the importance of phenomenology as an approach in probing and understanding people's perceptions of a particular situation. Lichtman (2010); Marshall and Ross (2011) also assert that the purpose of phenomenology is to depict and appreciate the principle of lived experiences of individuals who have experienced a particular phenomenon. This phenomenon is described by Cohen *et al.* (2011) as a thought being explored by the researcher. To this effect, the researcher thought that this phenomenological approach was more relevant in this study as it respects people's experiences.

In phenomenological research, participants are asked to describe their experiences as they perceive them. They may write about their experiences but information is generally obtained through interviews. To understand the lived experience from the advantage point of the subject, the researcher must take into account his or her own beliefs and feelings. Considering selected participants on a specific topic to find answers to research questions is the basis of interviewing. The results of the interviews were then analysed by looking at the similarities and differences from the responses from the participants (Chris, 2005). The researcher then related these individual responses hermeneutically to the "bigger picture" set by the research questions (Chris, 2005: 357).

Donalek (2004) views that phenomenological studies examine human experiences through the descriptions provided by the people involved. These experiences are called lived experiences. The goal of phenomological studies is to describe the meaning that experiences hold for each subject. This type of research is used to study areas in which there is little knowledge (Donalek, 2004: 516).

In order to achieve my objective of exploring teachers' experiences in the teaching of reading, phenomenology as an approach was found to be functional in the study. It became necessary to use this approach because: "it seek to explore, describe, and analyse the meaning of individual lived experiences; how they perceive it, feel about it, judge it, remember it, make sense of it, and talk about it with others" (Patton, 2002: 104). These include challenges as well as what teachers are aware of as they teach reading. The researcher's intention on taking what was being presented by the participants as the

real truth was going to be achieved through the usage of phenomenology as an approach of data collection in this study.

Although lived experiences are regarded by Husserl (1970) as those experiences that involve all of us, the researcher as head of department in the rural context, has his own experiences in the teaching of reading to English first additional language learners. However, for the data collection, the researcher's experiences were suspended to have no judgement and also for him not to be biased about the teachers and their experiences and hence this is called bracketing which is dealt with under the reflexivity section. Byrne (2011) claims that bracketing which is setting aside preconceived notions, enables one to objectively describe the phenomena under study. According to Lichtman (2010: 80) bracketing "involve placing one's own thoughts about the topic in suspense or out of question". Bracketing assumes people can separate their personal knowledge from their life experiences.

This means that bracketing in the study helped the researcher to identify the essential experiences of senior phase teachers from the sampled schools free from the researcher's prior experiences of being an EFAL senior phase teacher. The selected teachers who were teaching English (FAL) at high schools were considered to be the essential participants in this study simply because of their knowledge about the phenomenon that was explored. The research question guided them in sharing their experiences. In addition, Wiesma (2000) concurs that the phenomenological approach emphasises that meaning of reality is in the eyes and the minds of the beholder, the way the individual being perceive their experiences. For the purpose of this study, phenomenology as an approach has assisted the researcher in gathering what the teachers experience as they teach reading while guided by the research questions.

3.5.1.2.3 Hermeneutics

According to Burrell and Morgan (1979), interpretivism is not a single paradigm but rather a large family of diverse paradigms. Hermeneutics is a major branch of influence of interpretive philosophy with Gadamer and Ricoeur arguably being its most well-known exponents (Klein & Myers, 1999). It emerged in the late 19th century (Kaboob, 2001). Hermeneutics can be treated as both an underlying philosophy and a specific mode of

analysis (Bleicher, 1980), as a philosophical approach to human understanding, hermeneutics provides the philosophical grounding for interpretivism.

As a mode of analysis, it suggests a way of understanding the meaning in order to make sense of textual data which may be unclear in one way or another. The most fundamental principle of hermeneutics is that all human understandings are achieved by iterating between considering the interpretative meaning of parts and the whole they form. Modern hermeneutics encompasses not only issues involving the written text but everything in the interpretative process that includes verbal and non-verbal forms of communication as well as prior aspects that can affect communication; such as presuppositions and pre-understanding (Gadamer, 1976b). The movement to understanding “is constantly from the whole to the part and back to the whole” (Gadamer, 1976b:117). According to Gadamer (1977b), it is a circular relationship. It attempts to understand human beings in a social context. This principle is foundational to all interpretive work that is hermeneutic in nature.

3.6 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

Sampling is defined by De Vos *et al.* (2011) as taking a section of units of a population as representative of the total population. According to Chadwick *et al.* (1984: 52), scientific sampling makes it possible for the researcher to describe a population or to test a hypothesis on a relatively few research subjects and yet generalize the findings to the larger population. The researcher targeted those English language teachers teaching EFAL at senior phase in high schools. The process of deciding on a particular sample for particular entities in a study is called sampling (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). It is for this reason that the researcher concurs with Vijayalakshmi and Sivapragasam (2008: 85) when they hold that sampling is a selection of a number of study units from a defined study population. Fraenkel and Wallen (2006: 02) argue that sampling is a process of selecting participants for a research.

For the purpose of the study, research sampling will be defined according to Uys and Basson (1991: 86) who maintain that the basic purpose of sampling is to enable the researcher to obtain the desired information in a reliable manner, without necessarily

involving the entire population. According to De Wet's "inductive reasoning" (1981: 110), the researcher thus wants to make observations of the sample in a more practical economical manner and to generalise the findings to the population.

In this study, the researcher will make use of the non-probability sampling techniques through purposive sampling since it deals specifically with a chosen case study wherein it illustrates a process that is of interest for a particular study (De Vos, 2003:374). The researcher employed the purposive sampling since the participants selected relate to the research problem (i.e., they are all teaching English at high schools at senior phase).

3.6.1 Purposive Sampling

Sampling or what Mason (1997: 75) calls "selection" was necessary, since a complete census of the wider population or universe in which the research is focused on, would be impractical to achieve. Sampling enables one to study a portion of the population rather than the entire population (Slavin, 1992).

The aim of sampling is to save time, and effort, but also to be consistent and unbiased estimates of the population status in terms of whatever is being researched (Sapsford, and Jupp, 2006). Purposive sampling is defined by Cohen *et al.* (2011) as a strategy of selecting participants that are referred to be representative of the population under investigation.

Creshwell (2008) contends that purposeful sampling involves the researchers purposefully selected entities or researchers select cases to be incorporated in the sample on basis of their judgement. Datallo (2010) however, pointed out that purposive sampling can be used to achieve one of the following goals;

- a. To study a separate population
- b. To collect primary data that are suitable for the study
- c. To collect secondary data, which entails selecting a sample from an existing set of data
- d. To select a small and closely observe typical and unusual or extreme elements

Tashakhori and Teddlie (2003) acknowledge the importance of purposive sampling in a research when they proclaim that, a researcher purposely selects certain groups of people or individuals for their relevance to the issue being studied. According to Ball (1990), purposive sampling is used to obtain people with in-depth knowledge about the particular issue or may have experience about what is being investigated.

In this study, sampling was done at two levels. Firstly, schools were sampled in relation to the criteria of urban, semi-urban and rural. In the study under investigation, semi-urban and rural schools that are situated in and the Seshego circuit were targeted for purpose of this research. For this study, only those teachers who teach English first additional language at senior phase in ten high schools in the Seshego circuit were purposively selected as participants in this study. The participants volunteered to be included on the basis of their experience and knowledge about teaching reading to EFAL learners.

3.7 DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Research methods inform the reader exactly how data were collected and processed. The nature of the data and the problem for research dictates the research methodology that is, if the data is verbal, the methodology is qualitative, and if it is numerical, the methodology is quantitative (Leedy, 1993: 139).

The researcher adopted different data collection methods in the study to provide verifiable support for the answers to the research questions that were explored. Different research methods would be presented and fully discussed below one by one as a way of giving the insight on how the data were derived. In this study the following data collection methods were used.

3.7.1 Seminar

According to Merriam-Webster's dictionary (2009), a seminar is a form of academic instruction, either at an academic institution or offered by a commercial or professional organisation. It has the function of bringing together small groups for meetings, focusing each time on some particular subject, in which everyone present is requested to participate. In its most pared down sense, a seminar is a meeting in which people can

learn about a particular topic. According to Aquilar (2004), a seminar is a group meeting led by an expert that focuses on a specific topic or discipline. Aquilar further argued that a seminar is a presentation, set on a particular topic or group of topics that are put forth by an expert in the field. Basturkmen (1999) maintains that a seminar should aim to provide opportunities for participants to share current practice of methodological combination, and to consider the research capacity building implications of doing so.

The main purpose of organising the seminar of this nature in the study under investigation was to create opportunities for the participants to;

- a. Explore topic in more depth;
- b. Share ideas in a way that will advance your thinking;
- c. Learn from other people's experiences and background knowledge;
- d. Gain perspectives and points of view that you might not have otherwise considered; and
- e. Identify and sort out any misunderstandings.

3.7.1.1 Planning of the seminar

The researcher with the help of the supervisor organized a three days' seminar held at the University of Limpopo where 25 teachers (who are teaching EFAL at senior phase) attended. The seminar had two break session which was 10h00 for 15 minutes' tea break and 13h00 for lunch. The main objective was for the teachers to share their experiences and challenges they are faced with on daily basis with regard to teaching reading in EFAL classrooms. To a greater extent also to suggest possible strategies that can be put into place in addressing the above mentioned problem.

In this study, seminar was viewed to be of great importance and beneficial for those teachers who have difficulties in teaching reading in a typical classroom setting where reading is required. By attending that seminar, teachers would be able to improve their communication skills, gain expert knowledge and also network with others and renew motivation and confidence. It is the researcher's view that this type of a seminar helped the participants to become better listeners and were also able to present their arguments

and ideas on their daily challenges in teaching reading. Above all they were open to other people's point of view during discussion sessions.

3.7.1.2 Conducting the seminar

The seminar was held in a comfortable, open environment for practicing professional communication technique. The theme of the seminar was "to establish the challenges teachers encountered in teaching reading. The attendees were encouraged through the facilitator of the seminar to contribute as much as possible by asking questions that would stimulate further discussions on the teaching of reading. It was organised in a dialogue form whereby teachers have to brainstorm on the topic and later each one had to present for 15 minutes, thereafter was asked questions based on the presentation.

3.7.2 Interviews

An interview is a face to face confrontation between the interviewer and the participants or a group of respondents (Wiersma, 2000). As a research instrument, an interview is unique in that it involves that collection of data through direct verbal interaction between individuals (Borg *et al.*, 2003). Guba and Lincoln (2005) posit that interviews are used when it seems the members of the target population are unlikely to respond to a written survey, when the respondents may not answer difficult or sensitive questions unless an interviewer is at hand to encourage them, or when evaluators are not at all sure what is most important to potential respondents.

Cohen *et al.* (2000: 268) advise that an interview may be used as the principal means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives. Research that features multiplicity of views as well as strong subjectivity is premised in the qualitative domain (Rule & John, 2011). They further argue that the relevant focus comes by way of objectives and content intended to be covered. That is why Deem (2002) urges researchers to capture as much detail as possible during the interview sessions. In this study, data were collected from the population who were senior phase EFAL teachers through the use of interviews so as to gather as much information as possible on their experiences on the difficulties they are encountering in teaching reading.

For the purpose of this study, interview will be defined as a widely used tool to access people's experiences and their inner perceptions, attitudes and feelings of reality (Fontana & Frey, 2005). The basic interview is one of the most frequently used methods of data collection within the qualitative approach. Babbie and Moutton (2005) describe qualitative interviewing design as characterized by being flexible, iterative and continuous. Interview produce in-depth, insightful and detailed data that can be readily validated and that will most likely provide the sought- for understanding (Denscombe, 2005: 189).

The researcher considered interviews as applicable because they are regarded as the predominant mode of data collection in qualitative research (De Vos *et al.*, 2011). It is also regarded by Lichtman (2010) as the most common form of data collection in qualitative research. He further mentions that the interview is a social connection planned to argue information between the participants and the researcher. Cohen *et al.* (2011: 411) assert that research interviews allow both the researcher and the participants to argue their elucidations of the world in which they live, and express feelings about how they regard situation from their own point of view.

Gratton and Jones (2004) identify four categories of interviews. They are; the structured, semi-structured, focus group or group interviews and unstructured interviews.

3.7.2.1 The semi-structured Interviews

This study adopted semi-structured interviews as a primary strategy for data collection as it allowed respondents to express themselves at some length. Semi structured interviews were based on an interview guide that is a list of questions and topics that have to be covered (Bernard & Ryan, 2010). They assert that the interviewer covers each topic by asking one or more questions and using a variety of probes (like "Tell me more about that") and decides when the conversation on the topic has satisfied and has covered the research objectives.

Nunan (2006) emphasises that semi structured interviews consist of specific and defined questions determined beforehand, yet at the same time allows some elaborations on the questions and answers. De Vos (2003: 302) is of the opinion that semi-structured

interviews are used by the researcher to gain a detailed picture of participants' beliefs, perceptions or accounts about a particular topic. In this study, open-ended questions were asked so that participants can best voice their experiences unconstrained by any perspective of the researcher. It is against this background that the researcher thought it wise to use semi-structured interviews as is more flexible and it allows the interviewer to probe the participants so as to expand his/her responses.

As it was not possible to write down everything during the interviews, the interviewees' responses were recorded with the permission of the participants. Each tape recorder was carefully labelled and listened to soon thereafter to consolidate the notes taken. Tape recording was used in this study as a good method of collecting data to clarify the validity of the data as collected and interpreted. The basic advantage of tape recording as identified by Bucher *et al* (1956) is that no verbal productions are lost in a tape recording interview. They further argue that tape recorded interview not only eliminates the omissions, distortions, elaborations, condensations and other modifications of data usually found in written interview, but it also provides an objective basis for evaluating the adequacy of the performance of the interviewer. In line with the above, Belson (1967) affirms that with tape recording, the interviewer is freed from the tedious and absorbing task of note-taking and is able to concentrate his attention on the interviewee. It is against this background that the researcher in this study felt it necessary to use tape recording as a supplement to interviews to find out what the interviewer interprets as correct interviewing procedure when in the field and also to help prevent a frightening and dishonesty during the interviews.

3.7.2.1 Conducting the interviews

In conducting the interviews, the 10 teachers who are teaching English at senior phase were randomly selected from the 10 high schools in the Seshego circuit. The actual time for interviewing a single teacher was not determined but depended on how much information they were giving. The selection of these teachers was based on the information that they gave during the seminar and where the researcher notices some lapses, he then decided to take on the presenter on an interview to dig deeper.

Interviews were conducted at the respective schools where those teachers were teaching. The researcher and the participants worked together in identifying the suitable and quiet place where they were free to talk to each other and most importantly about their challenges in teaching reading. The researcher compiled a set of pre-determined questions on an interview schedule, with the interview guided and not dictated by the schedule. In order to reduce tension, I gave the participants copies of the interview guide prior to the interviews so that they knew beforehand what would be expected in order to enable them to share their experiences and expertise and respond freely and confidently on what they know. Needless to say that when it became necessary, the researcher was obliged to probe further.

The sampled EFAL teachers in the secondary schools in Seshego circuit were provided with the prepared interview guide which contained questions and were expected to answer further than what was asked. The semi structured interviews allowed the researcher to probe and to clarify responses which was not clear. They also enabled the respondents to express their views freely and not confined by the drawn interview guide. The researcher was able to read the facial expressions of the respondents through which he was able to probe more questions on their experiences with the teaching of reading to EFAL learners. The researcher worked at establishing and maintaining a rapport with the participants and was careful not to “put words into their mouths”.

When interviewing those senior phase EFAL teachers, they were expected to share their attitudes and feelings towards English as a language of learning and teaching (LoLT).

3.7.2.2 Pitfalls of Interviews

Vidich and Bensman (in Chadwick *et al.*, 1984: 105) identified several important types of errors and sources of misinformation in interviewing. These include the following:

Errors resulting from purposeful intent on the part of the respondent to deceive or mislead, as caused by biasness and over-information given by the respondent;

- a. Problems associated with the temporary role of the respondent;
- b. Errors related to the psychological state of the respondent; and
- c. Involuntary errors.

Borg (in Bell, 1993: 95) draws attention to a few of the problems that may occur:

“eagerness of the respondent to please the interviewer, a vague antagonism that sometimes arises between interviewer and respondent, or the tendency of the interviewer to seek out the answers that support his preconceived notions are but few of the factors that may contribute to biasing of data obtained from the interview,

In the context of this study, the researcher experienced the following problems during the interviews;

- a. The respondents took longer hours to complete the interviews than expected; and
- b. The respondents were not comfortable with the use of English as a medium of communication throughout the interviews.

3.7.2.3 Interview questions for teachers

The researcher makes use of the open-ended questions during the interviews which were in a semi-structured to serve as a guide to the participants. A total of 22 questions were designed. The 22 questions that were used as interview guidelines were as follows;

Question 1: Do you prepare yourself before coming to class?

To find out the strength and weakness of teachers with regard to planning.

Question 2: What could be some of the reasons that hinder preparations ahead of time?

To check if there are any things that prevent teachers from preparing thoroughly before the lessons start.

Question 3: Are there available libraries and computer laboratories?

To find out if there are libraries and computer laboratories buildings in the schools.

Question 4: What kind of resources would assist you in teaching reading?

To see if there is any kind of resources that would assist teachers to facilitate the teaching of reading.

Question 5: Do your school receive enough budget to run its affairs?

To find out if schools do receive the norms and standard money from the government.

Question 6: Is the norms and standard money well utilised in your school?

To check whether the money paid to schools is properly managed.

Question 7: Are there any fundraising activities in your school?

To find out if there any money received by the school to supplement the norm and standard from the government.

Question 8: Are teachers paid well according to their workload?

To find out if teachers' salary worth the work they are doing.

Question 9: What could be done to motivate teachers to teach reading?

To see if there is anything that would be given to teachers to motivate them to teach reading.

Question 10: Is there any team teaching taking place in your school?

To check if teachers work as a team in their schools.

Question 11: What other factors do hinder you to teach as a team in your school?

To find out if there is anything that disturbs teachers not work as a team in their schools.

Question 12: Do parents help in teaching reading at homes?

To check if parents help their children in teaching reading at home.

Question 13: What kind of support do teachers get from parents?

To find out if there is any kind of support parents are providing to teachers with regard to teaching.

Question 14: Are teachers well trained to teach reading?

To check if teachers are trained to teach reading.

Question 15: What kind of support do teachers get from the school and the department of education with to training?

To see if teachers have received any form of training either from their schools or from the department.

Question 16: What are the sizes of these classes?

To check how full, the classes are.

Question 17: What kind of strategies do you employ in teaching reading in overcrowded classes?

To check if there are any strategy in place to address the challenge of teaching reading.

Question 18: Do you think that your current strategies of teaching reading are successful?

To find out whether the strategies teachers are using yield results or not.

Question 19: What communication difficulties do teachers encounter in teaching reading?

To see if teachers encounter communication difficulties in teaching reading.

Question 20: What kind of communication strategies would you employ in teaching reading?

To find out if there are any strategies teachers would employ in the teaching reading.

Question 21: Are teachers fluent enough to teach reading?

To check whether teachers are able to speak English fluently.

Question 22: What other factors hinder teachers not to be fluent in teaching reading?

To find out if there are any factors that make teachers not to be fluent in teaching reading.

3.7.3 Participant Observation

Creswell (2008:221) defines observation as a process of gathering open-ended first-hand information through observing people and places at the research site. According to Leedy and Ormrod (2005: 145), observations in a qualitative study are intentionally unstructured and free flowing. The researcher shifts focus from one thing to another as new significant objects and events present themselves.

Participant's observation is a technique for verifying and/or nullifying information provided in face to face encounters (Jorgensen, 2010). The researcher used this tool to observe the participant's behaviour during the interviews. This is more reliable since it is possible to see the actual behaviour of the participants. Jorgensen (2010) further states that it is ideal to use this type of an instrument since it is a method of data collection done in the qualitative research model.

The researcher in this study adopted this tool simply because the data that were gathered were highly reliable in the sense that the analyst was able to see what has been done and the observation was less expensive compared to other techniques since it allowed the systems analyst to do work measurement. This was a reliable tool to adopt in the research although like any other tool it has some disadvantages too. To support the above statement, Jorgensen (2010) maintain that even though it is reliable, people feel uncomfortable being watched and they may perform differently when being observed or act temporarily when they perform their job correctly when being observed. Bless and Higson-Smith (2000) define observation as a data collection technique based on the direct observation of participant's behaviour.

The participants that were observed were those who volunteered to be the part of the study. Observations were used to capture teachers' challenges in teaching reading to EFAL learners. The researcher observed the language used by the teachers when teaching reading to EFAL since it was the language that was not familiar to the learners. The kind of books and texts that the teachers used when teaching reading to EFAL learners were also observed. This notion is supported by Henning (2004) and Cohen *et*

a/. (2011) that during observation the researcher observes the language and books used in the setting.

The observation schedule was completed and thereafter discussed with the participants. How the participants introduced the lessons and linked it to the aim of the lessons was important. The methods that teachers used when teaching reading in the rural context was important for the researcher since poor reading was highlighted in South African schools.

3.7.3.1 Field Notes

Lichtman (2010) define field notes as often informal notes made by the researcher during and after observations. According to Koopman (2012) field notes can be used as part of data structure procedure and also as part of the enquiry section, because they involve the researcher's clarification based on observation.

In order to see how the teachers, implement their instructional planning, field notes were used. The researcher made field notes about the happenings in the classroom. The researcher took some notes of all that was observed and heard during the interviews and during observation. This was done in order to be accurate with the data that were collected. The notes were therefore analysed by the researcher. The researcher read all the notes after the interviews and after the observations while the information was still fresh in his mind so that he remembered all the important points about the data.

What was taken note of was based on the research questions as well as the observation instrument. In order to achieve this, an observational tool was used containing two columns; descriptive notes and reflective notes (Creswell, 2009). Using this protocol, the researcher wrote down what he observed and the meaning of it thereof. The use of field notes has a number of advantages since the observer cannot remember everything that was observed. There is a need to aid memory by taking notes of important things observed in relation to what is being looked for in the study. These notes taken during the observations acted as the basis for the follow up interview to seek clarification on certain aspects of the lesson.

Apart from this, field notes may be quite friendly to the teacher being observed in comparison to a video which may make the teacher feel uncomfortable. These field notes were also helpful in data analysis and discussion.

3.8 VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF DATA

When designing a research, the researcher should take care by ensuring that the data collection is both valid and reliable (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Friesen, 2010). Validity refers to the extent in which the method used measures what it is meant to investigate. In other words, the research should yield accurate results by measuring what is intended to measure and not something else. In this study, for example, the researcher wanted to know the challenges that teachers are encountering in the classroom with regard to the teaching of reading to English first additional language learners and so all the questions in the interview guide were geared towards answering the research question (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Friesen, 2010). The researcher must all the time evaluate the extent to which the findings are valid.

McMillan and Schumacker (2010: 330) define validity as the “degree of congruence between explanations of the phenomena and realities of the world”. In other words, validity of qualitative design is the degree to which the interpretations have mutual meanings between the participants and the researcher. In line with the above, Jackson (2008: 71) refers to validity as whether a measuring instrument measures what it claims to measure.

In order to ensure validity and as part of the triangulation process in this study, three gathering methods were utilised, namely the seminar, the interviews and the participant observations. By applying the above-mentioned data collection methods, the similarities and the differences that emerged gave the researcher a better understanding of the research questions, thus, improved accuracy of collected data (Flick, 2011).

Within the social circles, reliability means consistency of the research instruments in measuring particular variables. Obtaining the same results when the instruments are administered again on a stable condition guarantees that the instruments are reliable.

When speaking about reality, researchers are trying to answer the question; “how accurate and consistent is the instrument” (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995: 135). According to Gall *et al.* (2007) reliability in case study may refer to the degree to which similar results would be arrived at by other researchers if they used the same procedures. Armstrong and Grace (1997: 44) maintained that reliability in research is a technical term which refers to whether or not consistent results are yielded. For the purpose of reliability within the context of the study, different research methods namely; interviews, seminar and observations were used to collect data.

3.8.1 CREDIBILITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

3.8.1.1 Credibility

Credibility, according to De Vos *et al.* (2005: 346), is the alternative to internal validity in which the goal is to demonstrate that the enquiry is conducted in such a way that the subjects are accurately identified and described. In order to make sure that the findings and interpretations throughout the data collection and analysis are accurate, credible and trustworthy, the researcher employed different strategies to help evaluate or to increase legitimation because Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006: 239) think that there is no method that is guaranteed to yield valid data.

According to Leedy (2010:28), there is always a need to verify if the instrument measures what it is intended to measure. Credibility is meant to establish that the results of a research are believable (Trochim, 2006). Thus, this is a classic example of “quality not quantity”. It depends more on the richness of the information gathered, rather than the amount of the data gathered. In this study, participants were offered enough time to articulate their experiences as well as their views about the problem statement. The interviews and observations schedules that were made available to the participants beforehand were the ones that were used to collect data. By doing classroom observations and interviews, similarities and differences that emerged gave the researcher a better understanding of the research questions, thus, improved accuracy of collected data (Flick, 2011: 136; Maree, 2010).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) divulged that the truth is based on research questions, in the reality of the findings and the setting in which the study was undertaken. Moreover, Bertram (2003) asserted that most of the data that a researcher collects are the result of observations of some kind. The verification of data was done repeatedly making sure that the information received was not changing. In addition, the participants were quoted verbatim in order to give substance to the findings. The researcher used a tape-recorder to provide accurate data and evidence (McMillan & Schumacker, 2006: 326).

The researcher used triangulation as a strategy to enhance validity, by combining the three methods; interviews, seminar and observations alongside field notes and tape-recordings. Creswell (2003) describes triangulation as the means to use different data sources of information by examining evidence from the sources and using it to build a coherent justification for themes.

3.8.1.2 Trustworthiness

According to Maree and van der Westhuizen (2002: 38), trustworthiness is an essential component to any study in order to produce results and findings which are meaningful. Trustworthiness is a means to support the arguments that the inquiry's findings were "worth paying attention" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985: 290). Nieuwenhuis explains that reliability and validity, specifically as far as the research instruments are concerned, are crucial aspects in research. In qualitative research, the researcher is the data gathering instrument. Thus, it seems when qualitative researchers speak of research "validity and reliability" they are usually referring to research that is credible and trustworthiness. Johnson and Cristensen (2012: 398) as well as Nieuwenhuis (2007: 80) agree that the use of multiple data collection methods allow for data triangulation, which increases the trustworthiness of findings. Through the use of one-on-one interviews, seminar, and participant observations in all sampled 10 schools, this increased the reliability of the results. All interviews were recorded and transcribed verbatim to ensure the accuracy of this data. Through the assistance of my supervisor throughout the research process and data analysis, the element of bias was reduced and trustworthiness of findings increased.

Flick (2002) argues that qualitative researchers need to be as vigilant as positivist researchers about ensuring the validity and reliability of their studies, even if they choose to use other terms such as credibility and authenticity, to describe the qualities that establish the trustworthiness of their studies. Another method of improving trustworthiness in this study was to ensure that participants were well informed and took part in this research willingly.

3.8.2 DATA TRIANGULATION

This study has adopted the triangulation so as to make the study more reliable and valid. The researcher employed triangulation in this study because it rests the consistency of findings obtained through different instruments. The researcher found it suitable since the study used different methods for data collection such as seminar, participant observations and interviews in order to enhance credibility and trustworthiness so as to counterbalance the limitation of each method used. Therefore, areas that may have been overlooked by one method were strengthened and checked by the other. The cross-checking of data through multiple method approach has made the data collected reliable. This is in line with Creswell (2009) who contends that the use of multi-model technique of data collection averts the possibility of having invalid and unreliable data.

According to Denzin (2003), triangulation is a plan of action that can raise sociologists and other social science researchers above the personal biases that stem from single methodologies. In other words, it is a cross-validation of data because each method reveals different aspects of empirical reality. Patton (2002) also argues that no single method ever adequately solves the problem of rival casual factors. Triangulation was used to minimise the effects of the drawbacks of the qualitative research and it helps to make the data trustworthy and more reliable.

In this study, the respondents were asked to verify the data collected before it was processed so as to avoid researcher's biasness. Consequently, the researcher tried as much possible to stick to the instruments for carrying out both the interviews and observations rather than to opinion and experience. By doing so the data collected are perceived to be valid and reliable. In addition, the researcher also tried as far possible to

report only that which the respondents said, that which was seen in the documents analysed and that which was observed indirectly or directly.

3.8.3 REFLEXIVITY

Reflexivity in qualitative research seems to influence outcomes to be more likely and less predictable (Davies, 2008). Given that this study is a case study investigation, it can be very difficult for the researcher to avoid ambiguities even as an insider. This could be because of the more intimate relationship between the researcher and the researched, “long-termed and multi-stranded and the complexities introduced by the objects of research have even greater scope” (Davies, 2008).

In this study reflexivity was of paramount importance because it helped the researcher to be objective during data collection, data analysis and discussion of the findings. Reflexivity should be accountable for the usage of diverse designs for the data collection (triangulation) during knowledge generation. Geertz (1973) defines reflexivity as “a story they tell themselves by themselves”. In view of this definition, Davies (2008) refers to reflexivity as social. It could be an explicit and a deliberate conscious reflection of a people about themselves but that could only be reviewed through the interpretative insight of the researcher. As such social reflexivity and reflexivity of the individual are combined to give the data produced as a cooperative product.

The relationships between the researcher and the participants were therefore based on a subsequent theory and conclusion that expressed through interaction. Researcher’s observations formed part of the data for this study and which ties with Powdermaker’s (1966) assertion that “participant observation requires both involvement and detachment achieved by developing the ethnography’s role of stepping in and out of a society”. In other words, the researcher is obliged in a sense to design tools that can fully acknowledge and utilise subjective experience and reflection. Thus, the researcher becomes an intrinsic part of the research context, “turning back”(self-examination) of cultural critique that has both moral and political implications (Davies, 2008).

It is against this background that the researcher in this study made a lot of effort to do away with his influence on the whole research process as much as possible. This was

achieved through the use of open-ended questions during the interview sessions to promote and standardize the wordings of the questions and controlling responses from the participants so as to limit researcher's influence on the particular encounter.

3.9 ETHICAL COSIDERATIONS

Champion (2005) explains the meaning of ethics as professional standards that prescribe normative behaviours of right and wrong as binding on researchers. This idea of ethics makes perfect sense because in the circumstances of taking a role of a participant anyone would expect to be treated with respect. Mertens (2005) discusses the issue of research ethics and points out that it is essential and important for the research participants to be protected and decently treated. In order to achieve that, Mertens (2005) also maintains that it is imperative to ensure that they get maximum benefits from the research in the spirit of giving back to the community in such gestures as ensuring access to results that can inform policy and improve practice. He also advocates for the respondents to be treated courteously as well as respectfully.

Cohen *et al.* (2000: 105) bring forth the issue of research code of conduct in a concise definition where they state that "ethics embody individual or communal codes of conduct based upon adherence to principles which may be explicit and codified or implicit and may be abstract and impersonal or concrete or personal".

This definition provides a variety of situations but the underlying principle is that of honesty in all cases is not negotiable, it is important and will underpin all elements of this study. For the purpose of this study, "ethics" will be defined according to Bloor and Wood (2006: 64) as guidelines or sets of principles for good professional practice, which serve to advise and steer researchers as they conduct their work. Bogdan and Biklen (2007: 48) assert that ethics in research are the principles of right or wrong that a particular group accepts at a particular time. According to MacMillan and Schumacker (2006), ethical issues are studied and published by professionals and government groups for planning and conducting research in a way to guard the rights and welfare of the subjects.

3.9.1 Informed Consent

It is unethical to collect data without the knowledge of participants and their expressed willingness and informed consent (Kumar, 2005: 212). The participants were made aware of their rights by the researcher. The researcher in this study observes the rights of the participants by seeking their permission before involving them in the research. In line with the above, the emphasis on informed consent should arise from the fundamental democratic rights to freedom and self-determination (Cohen *et al.*, 2000). Barbour (2008) maintains that informed consent principles are based on the premise that consent is with complete enlightenment, exercised in a non-coercive situation by competent individuals. In other words, there is a need to be upfront with participants if you are to involve them in a research project. They have to be told about the nature of the research, the nature of their involvement so that they have a realistic chance to choose participation or non-participation.

The researcher promised the participants to observe all their rights including the right to withdraw from participating in the study at any stage. The participants were also made aware that their identities and those of their different schools would not be revealed and that the data would remain confidential. In this study, as the researcher I gave the teachers who participated pseudonyms during the write up of the thesis as teacher A, B, C. and etc. This is supported by Denscombe (2007: 141) who emphasizes that researchers are expected to respect the rights and dignities of those who are participating in the research and operate with honesty and integrity. Hence I personally made certain that all the participants in this study received disclosure of the nature of the study. The researcher was responsible enough in ensuring that participants fully understand the purpose, procedures and the risks involved in the study. The fully understood what was expected from them and above all, were told on how the findings of this research would benefit them.

In this study at hand, permission to conduct the interviews was formally requested from the Limpopo Department of Education both at head office, district and circuit level. The school governing bodies (SGBC), school principals and teachers (who are the

participants in this regard) were informed about the nature of the interviews in writing. This helped to build a rapport confidence between the researcher and the respondents.

3.9.2 CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY

Drew *et al.* (2008) maintain that the two concepts anonymity and confidentiality are closely related but different. Anonymity means respondents' identities should be kept secret even to the researcher, whereas confidentiality means that although the respondents' identities are known by the researcher, they should be kept secret from any other person and shielded from any possible exposure. In this study, to ensure participants' confidentiality and anonymity, the researcher used pseudonyms and codes so as to create a good relationship and to hide the participants' identities. The researcher also avoids statements that could be linked to any individual.

3.10 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURES

Data analysis is defined by De Vos *et al.* (2005: 333) as the process of bringing directive, structure and insinuation to the means of collected data. Stake (2005) indicated that the way of analysing data is by organising it into categories based on themes.

Data analysis involves organizing raw data into a system that reveals the basic results from the research. Data should be arranged, ordered and presented in some reasonable format that permits decision makers to quickly detect patterns in the data (Patton, 2002).

Leedy and Ormrod (2005) suggest that in qualitative research, information obtained is organized in a chronological order, describing the daily life of the group, focusing on critical events that describe the story. In analysing the data in this study, the researcher identified the categories where the data were clustered into meaningful groups or themes. Further to that, Leedy and Ormrod (2005) claim that data analysis in qualitative research involves the following steps;

- a. organisational details about the case;
- b. categorisation of data;
- c. interpretation of single instances;

- d. identification of patterns; and
- e. synthesis and generalisation.

In this study, data was analysed by arranging it in a logical and chronological order. Since the researcher was not content with the steps as suggested by Leedy and Ormrod (2005), he constantly went back to check whether he was on the right roadway.

3.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

At first I had problem getting an approval letter from the circuit manager of the Seshego to carry out the research in the sampled schools. She strongly indicated that since the approvals from the head of department and the district were granted, approval from the circuit was not necessary.

Time was a huge factor, especially given that the researcher was an insider, because he had to balance his teaching time and his research study. For instance, with regards to participants the researcher had to target the break times and the free periods to hold interviews and also to remind or galvanize the participants for the purpose of data collection. Also, in some instances I would utilise holidays or even the weekends by arranging for appointments depending on the participant's availability, especially with participant or at the least even call the participant just as reminder and persuade him/her to meet for an interview session. There has been some degree of procrastination by some participants on the part of data completion and delaying tactics, that is to convene interviews sighting busy schedules, however the researcher's good communication skills, and patience with them ultimately prevailed. Sometimes we would agree on a specific date but for some reason/unforeseen emergence the participant would suddenly excuse her/ him-self and propose another date. The researcher had no choice but to succumb and practise patience.

3.1. 2 CONCLUSION

This chapter describes the rationale for the choice of a qualitative approach for the study of the challenges encountered by teachers in teaching reading to EFAL learners in selected high schools in the Seshego circuit. It also describes the methods used to obtain

the data, that is, the seminar, participant observation and the interviews. The research design for this study was interpretive case study that was analysed largely through qualitative methods.

The next chapter presents the results of the data analysis and a discussion emanating from these results.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the presentation and analysis of the data collected from the Seshego high schools on the challenges teachers encounter in teaching reading to English first additional language learners. The study generated a mammoth volume of data. While this immense data might have seized the beliefs and value system of the research, it was virtually impossible for the researcher to present all the data in the limited space of this study. For that reason, the researcher was bound to make a very laborious selection. The rigorous selection was based on the argument on qualitative study that – there are no rules on qualitative research for determining how many instances are necessary to support a conclusion or interpretation (Foncha et al, 2016). This is according to Taylor and Bogdan (1998:156) always a judgmental call. This contention seems to have shed some light on the point that a single incident or instant can be sufficient to build a conceptual category (Foncha, 2013).

In light of this, the best insights might have come from quiet a small amount of data. Underlying the same perception, Bleich (1985:261) argues this way that the process of teaching the development of detailed subjective response is simultaneously research into the nature of response processes. In view of this, texts form part of data in the study since the teachers were able to select appropriate texts by focusing on the vocabulary and structures. This helped the researcher to identify teachers' progress and development towards the teaching of reading to EFAL learners. In light of this, John and Davies (1983) delineate text as a linguistic object, a vehicle for information and as a springboard for production which is written especially with a pedagogical purpose in mind, and they are authentic texts that the teacher may choose because they contain lots of examples of a feature of language. In this regard, texts can also help both teachers and learners to understand the overall meaning instead of the finer points of detail (Linake & Foncha, 2015). Texts could be chosen because they are motivating and fit well with the communicative approach intended (John & Davies, 1983).

In view of the above, the researcher pedagogically chose reading texts in relation to teachers' lives since they were relevant, thought provoking and inspiring. Based on this, the researcher combined the different approaches and strategies to expose teachers to different types of activities in the classroom in order to understand the information from the texts. As alluded elsewhere, different genres were given to the participants during teaching time to read, interpret, reflect and analyse in order respond appropriately either in groups, pairs or individually. Teachers were guided on how to approach the texts. The researcher also exposed teachers to some reading skills such as pre-reading, during/while reading and post reading (Foncha & Linake, 2015). This was in order to empower them to acquire basic reading skills, and imbibe their appetite for reading with appropriate universal knowledge from the reading tasks.

The study was astounded by the manner in which the participants seem to have developed love for reading and reading for enjoyment. And not just that, but also reading for meaning. This is the reason why this thesis is single minded in this respect that the teaching of reading needs to be built in schools. What was at the same time heartening was to see that the participants were not merely replicating the stories they read but that they also reacted/responded to whatever they were reading. In other words, they related and shared experiences as well as identified with the characters that they read. In this way, they were at this juncture able to find themselves in the story. This in a way appeared to gradually inculcate in them a sense of critical analysis or understanding of the story leading to interpretation and reflection. This is in line with the beliefs by some reading enthusiasts that words in the story are not merely ink spots on paper but undoubtedly they are intended to convey a particular meaning or message that the author is inclined to put across to the readers (Kepe & Foncha, 2017).

Additionally, the data also proposed a maturity in terms of participation and performance where the participants through reading seem to have been living other's lives. This was achieved by living experiences that they might never have been through and also by knowing about places that they might never have physically been to. In view of this, just by virtue of interacting with others using their imaginations (Foncha et al., 2016). These experiences and reactions might have therefore been able to develop a way of thinking

and seeing things that could have characterized them as competent English first additional language teachers.

Based on the above stance, this study only selected strands of the data related to the research questions in order to gain participants' perceptions within the context of this study. Thus, the strands that are presented can be seen as illustrative stretches of discourse (Sivasubramaniam, 2004:268) that the participants produced in the questionnaires, face-to-face interviews, field notes, observations, document analysis and assessment. The researcher believes that the epistemological underpinnings that were discussed in chapter 2 and 3 can assign a perceptual and a speculative view of knowledge to the focus of this investigation (see the research instruments and research questions discussed in chapter 3). Thus, what counted as knowledge in this study is context bound and may not be generalized.

In view of the above, objectivity or truth was only determined by the narratives of the participants and the researcher made sure to avoid as much as possible bringing in his/her own interpretation at this juncture. Most of the data that was collected for this study appeared to have been consistent with the themes described in the literature review chapter. The analysis (what the data says) then attempted to show the agreement and disagreement between the literature and the data, but in instances of disagreement, the researcher has held in reserve his comment for the next chapter, so as to reduce his own subjectivity as mentioned earlier in the methodology. From the data that was analysed, the themes to follow shortly appeared chronically, and much thoughtfulness needed to be paid here during the analysis.

In relation to what has been said thus far, through the metaphorical categorization of the data collected, and with the help of the theoretical underpinnings from the data collected and the literature review, the study made use of the following interwoven themes:

1. Unpreparedness of teachers
2. Lack of reading resources
3. Insufficient budget to schools

4. Poor remuneration of teachers
5. Lack of teaming
6. Parental support
7. Poor training of teachers
8. Overcrowded classrooms
9. Communication difficulties
10. Teacher proficiency in teaching reading

The themes that have been itemized above were suggested by the theoretical and epistemological underpinnings of this study and the researcher believe that this can support a better understanding of the analysis. In this respect, the themes should therefore be seen as a pathfinder for the analysis. The above numerated themes were originally suggested by the data collected and the literature review. Also in chapter three, mention was made of consistency of questioning in the instruments for data collection. This would be certified by the conspicuousness and inextricability of themes with the data. This relationship between themes with the data would be dealt with in greater length in the discussion chapter (chapter five).

4.2 Demographics of the participants in the interviews

This information was provided to capture the details of the participants while attention was drawn from their experiences in the teaching of reading in rural high schools. Each participant's qualifications were precise while the institutions were not exhaustive. That was done to keep some information confidential and to protect the participants from being exposed. Pseudonyms were also used for the participants 'names.

4.2.1 Participants' Background (gender of the participants)

Participant	Gender
EAFLT1	Female
EFALT2	Female
EFALT3	Male
EFALT4	Male
EFALT5	Female

Table 1: The table above presents the gender of the EFAL teachers

The table above indicates the number of participants interviewed in terms of gender. Out of the five participants three of them were females and two were males. The researcher saw it fit to assess the gender in order to establish whether gender has any bearing on the teaching of reading.

4.2.2 Participants' Qualifications

Participant	Qualifications
EFALT1	STD & ACE (ELT)
EFALT2	BA, HED & BED
EFALT3	STD & BPed
EFALT4	BA & HED
EFALT5	MED & above

Table 2: The table above indicates the qualifications of EFAL teachers

This table indicates that out of the five participants interviewed, two participants (a male and a female) have senior teacher's diploma (STD) and an ACE certificate in English language teaching (ELT) and BPed respectively. The researcher involved EFAL teachers enrolled in the ACE program and/or with ACE qualification, however the number of ACE participants teaching EFAL were few and since only one of them agreed to participate in this study. The other two teachers (one male and one female) have BA degree and HED, and BED honors. The last female participant seems to be the most highly qualified with an MED degree.

4.2.3 Participants' Experience in teaching English FAL

Participants	Teaching Experience	Experience in teaching EFAL
EFALT1	21	8
EFALT2	08	4
EFALT3	26	10
EFALT4	11	5
EFALT5	17	11

Table 3: The table above illustrates the qualifications of EFAL teachers together with their experiences.

The above table indicates that all participants (teachers) teaching EFAL who were interviewed in this study had more than ten years teaching experience, and also have four years and above years teaching EFAL in high schools. Also their experiences in teaching the language varies, with the most experienced teacher having taught the subject for 26 years, and 8 years for the least experienced teacher.

4.3 Demographics of participants in the seminar

Qualifications	Male	Female
STD & ACE	7	5
BA	3	2
HED	2	1
B ED Hons	3	1
M Ed	1	0

Table 4: The table above shows the gender and qualifications of participants

The table above illustrates that out of 25 participants who attended the seminar, 16 were males whereas 9 were females. As indicated from the data above, 7 male teachers have STD and ACE certificates, 3 male teachers have BA degrees, 2 male teachers have HED, 3 male teachers have BED Hons and lastly only 1 male teacher has an MED degree. On

the other side, 5 female teachers have STD and ACE certificates, 2 female teachers have BA degrees, 1 female teacher has a HED, and lastly 1 female teacher has DED Hons.

4.4 Data Presentation

This study used three principal tools for data collection to draw from the perceptions of the participants on the challenges they encounter in teaching reading. The main tools used for data collection were;

- the interviews
- seminar and
- participant observations.

In the presentation of the data that follows shortly, the aforementioned tools were depicted as segments in conjunction with themes to show how far they were harmonious as initially mirrored in chapter two and three as vanguard. To this end and for the purpose of being consistent and coherent in the data presentation, the researcher used the following data segments to illustrate the themes mentioned earlier in this chapter:

- a. segment 1 (interview from teachers)
- b. segment 2 (seminar of teachers)
- c. segment 3 (participant observation)

Each of the above segments would be illustrated with five strands of data for the purpose of saliency and consistency. The teachers are labelled as EFALT 1-25, referring to English First Additional Language teacher and the distinction is the numeral. Again the researcher must emphasize that the interviews are only based on the five interviews carried out after the seminar with EFALT 1-5 who were purposefully chosen because of the gaps left in their seminar presentations.

4.4.1 Unpreparedness of teachers

The following data excerpts are from the interviews with the teachers. They are responses to questions 1 and 2 of the interview schedule which elicited teachers' unpreparedness in the teaching of EFAL.

4.4.1.1 Data segment 1 (Interviews with the teachers)

Question 1: Do you prepare yourself before coming to class?

EFALT1: *Teachers are not following the timetable in schools to the latter. It was revealed that teachers bank classes and sometime arrive late in classes.*

EFALT2: *majority of teachers in the rural areas do not take teaching as a hobby. They are not aware of the impact of their extensive reading outside the classroom.*

EFALT3: *the choice and use of reading activities in designing reading lessons or sessions should come first. The use of recent materials in teaching reading would directly or indirectly pushes learners to read harder.*

EFALT4: *teachers who have just graduated from the university with no experience at all in teaching (reading in particular) find it difficult to cope in the classroom in teaching reading. They do not have the skills and also the question of stage fright.*

EFALT5: *I am a sports organizer and SADTU site steward at my school and my timetable is often interrupted by attending meetings of the above activities. In case where a period had been missed, I sometimes ask my learners to remain behind after school to catch up on what reading.*

Question 2: What could be some of the reasons that hinder preparations ahead of time?

EFALT 1: *The workload is too much for the teachers and they even teach subjects that are not in their teaching subject. You teach different classes and have too much marking.*

EFALT2: *Eish! I don't want to lie; I don't do planning as I am supposed to. I am a senior teacher who knows that, for a year I need to teach three papers in English. My main goal each year is to cover all three papers my learners have to write.*

EFALT3: *In this Department of ours, no one has taught us to plan. What they did was to stop us from doing the scheme of work book and left us with nothing. To show they do not care about the planning, they wouldn't even ask about it when visiting our schools.*

EFALT4: *The DoE has provided us with the working programs and pace setters. So what we do as teachers is to rush and think we have finished the syllabus. The lesson plans provided by the DoE are only known to them because they are just confusing in nature. Teachers cannot read and make sense out of them. Teachers are fine with the pace setters because all what we have to cover for a year is in our pace setters.*

EFALT5: *Teachers who come to school with their unresolved family problems. They cannot concentrate in school work because part of them is at school and the other part is at home.*

Given the participants comments above, it is evidently clear that the participants did not have enough quality time to teach reading to their learners. The insufficient allocated on their school timetable is little to effectively teach reading and also due to lack of planning on how and when to teach reading. Also noticed was that teachers are busy attending to the union meetings and to extra mural activities therefore neglecting their responsibility of teaching learners.

4.4.1.2 Data segment 2 Seminar with teachers

The presentations in the seminars were guided by scheduled questions given to the presenters when they were preparing for the seminars and the data was generated from the transcripts of their presentations. The following extracts are from the transcripts from the interviews.

Question: Do teachers prepare themselves before coming to class?

EFALT21: *most of the schools in the rural villages and townships do not have resources like libraries language laboratories where teachers could find textbooks and other relevant materials that assist them in enhancing the teaching of reading. This makes it difficult for teachers as they have no references to prepare themselves properly.*

EFALT18: *emphasized that some teachers do teaching to put bread on the table and as such, they come to class unprepared or they may choose material that is not relevant. One cannot teach well with an empty stomach. They have no passion of teaching.*

EFALT14: *There is lack of planning from teachers themselves. Teachers do not have lesson preparations let alone preparation files; therefore, they just enter their classrooms not knowing exactly where to start and how to do that.*

EFALT20: *explains that lack of English first additional language teaching aids is a huge contributory factor to teachers' lack of unpreparedness. Teachers would have to explain certain concepts without teaching aids and this result in most learners not understanding the topic under discussion. Therefore, the teachers would use subsequent periods repeating the lesson for the learners to understand. This process in return becomes a time consuming exercise.*

EFALT24: *there are no clear policies in their schools regarding planning and lesson preparations and in cases where such policies do exist, they are not followed to the latter. The school management team (SMT) does not monitor teachers' work to check if what they are doing is in line with what they are expected to do.*

In light of the above comments, the participants seem to concur that the working conditions under which they find themselves in are not conducive for effective teaching and learning. They further agree that due to these shortages of textbooks, they are unable to prepare their lessons better before going to classes. The participants also cited lack of monitoring from the school management team since they do not get assisted with the designing of lesson plans and preparation.

4.4.1.3 Participant observation

The following data come from my field notes based on my participation and observations in the EFAL classrooms with regard to the unpreparedness of teachers when coming to the classes.

The rate of absenteeism was alarming. On two occasions when observing the teaching of reading lessons in two different classrooms, the teacher had been absent and some learners have been sent to various classrooms for babysitting. Teachers leaving learners unattended to for them to go and attend to SADTU meetings and memorial services and or other activities cause a serious problem in teaching reading. In other class I was to observe, the teacher came 10 minutes late and left the class 5 minutes early. This was a clear indication that the teacher was not well prepared and did not know what to do in the classroom and also they were not following their time table to the latter. This show how ill-discipline the teachers are. During the reading sessions, it is only the teacher who has the book and the poor learners were listening as their teacher was busy reading to them. I observed, came to class early, but not knowing what to read to learners. He just picks any text from the book not relevant the class and read it. The random picking of texts and use of outdated reading texts makes some learners to be bored and were seen start making noise and moving around the whole class. The teacher instead of calling them to order, she left them like that.

From the observation the researcher got from the classrooms, it was clear teachers were not having textbooks and reading materials and to this effect it was difficult for them to prepare a lesson hence there were no references. Some teachers indicated that they do not get support from the department of education when it comes to the lesson preparations and the overall planning for the best teaching of reading. Also observed during reading lesson with regard to planning was their workload as they are supposed to make planning for other subjects they are offering in the school. They end compromising one subject over the other and the teaching of reading in particular which needs more thorough preparations. The DoE does not give guidance and there is no monitoring of what teachers are doing in their classrooms. They are not visited by the subject advisors to check if they are in line with what these rural schools are doing. Their

work is not monitored to check if what they are teaching is in line with the CAPS policies. This lack of guidance makes not to be in a better position to plan well their lesson plans properly. It is on the basis of the above this that teachers were noticed teaching reading differently in their respective classrooms. It was further noticed that there were some teachers who don't take education seriously. This lack of commitment of teachers rendered them to be just cheque collectors hence they cannot do what they are supposed to do which is teaching these learners how to read efficiently.

4.4.2 Lack of reading resources

The following data extracts from the teacher's interviews provide some empirical evidence on the role the lack of resources in school play as a challenge for teachers to teach reading to EFAL learners. The responses were facilitated by questions 3 and 4 of the interview schedule.

4.4.2.1 Data Segment: 1 interviews with teachers

Question 3: Are there available libraries and computer laboratories?

EFALT1: due to lack of reading resources like libraries at their respective schools, learners find it difficult to read with eagerness. The teacher felt that if learners can be exposed to those reading resources, they would be able to read as many books as possible.

EFALT2: it is those learners who are not assisted with their schoolwork or reading activities after school hours that they do not have a zeal for reading since they only read when they are at school. The teacher further maintained that communities should establish dropout centers where learners with reading difficulties would be catered for after formal school hours.

EFALT3: more reading materials should be made available to learners with interesting topics would stimulate their interests to reading. He further elaborates by saying that both parents and teachers should take joint responsibility of exposing learners to reading.

EFALT4: *Our school does not have any library. The principal and SGB have written so many letters to the department of education asking for library to be build but all in vain. The DoE has never responded to those application letters.*

EFALT5: *We use to have a small building that was used as a library, but the community has looted doors and windows and the goats of the whole village used that as their kraal.*

Question 4: What kind of resources would assist you in teaching reading?

EFALT1: *There are no teaching aids to enhance learning in our school. We do not have charts.*

EFALT2: *Year in year out we place an order of English- Sepedi dictionaries, but the department is not supplying us with those books. These types of dictionaries will help learners to refer difficult English words in their mother tongue. This shows how the department is not taking us serious.*

EFALT3: *Our school is surrounded by the mines. We have written so many letters to the management of the mines asking for the donations of libraries and computer laboratories, but no respond. If the mines cannot help us where are going to get helped?*

EFALT4: *I feel that parents' consultation programs should be made available to parents in advance so that they should know when to come to school to monitor their children' work. Parents should be motivated to bring along old newspapers and magazines and/or any book that is of no use to them at home. Parents should not just come when there is a problem.*

EFALT5: *More day-care centres should be established in the community around the school. And teachers there should be empowered to put emphasis on reading in their daily activities.*

In light of the above comments, the participants seem to concur that lack of resources makes it difficult for teachers in schools to do their work. It was further noted that there is little exposure of newspapers reading in the rural areas since this is dominated by those children who do not read newspapers and magazines on monthly basis and those who

never read that. Also noted was that the parents should create a conducive culture of reading at home where learners would be able to improve their reading ability and vocabulary.

4.4.2.2 Data Segment 2: Seminars

The following responses came from excerpts from the seminar with the teachers eliciting the lack of resources.

Question: Are there available libraries and computer laboratories?

EFALT612 *the availability of resources in rural and townships schools was that there were no libraries regarding and computer laboratories in most public schools. Teachers don't have enough reading resources for reference.*

EFALT19: *in some schools where those laboratories and libraries were available, they were just empty storages. The buildings were dilapidated and not properly maintained with nothing inside and some old outdated textbooks. This makes teaching and learning more difficult.*

EFALT16: *rural schools by virtue of being poor in nature and with the insufficient budget they receive from the national government, it becomes difficult for schools to erect such structures.*

EFALT22: *The other problem as cited by the teachers is that schools do not reach out for donations from private companies and business. They only rely on the government to provide everything. The level of fundraising at school level is low mainly as a result of lack of knowledge.*

EFALT10: *lack of support from the department of education in building such structures in schools, impact negatively on the teaching and learning. The department failure to deal with this problem affects learners' education very badly.*

From the above comments, it is evident that most schools in the rural areas and townships do not have libraries and language laboratories. It was further indicated that in schools

where libraries are found, they are old without books inside them. The research also revealed that the department of education is failing to build libraries in those rural schools.

4.4.2.3 Data Segment 3: Participant Observation

All the schools selected for the study are high schools located in the rural area around the Seshego cluster and they are not very far apart from one another. They are all old, neglected and under-resourced rural schools. The selected schools are all classified as quintile three (no-fee schools) because the communities in the area are mostly unemployed and impoverished.

In the section below, the researcher provides a comparison of the schools that participated in the study in relation to the data collected, grouped under specific attributes. For ethical reasons the schools are referred to school A, B and C and pseudonyms are used for participants interviewed.

4.4.2.3.1 Physical setting and infrastructure

All schools are well secured to ensure safety. They both have four blocks and twelve classrooms respectively. The buildings looked old and dilapidated marked with cracked walls and floors and above all a dull and unwelcoming teaching and learning environment. There are no admin blocks and as a result of that some of the classrooms are used as principals' offices and some are used as teachers' staffrooms. All the teachers' staffrooms are fully packed with old and new textbooks as there are no storages to put them. There are no libraries and computer laboratories in the schools observed. The reason as observed by the researcher was that both schools do not have qualified teachers to teach computer science and as such those computers found at that schools were mostly used by the community members to type letters, curriculum vitae and assignments. The schools do not have photocopier machine where copies could be made and each learner had his/ her own copy during reading.

Although the schools were identified poor, electricity and water was available. The electric wires were stripped off in the classrooms since there was no security guard and the

schools were vandalized by the community. This creates a non-conducive teaching and learning environment in the classrooms.

Both teachers and learners were using flushing toilets in both schools. Observing sanitation was important since Shangwa and Morgan (2009) found that the hygiene programs have strong influence on education.

4.4.2.3.2 Availability of resources (LTSM)

All the schools receive the learner-teacher support materials from the DoE in the form of textbooks and workbooks that not enough for every learner at their schools.

4.4.2.3.3 Teaching and learning aids

Data accrued from observations indicate that there is a vast difference in the distribution of teaching and learning aids in the schools selected. From what the researcher has observed, rural schools are neglected and are under-resourced as compared to their counterparts.

Inside the classrooms there were no charts hanged on the walls and no bulletin boards and thus no pictures or sentences for accidental reading. Accidental reading occurs when learners unconsciously read words that they see frequently without conscious effort. Another general observation from the researcher was that there were no resources in the classrooms, except the chalkboard and the chalk. Teachers had to write everything on the chalkboard. There were no reading books and/ or library corners in these classrooms. On the same note some teachers shared that the few books that they have were kept in the cupboard. That was done as some learners destroy the books when displayed in the classroom during reading sessions. As a result of this teachers are unable to plan well for cooperative reading and this prevents learners from being actively engaged with their reading activities.

4.4.3 Insufficient budget to schools

The following data from the interviews with the teachers provides justifiable evidence that rural schools are not provided with sufficient budget and which has a serious impact on

the buying of reading materials. The responses were based on questions 6 and 7 of the interview schedule with the teachers.

4.4.3.1 Data Segment 1: Interviews with teachers

Question 5: Do your school receive enough budgets to run its affairs?

EFALT1: Our school falls under quintile 2, which means the money the DoE has to pay is very little than it cannot afford us to run the school the whole year. We resort to other fundraising activities in our school in order to survive.

EFALT2: Even though we receive the norms and standard money, it is not enough.

EFALT3: No it is not enough. The money we get from the department of education is too small. Luckily we have a tuck-shop in our schools which help us to buy other important things.

EFALT4: The parent community in our school has agreed to contribute R5 per learner every quarter so as assist the school to run well realizing that the money the department is paying is too little.

EFALT5: The budget we get at school is not enough and does not come in time. The school has to submit first the quarterly financial statements and after approval the money is paid .it is not a once off payment. It is paid in two trenches and this affect the governance of the school very badly.

Question 6: Is the norms and standard money well utilized in schools?

EFALT1: The lack of human resource as fundamental challenge in teaching reading in schools as the department of education continue to appoint under qualified and unqualified teachers to perform duties they have no knowledge of. Because schools in the rural areas are under staffed, they end up creating posts that would be funded by the school governing bodies (SGBs posts). To this effect these under qualified teachers are hired for the sake of the learners to be taught.

EFALT2: In order to overcome this barrier, the department of education should provide the schools with learner teacher support materials (LTSMs) well in advanced and before

schools close in December. As noted by teacher, some rural schools receive their textbooks in the middle of the year and some towards the end of the academic year and it makes it difficult for teachers to teach reading well because most learners do not have textbooks. The national department of education should prioritize on these basic needs of the learners so as to improve the quality of education in South Africa

EFALT3: The school management teams (SMTs) should be capacitated to be able to assist EFAL teachers with extra reading resources and purchasing of language teaching aids to facilitate the teaching of reading in schools.

EFALT4: The principals of rural schools and their SGBs should be taken to financial training of some sort because they are the ones who misuse the funds of the schools. Some principals take advantages of these members who are illiterate to do their doggy things.

EFALT5: In the school I am working, there is no priority list and the school budget is not followed and as such, once the deposit is made by the DoE, the principal would just buy whatever comes first in his head. There is no consultation.

Question7: Are there any other fundraising activities in your school?

EFALT4: We have a tuck-shop in our school premises and learners are discouraged to go outside during break time. We sell everything that they will need to cater for those who do not eat from the school nutritional food.

EFALT2: the last time we tried to have a tuck shop in our school, it did not go well because teachers were reluctant to go and buy stock for the school as the shops are more than seven kilometres from the school. The only way we survive is through confiscating learners' cell phones and they come and release them with a fine of R150.as was agreed in a parents meeting. This little money assists the school in buying basic needs like electricity and photocopying papers.

EFALT1: Learners are paying R2 every fortnight as casual day. Their parents are not willing to pay more than that. Is little but it helps a lot.

EFALT5: We have a casual day every month end and our learners agreed to pay R5 each and is working. We have also outsourced our tuck shop and the owner is paying the school R1500.00 Per month and to speak the honest truth this boosts us.

EFALT3: Our school cultural committee organizes cultural day and fun day where each learner pays R10. There are local churches that are using the school facilities over the weekend and they pay little stipend.

4.4.3.2 Data Segment 2: Seminar

Question: Do your school receive enough budget to run its affairs?

EFALT23: our schools in rural areas and townships do receive the norms and standard money from the government. The main challenge is that the money we received is not sufficient enough to run the affairs of our schools. The schools end up engaging in fundraising projects and/ or activities to subsidized the little money they have received from the government in order for us to run our schools more efficiently and effectively.

EFALT11: the poor implementation of the budgets by the school management teams in their schools. Township schools owe municipality a huge bill and as a result the schools end up using large amount of their budget to pay rates rather than focusing on curriculum matters.

EFALT15: the failure of teachers to meet the curricular needs of their schools depends on when those norms and standard monies are paid to various schools. It is evidently clear as confirmed by this teacher that in most rural schools the norms and standard money is deposited to schools' accounts very late towards the end of the year. This is simply because the schools have to submit their audited financial statements to the department before any payments could be made and this delay the process.

EFALT19: the other challenge as highlighted is lack of planning displayed by the school management team (SMTs). The schools do not prioritize on what to purchase once the deposits are made by government.

EFALT10: most rural schools do not have school financial officers who are well trained to run the finances of their schools. The school principals normally appoint any teacher to

be the school officer without any financial background and this led to schools having qualified financial report at the end of the financial year.

In view of the above comments made by the participants in this study, it was revealed that rural and township schools receive a little budget of money which is not enough for them run their daily activities. Also highlighted was lack of knowledge on financial matters displayed by the school management team. All the participants confirmed that the department is paying the schools the norms and standard money very late as such the money end up not spending on it was supposed to.

4.4.3.3 Participant Observations

All the sampled schools in this study fall under quintile 1,2, and 3 and the little number of learners in their schools, the implication is that they receive little amount of money from the government. With that money they cannot afford to erect big structures like the library or language laboratories. The government is not building those structures either. Also noted that the surrounding mines are not helping them as they promised. The principals together with the SGBs of the sampled schools alleged to have written lot of application letters to the local mines asking for donations either in the form of buildings or money but all in vain. The only way the schools are surviving is through fundraising activities taking place in their schools. The money collected is not much but it assists a lot when coming to the day to day running of the school. The teachers complained that they have to use their own money to make copies for learners in order to perform certain classroom activities. Some of teachers had to pay transport to attend workshops out of their own pocket simply because the school cannot afford. These types of frustration make teachers not pay attention to their actual work of teaching learners.

4.4.4 Poor remuneration of teachers

The responses to questions 8 and 9 below elucidate the theme of poor remuneration of teachers. These responses are answers from the interview with the teachers that justify the poor remuneration of teachers in rural schools.

4.4.4.1. Data Segment 1: interviews with teachers

Question 8: Are teachers paid well according to their workload?

EFALT1: the most fundamental root cause of all the problems and challenges teachers are facing in the teaching of reading is to deal with the low morale of performing this huge task without been paid sufficiently. Teachers are not well remunerated equal to the task they are doing.

EFALT2: this low moral causes lot of stresses, high blood and other related diseases amongst teachers who compromise their lives for the love of teaching.

EFALT3: teachers lack enthusiasm in teaching reading in schools and as a result of that, the results are not as good as expected.

EFALT4: the employer- employee relationship should be reinforced by both parties meeting each one halfway in insuring that the teaching and learning is not affected.

EFALT5: Teachers are not paid well. That why most teachers have to extra lessons either during weekends or at the garages at their homes. They need extra cash that will help them survive since the department is not providing.

Question 9: What could be done to motivate teachers to teach reading well?

EFALT1: according to me, the only thing the department o education could do is to pay teachers according to their qualifications. It is very bad to see a master's teacher earning the same salary as the one with HEd. This discourages and de-motivates teachers in the good work they are doing.

EFALT2: Language teachers should be paid incentives either by trophy or money for producing good result at schools. This would in turn motivate them to go an extra mile.

EFALT3: I think it would be better if the circuit and district office could organize some language competitions whereby the winners are well recognized by means of a certificate or money.

EFALT4: *If the schools in the rural areas could be twinned with the schools in urban counterparts, this will in turn help teachers to address whatever challenge with their peers.*

EFALT5: *The school should arrange small functions to thank those teachers who did well in the final exams.*

The above data is indicative that there are various challenges encountered by teachers in teaching, teachers' lack of esteem, lack of consultation by the department of education in designing English reading materials. Also self-revealed in the study is the low morale of teachers as a result of poor salaries paid by the employer which cause teachers not to perform to the best of their abilities.

4.4.4.2 Data Segment 2: Seminar

The excerpts below come from the seminars with the teachers on the challenges encountered in the teaching of English first additional language. These extract elicit the above theme.

Question: Are teachers paid well according to their workload?

EFALT16: *Poor salaries cause teachers to pay divided attention to their work. This impact negatively on their lives since they cannot afford their needs. They get demotivated.*

EFALT17: *majority of teachers are in debt and they are depressed and they end up doing other businesses to augment their poor salaries. Some teachers have extra lessons at their homes and learners are charged certain amount of money per subject. Teachers are doing all these things out of frustration because they are earning peanuts.*

EFALT8: *teachers are negatively affected by the low salaries they receive at end of every month to an extent that sense that some of them end up having stresses, high blood and some end up being hospitalized.*

EFALT21: *as a result of this under payment, most of the teachers leave the education fraternity to look for greener pastures in the private sectors and some going to other countries to look for better well paid jobs.*

EFALT10: I strongly blame the department of education for failing to address this problem bargaining chambers where teachers' wages are discussed. Teachers have to embark on strikes for their wages to be adjusted every year. The country is faced with the challenge of brain drain, whereby a large number of skilled, educated and qualified teachers are leaving to other countries just because they are underpaid by the government. To this effect the department engages the services of foreign teachers to bridge the gap left by local teachers.

The above data is indicative that the morale of teachers in the rural areas is low because of the low salaries they have been paid by the government. The research revealed that schools suffer a lot as many teachers are leaving teaching to seek employment in private sector and also in other countries. It was also noted from the participants' responses that some teachers end up in hospitals due to stresses and other diseases because their salaries could not afford their lifestyle.

4.4.4.3 Participant Observation.

The most worrying and very common factor to all the participants in this study is that the government does not care about them hence they are paid peanuts. They further highlighted that they are not paid according to their qualifications as such it demoralizes and discourage them not to study further. They are not happy the little money the government is paying them and their teacher union have been engaging with the government in improving the salaries of teachers but reach a dead end. Therefore, they were hopeless and feel weakened by the system. Some teachers indicated they even consider leaving education to go and try their luck in private sectors. This is the reason why teachers are resorting to continuous strikes and picketing during working hours as a sign of dissatisfaction of their demands for better salaries. This dissatisfaction has led to the brain drain as has been noticed in South Africa nowadays.

4.4.5 Lack of teaming

The following answers are responses from teacher's interviews on teamwork. These are responses to questions 10 and 11 of the interview schedule with the teachers. These extract throw some light on teaming in rural schools.

4.4.5.1 Data Segment 1: interviews with the teachers

Question 10: Is there any team teaching taking place in schools?

EFALT1: there is no team teaching in our school.

EFALT2: *I do not want any teacher near my learners in my absence because they do not know how to teach my learners.*

EFALT3: *some teachers agree to help others more especially in section that they do not understand well.*

EFALT4: *even if you see that some particular teachers are not coping well with his/ her work, when you want help he/she will not like because he/she too shameful to ask for a help.*

EFALT5: *some teachers cannot assist you because they are jealousy.*

Question 11: What other factors do hinder you to teach as a team in your school?

EFALT1: *Because of our personal problems, we cannot assist one another. Teachers living in different staff rooms and not talking to each other. The learners are the ones who are badly affected.*

EFALT2: *some principals are dividing the staff members. Teachers who do their work are harassed and those who are on the side of the principal are untouchable. This the root cause of divisions in schools.*

EFALT3: *Some teachers you will help him/her today but next time when is you, he/she does not want to return the favour. So is everybody for himself. Also we do not have clear subject policy that can assist us to work as a team.*

EFALT4: *some unnecessary learners have an attitude towards someone they don't know. They will cause noise to disturb the poor teacher.*

EFALT5: *when we are exchanging the books, some get lost along the way and no one wants to take responsibility.*

4.4.5.2 Data Segment 2: Seminar

Just like the interviews, the data collected through the seminar also shed lights on the lack of teaming among the teachers. The following data strands provide some justifiable evidence of the lack of teaming.

Question: Is there any team teaching taking place in schools?

EFALT6: *as teachers we are not working as a team in teaching reading at schools.*

EFALT12: *the challenge that contributes to lack of teaming is self-acceptance and pride.*

If a particular teacher is having a challenge in certain aspect and he/she does not want to seek help from other colleagues to address that problem.

EFALT8: *there is lack of support from the school management team in assisting us to teach reading more effectively and efficiently. The schools do not have proper plan in action on how to implement teacher appraisal strategies and school based induction.*

EFALT9: *the most noticeable challenge was the inability of teachers to work together because of our political squabbles. Our political affiliations become a barrier to teaching and learning in schools*

EFALT25: *as teachers and the schools we do not have clear programs on how to implement team teaching at our respective schools.*

With respect to the above comments, it appears that English language teachers are not working as a team in their schools. Some teachers as noticed in this study are shy to ask for assistance from their colleagues whereas some display a feeling of pride and jealousy. The research revealed how political squabbles interfere with the teaching and learning where they end up not talking to each other because of their political affiliation. Also noticed from the participants' responses was the lack of support from the schools on how best to foster this team work spirit amongst the teachers.

4.4.5.3 Participant Observation

In the schools observed in this study, there were no sign of team teaching or collaborative teaching. Teachers as noticed during the interviews and reading observation lessons, they are operating in isolation and no team work. Teachers do not trust each other when coming to teaching of reading. Some teachers make it a habit of been helped whilst they do not want to learn to help others. Teachers like to operate like that because they think they own these learners. Teachers were coming to classes alone even though their classes we fully abnormal. All these challenges make the teaching of reading impossible.

4.4.6 Parental support

Parental support was a prominent from the literature which is elicited by the data strands that follows from the interview with the teachers. Here is what the teachers had to say as responses to questions 12 and 13 in their interviews.

4.4.6.1 Data Segment 1: interviews with the teachers

Question 12: Do parents help in teaching reading at home?

EFALT1: from what I have realize is that our parents are not helping our learners to read at home. They should play meaningful role in their children's education and in particular assist in teaching their children how to read. And this is not what they are doing. Reading should start at home so that learners come to school already with little vocabulary.

EFALT2: The kinds of parents that we have in our community do not care about their children's education. They don't even bother to assist their kids with reading or let alone with school work.

EFALT3: the major problem that contributes to poor exposure of learners to sufficient learning to read is the poor socio-economic background where these learners find themselves in. This is because most schools in rural areas and townships fall under quintile 1, 2 and 3. These schools are under-resourced, and consistently underperform as compared to urban schools much wealthier that falls under quintile 4 and 5. In the light of the above, it is difficult for us EFAL teachers to provide authentic English content that

they could use in teaching reading in classrooms due to learners' limited knowledge of the world.

EFALT4: poverty is one big challenge that makes teachers not to teach reading effectively in class. The studies revealed that majority of learners come from impoverished backgrounds where these learners could not afford to bring a lunchbox to school. These learners largely depend on the government feeding schemes run at schools (NSNP) and this become a huge problem in trying to educate learners who's their primary needs have not been fulfilled. These learners are just sitting in the classroom feeling hungry and to make matters worse not knowing where their next meal would come from. I must also say that lack of learners 'love for reading rests solely on parents. EFALT5: I have got some learners in my class who do not read at home because their parents do not care. These parents felt that it the teachers' responsible to teach since they are the ones who are getting paid.

Question13: What kind of support do teachers get from parents?

EFALT1: I have come across parents who are illiterate yet they brought their children to school and were also able to assist them with schoolwork.

EFALT2: We don't get chance to talk to parents as they don't respond to the letters that we give to their children when having meetings.

EFALT3: I have always worked hard at school because I know that the parents are not going to help learners after school. When we problems regarding the learners, parents do not come to school. Some parents go to an extent of asking neighbors or friends to go and attend to their learners' problems on their behalf.

EFALT4: Parents do not attend meetings in our school. There are even those parents who don't allow their children to participate in other school activities.

EFALT5: In my school, there are those parents who do maintenance for free and some clean the yard after school holidays.

Given the participants' comments above, it is evident that programs related to reading should start as early as possible at home and in the foundation phase. The Early Childhood Development programs should be well managed be fully capacitated to pay more attention to reading activities. The participants also show that parents do not bother to help their children with their school work after school.

4.4.6.2 Data segment 2: Seminar

Data from the seminar below also provided justifiable support that parental support is a serious challenge for the teaching of reading.

Question: Do parents help in teaching reading at home?

EFALT6: the level of poverty amongst the parents in the communities where the study was carried out. Poverty is not only a problem in the sampled schools under study, but it is an ever present challenge nationwide. The teachers mentioned that majority of parents in these areas are unemployed and therefore it becomes difficult for them to cope with the basic needs of their children.

EFALT12: Because majority of parents in the rural areas are illiterate and so it becomes difficult for them to assist their children in reading since they themselves can't read. Parents in the rural areas are not educated enough to be teach their children how to read. These parents feel that they cannot help with school work since they are not paid to do that job. They believe that it is the responsibility of the teachers to teach and not theirs".

EFALT8: parents should be encouraged and motivated to bring home magazines and newspapers so that children could read for fun. This would in turn motivate them to develop an interest in reading.

EFALT18: there is an absence of reading culture at home where parents do not know how to deal with their children who refuse to read at home. Also parents arriving late from work at home and they no time to help with their children's work since they would be tired. This impact negatively on the reading ability if the children. Parents should make reading a habit whereby children could read daily before they go to sleep.

EFALT10: *many children are orphans as a result they are cared by their grandparents and some are under the foster care of their aunties and uncles. These children have no one to assist them with their school work let alone reading at home, or either books are not purchased for them simply because their grandparents do not understand or cannot speak English at all. The only time children are exposed to English is at school in the classroom.*

In light of the above comments, the participants seem to concur that illiteracy appears to be the common factor in absence of parental involvement in the education of the children in the rural schools. Children could not be helped with their homework or any school related activities simply because there are not educated enough to understand English. Also participants highlighted the high level of poverty in the rural areas whereby most children just come to school empty stomach and therefore they cannot concentrate attentively in class.

4.4.6.3 Participant Observation

From my personal observation as the researcher that many learners are coming to school with little exposure of English because they are not helped with school work after school. The participants indicated that there is lack of parental support when coming to the teaching of reading since most learners are staying with their grandparents who could not read or write. Majority of the parents of the learners in this study came from background where English is not spoken at their home. Parents were not reading to their children as revealed in this study. Because of the socio-economic background parents found themselves in, they could not afford to buy newspapers or magazines for their children. Some parents are working too far from home and they only come home at the end of the month with those outdated newspapers and magazines. Some of the learners could not be assisted with their reading activities because their parents arrive late from work whilst they are asleep and they leave for work early in the morning while they are still asleep. Therefore, there is no time to assist their learners with their school work and in particular reading. Children could not read at home because parents could not afford to buy electricity. Furthermore, some learners live in homes where there was no electricity at all and this implies that they cannot do any school related activity after school hours.

4.4.7 Poor training of teachers

There is also evidence on the lack of teacher's training. The extract below from the interviews with the teachers based on responses to questions 14 and 15 of the interview schedule.

4.4.7.1 Data segment 1: interviews with teachers

Question14: Are teachers well trained to teach reading?

EFALT1: there are teachers who have just being appointed at schools and they know nothing about teacher training or empowerment. They have not attended any kind of training since and they have to do research on their own to get any material that has to do with the teaching of reading.

EFALT2: we need to be properly trained by the department of education on how to teach reading as per curricula needs of their schools. Short courses and intensive in-service must be given to the English FAL teachers who will implement government policies in the teaching of reading.

EFALT3: I was invited to attend the workshops organized by the department of education. The very same English workshops that I attended previously have nothing to do with reading in particular and were only held for less than two hours. Teachers are just sent to attend workshops that half the time is a waste of time.

EFALT4: In the workshops they attended, the department sends incompetent facilitators who know nothing with regard to teaching reading. To some extent those facilitators were often late and in other centres teachers have to be send back home because the facilitators fail to pitch.

EFALT5: the recruitment and appointment of facilitators should not be based on political affiliation as this compromise the quality of education. These facilitators put policies in place, but they do not have the knowledge or manpower to implement them, so they become farcical.

Teachers are worried because the school management team (SMT) and the school based support team (SBST) should be well equipped by the department in implementing the policies in line with training and teacher appraisals programs. Most schools do not provide their teachers with the necessary guidance and support based on knowledge and expertise in teaching reading.

Question 15: What kind of support do teachers get from the school and the department of education?

EFALT1: I was not supported by the department of education in the teaching of EFAL reading because when I open the CAPS document I cannot be guided on how to make my learners read.

EFALT2: In our school we often have visitors from the publishing companies who gave us booklet that is very easy to follow when teaching reading.

EFALT3: I remember attending a half day CAPS workshop somewhere last year and we were told that there were changes in the curriculum but there was nothing said about the teaching of reading.

EFALT4: Our principal does not involve us in any decision taken by the school. The principal place orders of textbooks with the help of the clerk without involving the teachers. No reading books are ordered.

EFALT 5: We do not get any support from the department of education. The only time we see the people from the circuit and district is in January when they would be talking about the grade 12 results. To me this is not support nor monitoring, it is something else known to them.

In light of the comments made above, the participants felt that the department of education should provide more in-service training to English teachers to be able to teach reading to the fullest. Based on the above comments above, it appears that the participants in this study have attended departmental workshops even though they did not serve the purpose. Also indicated was the incompetence of those facilitators who were supposed to run and manage them. The SMTs and SBSTs in schools should be

empowered to be able to implement the departmental policies in line with the teaching of reading. The national should engage the institutions of higher learning (that is, the universities and colleges) to design short courses related to reading. These courses could be offered on weekends to allow teachers to attend them.

4.4.7.2 Data segment 2: seminar

The presentations from the teachers in their seminars also elicited the training of teachers as a major challenge to the teaching of reading.

Question: Are teachers well trained to teach reading?

EFALT16: regarding teacher training most of the teachers are qualified to be teachers but they are not trained to teach reading. Not any English teacher could teach reading but only those who have the necessary skills and expertise could do that.

EFALT7: schools in the rural areas do hire teachers out of desperation because they are in need of an English teacher and do not pay attention to the teaching of reading as a requirement. This lack of subject knowledge causes the schools to underperform more specifically with regard to reading.

EFALT13: there is lack of support provided by the department of education with regard to training of English teachers to teach reading. Teachers are not provided with in-service training and workshops on how to teach reading by curriculum specialists.

EFALT19: the time allocated to those workshops conducted by government officials was not enough because some training were just for two hours or less. Much of the time was spend on filling in registration forms and attendance register with little time on the purpose of the training.

EFALT10: the department of education is not providing well qualified trainers during the training and in workshops. Those facilitators end up doing peer tutoring and grouping teachers for group activities to be presented at the end of the sessions. Teachers end up not attending to this type of workshops when invited to do so.

It was noted from the participants' responses that most of the English first additional teachers in the rural schools did not receive any form of training in as far as the teaching of reading is concerned. They do not have the necessary skills to teach reading. The participants also lament on the 'microwave' approach of workshoping them whereby little time is given by poorly uninformed facilitators.

4.4.7.3 Participant Observation

All participants in this study indicated that they have attended workshops as organized by the department of education even though the duration of those workshops was too short. There was proper training organized and conducted by the department of education as well. The only informative workshops they attended were the ones organized by the textbooks publishing companies. As a result of this lack of training or workshop they were unable to do lesson preparations and planning. Some are experienced enough and believe that they can do better even if they do not follow what the department requires. Although some indicated that they were given the lesson plans by the department of education via the subject advisors, but they could not use them because they were not easy to understand the contents thereof and they prefer pace setters as their guidelines. The situation prevailing in the sampled schools in the rural areas in this study is of great concern because it could impact negatively on the implementation of the curriculum (CAPS) in the senior and FET phases.

4.4.8 Overcrowded classrooms

The following data are responses from the teachers in the interviews that provides evidence of overcrowded classrooms. These responses were provoked by questions 16 and 17 of the interview schedule.

4.4.8.1 Data segment 1: interviews with the teachers

Question16: What are the sizes of these classes?

EFALT: teachers should be empowered with the skills on manage their classrooms and how best to implement effective disciplinary measures in their classes

EFALT2: *the overcrowded classrooms make it difficult for me to deal with ill-discipline learners during reading sessions.*

EFALT3: *I do not have enough time to teach reading within a short period allocated to her as she spends a lot of time trying to maintained order in class. I am allocated 30 minutes per period in my school time table and this makes the teaching of reading impossible for me.*

EFALT4: *I only teach reading twice a week on Mondays and Fridays because the other days I would be monitoring teachers' work.*

EFALT5: *I only have 60 minutes' period three times a week and most of the time I would spend giving and correcting learners' books.*

Question 17: What kind of strategies do you employ in teaching reading in overcrowded classes?

EFALT1: *Since my learners are 60 and above in my class, I group them during reading sessions, as I have noticed that learners read well when in groups.*

EFALT2: *I prefer to give an explanation of the text to my learners in Sepedi their home language.*

EFALT3: *I use reading aloud method in my overcrowded classroom. Here I read aloud a text to learners three times before I request them to read it on their own.*

EFALT4: **I** *have a large number of 89 learners in my English class. When coming to reading, I have grouped my learners to read in two groups. This helps me as learners are able to understand well even if it takes a lot of my time.*

EFALT5: *I encourage my learners to do peer reading as there is no space to move around them. One learner would be reading for his group and others listening. It helps me and the learners a lot.*

Question 18: Do you think that your current strategies of teaching reading are successful?

EFALT1: I don't think they are successful because if they were successful all my learners would be able to read well. Half of my class is not reading well and this is my worry.

EFALT2: I can say partially successful because majority of my learners could read well except some boys who are playful and are not attending school regularly.

EFALT3: I always encourage my learners to take part in school debate and spelling competitions that are organized at circuit and district level. It is through this effort that I can say my teaching methods and strategies are successful.

EFALT4: The children of today are lazy to read. Even if you go an extra mile, they wouldn't meet you half way.

EFALT5: 90% of my learners are able to read well because I encourage them to watch English channels on television and I also bring newspapers and magazine for them to read. I normally organize class debate at my school to check if my teaching strategies are on track.

4.4.8.2 Data segment 2: seminar

Below are responses that bring out over crowdedness as one of the challenges to the teaching of reading.

Question: What are the sizes of these classes?

EFALT6: Teaching reading is a very difficult task if you have got more than 45 to 50 learners in a class. Our overcrowded classrooms and the incompetence of the department of education cause disturbances whole teaching and learning in schools.

EFALT11: Some classes I observed have abnormal numbers of learners between 88 to 96 and this problem makes it difficult for teachers to give those learners one- on- one support with reading disabilities. Teachers in these classes cannot give the maximum support to those learners who are lagging behind.

EFALT18: *these overcrowded classrooms affect the distribution of learner teacher support material (LTSMs) because some learners end up not having enough textbooks and the learners have to share when reading in class. Therefore, teacher relies much on making photocopies to learners in order for them to reading class.*

EFALT9: *another worrying factor in relation to large classes is the lack of furniture or desks in the classrooms. Desks were squeezed and joined together to an extent that learners were sited 5 or 6 in one desk. This makes it difficult for teachers to move around the rows in the classroom and thus unable to monitor learners' work.*

EFALT14: *the teachers who are teaching in large classes have to deal with learners' behaviour and classroom management whilst busy teaching. In classes where learners are more than 50 some learners would be busy writing other the work of other subject and some making noise and this become a barrier as teachers would spend more time trying to control them and not focusing on teaching. Time wasted is never regained.*

From the above comments, most rural schools experience large number of learners in classrooms and this lead to shortage of furniture. These large overcrowded classrooms make it difficult to teach reading and to identify learners with reading problems and become impossible to monitor learners' work.

4.4.8.3 Participant Observation

In the classrooms that were observed during reading lessons it was noticed that all classes were packed to their capacity. The teachers were unable to control learners and that h bears a negative impact on the teaching of reading. During the group reading sessions, learner behaviour seemed to be poorer. When observing a group reading lesson at a particular school, the children at the desks had to read silently while the teacher paid attention on the carpet. Also noticed was that in those overcrowded classrooms there were shortage of learner teacher support materials and learners have to share the little that the teacher has. The learners seemed to be bored, and some started drawing pictures whereas others began speaking to one another. The teacher had to remind the learners constantly about the instructions she gave them, asking them to keep

quite. The teacher has to spend too much time managing the class instead of being busy teaching.

4.4.9 Communication difficulties

The following quotations are responses from the teachers based on questions 19 and 20 of the interview schedule. There is justifiable evidence that communication difficulties are also a barrier to the teaching of reading.

4.4.9.1 Data segment 1: interviews with teachers

Question19: What communication difficulties do teachers have in teaching reading?

EFALT1: *teachers who lack self-confidence are afraid to make mistakes in front of the learners and thus they prefer silent reading. Some of these teachers are unable to read aloud in class during lesson because they cannot pronounce certain words correctly.*

EFALT2: *teachers who are teaching English and who have no English background. Most of the teachers in this study speak Sepedi as their home language since the schools they are attached to are situated in a Sepedi speaking communities.*

EFALT3: *the application of code switching whilst teaching reading in class had helped the learners to develop comprehensive understanding of a lesson. The majority of learners come to school from poor English language background and has limited vocabulary. This strategy helps teachers to resort to code switching to prevent communication breakdown. The teacher says as an EFAL teacher, I tell you there are times where you are forced to explain instructions or any kind of lesson in Sepedi which they understand better. Even myself, I do code switching for the benefit of my learners.*

EFALT4: *the teachers themselves should have good communication skills so as to enhance efficient teaching of reading in classrooms.*

EFALT 5: *it is only when teachers have self-courage and competent to speak the language that effective reading would take place.*

Question 20: What kind of communication strategies would you employ in teaching reading?

EFALT1: *From the beginning of the year, I make sure every learner has got an extra note book wherein he/she will write difficult word during reading session. Each learner writes very word that is understood.*

EFALT2: *In my class, I made it a must that every day, every learner has to take his/her book to his/her parents to be signed. This is make sure that their parents are directly or indirectly involved in their children' education.*

EFALT3: *I also encourage parents who our school meetings to read for their children at home. This lay a strong foundation in learners.*

EFALT4: *There is a monitoring tool that I have designed myself to monitor learners' progress in my class. I have made a timetable where every parent will to consult and their learners will read for them. I see this thing working for me.*

EFALT 5: *Since corporal punishment is abolished in schools, in case where a learner would make a mistake, that learners is detained after school and he/she read for a text that would have been given to him/her.*

There is revelation by the study that there are different responses by EFAL teachers on the issue of how best they should communicate in order to teach reading at their respective classrooms. Also to foster good communication channels between them (EFAL teachers) and parents so as to ease teaching of reading. The home- school communication should be intensified in order for both parties to gain understanding of the learner's educational needs and strength. The participants further argued that since education is a societal issue, if all stakeholders work in clove, they would be able to complement one another in helping learners to do well in reading.

4.4.9.2 Data segment 2: seminar

The data strands below are from the seminar eliciting communication difficulties as one of the challenges for teachers teaching reading in rural schools.

Question: What communication difficulties do teachers have in teaching reading?

EFALT16: Some teachers cannot communicate more efficiently as they lack the skills to communicate and this becomes a barrier in teachers as they are unable to teach reading.

EFALT17: poor communication amongst the teachers of English in schools makes it difficult to those teachers who need to be assisted in whatever challenge they come across. It becomes not possible to know whose teachers need to be assisted where hence the communication breakdown.

EFALT20: teachers' attitude towards the subject English itself and also towards the learners they are supposed to teach makes it difficult for effective teaching and learning. Teachers cannot teach well because they have a sour relationship with their learners in class.

EFALT9: most teachers interviewed use code-switching as a means of communication in classrooms. They code-switch from Sepedi because it is the dominant language spoken by majority of learners in this study, since most of the learners do not understand English. According to these teachers, they received substantial responses when they code switched in a lesson where all learners speak the same language.

EFALT15: there is lack of proper programs on parents' consultation in their children's education. Parents are not called for consultation to check their children's work.

There is revelation by the study that there are different responses by EFAL teachers on the issue of communication difficulties in the teaching of reading. Teachers themselves do not possess the necessary communication skills and to this effect teaching of reading is affected. Participants also highlighted communication breakdown between schools and learners' homes. The schools should have well designed consultation programs that would encourage parents to be actively and meaningfully involved in the education of their children.

4.4.9.3 Participant Observation

There were no proper communication channels between the schools and the parents of learners. The teachers at schools were operating in isolation and the parents at home too.

In the class which was composed of almost Sepedi speaking learners who did English as the first additional language, the researcher observed that, more often the learners seemed to be at ease to discuss in their mother tongue first, and then translate their opinions into English. In view of this, learners appeared to battle and almost find it impossible to think in EFAL. During the reading session, the teacher would act as the mediator and then from time to time moves around between the groups listening to their deliberations.

In other class which comprises of mostly former model C learners, the researcher witnessed what appeared to be virtually, a communication breakdown or almost a chaotic teaching and learning environment, whereby the teacher as a native Sepedi speaker did not seem to understand English. Some learners were trying very hard to listen and understand the subject matter the teacher was imparting. Some learners were conversing in Sepedi bemoaning their complete confusion with regards to what was taught. On the other hand, others were explaining to each other in Sepedi, what they think the lesson (on language structures) being taught to them meant. Others were quiet, and others seemed to be busy writing tasks of other subjects that had nothing to do with what was happening in class.

4.4.10 Teacher proficiency in teaching reading

The responses below from the interviews with the teachers elicit teacher's proficiency in teaching reading. These responses are answers to questions 21 and 22 from the interview schedule.

4.4.10.1 Data segment 1: interviews with teachers

Question 21: Are teachers fluent enough to teach reading?

EFALT1: *I think the background of teachers is a contributory factor since majority of them come from Sepedi speaking communities and as such they come to school with very limited English vocabulary. They are not good in English to an extent that when asked explanatory questions, they just respond in their mother tongue English.*

EFALT2: *teachers who are not fluent or proficient enough to speak English found it difficult to teach the subject English in the classroom. They do not have the competency in speaking the language and as a result cannot teach reading best as per curricular needs of the subject.*

EFALT3: *teachers with low self-esteem felt intimidated by some learners who are fluent to speak English efficiently. I can say that I am not fluent; I still make a lot of mistakes when speaking English.*

EFALT4: *there are teachers who cannot read aloud in class let alone to pronounce certain words more appropriately and this becomes a barrier to them in teaching reading in class.*

EFALT5: *As English teachers we do not make time to watch English television programs and also buy English newspapers and magazines to boost their reading capacity. Some English words become new when we see them for the first time in our textbooks.*

Question22: What other factors make teachers not to be fluent in teaching reading?

EFALT 1: *we teachers do not have time to read English newspapers and magazines because local shops in our do not sell them. In newspapers we just look at sport and job classified page and some just read the stories for fun. We do not have time to listen to English radio stations and we are too lazy to watch English television programmes.*

EFALT2: *I cannot say I am fluent but not hundred percent. English is ever changing and it needs a lot of practice through talking.*

EFALT3: *I feel like my colleagues will laugh at me when I am breaking English into pieces. I feel shy to speak my rotten English with my friends.*

EFALT4: There is no master of pronunciation so I say what I want anytime I feel like. If I make a mistake they will correct me.

EFALT5: As teachers we do not want feel embarrassed in front of learners because will give a name after the mistake you just committed. We are too proud of ourselves to ask our colleagues for things we do not know.

Given the participants' comments above, *teachers* who are not fluent and competent enough to speak English cannot teach reading well in the classroom. The research further revealed that the recruitment of new teachers from the teacher training institutions bears negative impact on teaching of reading

4.4.10.2 Data segment 2: seminar

The excerpts below from the seminar with the teachers shed more lights on teacher's proficiency in teaching reading.

Question: Are teachers fluent enough to teach reading?

EFALT10: it is difficult to some teachers to pronounce certain English words in class during reading sessions. As a result of this exercise, teachers felt belittled and embarrassed in front of the whole class.

EFALT19: the unqualified teachers who teach English first additional language are the ones who experience proficiency challenge in class because they do not have any background knowledge on the content (reading in this case). In some schools unqualified and untrained teachers are hired and paid by the school governing bodies because their posts are not catered for by the school's staff establishment.

EFALT8: some teachers are lazy to read and they only speak English at schools. They do not read other reading resources like newspapers and ma1gazine and to a greater extent limit their reading capacity.

EFALT24: lack of support from the school management teams of the schools also impact negatively on the teachers' ability to speak the language fluently. These teachers lack reading resources at their respective schools.

EFALT17: most of the teachers teaching English in the rural schools are Sepedi speaking people and therefore English to them is a second language and a foreign too, so this makes it difficult for them to teach English (reading) with that limited vocabulary.

In view of the above comments, participants themselves admitted that their own English is not good. All participants rated their own English as average or fair because English to them is a second language or an additional language with Sepedi been their home language.

4.4.10.3 Data segment 3: Participants Observation

Teachers were very slow in the teaching of reading in the classrooms simply because they were struggling with the language that was not familiar to them. Teachers of the sampled schools under study in their majority were from Sepedi speaking families. Teachers were not fluent in speaking English because to them English was a second or additional language. Because of this incompetency in speaking language, teachers tend to be shy and as a result impact negatively on the teaching of reading. If teachers themselves cannot read efficiently therefore they cannot speak the language fluently. The common factor in those rural teachers was that they were not reading enough. They do not have time to read English newspapers and magazines. Also noted was that they do not have time to listen to English radio stations and also to watch English television programmes.

4.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter has presented and analyzed the data emanating from the interviews, seminar and observation as presented from the research conducted in the sampled schools that participated in the project.

The data analysis presented as a narrative in this chapter underlies the researcher's attempt to walk in the participants' shoes and see things from their point of view. This chapter has highlighted challenges encountered by teachers when teaching reading to English first additional language learners in rural high schools. The teacher interviews

along with the seminar sessions and the observation of reading lessons taught, allowed for the triangulation of data.

The next chapter will focus on the discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter is an extension of the previous chapter in the sense that it presents the story of the researcher's understanding of the teaching of reading which influences the acquisition of EFAL reading in schools as seen through the understanding of the participants' interpretations. In other words, what the researcher proposes to do in this chapter is to shape a chain of narratives and interpretations. It presupposes a construction of a story of their story where the researcher's narrative is seen as an interpretation of their interpretations. In order to achieve this task, the researcher needs to underpin or reinforce his beliefs that underlie or trigger this study and interpret the findings in terms of lived through experiences (Foncha et al., 2016). As a continuation to chapters 1, 2, 3, and 4 of this study, this chapter focuses on the role of interpreting the interpretations of his participants' view of discontent and underscored the researcher's attempts to raise his thinking and practice to a higher level of understanding through interpretation (Sivasubramaniam, 2004; Foncha, 2013; Foncha et al. 2016). In view of this discontent, the researcher now understands how his stance appears to position itself against a positivist view based on his acceptance of the context of this study as a means of constructing and interpreting knowledge. Thus, instead of framing the research questions independent of context, the researcher used his research methods to contextualize and re-contextualize the questions of this investigation (Toulmin, 1990). The study discussed the following issues in order to reinforce the researcher's perspective: the problem of objectivity, rejection of objectivity, rejection of interventionist approaches to language teaching and thereby reinforcing – re-telling as a way of experiencing the experience (Sivasubramaniam, 2004; 356). In view of this, the researcher requests to point out this as the rationale for the discussion of findings.

5.2. Subjectivity and Objectivity

For the purpose of this study, the researcher found it necessary to look at objectivity and subjectivity, though they are intricate. Analysis involves the quest or a search for patterns

or forms or significances in data within the context of the research situation. Interpretation involves explaining these patterns or significances within a wider context by applying relevant theory. While analysis interrogates or questions what the data “says”, interpretation on its part questions what it “means” (Foncha, 2013). In both cases, the potential for objectivity hinges on the subject- researcher interaction (Foncha, 2013). Although similar factors are tangled at the two levels, the difference is critical (Foncha, 2013). In view of this, Sivasubramaniam argues that;

The term objectivity, as it is understood, is a set of characteristics that represent experience or knowledge which is independent of any one individual. This independence is an outcome of stating a set of rules and the permissible operations that are needed to activate them. Knowledge that is derived as a result of such activation is not influenced by personal feelings or opinions, but only by facts. As this knowledge is seen to exist outside the mind, many researchers tend to think that it is objective and it can therefore be proved (2004:356).

This investigation argued against this notion of objectivity right from the beginning and referred to the need for subjectivity and a constructive approach to knowledge as discussed in the literature review, methodology and data analysis chapter earlier. This investigation appears to resist the positivist notion that is based on a hasty generalizability, universality and replicability by focusing on context at a given time and place involving particular participants (Kepe, 2018).

In the preceding chapter, the researcher presented the data as a narrative of a developing design and understanding through which socially, constructed realities, local generalizations, interpretive resources, knowledge, inter-subjectivity and reasoning can assume substance and prominence (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). Through this lens, it appears to tally with a constructivist view of language learning (reading for pleasure and enjoyment), the core for this investigation. In principle, this meant that the researcher must share his/ her experiences and insights with his/ her readers because this study is located within the context of human experience. Although the researcher is aware that locating reading and experience might produce an imperfect or flawed fit (Foncha, 2013), the intends to communicate to the reader the confirmatory evidence and the context in

which it is understood. This is to suggest that the researcher's own knowledge has a particular impact on the whole investigation.

5.3. Narration as a Way of Experiencing their Experience

The study pointed to the direction that all knowledge is perspectival and has led to the understanding that it cascades within ethical practice of teaching reading. The constructivist approach to the teaching of reading outlined in the literature review, data analysis and methodology chapters suggest that this chapter should relive and retell the stories and experiences of the participants' notions as a way of re-experiencing their experience. Denzin and Lincoln (1998) summarize this view as follows;

"We imagine, therefore, that in the construction of narratives of experience there is a reflexive relationship between living a life story, telling a life story, retelling a life story and reliving a life story. As researchers we are always engaged in living, telling, reliving and retelling our own stories. Our narratives of experience as Jean and Michael are always ongoing ones. We live our stories in our experiences and tell stories of those experiences and modify them through retelling and reliving them. The research participants, with whom we engage also live, tell, relive and retell their stories (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998:160). Nunnanetal (2015), cites Vessey (nd) on Ricoeur's "Oneself as Another" in relation to the narrative construction of subjectivity and inter-subjectivity.

"we are subjects in others' stories, others are subjects in our stories, others are authors of our stories, we are authors of others' stories. Our narratives are essentially interwoven with other narratives. We are characters in other narratives- we are our parents' child, our partner's partner, our friends' friend- and they are characters in our narratives. Also, through our discussions and interactions with others we facilitate the articulation and direction of their narratives, and they ours. All this is to say that our identity is never simple our own. It is embedded with relations with others and we do not have ultimate control over the nature of these relationships, much less the nature of our identity".

In light of the above, the current chapter can be seen as a retelling of EFAL teachers' stories where the researcher has attempted to describe, explain and theorize in an

attempt to qualify this study as a creative act of enquiry. Therefore, the researcher intends through a retelling their stories to propose meaning and knowledge through an interpretive explanation of what the EFAL teachers have done in the context of this study. In the narratives that were presented in chapter 4, the researcher's lived through experiences were related to my participants' lived through engagements with the "ideational" context of teaching of reading as an additional language (Kramsch, 1998:24). As such, the researcher's narratives suggested how the participants made sense from learning a foreign language and also made sense of how their views were enmeshed with my epistemological and theoretical perspectives in this research.

In view of Kohonen et al (2001:147) perspectives;

if they are truly human, unfold and take shape of all the time as we move along, there is no need to define and name them in advance in exact terms. This is meant to favour the constructivist approach against the rationalist view (Lantolf, 2000). It is in this sense that the researcher deems it necessary to explore and explain theoretical possibilities in this chapter that can relate to my knowledge of my experience. In essence this motivated the researcher's use of reading models and theories in teaching reading to retell my experiences and the understanding of my participants in their teaching of reading.

5.4. Qualifications and Experiences of the participants

South African Council for Educators (SACE) as well as the Norms and Standards for Educators (DoE) stipulate that for anyone to be considered a professionally qualified teacher in South Africa, one should either possess a Certificate in Education, Diploma in Education or a Bachelor degree in Education. This professional certificate is attained after three or four years of training. In this study, the qualifications and experiences of the participants were analyzed. As revealed in sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3 of the previous chapter the participants in this study were qualified and experienced enough to teach reading in the high schools. The motive behind was to verify whether they had been trained to teach EFAL in their respective schools. Their experiences in teaching EFAL assisted the researcher to know when the teachers started teaching ESL or EFAL. The

researcher thought that this would provide valuable information with respect to gauging teachers' understanding of the paradigm shift from ESL to EFAL.

5.4.1. Professional qualifications of the participants

Teachers can play an important role in fostering an environmental consciousness in the society; therefore, more efforts are needed to sharpen their skills (Tania, 2004). On the same breath, Khurshid (2008) shared that qualifications of the teacher play an important role in teaching because a trained teacher can teach much better than an untrained teacher. Khurshid further explains that a trained teacher knows well how to teach effectively and that there is a direct relationship between the qualification of a teacher and the performance of the learners. In line with the above, the researcher saw it imperative in this study to compare the EFAL teachers' qualifications with their ability to teach reading in the rural high schools.

In view of the above argument, the data presented in sections 4.2.2 and 4.4.3 showed some evidence that all teachers who willingly took part in this research were professionally qualified to teach EFAL as they all had REQV13 as required by the South African Council for Educators (SACE), the South African Qualification Framework (SAQA) and the Department of Education (DoE). According to Rogan and Grayson (2003), the teachers' level of training has an effect on the implementation of any programme. They further argue that the level of training and the teacher's content knowledge can influence how fast they change. The study further revealed in section 4.4.2 of chapter four that all of the participants in this study have specialized in English hence they have the relevant content knowledge and skills to teach the subject.

5.4.2. Experience(s) of the participants

According to 4.2.3 the experience of teachers in teaching the EFAL forms the foundation of this study. It then became essential for the researcher to explore EFAL teachers' experiences with the teaching of the subject. The data in sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3 of the previous chapter affirms Wolters and Daughtery (2007) view that teachers in their first year of teaching reported significantly low self-efficiency for instructional practice and classroom management than did teachers with more experience. They further maintain

that there is always a relationship between the experience of a teacher and the subject matter. In view of the above argument, Richards (2011) indicated that experienced teachers are able to develop routines that enable them to perform effortlessly in a variety of situations with different kinds of children. They further argue that, those affected teachers are willing to depart from their established procedures and use their own solutions, are able to improvise and have a wide repertoire of routines and strategies that they can call upon.

This study revealed in section 4.2.3 that all interviewed teachers and those who participated in the seminar sessions, were not beginners as they had many years in English first additional language and all have more than 5 years' experience in teaching EFAL. The experiences of EFAL teachers in this study were in line with Fullan's (2001) implementation of change model where he states that it is the experienced teacher who is able to use the relevant teaching models in class, understand the interests and learning needs of students and the content as well as the use of the relevant material.

The fact that the majority of teachers in this study were highly experienced in teaching EFAL at senior phase in the high schools assists them with the broad knowledge of the subject matter. This can be evident in sections 4.2.3 of chapter four. To support the above notion, Kareem et al (2011) emphasized that the teacher serves as a resource and an agent, developing curriculum in committees, implementing it in the classroom and evaluating it as a teaching team. It is the researcher's belief in this study that teachers with many years of teaching EFAL would find it easy for them to teach reading hence it is the teacher through his/ her experience who has to translate curriculum to practice.

5.4.3 Demographics of participants in the seminar

With reference to the data presented in section 4.3 of chapter four and my personal observation, I can suggest that all participants who took part in this study were professionally qualified teachers as required by the South African Council for Educators (SACE) and also as required by the department of education of the South African government. This means that all the participants who took part in the seminar session were in a position to teach EFAL as they all possessed relevant qualifications.

5.5. UNPREPAREDNESS OF TEACHERS

As pointed out in the methodology and analysis chapters, engagements and participation from the participants was voluntary which created an affective atmosphere. As an insider and a researcher, sections 4.4.1.1, 4.4.1.2 and 4.4.1.3 used language to signal social distance which made the participants to feel that they are at liberty. In view of the above sections, there is justifiable evidence to suggest that the major problem that led to lack of unpreparedness of teachers was based on the Department of Education's ability to give in-service training to language teachers. In view of this, Foncha et al. (2018) argue that the Department of Education officials are only window dressers who do not even have the capacity to give proper training to teachers. Even in situations where they send personnel to workshop these teachers, the type of training given is simply to fulfil the fact that they have to run workshop rather than professional development (Ngoqo, 2016).

The data that was presented in section 4.4.1.1, 4.4.1.2 and 4.4.1.3 collected through the interviews, seminar sessions and participant observations, all point to the fact that the participants in this study did not have time to do lesson planning before going to classes. As highlighted by 4.4.1.2 in, some EFAL teachers have no knowledge on how to do lesson planning for their daily teaching activities. These teachers as 4.4.1.1 has alludes, states that in the workshops they had attended, planning was never part of the Department's programme. In this regard, they felt that they could not do something they were trained in. Since they were concerned with finishing the syllabus, they make use of the pace setters provided by the department of education as their guidelines. Further to this, 4.4.1.3 gives justifiable evidence that teachers were not provided with lessons plans by the Department of Education regardless of the fact that lesson plans are tasks to be fulfilled and should be planned. The study further revealed that EFAL teachers indicated lack of support from the school management team and the subject advisors on how to draw up lesson plans and let alone training in that regard.

Van der Horst and MacDonald (1997) maintain that one should not think of teaching as presentation only. On the contrary, presentation is preceded by planning and preparing the lessons. In this regard, Jacobsen et al. (1999) support the above statement that during the planning phase, the teacher needs to ask him/herself the following question: what do

I want my learners to know, understand, appreciate and be able to do? They further argue that research evidence supports the value of planning because the actions the teachers take in the classroom are influenced by the plans they make. This is in line with the data. In addition, 4.4.1.3 also elicit that a well-planned lesson provides both confidence and security to the teacher to excel in the teaching of reading. It is therefore the aspiration of this study that teachers can begin planning their lessons before presentations.

It is also evident as revealed by the data from section 4.4.1.1 that the participants did not have enough time to teach reading to their learner's due to teacher absenteeism in schools. This was supported by 4.4.1.2 in response to interview question 1 that teachers are busy attending to the union meetings and to extra mural activities therefore neglecting their responsibility of teaching learners. As a result of that, those teachers who were absent had no catch up programmes to assist the learners with more reading work. There were no morning and afternoon lessons to deal with the lost time. This behaviour is in line with Ngoqo (2016) who argues that teachers do not go to school because of the passion for the job but simply because they need to put bread on the table. This explains why teachers are unable to coerce their learners for fear they may be attacked. Thus, teachers simply go to school to earn a living rather perform the duty for which they are being paid.

In addition, the data presented in section 4.4.1.2 and 4.4.1.3 further revealed that the participants were worried about the insufficient time allocated on their school timetable as it was little to help them effectively teach reading and also due to lack of planning on how and when to teach reading. The maximum time allocation of English reading lessons on their school timetables was 45 minutes which was not sufficient enough for teachers. Further to this, the study as revealed in section 4.4.1.3 that lack of unpreparedness is as a result of teachers having too much workload. They are unable to prepare thoroughly as they are offering other subjects apart from English FAL.

It was evident from the data presented in sections 4.4.1.2 and 4.4.1.3 of the previous chapter that the underlying factor in unpreparedness of teachers was because of the poor choice of the reading texts or activities. The other contributory factor as alluded by 4.4.1.3 was the recruitment of new teachers with no experience in teaching at all. In view of this, Desai and Parker (2018) emphasise the power of story in teaching reading. The absence

of adequate textbook for appropriate grade level makes it almost impossible for teachers to teach reading (Kepe and Foncha, 2017).

In response to interview question 2 in 4.4.1.1, 4.4.1.2 and 4.4.1.3, the participants came up with possible suggestions to improve the quality of teaching reading in schools that teachers should leave their personal problems when coming to class as this affect their attention in school activities. This personal problem could include poor remuneration, lack of security for the teachers etc.

5.6 LACK OF READING RESOURCES

The euphoria of South Africa's new-found political freedom has been largely replaced by the sober reality of limited resources (at all levels) that have to be pitted against a multitude of problems (Masitsa, 2004:240). The government is to a larger extent to blame for its unaccountability and lack of resources at schools. In addition, the government's averted interest in poor education and its cynical disregard for the interest of the people on the ground is also accountable for dwindling education in the country. The data presented in section 4.4.2 appears to indicate that most of the rural high schools in this study were built by the communities and characterized by poor infrastructure and decrepit buildings without administration blocks and let alone libraries. Hancock (2018) is particularly bitter over the lack of resources in the teaching of reading.

Section 4.4.2.1 and 4.4.2.2 affirm Wienand's (2011) claim that the former Department of Education (DoE) identified learning barriers in rural schools to be a lack of appropriate facilities and infrastructure, poor access to textbooks and resources, a lack of qualified teachers and good quality leadership, and safety in and around schools, as well as overcrowded classrooms and difficulty with discipline. The rural schools sampled for this research project also encountered some of these barriers above. The study further revealed that the high schools were isolated and scarce-resourced in nature with limited reading materials available to EFAL learners.

In view of the above argument, the data presented in sections 4.4.2.1 and 4.4.2.2 showed some evidence of the absence of libraries and computer laboratories in the rural high

schools sampled for this project. As further revealed by 4.4.2.3 of chapter 4, there were schools that use classrooms as libraries and some of the books were kept in the teachers' staffrooms. As alluded to by Foncha et al (2018); Pretorius and Mampuru (2007); Makoe (2007); Matjila and Pretorius (2004), South African schools especially the black rural African schools are seriously under-resourced. In view of this, Pretorius and Mampuru (2007) argue that only 27% of the schools in South Africa have school libraries. The under-resourced schools find it very difficult to operate optimally in the implementation of CAPS in as far as the teaching of reading is concerned. To this effect, the schools with insufficient or enough books, computers, photocopiers, and learner teacher support materials (LTSM) are unable to create a conducive environment for effective learning and teaching of reading.

In response to interview question 4 in 4.4.2.1, the participants revealed that majority of rural learners do not have access to daily or weekly newspapers and magazines because their parents are unemployed and therefore cannot afford to buy newspapers and magazines. A majority of the parents in the rural areas rely much on the social grants which is not enough to cater for their basic needs. The study further indicated that some of the learners have to wait for their parents who work too far to bring along those newspapers and magazines at month end when they come from their work place. It is against this background information that leads to little exposure of newspapers and magazines in the rural areas. The possibility would be that those learners who are not reading English newspapers and magazines would be highly incompetent in English proficient and as such as reading well in the classroom is concerned.

The data presented in section 4.4.2.2 of the previous chapter also provided some evidence that there is no extra provision of dual medium English – Sepedi dictionaries in the schools. Further to that, the schools are not provided with extra curricula teaching aids like newspapers and magazines to learners so as to stimulate their reading abilities and interests. In view of the above argument, it becomes difficult for EFAL teachers to teach reading to the fullest under such poor conditions. The study indicated that there are high numbers of young learners not watching English television programmes in the rural areas. According to 4.4.2.1 high level of unemployability amongst their parents that has

made them not to have financial access to these media facilities and as a result the children are unable to watch English television programmes which could help them to improve their reading ability. Gordon and Alston (2012: 139) indicate that for a school to improve the quality of education, enough resources should be made available. This does not only limit itself to schools but also extends to homes and the communities.

5.7 INSUFFICIENT BUDGET TO SCHOOLS

The state is obliged in terms of section 34(1) of the South African Schools Act No 84 of 1996 (Republic of South Africa, 1996) to fund schools from public revenue in order to ensure the proper exercise of the rights of learners to education and the redress the past inequalities in education provisions. Despite funding from the state to schools, which has increased in real terms since the enactment of the schools Act, there are concerns regarding the adequacy of resources for the provision of quality education in public schools (Bloch, 2010:8). Section 36 of the Schools Act acknowledges this, and recognizes the insufficiency of state funding to make up for the past backlogs. An important aspect in Section 37(2) of the Schools Act is that all monies received by a public school, including school fees and voluntary contributions must be paid into the school fund and that the SGB of a public school must open and maintain a banking account. Despite all this the money that comes to rural schools is too little to meet up with the demands of the under resourced schools.

The data from the interviews, seminar and participant observation analysed in section 4.4.3.3, 4.4.3.2 and 4.4.3.3 offered verifiable support for this discussion. The data pointed to the fact that all the high schools in this study fall under quintile 2 and 3 respectively. These are no fee schools and by implication, the Department of education has to provide certain amounts in the form of norms and standard to allow them to be able to run their daily activities. The findings from the above sections appear to reinforce Botha's (2013: 123) observation that the funds which government apportions to schools are not sufficient to meet all educational needs, particularly in the so-called "no fee schools". This can be seen in sections 4.4.3.2 and 4.4.3.1 of chapter 4, even though the norms and standard money is paid, it is not enough and usually paid late in the middle or towards the end of

the year. This is supported by Mestry (2013) who reveals that the schools are struggling to implement their budgets in the first term because the provincial Departments of Education deposit the money for the operating costs into schools' banking accounts rather late in the year that lead to serious financial setbacks.

In view of the above argument, the data presented in sections 4.4.3.2 and 4.4.3.3 shows evidence of the insufficient budget to schools whereby schools resort to some fundraising activities so as to supplement what the department is offering them. As a result, the Schools Act directs that "a governing body of a public school must take all reasonable measures within its means to supplement the resources supplied by the state in order to improve the quality of education provided by the school to all learners in the school". The school governing body (SGB) does this through, inter alia, fundraising, seeking donations, sponsorships and school fees. To this effect, Section 21 of the Schools Act provides for schools to apply for additional functions, which include purchasing learning support material, paying for municipality services and seeing to the maintenance of school facilities. The study revealed that in rural schools that were sampled in this project, the only possible means of fundraising was the use of casual days where money was collected to supplement what they already have. Despite many letters written by the SGBs and the principals to different donors asking for donations, nothing came up and this adds to the frustration on the part of the school management team, the SGBs and the community at large.

The results that were presented in sections 4.4.3.1 and 4.4.3.2 of the data analysis indicated that the norms and standard money provided by the department should be properly spent and schools should have their priority lists in order and properly followed. According to Bisschoff and Mestry (2009: 58), the implication of schools having funds is that they would invariably be in a position where they handle funds from different sources and this, combined with the fact that financial resources are generally scarce, makes it vital for SGBs to understand and practice proper management of the school finances. This implies applying proper financial management processes based on implementing correct financial management systems and functions. As revealed by the data from

section 4.4.3.2 training programme should be designed by the department of education whereby the school SMTs and SGBs should be trained on how best to use that money.

In light of the above discussion, Mestry (2006a) indicated that financial management difficulties entailed the role of the principal which was perceived as being characterized by lack of collaboration with members of the school governing body, with principals being unprepared to share the responsibility of school governance lest they lose their power, and intentionally withholding information on school finances. According to Maritz (2005:17), the basic reason for financial monitoring is to help the management of the organization to plan and control finances. In this regard, the SGB should prepare the monthly financial report in advance and send them to the circuit offices for the department to process the next payment for the next financial year.

With reference to the data presented in sections 4.4.3.1 and 4.4.3.2 and my personal observation, I can suggest that the other worrying factor as revealed in this study was the level of illiteracy among school governing body (SGB) members, in particular, parent component. Xaba (2011:202) affirms the above argument that the level of parents in the SGBs has been regarded as a constraining factor for schools to successfully manage their funds. As indicated in 4.4.3.3, almost 90% of the parents in the rural areas would like to take part in school governing body activities. Below here are some of the sampled parents' reasons for wanting to take part:

I want to take part in school governing body to give guidance to my children.

To help the school with learner discipline and school management.

I want to be actively involved so as not to lay blame on other people when things go wrong.

I want gain more knowledge about school governing body's activities.

I would like to know the progress of the school where my child is attending.

It is the researcher's opinion that from all the comments made above, that there is high reasonable level of parental participation and eagerness to be involved in their children's

education in the rural areas. Therefore, it could be concluded that if all parents are positive in participating in school governing body's activities therefore their children too will be positive in their approach to education hence their parents are hands on and supportive.

Furthermore, the results from sections 4.4.3.1 and 4.4.3.2 affirm Xaba and Ngubane (2010) claim that while schools prepare their budgets, there is lack of transparency in their preparations, possibly due to lack of capacity. They also indicated that monitoring and control is only done for the purpose of complying to the Department of Education and not necessarily for purposes of ensuring accountability. It can be inferred from this that in such circumstances, there would be mismanagement and possible misappropriation of funds. In the light of the above, Chaka (2005:4) asserts that SGBs do not have a well-grounded understanding of effective financial management as it is a highly specialized function. Hence, it is the researcher's belief that if the SGBs members are properly trained on financial management, they will be at a better position to run their schools financial affairs more effectively and efficiently.

5.8 POOR REMUNERATION OF TEACHERS

The data from the interviews, seminar and participant observation analysed in sections 4.4.4.1, 4.4.4.2 and 4.4.4.3, all point to the fact that poor salaries in rural schools is the major reason why the Department of Education has failed to attract bright young minds and to keep competent and experienced teachers in the teaching profession. South African teachers who join the teaching profession with a four- year Teachers' Diploma or a degree and a University Education Diploma (UED) are receiving R180.626 as their basic annual salary. This figure still falls short of the current cost of living, which is increasingly, rapidly and constantly rising above inflation (SADTU, 2018). To exacerbate the situation, on the 1st of July 1996, the new democratic government of South Africa rescinded the teachers' salary structure that made provision for automatic annual increment for a period of eight years (Education, Law and Policy Handbook, 1999). The new salary structure leaves all the teachers' salary levels stagnant and the teachers' salaries can only be increased during a general salary negotiation and increment initiated by the government.

As revealed by the data from section 4.4.4, this poor incentives and conditions of service have resulted in low morale amongst the teachers and stressed related diseases where they end up in hospitals leading to poor performance among them. The same sentiment is shared by the National Economic Council (2002) and Kadzamira (2003). Moleni and Ndalama (2004) indicate that absenteeism and attrition amongst teachers are largely influenced by teachers' motivational factors with low salaries and poor working conditions.

To this effect, section 4.4.4.1 and 4.4.4.2 reveals that paying teachers poor salaries does not only call for instability in the education system but teachers' resignation from their profession to join other better paying industries or other public sectors. The above sections affirm Mona's (2004:3) claim that many teachers are leaving the profession in thousands (7% yearly) to join the industries because of poor salaries. The above mentioned defection has left many schools derelict because they have lost their most important asset, the hard-working and motivated teachers. Vegas (2005:435) reveal that more teachers in South Africa are taking up permanent teaching positions around London. The most obvious reason for this is the poor salaries and because in London teachers make a better living than they would in South Africa. English teachers receive pay increases year-on-year after appointment for about eight years until they reach a threshold, which is not the case with South African teachers (Wragg, 2004:224). South African teachers are prepared to relocate and to do whatever is required of them as teachers in first world countries, especially if it enables them to earn an income that compares favourably with local (SA) teacher's remuneration packages.

Paying teachers good salaries and offering them attractive benefits is part of the solution for their departure from the teaching profession (Whitlow, 2002:243). If the government is committed to retain professional and experienced teachers in the teaching profession, it must offer them attractive fringe benefits like 100% housing subsidy, 100% yearly service bonus based on their monthly salary, medical aid and car allowance to all registered teachers irrespective of years of service. Deficits in teachers' fringe benefits lead to disputes between the government and the teachers' unions (Prince, 2003:91). Prince further maintains that improving teachers' incentives could lead to the retention of

the best teachers in the teaching profession. This can be evident by the data from sections 4.4.4.1, 4.4.4.2 and 4.4.4.3 of the previous chapter.

The study also revealed in 4.4.4.2 that although higher salaries could encourage better performance, improvements in conditions of services are also important in promoting job satisfaction, and motivating teachers. The study still revealed that not all teachers in rural areas get the rural allowance(s) provided by the Department of Education. This in line with the section 4.4.4.1. In response to interview question 9, section 4.4.4.1 came up with possible suggestions to improve and to amend the criteria for awarding rural allowances to rural EFAL teachers. The incentives paid to teachers might motivate them to accept rural positions. Teachers in rural areas complain that it is too far from shopping facilities, entertainment restaurants and medical facilities.

The results in section 4.4.4.2 and 4.4.4.3 of the data analysis indicated that teachers not wanting to work in rural schools because of lower chances of promotions. Due to lack of opportunities for continuing professional development in rural areas, lot of unqualified and under-qualified teachers are employed in the rural schools.

In light of the above, section 4.4.4.3 appears to suggest that the failure of the Department of Education to remunerate teachers sufficiently may result in teachers embarking on strikes nationwide. In this regard, Haffajee and Bisseker (2002:31) observe that teachers' widespread demonstrations, picketing and strikes have been the order of the day in South Africa in protest against poor working conditions and low salaries. Teachers are highly dissatisfied with their remuneration and other conditions of service (Kadzamira *et al.* 2001; Kadzamira & Chibwana, 2002; Tudor-Craig, 2002; Chimwenje, 2003). Whitlow (2002: 243) shares the same sentiment that teachers have engaged in a series of strikes and protest marches with a view to securing better salaries and fringe benefits.

5.9. LACK OF TEAMING

Teachers collaboration during the reading lessons should be done by inviting other teachers, teacher assistants or special teachers to give learners an additional support apart from the one offered by the classroom or subject teacher when the lesson is in

progress. The data from the interviews, seminar and participant observation analysed in sections 4.4.5.1, 4.4.5.2 and 4.4.5.3 offered verifiable support for this discussion. The findings from section 4.4.5 appear to reinforce O'Connor and Vadasy (2011) observation that an extra classroom teacher is in a position to assist and supplement the teaching strategy of the regular subject teacher in relation to the curriculum and teaching methods. According to 4.4.5.1 the emphasis with regard to team teaching should be on teachers' collaboration during reading lessons whereby the subject teacher invites other teachers to give learners additional support apart from the one offered by their class or subject teacher. The study further indicated that the presence of the extra classroom teacher in the classroom would be in position and supplement the teaching strategy of the regular subject teacher with regard to reading.

In response to interview questions 10 and 11, the study in sections 4.4.5.1 and 4.4.5.2, showed that collaboration of teachers would encourage the sharing of ideas and discussions around the teaching of reading. As revealed by data from section 4.4.5.3, team teaching is vital for individual development as teachers in context would be able to compare their problem solving strategies and identifying their areas of expertise. Team teaching among teachers during the lesson is an effective teaching and learning strategy which encourages discussions and sharing of ideas. It reflects togetherness and a good working relationship. It is also vital for individual development as EFAL teachers would be able to compare their problem solving strategies and identify their areas of expertise. To support the above argument, Anita et al (2008) assert that the team work enables teachers to feel the support by other teachers to meet the individual needs of learners in the classrooms. O'Connor and Vadasy (2011) also highlighted that team teaching enables teachers to acknowledge their weaknesses without any feeling of embarrassment and accept corrections from their colleagues positively in order to assist the learners. Based on the above argument, it is the researcher's view that the job of teaching can be made easier through cooperation and collaboration amongst EFAL teachers and that so much can be learnt from considering the perspective of others and building on ideas together. Effective teaming leads to better results for both teachers and learners. The main challenge(s) would be how to establish an effective team and working towards its continued success through regular productive interaction

The analysis of the data presented in section 4.4.5.1 of the previous chapter, indicated that the so-called 'professional jealousy' has been noticed as the major contributory factor that hinder team teaching amongst the EFAL teachers. The study showed that teachers prefer to work alone despite the challenges they encountered in teaching reading in their classrooms. Team work enables teachers to feel the support by other teachers to meet the individual needs of the learners in the classrooms. In response to question 19 of the interview, the study came up with possible suggestion that team teaching helps teachers to acknowledge their weaknesses without any feeling of embarrassment and accept corrections from their colleagues positively in order to assist learners with reading difficulties.

The other challenge as revealed by the data from sections 4.4.5.1 and 4.4.5.2 of the previous chapter 4 that makes teachers not to work as a team was office politics whereby teachers were not cooperative because they wanted their friends to do certain duties. The principal or SMT not reprimanding those teachers who are not doing things right like coming to school late or late submission of tasks, etc, but making noise to those who are doing the right things.

According to 4.4.5.1, teachers do not teach as team because some wanted to be assisted whilst they do not want to assist other colleagues when is their turn to do so. It was further revealed that do not want certain teachers to teachers to teach their learners since they believe that those teachers could not teach them accordingly hence they do not know how to teach. It was also evident from the data presented in section 4.4.5.1.and 4.4.5.2 of the previous chapter that some EFAL teachers were shy to be assisted. The study also showed that teachers were operating in isolation as they lacked self-acceptance and have pride. Some of them bring their personal issues to schools and as a result their minds remain half focus and little attention given to school work.

Based on the discussions above, it can be suggested that it is through team teaching that EFAL teachers can exchange ideas about appropriate teaching approaches with one another and this widens their knowledge on how to reach all learners in the classrooms. The same sentiment was shared by Strickland et al (2002) who maintain that a teacher who practices sharing, partnership and peer support learning will try to introduce his kind

of learning in the classroom by encouraging learners to help one another and accept correction positively. They further argued that teachers will also learn that every teacher has some knowledge that can be borrowed by the other members of the team.

5.10. PARENTAL SUPPORT

The study revealed in 4.4.6.1 in response to question 12 and 13 of the interview that most of the parents in the rural communities are not meaningfully involved in their children's education. The study showed that parents in rural areas do not have the necessary skills to be able to assist their children with homework and helping them in reading at home. This was supported by Pomerantz (2005) who asserted that parents typically do not become involved with their children's education unless difficulty arises, which then can lead to frustration from the parents. According to 4.4.6.2 parents argue that their lack of involvement as far as they are concerned was due to their lack of understanding of proper functions within the school. It was further revealed by the data in 4.4.6.2 that they do not know what role to play at school in assisting teachers with their children's work. In light of the above, it can be concluded that lack of meaningful parental involvement in the education of their children (in particular reading) should be viewed as the root cause of poor readers we have today.

Most parents they do not read for their children at home. If learners do not have a reading foundation from home it would become difficult for them to start reading at school. This can be evidenced by the data from sections 4.4.6.1, 4.4.6.2 and 4.4.6.3 of the previous chapter. According to 4.4.6.1 the absence of reading culture at home is a cornerstone of failure in teaching reading at school. Habitual reading is the foundation of a reading culture. A reading culture could ensure that learners are well equipped to excel in their studies in particular be able to become fluent English readers

In line with the above, 4.4.6.1 in response to interview question 12, also elicit that parents need to work together with teachers to improve the learners reading skills. In order to develop conscientious learners who are able to communicate and read well in English, collaboration between parents and teachers is of great importance. 4.4.6.2 takes the argument further by arguing that it will be better if parents can assist their children at home

with what the teachers have been doing at schools during the day. To this effect, Maphanga (2004) asserted that schools are supposed to operate in conjunction with homes in order for them to make complementary or shared contributions towards the learning and development of children. Whereas Darling and Westberg (2004) maintain that parent involvement has a great impact on children's acquisition of reading.

The most devastating factor as revealed by the data in sections 4.4.6.1, 4.4.6.2 and 4.4.6.3 of the previous chapter with regard to lack of parental involvement was the socio-economic backgrounds of the parents they found themselves in. Most of the parents of learners in the rural schools under study were unemployed and very illiterate. As revealed by the study in section 4.4.6.2 most learners come to school without stationary and reading materials hence their parents cannot afford to buy such items. In view of the above, teachers at schools felt much unsupported and to a greater extent felt discouraged with their daily routine of teaching their learners how to read. The study further revealed that most learners were orphans who were also staying with illiterate grandparents relying largely on the social grants they were receiving from the government. 4.4.6.2 and 4.4.6.3 take the discussion further and emphasized that most parents in rural areas do not buy EFAL textbooks or reading material and as a result of this, learners come to school with very poor understanding of the English language. To this effect, teachers struggled to communicate with the learners since most of these learners were from very poor socio-economic backgrounds; they come to school without any stationary. In the light of the above, the researcher believes that some children can work better with their parents because of trust they have in them, while others do better with their teachers. The effect that reading has on the other subjects is vast. In other words, when learners do not have support from home, it seems that other subjects would be negatively affected.

The study from the data in section 4.4.6.2 in response to interview question 13 revealed that most of the parents do not respond to letters from the school by attending to organized parent's meetings held at school. The parents would only come to school unless their children have committed offences or they were having issues that they need to discuss with the teachers.

5.11 POOR TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The data presented in sections 4.4.7.1 and 4.4.7.2 of the previous chapter provided some form of evidence that most if not all teachers did not receive proper training in as far as the teaching of reading is concerned. Professional development is an essential part of improving school performance. Coolahan (2004), emphasized that development has to be conducted within the school environment and it has to consider both the interest of the education system, personal and individual needs of the teachers. Flutter (2007) argues that with regard to teaching of reading, many innovations were not successfully implemented because teachers never fully understood the nature of change. In the context of this study, EFAL teachers have to be trained and workshops should be organized so that teachers could always be developed so as to keep abreast with their subjects and they be ready to teach reading at their respective schools. McLaughlin (2002) took the argument further by indicating that successful curriculum change projects depends on implementation strategies that include effective staff training. In other words, if EFAL teachers in context are well trained, there would be effective teaching of reading. Contrary to the above argument, the data presented in 4.4.7.1 in response to interview question 14 and 15 of chapter 4, the participants felt that the training they received was not enough and as such they were not be able to change from what they had been doing for many years to something they are not sure of what lied ahead of them.

The study revealed in 4.4.7.1 in response to question 15 that the participants did not get support in the form of in-service training from their schools and from the department of education when it comes to the teaching of reading. The DoE did not give guidance and there was no monitoring of what teachers were doing in their classrooms. According to 4.4.7.2, when CAPS was introduced, the participants attended a half day workshop where they were informed about the changes in the new curriculum and there was nothing said specific to teaching of reading. Only the Policy document was given to them but no practical training was provided to them. 4.4.7.2 further responded that when it came to teaching reading, teachers were referred to a handbook for the teaching of reading in early years. However, most of the EFAL teachers struggled to prepare for their day to day

reading lessons. Therefore, the EFAL teachers were teaching reading without proper knowledge of how to teach reading.

Section 4.4.7.2 revealed that there was a noticeable lack of support from the school management team the department of education in terms of monitoring and the overall supervision. The data presented in section 4.4.7.1 and 4.4.7.2 of chapter 4 appears to indicate that workshops arranged by the department were facilitated by novice and less competent facilitators. As revealed by the data in 4.4.7.2, it was indicated that even the duration of the workshops was questionable as most of them were just half a day sessions. To this effect, in line with the data presented in section 4.4.7.1, the incompetency of the facilitators was as a result of the fact that they were appointed on the basis of their political affiliations and nepotism. In line with the above discussions, the researcher believe that it is the question of who knows who when it comes to the filling of posts in our departments and until such problem is addressed and more experienced and qualified we would stick with this problem decade to come.

Therefore, the SMT together with the subject teacher have to identify areas which need training or further development and have to conduct regular meetings with teachers in that subjects (DoE, 2000). This is in accordance with the views of Jenkins et al (2009) who maintain that monitoring involves visiting classrooms, observing teachers at work and providing feedback. According to Fullan (2001) and Hargreaves (2001) they define monitoring as a form of potential action research conducted by both the government, the SMT and the teachers, provided that the implementation process is informed by their daily and contextual experiences. This was not the case as 4.4.3 has indicated. They were not visited by the subject advisors to check if they were in line with what their urban counter schools were doing. It was therefore difficult for those EFAL teachers who never got any kind of support from the DoE but at the same time were expected to know the requirement of the new curriculum (CAPS) on the teaching of reading. It is against this background that the researchers found that teachers were teaching reading differently in their respective classrooms. The DoE should familiarize EFAL teachers with the curriculum documents, and the interpretation thereof, ensuring that teachers develop and implement

the work schedule, and lesson plans as well as to monitor the progress of teachers and provide support where required.

While some teachers received relevant support in relation to their needs, for instance, training, others received only verbal encouragement and yet others received no support at all. What may be complicating the situation; however, were the individual school dilemmas such as low staffing levels, the type of school administration that each school was having and the distance from the nearest district education office.

According to 4.4.1 teachers maintained that the little knowledge they received on the teaching of reading as per new curriculum, was obtained from the publishers who were selling books to the schools. The publishers were given an opportunity to advertise their books and gave training on how to use their books. While they were showing how to use their books, teachers gained knowledge on how best to teach reading.

4.4.7.1 highlighted the fact that the only assistance they got was from the publishing companies who come to their school to sell the textbooks. There were guidelines in their textbooks which help them to prepare much better. What worry most as participants shared in 4.4.7.2 was that if the publishers can make such a difference in improving the teaching of reading, why is it difficult for the curriculum advisors to reach out for all the schools and assist the teachers in this regard? It is the view of the researcher that teacher training is regarded as a very significant issue and indispensable for the teachers to teach reading in the senior phase in their rural schools. Furthermore, EFAL teachers need to be taught how to teach in a way that will improve reading in schools. Most importantly, it would be better if EFAL teachers know how to teach reading in a way that will address the reading crisis in South Africa.

Ingersoll and Smith (2001) in their article “The Wrong Solution to the Teacher Shortage state that teachers that are not supported in terms of learning materials, induction or a teaching assistant may get frustrated and leave the teaching profession in the early years of service. This underlines the importance of supporting teachers especially newly appointed teachers who may have much experience in the teaching profession. This is in line with the data as can be seen in sections 4.4.7.2 and 4.4.7.3 of the previous chapter.

Berry (2006) took the discussion further by stating that it is common to find teachers who feel not adequately prepared to handle the different challenges in their first few years of service. If such teachers do not get appropriate support from their school management team and the education authorities, their teaching attitudes will continue growing negative. It is against this background information as provided above that unless the correct support is given, reading difficulties may continue amongst the teachers and the learners.

As revealed in sections 4.4.7.1 and 4.4.7.2 in response to interview question 15, it became evident that teachers who did not get training or been workshoped do not plan their lessons. Even though they are experienced, they believe that they do better even if they don't follow what the department policies require. From the data presented in section 4.4.7.2, the participants shared that although some indicated that they were given the lesson plans and pace setters by the department of education via the subject advisors, they were not able to understand the contents thereof and they prefer pace setters as their guidelines. The situation prevailing in the sampled schools in the rural areas under study is of great concern because it could impact negatively on the implementation of the CAPS policies.

The study further revealed in 4.4.7.3 that rural schools were reported having huge number of unqualified teachers who were appointed out of desperation because the department does not have money to cater such posts. They were not trained to teach reading at all and what the parents want is to see their kids being taught.

5.12 OVERCROWDED CLASSROOMS

A classroom is said to be overcrowded in which the number of students exceed the optimum level such that it causes hindrance in the teaching – learning process (Khan & Iqbal, 2012). Many schools in the rural areas are overcrowded because they cannot refuse admission to local learners because of the traditional belief that the school belongs to them as residents of a particular community in which the school is located. The National Department of Education does not have a fixed rule about admission of learners and overcrowding (Masitsa, 2004: 214). He further observes that countries such as South

Africa have no fixed rules and regulations on overcrowding and the physical size or seating capacity of classrooms. The data from the interviews, seminar, participant observations of reading lessons and field notes analysed in sections 4.4.8.1, 4.4.8.2 and 4.4.8.3 offered a verifiable support for this discussions. The data pointed the fact that the department of education is partly to be blame for failure to build new schools and provide mobile classrooms in rural areas as sign of addressing this problem. In view of the above argument Green and Doran (2000) and Burnett (1995) indicated that overcrowded classrooms can cause shortage of instructional materials, inadequate school library collections and limited storage space for learning resources .To this effect 4.4.8.2 indicated that rural schools are also facing shortages of learning and teaching resources and challenges with the provision of quality teaching and learning support for the learners because of increased enrolments and overcrowded classrooms.

Another disturbing factor as revealed by 4.4.8.1 in relation to overcrowded classrooms was poor classroom management. The study further revealed that larger classes are noisier, and more prone to pushing, crowding and hitting, to the extent that this can impact negatively on classroom discipline. To support the above notion, Mustafa et al (2014:178) pointed out that large numbers of learners in one classroom are an impediment to classroom management in general and classroom discipline specifically. Teachers lose valuable lesson time in such circumstances, because they spend most of the lesson time trying to control the learners and as a result little time is left for real teaching (Imtiaz, 2014:251). Overcrowding classrooms renders teaching of reading useless.

In response to interview question 17, the study came up with possible suggestion that the EFAL teachers have to adjust their approaches and strategies to teaching reading due to overcrowded classrooms to cater for all the learners in the classrooms. As 4.4.8.1 has alluded, different strategies were employed to make teaching of reading possible in those overcrowded classes. They included, peer reading, group reading and reading aloud method. It would not be easy to give learners the maximum support if the above strategies were not put on place.

The data presented in section 4.4.8.1 in response to interview question 18, it was noticed that was lack of classroom space with desks joined together and as a result teachers

were not able to practice a variety of methods, such as higher-order questioning and active learning approaches. As supported by Opoku-Asare et al (2014:128), teachers were effectively confined to the “chalk and talk” instructional method. This method was commonly practiced in some part of South Africa particularly, in the Eastern Cape where more than 130 learners are squeezed in one classroom and teachers are obliged to present lessons with their backs pressed up against the blackboard of 2013 Guardian African Network.S

Based on the above argument, it is the researcher’s belief that when learners are placed in classes with small numbers, they are more involved and academic achievement increases. This is supported by Ikediaskhi and Amaachi (2012:160), who pointed out that lower teacher-learner ratios result in higher quality education. They further highlight that the reality of overcrowded classrooms results in learners’ lack of motivation to participate in group or individual learning activities. According to 4.4.8.3 the learning environment ought to support learners’ motivation to participate in group or individual learning activities. In conclusion, Imtiaz (2014:251) as well as Kumalo and Mji (2014) agree that overcrowded classrooms are unsupportive learning environments, and may even affect the learners’ physical health. They further point out that overcrowded classrooms are unhygienic, because if one learner has a contagious infection, then others can be easily infected. Bayat et al (2014:53) suggest that the department of Basic Education should decrease the teacher to learner ratio to 1 to 25 for the benefit of both teachers and learners.

5.13 COMMUNICATION DIFFICULTIES

Communication has many meanings that are simple and complex. The analysis of the data presented in sections 4.4.9.1, 4.4.9.2 and 4.4.9.3 of the previous chapter indicated that the most noticeable difficulty in communication amongst teachers was the lack of necessary skills to communicate more efficiently in English. 4.4.9.1 alluded that the lack of participants’ lack of self-confidence was because majority of them are Sepedi speaking and that English to them was an additional language. According to Hunt (1987) communication is the process of people sending and receiving information. He

conceptualized the communication model as involving a speaker, speech, listeners, and feedback. To support the above statement, Morlan and Tuttle (1976: 05) defined communication as the process of creating a meaning through speech. Meanwhile, Hybels and Weaver (1995) referred to communication as a process made up of various elements, namely; sender- receiver, messages, channels, noise, feedback, and setting. Fiordo, (1990) identified several types of communication, namely; intrapersonal, interpersonal, public, mediated, organizational, intercultural, and mass. The research conducted in this study will focus on the interpersonal type of communication because this type seems to be more relevant to the research under study hence it focuses on the type of communication between the teacher and his/ her learners.

The study further showed that teachers' inferiority complex where they were afraid to speak the language they were not mastering to avoid been embarrassed in front of some former Model C learners.

The researcher witnessed that teachers' attitude towards English as a language of learning and teaching at their respective schools. According to 4.4.9.2, this communication breakdown between teachers and learners impact negatively on the teaching of reading to EFAL learners.

5.14. TEACHER PROFICIENCY

The data presented in sections 4.4.10.1 and 4.4.10.2 of chapter 4 appears to indicate that participants' limited exposure to English language contributed to their poor proficiency level as most of them if all were Sepedi speaking. 4.4.10.1 also revealed that generally teachers were not proficient enough to speak English fluently and therefore becomes difficult to teach the subject. In addition, in response of interview question 22 of the data presented in 4.4.10.1, the participants were shy to speak the language because they felt that they do not want to be the laughing stock in front of their colleagues and learners.

In view of the above argument, the data presented in section 4.4.10.2 highlighted code switching as an important strategy used in this study to improve EFAL teacher proficiency. Code-switching is the ability of teachers to integrate mother tongue in a lesson. With

reference to data presented in section 4.4.10.3 and my personal observation, I can suggest that based on the fact that both teachers and learners in the schools under study, come from poor English language backgrounds and have vocabulary that is insufficient at their level and this compels the teacher to resort to code-switching to prevent communication breakdown. To support the above notion, Rose and Dulm (2006, 11) advocated the use of code-switching for both teachers and learners as a communicative tool in teaching reading. The data presented in sections 4.4.10.2 and 4.4.10.3 affirms Hoffman (1991) claim that 'code-switching' refers to the alternate use of two or more languages within a similar expression or during the similar discussions.

Furthermore, Hughes et al (2006) revealed that code switching becomes a common, traditional, and language tool that allows learners to assimilate their understanding of two languages and two cultures into a unified whole. It was evident from the data presented in 4.4.10.3 that the new and difficult words were explained in Sepedi in assisting the learners to read with understanding and in order to achieve the goals of the lessons they teach. As revealed in section 4.4.10.3, the activity aimed at teachers to read with understanding and with enthusiasm. According to Probyn 's (2009) report on classroom practice in rural and township schools code-switching is used by teachers for intellectual causes due to learners' limited English proficiency, and that teachers choose to code switch to achieve emotional goals. The effectiveness of this was witnessed in section 4.4.10.1 of chapter 4 where the teacher would state an instruction in English and thereafter follow the same instruction in Sepedi which is the learners' home language. Learners responded very well to this.

This discussion was further elaborated by Brice (2000; p.103) also shared that "largely out of linguistic and syntactic consideration, code-switching has been divided into two levels which are; inter-sentential and intra- sentential. Inter- sentential as to refer to the language switch across sentence boundaries while intra-sentential occurs when the language alteration is produced within a sentence". The study revealed in 4.4.10.2 that teachers allowed Sepedi to be used during the reading lessons for the learners to enjoy the stories when reading. It is the researcher's view that this was the better way of teaching English reading since both the teacher and the learner understand each other

while the familiar language was used. The above sentiment was also shared by Uys and van Dulm (2011:3) who confirmed the fact that code-switching is used in “explaining and clarifying subject content, in assisting learners in understanding and interpreting material, as a tool of teaching in confirming understanding management, such as maintaining learners’ attention and reprimanding disruptive behavior and for social functions, such as humour and as a marker of bilingual identity”. They further added that it was used to accomplish academic and social functions. In addition to that, Setati (2005) found code-switching as useful in clarifying meaning and developing English language competence, to reiterate a point and for effective purposes such as to accommodate learners’ language needs by narrowing the gap between teachers and learners. This can be evident in the data presented in sections 4.4.10.1 4.4.10.2 and 4.4.10.3 of the previous chapter.

As revealed by the data from section 4.4.10.3, it was so interesting to see learners participating in the lesson full with understanding because they were expressing themselves in their mother tongue. Probyn (2009) further asserted that code-switching occurs as teachers, while aware that their learners need English proficiency to access subject materials and participate in assessments, are constrained by learners’ lack of English proficiency and so they resort to code-switching to adequately communicate content. Escamilla (2007) also found code-switching to be an important and essential component of communication.

5.15 CONCLUSION

This chapter has shown a number of challenges that the teachers face in their different schools. In addition, it has shown the difficulties encountered by teachers’ teaching English first additional language. The challenges that these teachers face seem to cut across all rural schools. The chapter further revealed that although the environments for schools differ, in reality these schools have a lot in common as they appear to use similar methods in teaching reading. In the next chapter, the findings of the research are summarised, conclusions are drawn and recommendations for further research are discussed.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, teachers' challenges in teaching reading to EFAL learners were shared. The data was collected in the rural high schools of the Seshego circuit. That was done through interviewing teachers who were offering English as first additional language in their schools, observing them while teaching EFAL reading lessons, taking field notes and also organized seminar where 25 teachers attended. The data collected was organized into themes and thereafter the findings were made.

In this chapter, the summary of the research findings and the insights for the chapter are presented. This was based on the main research question and sub-questions underpinning this study. It is important to note that findings have already been discussed in the previous chapter (chapter five). The summary of the findings in this study revealed those matters that were related to what teachers experienced as they teach reading in the senior phase of the rural high schools. Conclusions and recommendations were drawn from those findings and presented in this chapter.

The questions were addressed through a literature study and an empirical investigation based on the research questions as they appear in chapter three of this research project.

6.2 Conclusions

The summary of the general conclusions reveals those matters that were related to what EFAL teachers experience as they teach reading to EFAL learners in the rural high schools. The findings of this thesis are presented by analysing the following themes based on the data collected, in conjunction with the relevant literature consulted.

6.2.1 Unpreparedness of teachers

The data collected highlighted that teachers in the rural high schools in the Seshego circuit were unable to teach reading effectively due to inadequate supply of reading material and textbooks by the department of education. Without that learner -teacher

support material (LTSMs) as mentioned above, it becomes impossible for the teachers to plan properly their daily lessons. In line with Foncha *et al.* (2018) the study further reveals that teachers were coming to classes unprepared as they spend much time attending union meetings and their private matters and therefore compromising the teaching of reading. As the literature highlighted, teachers would come with their personal problems to school and less focus paid on their daily work.

6.2.2 Lack of reading resources

It was revealed by literature that the rural high schools in this study were under-resourced with regard to the supply and provision of learner teacher support materials (LTSMs). The department was not helping in that regard in making sure that those rural schools in question do receive enough textbooks and other related reading materials in time. In view of this, Harmon (2018) thinks that the availability of reading materials is the first step to teaching literacy. It was further highlighted that there were no libraries and computer laboratories where English newspapers and magazines could be found and kept. To a greater extent, this affect the teaching of reading as teachers would not have document that would help them read or prepare their work thoughroughly.

6.2.3 Insufficient budget to schools

The study showed that the rural schools in this study receive fewer amount of money in the form of norms and standard money that would not even meet their basic needs whereby schools are forced to look out for other means of raising funds for them to survive. From the data collected through the literature review, it was revealed that even though the norms and standard money were paid in trenches and very late when teaching and learning would have started. In light of this, Foncha *et al.* (2018) state that common logic is that if schools do not have enough budgets, it would be difficult therefore for teachers to teaching reading to a satisfactory level.

6.2.4 Poor remuneration of teachers

The study found out that regardless of the teachers' qualifications, they were not satisfactory paid good salaries according to their workload. That has led to lot of

professional and experienced teachers leaving South Africa and teaching profession in particular to seek greener pastures outside the country. Also notice during the collection of data was that rural teachers were not paid rural allowance as per departmental policy. Teachers become demotivated and demoralized and some end up in hospitals with stress related diseases.

6.2.5 Lack of teaming

As revealed by the literature in this study, team teaching was lacking amongst the EFAL teachers in the Seshego high schools. Teachers were teaching reading in isolation in violation of Ndileleni and Mudzielwana (2018) who think that by exchanging and sharing ideas, EFAL teachers would be able to assist one another on improving in the strategies of teaching reading. The study highlighted that the presence of an extra teacher in class was very important as teachers would be in better position to improve on their weaknesses and strength.

6.2.6 Lack of parental support

It was revealed in this study that the majority of parents were not meaningfully playing their roles as primary care givers in their children's education and in particular in helping them with reading at home. As highlighted by Hancock (2018), the study indicated that the illiteracy level of the type of parents in this study and coupled with the socio-economic status they find themselves in, makes it difficult for them to assist their children with the teaching of reading. Parents cannot go an extra mile in purchasing anything that has to do with reading as majority of them rely heavily on social grants.

6.2.7 Poor training of teachers

The study found out that despite the fact that those EFAL in the rural high schools in the Seshego circuit were highly qualified with more experience in teaching English, they were not trained to teach reading. The study further revealed that the department of education did not provide any form of in-service training at school or district level in as far as the teaching of reading was concerned. What the literature revealed on the contrary was that

it was certain publishing companies that were able to assist the EFAL teachers by providing guidelines and short training on the teaching of reading.

6.2.8 Overcrowded classrooms

The study highlighted that effective teaching of reading was not possible in overcrowded classrooms. To that effect, EFAL teachers had to spend more time trying to manage and discipline the learners rather than focusing on teaching reading.

6.2.9 Communication difficulties

The data collected indicated that the fact that most if not all the participants in this study were from Sepedi speaking community and with little exposure to English makes it difficult for them to communicate more efficiently in English as language of learning and teaching.

6.2.10 Teacher proficiency

The study found out that the EFAL teachers in the rural high schools under study were not proficient enough to speak English well. In line with Kepe and Foncha (2017), it was further revealed that they were shy and too afraid to make mistakes when speaking the language that was not their mother tongue. As revealed by the data collected, the study found out that the teachers' lack of proficiency in English was as a result of not listening to English radio stations, not watching English television programmes and also not reading English newspapers and magazines.

6.3 THE GENERAL FINDINGS

In an attempt to address the research questions for this research project, the findings gathered by the empirical research and literature survey in this study can be summarized as follows:

6.3.1 The Main research question: What are the challenges faced by teachers in the teaching of reading to EFAL learners?

The study has shown a number of challenges that the EFAL teachers face in their different environments. It has further highlighted teachers' knowledge of teaching reading in the

schools should be visited. The challenges that these teachers face seem to cut across school type although a few of them are exclusive to one type of school. It can further be stated that although the environments for schools differ, in reality these schools have a lot in common; they use similar methods, teachers are graduates of similar teacher training institutions and they face very similar challenges. The data collected highlighted different teacher challenges in different high schools as sampled for this project.

Literature revealed that learning to read before school age was considered as important in different countries and South Africa as well (Young et al, 2012). The data also indicated that although EFAL teachers were struggling to teach reading, it was considered as important by all the participants in this study. All participants asserted that teaching reading is an important skill to be taught in the early years.

Throughout, this study has endeavored to demonstrate that there are teachers in the rural areas who are not aware of the importance of challenges they face in teaching reading to EFAL learners.

The study through the literature survey revealed that success at school depends on a triangle of interaction of three components, namely; the teacher, the learner and the parent. Therefore, close interaction amongst the three, enhanced by a loving relationship, provides a unique basis for the acquisition of language skills and the understanding of concepts. This study, thus, reinforces the view that teacher-parent relationships to support learner learning should be developed with a clear sense of purpose and collaboration wherever possible.

The study also found that the involvement of parents within the context of the school should be seen as a starting point and as a focus for work within the framework of the school curriculum and the teaching of reading in particular. The literature further highlighted that a current trend in teaching reading is that of extending the curriculum into the homes of the learners via the support of the parents. In simple terms, parents should be seen as the curriculum creators and educators.

Further to that the study revealed that most EFAL learners in the rural schools under study were living with their grandmothers/ fathers who were not literate in English and

therefore cannot offer any assistance to learners' reading. Reading and learning was only practiced during teaching time at school. In support of the aforementioned statement, Kieffer (2012: 55) and Scheffner-Hammer et al (2014: 716) argue that these EFAL learners have not developed the important skills to improve reading development as these are not reinforced at the learners' homes. As a result, teachers need to adjust their teaching strategies in order to improve reading literacy amongst EFAL learners.

The study also found through literature that EFAL teachers were unable to provide intensive support to learners whose English language ability is poor due to classroom size and therefore, those learners tend to remain weaker than their peers. As a result of this, teachers have to adjust their teaching approaches due to overcrowded classrooms.

6.3.1.1 The Sub-question 1: What is the level of the teachers' proficiency in the language of teaching and learning?

The study revealed that English proficiency for EFAL teachers was less than average as most of them do not come from English speaking backgrounds, therefore, with regard to teaching approaches in teaching reading, the teacher talk with little learner involvement. Generally, EFAL teachers also admitted that their own English is not good.

It can further be stated that English as a language of learning and teaching (LoLT) was not used by EFAL teachers in and around the school premises, though they claimed to be comfortable with expressing themselves in English to the learners. The study indicated that majority of EFAL teachers appeared to prefer expressing themselves in English because it is the official LoLT and social advantaged (Abongdia, 2013).

6.3.1.2 The sub-question 2: What reading strategies are used in the teaching of reading?

Due to EFAL learners developing English language skills, the EF AL teachers' strategies to the teaching of reading placed an emphasis on the development of English language comprehension and vocabulary. The study found out that majority of learners were able to understand and communicate in informally in English, however, an academic understanding of English was still developing. It was on the basis of this that the use of code-switching was effective when giving instruction or an explanation as this was placed

in context for the EFAL learners. Code-switching was used to facilitate teaching of reading where certain words were translated from English to Sepedi to facilitate learning. This was done as majority of learners came from Sepedi speaking community with limited exposure to English language.

The data from the literature revealed that both teachers and learners with poor English proficiency require individual support in guided reading groups where they are able to progress at their own pace and experience success. The study also found that a combination of a phonic and whole moral approach was an effective strategy implemented in EFAL classroom for teaching reading.

It was revealed in the study that a well-developed English vocabulary is essential to success in English reading (Kieffer, 2012, Castro & Sandilos, 2014) and therefore, the use of smaller reading groups allows for the improvement of learners' reading levels. The study further points out that overcrowded classrooms could be alleviated as a temporary measure by using mobile classrooms that are relatively cheap and affordable.

The study points out the fact that EFAL teachers should expose their learners to variety of tasks that are relevant to their daily experiences. It would be of great importance for teachers to let the learners discuss what they do and known as that in the process they equip themselves with values. Topics such as; HIV/AIDS, teenage pregnancy, drug abuse and many more should be used as examples of lessons that will help learners to realize that in whatever they are learning there is reality and the language is used all the time.

6.3.1.3 The sub-question 3: How is the school supporting the teaching of reading?

All the participants raised the point that many rural schools if not all, experienced scarcity of reading books and therefore, the teaching of reading is negatively affected. The study found that many rural schools have no libraries and laboratories and also there were no community libraries around their vicinity. In view of the above, the teachers felt that their schools should be provided with enough reading books in time for the both teachers and learners to read at home and by doing so the teaching of reading would be made easier and would improve. The study also highlighted that in cases where schools do have

reading books without libraries; teachers should be encouraged to use classrooms as reading corners for the learners to read.

The literature revealed that some EFAL teachers indicated that the school management team (SMT) does not involve them when it comes to the decisions taken at schools in ordering of reading books. The principals are just placing orders of books they do not even have knowledge of and those makes difficult for teachers to teach using those irrelevant (outdated) and unprescribed books. The study further highlighted that those teachers who are not supported and not involved in the decision making process become demotivated and this could lead to teachers leaving rural schools and to seek for employment in urban areas or to leave the teaching fraternity.

6.3.1.4 The sub-question 4: What role is played by the DoE in training teachers towards the teaching of reading?

The literature of the study indicates that the department of education should provide rural schools with mobile libraries so that both teachers and learners would have an opportunity to borrow books and read in their homes. Further to that the mobile libraries should visit all the rural schools and also provide some classes where teachers would be given library education which includes the importance of taking good care of the books.

It is the requirement of the department of education that all teachers in the South African schools should at least have a three-year education diploma obtained from a teacher training college, the Secondary Teachers' Diploma (STD) or a four-year professional degree obtained from a university. The study found that all the participants were having the above qualifications but they were not qualified to teach reading.

The study found that the CAPS English first additional language curriculum is not suitable for EFAL teachers since there is no mentioned of the teaching of reading per se. Teachers are just attending the departmental workshops for the sake of compliance and not for the knowledge.

The issue of teacher support came out as an important theme in the study. It was highlighted by the participants in this study that they were not getting enough support in

the form of in-service training and guidance from the school management team (SMT) and the department of education (DoE) in as far as the teaching of reading is concerned. Enough training for the EFAL teachers should be encouraged and provided. According to Fraser-Thomas and Beaudoin (2002), regular training and workshops assist teachers with more teaching skills that can help to improve their teaching. This will assist in getting clarity and in the development of the teaching reading skills.

Based on the above argument, it was further indicated that most teachers in the rural areas appear not to know how to teach reading properly. The study also found that teachers spend more time doing administrative work with little attention given to the teaching of reading.

6.4 Recommendations

It is common that after a researcher has completed a research project and has articulated his/her opinions to give some recommendations to address the problem that has been identified. The following recommendations can be made, based on the data collected and literature consulted, in order to improve English first additional language acquisition, learning and teaching with special reference to reading to EFAL learners in the rural high schools of the Seshego circuit.

Accordingly, I personally recommend that English first additional language teachers should be retrained and also some workshops regarding the teaching of reading be held at school level; so that challenges of communicative and grammatical incompetence could be addressed at their source. This is called school-based in-service training. It has the advantage of training EFAL teachers on the spot rather than to remove them from their posts for a set period during INSET.

Government intervention is required in the overall development of school with a special reference to the establishment of school media centres, adequate supply of language laboratories facilities and related support services and reading materials.

Without reading, teachers would not be able spell properly and their vocabulary might be poor. Therefore, to gain proficiency and competency in EFAL, teachers need to read

voluntarily with enjoyment until it becomes a habit. Teachers need to motivate and model a good case for free-choice reading. Teachers should encourage reading a book of choice with time to read in schools.

Schools need to be resourced with libraries and reading books to function normally. In view of the above, the study recommends that learner teacher support materials (LTSMs) is a need to be addressed and should be delivered in schools as early as possible to allow teaching and learning to take place smoothly. This will in a way help teachers to plan properly.

The study further recommends that there should be on-going programs to support EFAL teachers in teaching reading by attending workshops, meetings, seminars and conferences. The DoE must assume responsibility for conducting workshops and retraining teachers on teaching reading to EFAL learners. Further to that suitably qualified and skilled personnel should be shared among districts and circuits for capacity buildings at all level.

The study recommends that subject advisors from the DoE should visit rural schools in order to identify teachers' needs and to monitor the progress in the teaching of reading. Teachers need to be advised to form clusters where they can meet and discuss issues that can make them improve the teaching of reading.

Parents as stakeholders must be involved and be taught to assist children to read at home. Parents of EFAL learners need to provide support in the reading and learning process and to accomplish these parents need to be educated regarding English language acquisition and proficiency. The DoE should create parent education campaigns which would highlight the importance of home language proficiency in order to promote first additional language acquisition. In other words, parents need to understand why different English curriculums may be required with learners of different home languages in order to reach the same outcome, namely of creating English reading proficiency in all English South African schools.

The DoE must give teachers constant support and introduce them to the new methods of teaching reading. Reading texts should be changed in the textbooks in every five years

because some of the texts have become outdated. Topics should be of contemporary interests. Texts of all different types of writing- descriptive, narrative, expository, argumentative, literacy, etc. should be used. Topics that interest the young learners most should be included in the textbooks. The reading materials should be task-based or activities oriented that involves the learners in reading.

The study further recommends that paper work should be reduced to afford teachers to spent time with their learners and teaching them how to read, as reading is the cornerstone of all other learning.

EFAL teachers should be encouraged to read beyond the prescribed works and at the same time be motivated, inter alia, to listen to English radio and TV programmes plus any other source of English language use and usage such as movies, tutor-tapes and VCR cassettes in order to acquire authentic language in various contexts.

Proper consultation with parents should be established. Schools should be encouraged to establish communication climate that will promote positive co-operative working relationships whereby all the stakeholders of the school community will feel valued, trusted, secure, and confident. In order to involve parents more meaningfully in the education of their children, all the important communiqué including amongst others; school brochures, policy statements, information booklets etc. need to be made available in all the languages of the school. Parents' newsletters should be written in the home language of the parents so that the message could be easily understood. By properly communicating with parents, teachers would be able to:

- fulfil their responsibility in telling parents of their children's progress
- explain the academic program to parents and solicit their understanding and assistance, and
- enlist parents' help in teaching reading to their children.

Proper time management on children is needed. Parents should plan study time, play time, and an appropriate bed time for their children. It is the responsibility of parents to encourage their children to spend a certain amount of time reading each day and give time restriction on watching television and limiting time spent talking on their cell phones.

This would make the teaching of reading at school level much easier since learners will be exposed to reading at home.

Based on the data collected and literature consulted, the researcher felt that it would be proper and fit for the department of education to provide financial training to the SMT and the entire SGB together with the school finance officers on how to implement their budgets at their respective schools.

Above all the norms and standard money deposited to schools should be made as early as possible in the first term of the year for schools to plan effectively and implement their budgets more appropriately.

6.5 Implications for future research

This study on the challenge encountered by teachers in teaching reading to EFAL learners has highlighted possible suggestions which could inspire future research studies.

Since the study found that EFAL teachers were not properly trained to teach reading, therefore, I recommend that teacher training should be zoomed in for future research in the teaching of reading. The findings of such a study could be vital in improving the teaching of reading to EFAL learners in the rural areas.

Since the study was mainly focused on the teaching of reading to EFAL learners in the rural high schools of the Seshego circuit only, it would be ideal if the study could be extended to other circuits in Limpopo province as well. It could be fruitful if such a study is conducted on how teaching of reading could be implemented meaningfully in the rural high schools of the Seshego circuit.

The effectiveness of capacity building programmes should be implemented. A comparative might be made between the perceptions of EFAL teachers in the rural areas on the challenges encountered in teaching reading and their urban counterparts.

6.6 Conclusion

In this research, a modest endeavour has been made to address teachers' challenges in teaching reading to EFAL learners in the rural high schools in the Seshego circuit. Having discussed the findings in the previous chapter, the researcher appraised the findings of the study to the research questions. Further to that, the study attempted to look at the implications of such investigation in schools, the community and future research.

Although rural school teachers teaching English reading encounter many challenges affecting reading development. Most teachers teach reading without the necessary strategies, books and other resources. The situation was further exacerbated by lack of libraries and overcrowding in the classrooms. It was further highlighted in the study that learners' home language was essential in the EFAL reading development (DoE, 2008).

It was also indicated in the study that teacher training was essential as the teachers teach learners to read. The researcher also found that most language teachers are not trained as language specialists. The quality of the EFAL teachers determines the quality of the education they give to their potential learners. If effective reading is the bedrock of success in all school subjects Arua *et al.* (2005:13) then argue that school teachers should do everything possible not only for learners to develop an interest in reading but also for them to become proficient readers. The researcher is therefore confident that the present research is a humble beginning of an ongoing enquiry into the field of the teaching of reading.

REFERENCES

- Abercrombie, N. and Turner, B. 1984. *The penguin dictionary of sociology*. Penguin Books: London.
- Abongdia, J.A. 2013. *Language and ideologies in Africa: Comparative Perspectives from Cameroon and South Africa*. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Western Cape: Cape Town, South Africa.
- Abraham, C. and Graham, J. 2009. *Reading, breaking through the Barriers: Reading a discussion guide*. Taylor and Francis: Montreal.
- Adam, N.P. 2010. *Investigation of factors that influence practices of parental involvement in the development of children's literacy at senior phase school level*. Unpublished MED thesis, University of Fort Hare: Eastern Cape Province, South Africa.
- Adigun, M. and Oyelude, A. 2003. Libraries as tools for development: Survey of users of Oyo state Public Library. *Nigerian Libraries*, 37 (2): 78.
- Ahymadpoor, Z. 2004. Studying the problems of EFL Teaching in High Schools. *The Roshd ELT Journal*, 18(71):15-21.
- Ainsworth, P.B. 2000. *Offender profiling and Crime Analysis*. William Publishing: Portland.
- Airasian, P. and Gay, L.R. 2009. *Educational Research: Competencies for analysis and applications*. Pearson Education: New Jersey.
- Ajibola, A. 2006. A practical guide to purposeful reading for students. *Schools Panarama*, 21(20): 9.
- Alexander, N. 1999. English unassailable but unattainable: On teachers' responsibility in view of the global hegemony of English. Paper presented at ELET Conference on Formulating and Implementing multilingual language- in –education policies in SAs schools, colleges and universities, 4-5 August. University of Natal: Durban.

Alexander, N. 2005. *The Intellectualization of African Languages: The African Academy of Languages and the Implementation of the Language Plan of Action for Africa. PRAESA*, 245: Cape Town.

Alexander, R. 2000. *Culture and Pedagogy: International comparisons in primary education*. Blackwell: Oxford.

Alsamadani, H. 2008. *The Relationship between Saudi EFL college-level students' use of reading strategies and their EFL reading comprehension*. Unpublished PhD thesis: Ohio University: United States of America.

Alyousef, H. E. 2005. Teaching reading comprehension to English second language/ English first language learners. *Journal of Education*, 5(2): 143-154.

Amutheazi, E. 2000. Education and the challenge of patriotism in Nigeria: A goodwill message. In Babarinds, K. (ed). *Education and the challenge of patriotism in Nigeria*. A publication of Philosophy of Education Association of Nigeria: Lagos.

Anderson, N.J. 1999. Improving reading speed: Activities for the classroom. *English Teaching Forum*, 37: 2-5.

Anita, W., Hughes, M. and Walkup, V. 2008. *Psychology in education*. Pearson Educational Limited: England.

Anna, A. A. 2004. *Qualitative Research Methods: A Data Collector's Field Guide*. Honours module2: Participant observation: class notes. Linguistic Department, University of Sydney Press: Sydney.

Archer, A. 2010. Challenges and potentials for writing centres in South Africa Institutions. *South Africa Journal of Higher Education*, 24(4): 495-510.

Arua, A. E., Moanakwena, R., Rogers, P., Tierney, S. and Lenters, B. 2005. Improving the quality of Literacy learning in the context areas: Situational analysis of secondary level education in Botswana. International Reading Association: France.

Babbie, E. and Moutton, J. 2005. *The Practices of Social Research*. Oxford University Press: Cape Town.

Babbie, E. and Moutton, J. 1995. *The Practice of Social Research*. Oxford University Press: Cape Town.

Ball, S. 1990. *Foucault and Education*. Routledge: New York.

Banda, F. 2009. Challenges of Teaching Academic Writing Skills to Students with Limited Exposure to English (South Africa). *Language Teacher Research in Africa. TESOL*, (1): 1-26.

Bandura, A. 1986. *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory* is a landmark work in psychology. Prentice-Hall Inc.: Englewood Cliffs.

Barbour, R. 2008. *Introducing Qualitative research. A student guide to the craft of doing qualitative research*. Sage Publications: London.

Barnard, A. 2010. English in South Africa- A double-edged sword. [online]: <http://www.teachingenglishtoday.org/English-in-South-Africa-a-double-edge-sword>. [16 April 2012].

Barnes, L. 2004. Additive Bilingualism in the South African. *Language-in Education Policy: Is there proof of the pudding?*. Department of Linguistics, University of South Africa (UNISA): South Africa.

Bayat, A., Louw, W. and Rena, R. 2014. Investigating the confluence of factors impacting on underperformance at selected secondary schools in the Western Cape. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 7(1): 41-55.

Becker, S. and Bryman, A. (eds). 2004. *Understanding Research for Social Policy and Practice: Themes, methods and approaches*. Policy Press: Bristol.

Beech, J.R. 2005. Ehri's model of phases of learning to read: a brief critique. School of Psychology, University of Leicester, UK. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 28(1): 50-58.

Bell, J. 1993. *Doing your Research Project: A guide for first-time Researcher in Education and Social Science*, 2nd Ed. Open University Press: Buckingham.

Belson, W. A. 1967. Tape recording: Its Effect on Accuracy of response in Survey Interviews. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 4(3): 253-260.

Belmont, J.M. 1989. Cognitive Strategies and Strategic Learning: The Socio-instructional Approach. *American Psychologist*, 44(2): 142-8.

Benton, T. and Craib, I. 2011. *Philosophy of social sciences: The philosophical foundations of social thought*, 2nd Ed. Palgrave Macmillan: New York.

Bereiter, C. 1994. Constructivism, Socioculturalism, and Popper's World. *Educational Researcher*, 23(7):21-23.

Berowitz, M. 2008. *Understanding the relevance of cognitive psychology to composition: Taking a closer look at how cognitive psychology has influenced ideas about reading, writing and teaching process*. Miami University Press: Oxford.

Berry, B. 2006. *Why we do not Support New Teachers and What can be Done about it* Centre for Teaching Quality Chapel Hill: North Carolina.

Bettelheim, B. and Zelan, K. 2001. "The magic of reading". In Moll, I. (ed). *Learners and Learning*. SAIDE / OXFORD University Press: Cape Town.

Beukes, A., Moyo, J. and van Rensburg, W. 2010. Teaching and learning English as a Home Language in a predominantly non-native English classroom: A study from Kwa Zulu-Natal. *Journal for Language Teaching*, 44 (2): 23-37.

Bisschoff, T. C. and Mestry, R. 2009. *Financial management explained*. Kagiso: Cape Town.

Bleicher, J. 1980. *Contemporary Hermeneutics: Hermeneutics as method, philosophy, and critique*. Routledge & Kegan Paul: Michigan.

Blenkin, G. M. and Kelly, A. V. 1996. *Early Childhood: A developmental curriculum*, 2nd Ed. Paul Chapman Publishing Ltd: London.

Bless, C. and Higson-Smith, C. 1995. *Fundamentals of Social Research Methods: An African Perspective*, 2nd Ed. Juta & Co: Pretoria.

Bloch, G. 2010. What is wrong with South African schools? *The Teacher*, 10: 12-36.

Bloor, M. and Wood, F. 2006. *Keywords in qualitative methods: A vocabulary of research Concepts*, 1st Ed. Sage Publications: London.

Bogdan, C. R. and Biklen, K. S. 2007. *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods*, 5thEd. Pearson Education: Boston.

Booth, D.W. and Swartz, L. 2004. *Literacy Techniques for Building Successful Readers and Writers*. Pembroke Publishers Limited: Markham, ON.

Borgatti, S.P. 1999. *Element of Research*. Online: <mhtml:file://E:/Theoreticalframework/.mnt> (12-03-2012).

Borg, W. R., Gall, J. P. and Gall, M. D. 2003. *Education Research and Introduction*, 7th Ed. Longman: New York.

Botha, N. 2013. *Financial Management and Leadership in Schools*. Pearson: Cape Town.

Brice, A. 2000. Code switching and code mixing in the ESL classroom: A study of pragmatic and syntactic features. *Advances in Speech Language Pathology. Journal of the Speech Pathology Association of Australia*, 20(1): 19-28.

Brown, A.L. and Palinscar, A.S. 1989. Guided, cooperative learning and individual knowledge acquisition. In Resnick, L.B.(ed). *Knowing, learning, and instruction: Essay in honor of Robert Glaser* (pp. 393-451). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.: Hillsdale.

Brown, G. and Yule, G. 1983. *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge University Press: New York.

Bruner, J. 1984. Social Research: An International Quarterly Representation. *Arien Mack*, 51(4):969-984.

Bruning, R.H., Schraw, G.J. and Norby, M.M. 1995. *Cognitive Psychology and Instruction*. Pearson: Boston.

Bucher, R., Fritz, C. E. and Quarantell, E. L. 1956. Tape Recorded Interviews in Social Research. *American Sociological Review*, 21(3): 359-64.

Burman, E. 2007. Discourse analysis Means Analysing Discourse: Some comments on Antaki, Billig, Edwards and Potter's Discourse Analysis Means Doing Analysis: A Critique of six Analytic shortcomings: Accessed 14/04/2016 <http://www.did.stu.mmu.ac.uk/psy/speech/research/discourse/distaff.htm>.

Burnett, G. 1995. Overcrowding in urban classrooms. ERIC clearing House: New York.

Burns, S. N. and Grove, S. K. 2003. Understanding nursing research, 3rd Ed. Saunders: Philadelphia.

Burrell, G. and Morgan, G. 1979. Sociological Paradigms and Organizational Analysis. *Acta Sociologica*, 19: 1-37.

Calitz, L. 2002. Leadership in Education. Sandown: Heinemann.

Campione, J.C., Brown, A.L., Ferrera, R.A. and Bryant, N.R. 1984. The zone of proximal development: Implications for Individual differences and learning. University of Illinois: Urbana- Champaign.

Candlin, C. 1984. Preface. In Alderson, J. C. and Urquhart, A.H. (Eds.) Reading for Pleasure. Albrecht Inc.: Leeds.

Carrel, P. L. 1988. Interactive Text Processing Implications for ESL/ second language classrooms. Sage Publications: London.

Chadwick, B. A., Bahr, H. M. and Albrecht, S. L. 1984. *Social Science Research Methods*. Prentice-Hall Inc.: Englewood Cliffs.

Chaka, T. 2005. SASA functions are proving too much for poorer, less educated school governing bodies. Paper presented at the conference on School Governance organized by the Department of Education. 24-26 February at Holiday Inn Garden Court: Isando, Johannesburg.

Champion, D. J. 2005. Research methods for criminal justice and criminology. Prentice Hall: USA.

Chemero, A. 2003. Events Changes in the Layout of Affordance. *Ecological Psychology*, 15: 19-25.

Chimwenje, D. 2003. Secondary Teacher Education in Malawi: A paper presented at an International seminar on Teacher Education held on 27-28 March 2003 at Chancellor College, Zambia.

Chiu, C.C.H. 1998. Wives' voices: Unequal reward distribution in small family business. *Southeast Asian Journal of Social Science*, 26: 33-44.

Chris, H. 2005. Doing your masters dissertation: Realising your potential as a social scientist. Sage Publications: London.

Cobb, O. 1994. Where is the mind? : Constructivist and Sociocultural Perspective on Mathematical Development. *Educational Researcher*, 23(7): 13-20.

Cohen, A.D. 1994. Assessing Language Ability in the Classroom, 2nd Ed. Heinle & Heinle: Boston.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. 2006. Research Methods in Education, 5th Ed. Routledge Falmer: London.

Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K. 2011. Research Methods in Education, 7th Ed. Routledge Falmer: London.

Cooter, J.D. 2000. Literacy: Helping Children Construct Meaning, 4th Ed. Houghton Mifflin: Boston.

Craib, I. 2011. Philosophy of social science: The philosophical foundations of social thought. Palgrave Macmillan: New York.

Creswell, J. W. 2003. Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approach. Sage: London.

- Creswell, J.W. 2005. *Research Design: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches*. Sage: Thousand Oaks.
- Creswell, J. W. 2008. *Educational research: planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*, 3rd Ed. Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall: New Jersey.
- Creswell, J. W. 2009. *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative and Mixed Methods Approaches*, 3rdEd. SAGE: Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Crouch, L., Korda, M. and Mumo, D. 2009. *Improvement in reading skills in Kenya. An experiment in the Malindi District*. USAID: Nairobi.
- Cummins, J. 1980. The Cross- Lingual Dimensions of Language Proficiency: Implications for Bilingual Education and the Optimal Age Issue. *TESOL Quarterly*, 14(2): 175-187.
- Cunningham, P.M. and Allington, R.L. 2007. *Classrooms that work: They can all read and write*. Pearson/Allyn and Bacon: Boston.
- Darling, S. and Westberg, L. 2004. Parent Involvement in children's acquisition of reading. *The Reading Teacher*, 57: 774-776.
- Darrel, M. 2005. *The Howard Street Tutoring Manual: Teaching at-risk readers in the primary grades*. London: Guilford Press.
- Dattallo, P. 2010. Ethical dilemmas in sampling. *Journal of social work values and Ethics*, 7(1): 247-269.
- Davenport, T. 2002. *South Africa: A Modern History*, 2nd Ed. Macmillan: Johannesburg.
- Davies, A. C. 2008. *Reflexive Ethnography: A Guide to Researching Self and Others*. Tailor and Francis Group: New York.
- Davies, F. 1995. *Introducing Reading*. Penguin Books: UK.
- Dawn, E. and Sedgewick, F. 1996. *Learning Together: A practical guide for parents*. Bloomsbury Publishing: London.

Day. 1983. *Macrorules for Summarising Texts: The Development Expertise*. Bolt Beranet and Newman Inc.: Centre for the Study of Reading, Illinois.

Denscombe, M. 2005. *Ground Rules for Social Research; a 10-Point Guide for Social Researcher*. Sage publication: London.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y. S. (eds.) .2005. *Handbook of qualitative research*. Sage: Thousand Oak, CA.

Denzin, N. K. and Lincoln, Y.S. 1998. *The Landscape of Qualitative Research: Theories and Issues*. Sage Publication: Thousand Oaks.

Department of Basic Education (DBE). 2011. *Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for First Additional Language*. Government Printers: Pretoria.

Department of Basic Education (DBE). 2012(a). *Diagnostic Report: Annual National Assessment 2012*. Government Printers: Pretoria.

Department of Basic Education (DBE). 2010. *The Status of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in South African Public Schools*. Government Printers: Pretoria.

Department of Education (DoE). 2008. *National Reading Strategy: Department of Education. Republic of South Africa*. Government Printers: Pretoria.

Department of Education (DoE). 2008. *Teaching and reading in the early Grades. A teacher's Handbook*. Department of Education: Pretoria

Department of Education (DoE). 1996. The South African Schools Act. No 84 of 1996. Government Printers: Pretoria.

Department of Education (DoE). 2001. *Special needs education: building an inclusive education training system: Education White Paper 6*. Government Printer: Pretoria.

Department of Education (DoE). 2002. *Revised National Curriculum Statement Grades R – 9*. Government printers: Pretoria

Department of Education (DoE). 2008. *Teaching Reading in the Early Grades. A Teacher's Handbook*. Government Printers: Pretoria.

Department of Education (DoE). 2010. *Inclusive Education: Institutional Level Support*. Government Printers: Pretoria.

Department of Education .2003. National Curriculum Statement Grade 10-12 (General) Languages – English First Additional Language. Seriti Printing (Ltd): Pretoria.

Desai, Z. and Parker, N. 2018. The Power of stories. In Nomlomo, V., Desai, Z. and September, J (eds.). *FROM WORDS TO IDEAS: The role of literacy in enhancing young children's development*. British Council South Africa: Cape Town.

De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C. B. and Delpont, C. S. L. 1998. *Research at Grassroots for the Social Sciences and Human Services Professions*, 3rd Ed. Van Schaik: Pretoria.

De Vos, A.S. 2003. *Research at grassroots: for the social sciences and human services professions*. Van Schaik: Pretoria.

De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C. B. and Delpont, C. S. L. 2005. *Research at grassroots*, 3rded. Van Schaik: Pretoria.

De Vos, A. S., Strydom, H., Fouche, C. B. and Delpont, C. S.L. (eds.). 2011. *Research at grassroots: for the social sciences and human service profession*. Van Schaik: Pretoria.

De wet, J. J., Monteith, J. L., Venter, P. A. and Steyn, H. S.1981. *Navorsingsmetodes in die opvoedkunde*. Butterworth: Durban.

Dewitz, P. K. 2003. They can read the words, but they cannot understand: Refining comprehension assessment. *The Reading Teacher*, 56(5): 422-435.

DiPardo, A. and Freedman, S.W. 1988. Peer Response Groups in the Writing Classroom: Theoretic foundations and new directions. *Review of Educational Research*, 58:119-149.

Donalek, J. G. 2004. Demystifying nursing research: Phenomenology as a qualitative research method. *Urological Nursing*, 24: 516-517.

Drew, L. J., Hardman, M. L. and Hosp, J. L. 2008. *Designing and conducting research in Education*. Sage publications: Thousand Oaks.

Dudeny, G. 2003. The Quest for Practical web usage. *IATEFL*, 37(2):8-9.

Dyers, C. 2003. Intervention and Language the effects of one Development Programme on the Language Attitude of Primary School Educators. *Journal for Language Teaching*, 37(1): 60-73.

Dyers, C. and Foncha, J.W. 2012. "Us" and "Them": The Discursive Construction of "the Other" in Greenmarket Square, Cape Town. *Language and Intercultural communication*, 12(3):230-247.

Eagleton, T. 1983. *Literacy theory: An introduction*. University of Minnesota Press: Minnesota.

Education law and Policy Handbook. 1999. *The National Laws, Policies and Agreements Relating to School Governance and Employment of Educators in South Africa*. Juta & CO Ltd: Kenwyn.

Ehri, L. C. and Wilce, L. S. 1985. Movement into reading: Is the first stage of printed word learning visual or phonetic? *Reading Research Quarterly*, 20:163-179.

Eiselen, W. W. 1969. Opening Address. The South African Institute of Race Relations Conference, RR in Durban: December 1969.

Emerging Voices. 2005. *A report on education in South Africa rural communities*. Nelson Mandela foundation: Johannesburg.

Escamilla, K. 2007. *The role of code switching in the written expression of early elementary simultaneous bilingual: American Educational Research Association*. Boulder: Colorado.

Eyo, W. 2007. "Nigeria: Libraries and Reading Culture". This Day, February 11, 2007.

Fagnano, C. L. and Weber, B. Z. 1994. *School, Family and Community Interaction: A view from the firing lines*. Westview Press: Oxford.

Fairclough, N. 2003. *Analysing discourse: Textual analysis for social research*. Routledge: New York.

Fairclough, N. 1992. *Discourses and Social change*. Polity Press: Cambridge.

Fakeye, D. 2012. Teachers' qualifications and subject mastery as predictors of achievement in English Language in Ibara Papa Division of Oyo State. *Global Journal of Human Social Science*, 12(3): 96-124.

Fareh, S. 2010. Challenges of teaching English in Arab world: Why can't EFL programs deliver as expected? *Procedia Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 2(2): 3600-3604.

Ferreira, A. 2009. *Teaching Language*. Mcmillan: London.

Fields, M., Lois, G. and Spangler, K. L. 2008. *Let's begin reading right: A developmental approach to emerging literacy*. Pearson Education: Vienna.

Finch, J. 1985. Social policy and Education: Problems and possibilities of using Quantitative research. In Burgess, R. G.(ed). *Issues in Educational research: Qualitative research*. The Falmer Press: New York.

Fiordo, R. 1990. *Communication in education*. Detselig Enterprises Ltd: Calgary, Alberta.

Firkins, A., Forey, G. and Sengupta, S. 2007. *A Genre – Based Literacy Pedagogy: Teaching Writing to Low Proficiency EFL students*. The Hong Kong Polytechnic University: Hong Kong.

Flanagan, W. 1997. *Reading and Writing in Junior classes*. Maskew Miller Longman: Cambridge.

Flick, U. 2002. *An introduction to qualitative research*, 2nd Ed. Sage Publishers: London.

Flick, U. 2011. *Introducing Research Methodology: A beginner's guide to doing a research project*. Sage Publications: London.

Flutter, J. 2007. Teacher Development and Pupil voice. *Curriculum Journal*, 18(3): 63-75.

Foncha, J. W. 2013. An Investigation of Students' and Teachers' attempts at Intercultural Communication: Exploring the connections between Intercultural Communication Competence and Identity Construction at the University of the Western Cape. Unpublished PhD thesis: University of Western Cape, South Africa.

Foncha, J.W. 2014. Who Am I: Identity Construction of Otherness on a Social Media. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(23):1805-1812.

Foncha, J. W., Abongdia, J.A. and Kepe, M.H. 2018. Challenges encountered by teachers in the teaching of reading in English First Additional Language (EFAL) classrooms. In Nomlomo, V., Desai, Z. and September, J. (eds.). FROM WORDS TO IDEAS: The role of literacy in enhancing young children's development. British Council South Africa: Cape Town.

Foncha, J. W., Sivasubramaniam, S., Adamson, J. and Nunn, R. 2016. Investigating the role of Language in the Identity Construction of Scholars: Coming to terms with Intercultural Communication Competence. Cambridge Scholars: Cambridge.

Foncha, J. W and Sivasubramaniam, S .2014. The Links Between Intercultural Communication Competence and Identity Construction in the University of Western Cape Community. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(10): 376-385.

Foucault, M. 1981. The Order of Discourse. In Robert, Y. (ed). *Untying the Text: A Poststructuralist Reader*. Routledge: London.

Fountas, I. C. and Pinnell, G. S. 2001. Guiding readers and writers Grades 3-6: Teaching comprehension, genre, and content literacy. *Guided reading: good first teaching for all children*. Heinemann: Portsmouth, NH.

Fowler, R.G., Kress, G.R., Trew, A.A. and Hodge, R.I.V. 1979. *Language and control*. Routledge and Keegan Ltd: London.

Fraenkel, J. and Wallen, N. E. 2006. *How to design and evaluate Research in Education*, 6thEd. McGraw- Hill: Boston.

- Fraser-Thomas, J. L. and Beaudoin, C. 2002. Implementing a physical education curriculum: two teachers' experiences. *Canadian Journal of education*, 27(2/3): 249-68.
- Friesen, B. 2010. Designing and conducting our first interview project. Jossey-Bass Publishers: US.
- Fullan, M. 2001. The New meaning of education change, 3rd Ed. Van Nostrand: New York.
- Futernick, K. 2003. Why teacher quality and teaching credential matter. [<http://www.edfordemocracy.org/tqil/TQI-Quality> matters. (14/05/2017.)]
- Gadamer, H. 1976b. From Epistemology to Ontology: Gadamer's hermeneutics and Wittgensteinian social science. University of California Press: Berkeley, CA.
- Gan, Z. 2012. Understanding L2 Speaking Problem: Implications for ESL Curriculum Development in a Teacher Training Institution in Hong Kong. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education*, 37(1): 4.
- Ganasi, R. 2010. The reading experiences of grade four children. University of KwaZulu Natal: Durban.
- Gary, D.E. 2009. Doing Research in the real world. SAGE Publishers: Britain.
- Gay, L.R. 1992. Educational Research: Competencies for analysis and application. Macmillan Publishing Company: New Jersey.
- Geary, D.C. 1995. Reflections of evolution and culture in children's cognition: Implications for mathematical development and instruction. *American Psychologist*, 50(1); 24-34.
- Gee, J.P. 1990. Social Linguistic and Literacies: Ideology in Discourse critical Perspectives on Literacy and Education. Taylor & Francis: London.
- Geertz, C. 1973. The Interpersonal of cultures: Selected Essays. Basic Books: New York.
- Gibson, J. J. 1986. The Ecological Approach to Visual Perception. Hillside N J: Erlbaum.
- Gillham, B. 2000. Case study research methods. Continuum: London.

- Glaserfeld, E. V. 2003. The constructivist view of Communication. In: Muller, A and Muller, K H (Eds.). *An Unfinished revolution*. Echoraum: Vienna.
- Goodman, K. S. 1967. Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game. *Journal of the Reading Specialist*, 6: 126-135.
- Goodman, K.S.1976. Miscue: Theory and Reality in Reading. In Merrit J.E. (Ed.). *New Horizons in Reading, proceedings of fifth IRA world congress on Reading*: IRA, Newark: Delaware.
- Goodwin, B .2012. Research says New Teachers face Three common challenges. *Supporting Beginning Teachers*, 69 (8): 84-85.
- Goodwin, P .2005. *The Literate Classrooms*. David Fulton Publishers: London.
- Gorton, R. and Alston, J. A. 2012. *School Leadership and Administration: Important concepts, case studies, and stimulations*. McGraw Hill: New York.
- Gough, P. B. and Tunmer, W. E.1986. Decoding reading and reading disability. *Remedial and Special Education*, 7: 6-10.
- Gough, P. B. 1972. One second of Reading. In Kavonagh, J. F. and Mattingly, I.G. (eds). *Language by Ear and Eye*. MIT Press: Cambridge.
- Gough, P. B. and Hillinger, M. L.1980. Learning to read: An unnatural act. *Bulletin of the Orton Society*, 30:179-196.
- Graves, M. F., Juel, C. and Graves, B. B. 1998. *Teaching Reading in the 21st century*. Allyn & Bacon: Boston.
- Gray, D. 2009. *Doing research in the Real World*, 2nd Ed. Sage Publishers: London.
- Green, M. and Doran, H. 2000. *Still no room to learn*. ERIC Processing and Reference Facility. Maryland.
- Greenwood, J. 1998. *Class Readers*. Oxford University Press: Hong Kong.

Guardian African Network. 2013. South Africa's forgotten schools- in pictures. Guardian, 1 May. Available at [http:// www.theguardian.com/world/gallery/2013/May/o01/southafrica-forgotten-schools-inpictures](http://www.theguardian.com/world/gallery/2013/May/o01/southafrica-forgotten-schools-inpictures). Accessed 24 April 2018.

Guba, E. G. and Lincoln, Y. S .2005. *Effective evaluation*. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco.

Hadi-Tabassum, S. 2005. The balancing act of bilingual immersion. *Educational researcher*, 62(4): 50-54.

Haffajee, F. and Bisseker, C. 2002. Financial Mail. *Teachers Give Revised Version the star of approval*, 166 (7): 30-32.

Hall, A. 2007. Vygotsky goes online: Learning design from a socio- cultural perspective, Learning and socio- cultural theory: Exploring Modern Vygotskian Perspectives International Workshop 2007, 1(1): 94-107 [online]: <http://ro.uow.edu.au/llrg/vol1/iss1/6>. [25.05.2010].

Hall, J.K. 2000. *Acquiring Intercultural Communicative Competence from Textbooks*. Leuven University Press: Belgium.

Hall, K. 2003. *Listening to Stephen Read: Multiple perspectives on Literacy*. Open University Press: Buckingham.

Hammersley, M. 1992. *What's wrong with ethnography?: Methodological explorations*. Routledge: London.

Hammond, J. and Gibbons, P. 2001. *Scaffolding: Teaching and Learning in Language and Literacy Education*. Primary English Teaching Association: Australia.

Harmer, J. 2007. *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, 4th Ed. Pearson education Limited: England.

Hancock, A. 2018. Learning Literacy in Multilingual contexts: Scotland and South Africa. In Nomlomo, V., Desai, Z. and September, J. (Eds.). *FROM WORDS TO IDEAS: The role of literacy in enhancing young children's development*. British Council South Africa: Cape Town.

Harmon, J. 2018. Literacy in action: The case of Kreol Morisien. In Nomlomo, V., Desai, Z. and September, J. (Eds.). *FROM WORDS TO IDEAS: The role of literacy in enhancing young children's development*. British Council South Africa: Cape Town.

Hargreaves. 2000. *Restructuring: Post modernity and the prospects for tomorrow's schools: Restructuring and quality*. Routledge: London.

Harvey, S. and Goudvis, A. 2007. *Strategies that Work: Teaching Comprehension for Understanding and Engagement*. Stenhouse Publishers: Portland.

Heath, S.B. 1983. *Ways with words: language, life and work in communities and classrooms*. Open University Press: Buckingham.

Hendricks, D. 2013. *The Complete history of social media: Then and Now*. Retrieved from <http://smallbiztrends.com/2013/05/the-complete-history-of-social-media-infographic.html>.

Henning, E. 2004. *Finding your way in qualitative research*. Van Schaik: Pretoria.

Heugh, K. 2002. The case against bilingual and multilingual education in South Africa: Laying bare the myths. *Perspectives in Education*, 20 (171): 902-917.

Hinkel, E. 2005. *Handbook of Research in Second Language Teaching and Learning*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates: New Jersey and London.

Hoffman, C. 1991. *An Introduction to Bilingualism*. Longman: London.

Honan, E. 2015. This is how Australian teachers are taught how to teach children to read: not just phonics. Online: <http://www.aare.edu.au/blog/> (27 June 2016).

Hughes, C. E., Shaunessy, E. S., Brice, A. R., Ratliff, M. A. and Machatton, P. A. 2006. Code switching among bilingual and limited English proficient students: Possible indicators of giftedness. *Journal for the Education of the Gifted*, 30(1): 7-28.

Hugo, A. J. 2010. Foundations phase teachers: The "battle" to teach reading. *Journal for Language Teaching*, 44(2): 133-144.

Hunt, G. T. 1987. *Public speaking*, 2nd Ed. Prentice-Hall: Englewood Cliffs.

Hurst, S. 2013. Six characteristics of Effective Reading. Online: <http://www.readinghorizons.com/blog/post/2013/02/20/6-characteristics-of-effective-r> 22 February 2017).

Husserl, E. 1970. The crisis of the European Sciences and transcendental phenomenology: An introduction to phenomenological philosophy (D.Carr.Trans). North-Western University Press: Evanstay, I.L.

Iaquinta, A. 2006. Guided Reading: A Research- Based Response to the Challenges of Early Reading Instruction. *Early Childhood Education Journal*, 33(6): 413-418.

Igwe, K. N. 2011. "Reading culture and Nigerian's Quest for Sustainable Development". *Library Philosophy and Practice*. E-journal Paper 482.

Imtiaz, S. 2014. Exploring strategies for English language teaching of Pakistani students in public sector colleges. *Research Journal of English Language and Literature (RJELAL)*, 2(2): 247-253.

Ingersoll, R. and Smith, T. 2003. The Wrong Solution to the Teacher Shortage. *Educational Leadership*, 60(8): 30-33.

Iser, W. 1978. The Act of Reading: A Theory of Aesthetic Response. Johns Hopkins University Press: The University of Michigan.

Jacobsen, D. A., Eggen, P. and Kouchak, D. 1999. Methods of teaching promoting students learning. Prentice Hall: New Jersey.

Jenkins, J. 2003. World Englishes. A Resource Book for Students. Routledge: London.

Jenkins, I. R., Graaf, J. J. and Miglioretti, D. L. 2009. Estimating reading growth using intermittent CBM Progress Monitoring. *Exceptional Children*, 75: 151-163.

Johnson, B. and Christensen, L. 2012. Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Methods, 4th Ed. Sage Publications Inc.: London.

Johnson,R.B., Onwuegbuzie, A.J. and Turner, L.A. 2002. Toward a Definition of Mixed Methods Research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(2): 112-133.

Jorgensen, D. L. 2010. *Participants Observation: A Methodology for Human studies*. Sage Publications: London.

Joshua, J.J. 2007. *Language matters in a rural commercial farm community: Exploring language use and implementation of the language-in- education policy*. University of KwaZulu Natal: Durban.

Joubert, I., Bester, M .and Meyer, E. 2008. *Literacy in the Foundation Phase*. Van Schaik: Pretoria.

Kaboob, F. 2001. *Positivist and hermeneutic paradigms: A critical evaluation under the structure of scientific practice*. Online: <http://f.students.umkc.edu/fkc8/PosHerm SSP.htm>
03 November 2016.

Kadzamira, E. C. 2003. *Where Has All the Education Gone in Malawi: Employment Outcomes of Secondary and University Leavers?* Institute of Development Studies: Brighton.

Kadzamira, E. C. and Chibwana, M. 2002. *Gender and Primary Schooling in Malawi: IDS Research Report No 40*. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.

Kadzamira, E. C., Swainson, N., Maluwa-Banda, D. and Kamlongera, A. 2001. *The Impact of HIV/AIDS on Formal Schooling in Malawi*. Brighton: Centre for International Education, Sussex.

Kareem, O. A., Bing, K. W., Jusoff, K., Awang, M. and Yunus, J. N. 2011. *Teacher capacity building in Teaching and Learning: The changing role of school leadership. Academic Journal*, 9: 131-141.

Kepe, M.H. 2017. *Building a reading culture among Grade 12 learners in an English First Additional Language classroom: The Case of one High School in King William's Town Education District*. University of Fort Hare: South Africa.

Kepe, M.H. 2018. *English Scholarship Beyond Borders. Teaching English as a Social Practice: A Practical Guide. English Scholars Beyond Borders*, 4(1): 122-137.

Khumalo, B. and Mji, A. 2014. Exploring educators' perceptions of the impact of poor infrastructure on learning and teaching in rural South African schools. *Mediterranean Journal of social Sciences*, 5(20): 1521-15532.

Khurshid, K. 2008. A study of relationship between the Qualifications of the Teachers and Academic Performance of their students at secondary school level. *International Journal of Human and Social sciences*, 3(6): 128-136.

Kieffer, M. J. 2012. Early oral language and later reading development in Spanish-speaking English language learners: Evidence from a nine-year longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Developmental Psychology*, 33: 146-157.

Kilfoil, W. R. and Van Der Walt, C. 2007. Learn 2 Teach: English Language teaching in a multilingual context. Van Schaik Publishers: Pretoria.

Klaassen, C.A. 2002. Teaching pedagogical competence and sensibility. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 18(2): 151-158.

Klein, H. K. and Myers, M. D. 1999. A set of Principles for Conducting and Evaluating Interpretive Field Studies in Information Systems. *MIS Quarterly on Intensive Research*, 23(1): 67-93.

Kohonen, V., Taatteen, R., Kaikkonen, P. and Lehtovaara, J. 2001. Experiential learning in foreign language education. Longman: Harlow.

Kozulin, A. 1986. Trans and Ed, Lev Vygotsky, thought and language. The MIT Press: Cambridge.

Kramsch, C.J. 1998. Language and Culture. Oxford University Press: Oxford.

Krashen, S. 2005. "Read-Alouds are good for Literacy Development: A comment on Freakonomics". Online: <http://www.sdkrashen.com/articles/freakonomics/index.htm> (19 November 2016).

Krefting, L. 1991. Rigor in qualitative research: The assessment of trustworthiness. *The American Journal of Occupational Therapy*, 45(3): 215-222.

- Kruizinga, A. and Nathanson, R. 2010. An Evaluation of Guided Reading in Three Primary Schools in the Western Cape. *PerLingua: Journal of Language Learning*, 26(2): 67-76.
- Kucer, S. B. 1987. "The cognitive base of reading and writing". In the dynamics of language learning, Squire J. (Ed.). 27-51. National Conference on Research in English Urbana, ii.
- Kumar, R. 2005. *Research Methodology: A step- by- step guide for beginners*, 2nd Ed. Sage Publications: London.
- Kvale, S. and Brinkmann, S. 2009. *Interviews, learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing*, 2nd Ed. SAGE: London.
- Landsberg, E., Kruger, D. and Nel, N (eds). 2005. *Addressing barriers to learning: A South African Perspective*. Van Schaik: Pretoria.
- Language in Education Policy. 1997. Department of Education: Pretoria.
- Lantolf, J.P. 2000. Introducing sociocultural theory. In Lantolf, J.P (ed). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.
- Lasis, A .2007. We must promote reading and environmental culture. *The Punch Newspaper* June 15: 45.
- Leary, M. R. 2001. *Introduction to behavioural research methods*, 3rd Ed. Allyn and Bacon: Boston.
- Leedy, P. D. 1993. *Practical Research: Planning and Design*. McMillan Publishing Company: New York.
- Leedy, P. D. and Ormrod, J. E. 2005. *Practical research: planning and design*, 8th Ed. Pearson Education: Saddle River N.J.
- Leibowitz, M. 2000. The work Ethics and the Habits of Mind. *Journal of social sciences*, 72:62-78.

Lenyai, E. 2011. First additional language teaching in the foundation phase of schools in disadvantaged areas. *Journal of childhood Education*, 1 (2): 68-8.

Leppanen, U., Aunola, K., Niemi, P. and Nurmi, J. 2008. Letter knowledge predicts Grade 4 reading fluency and reading comprehension. *Learning and Instruction*, 18: 548-564.

Lessing, A. C. and De Witt, M. W. 2002. Teaching Reading in an OBE framework. *Journal for Language Teaching*, 35(3):273-288.

Levy, R. 2011. Young children Reading at home and at school. Sage Publications: London.

Lichtman, M. 2010. Qualitative Research in Education: A User's Guide, 2nd Ed. Sage Publishers Inc.: California.

Linake, M. A. 2015. A case study of Students' first Additional Language Reading and Response in the Faculty of Education at the University of Fort Hare. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Fort Hare, Eastern Cape, South Africa.

Linake, M.A. and Foncha, J.W. 2015. A Constructivist view of Journaling: Language in an English First Additional Language Classroom. University of Fort Hare: South Africa.

Lincoln, Y. S. and Guba, E. G. 1985. Naturalistic Inquiry. Sage: Beverly Hills, CA.

Little, C.A. and Hines, A.H. 2006. 'Time to read: Addressing reading achievement after school. *Journal of Advanced Academics*, 18(1): 148-156.

Lopes, M. A. 2008. Educators' experiences of learners in their classroom who may have ADHD. Unpublished M Ed thesis, University of Pretoria, South Africa.

Luke, A. and Freebody, P. 2000. Further Notes on the four Resources Model. Reading online: www.readingonline.org/research/lukefreebody.html (11 November 2016).

Lyster, E. 2003. Real or imagined worlds: an analysis of beginner level reading books for adult literacy learners in South Africa. Unpublished M ED thesis: University of KwaZulu Natal, Durban, South Africa.

MacIntyre, P.D., Burns, C. and Jessome, A. 2011. Ambivalence about communicating in a second language: A qualitative study of French immersion students' willingness to communicate. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(1): 81-96.

Mackie, J.M. 2007. Beyond learning to read: An exploration of a short reading intervention in the Ilembe District of KwaZulu Natal. Unpublished M ED thesis: University of KwaZulu Natal: Durban, South Africa.

Makoe, P. 2007. Language discourses and identity construction in a multilingual South African primary schools. *English Academy Review*, 24(2): 55 – 70

Makoe, P. 2014. Language acquisition and language learning. In Phatudi, N. (Ed.). *Introducing English as First Additional Language in the Early Years*. Pearson Holdings: Cape Town.

Maleki, A., Mollace, F. and Khosravi, R. 2014. A Content Evaluation of Iranian Pre-university ELT Textbook. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 4(5): 995-1000.

Manning, G.L. and Manning, M. 1984. What models of recreation reading make a difference? *Reading World*, 23: 375-380.

Manyike, T. V. and Lemmer, E .M .2008. A comparative assessment of L1 and L2 reading performance amongst grade 7 learners in English and in Xitsonga. *Per Lingua*, 24: 62-74.

Maphumolo. K. 2010. An exploration of how grade one IsiZulu teachers teach reading. Unpublished dissertation, University of KwaZulu Natal: Durban.

Maree, K. 2010. *First steps in research*. Van Schaik: Pretoria.

Maree, K. and van der Wethuizen, C. 2007. Planning a research proposal. In Maree, K. (Ed.). *First steps in Research*. Van Schaik Publishers: Pretoria.

Maritz, M. 2005. *Financial management- handbook for CBO*. IDASA: Pretoria.

Marsh, J. 2003. One-way traffic? Connections between literacy practices at home and in the Nursery. *British Educational Research Journal*, 29(3): 369-382.

- Marshall, C. and Rossman, G. B. 2011. *Designing qualitative research*. Sage: London.
- Masitsa, G. 2004. Four Critical Causes of Underachievement in Township Secondary School. *Acta Academia*, 36(1): 213-245.
- Maswanganye, B. 2010. The Teaching of first Additional Language Reading in Grade 4 in selected School in the Moretele Area Project office. Unpublished PhD thesis, University of South Africa: South Africa.
- Mather, N. 2012. Making the CAPS fit: An exploration of the reading development strategies of three Intermediate Phase language educators in a rural KwaZulu-Natal. Unpublished M Ed Thesis, University of Kwazulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa.
- McCarthy, C.P. 1999. Reading theory as a microcosm of the four skills. *Applied Linguistic Series*: London.
- McEwen, E.K. 2007. *Teach them all to read: Catching the kids who fall through the cracks*. Corwin Press: California.
- McGrath, I. 1974. Language skills and Language Teachers. *English language Teaching Journal*, 28(4): 296-298.
- McKeown, M.G., Beck, I.L. and Blake, G.K. 2009. *Rethinking Reading Comprehension Instruction: A Comparison of Instruction for Strategies and Content Approaches*. University of Pittsburgh: USA.
- McLaughlin, B. 2002. *Theories of second language learning*. Edward Arnold: London.
- McMillan, J. H. and Schumacher, S. 2006. *Research in education: a conceptual introduction*, 6th Ed. Longman: New York.
- McNamara, D. S. and Kendeou, P. 2011. Translating advances in reading comprehension research to educational practice. *International Electronic Journal of Elementary Education*, 4(1): 33-46.

McRay, A. D. and Vaughn, S. 2001. Not all students learn to read by third Grade: middle school students speak out about their reading disabilities. *The Journal of special Education*, 35(1): 17-30.

Meador, D. 2016. Problems for Teachers that limit their overall Effectiveness. Online: <http://teachingabout.com/od/pd/a/problems-for-Teachers.htm>. 14 November 2018.

Meganathan, R. 2009. English Language Education in Rural Schools: The Situation, the Policy and the Curriculum. Online: <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teaching/files/Z413%20EDB%20section04.o.pdf> 02 April 2016.

Mergel, B. 2011. Instructional design and learning theory. Online: <http://www.usask.ca/education/coursework/802papers/merge/brenda.html>. [08 August 2016].

Merriam, S. 2001. Qualitative Research and case study Applications in Education. Jossey- Bass Publishers: San Francisco.

Merriam-Webster's Online Dictionary. Merriam-Webster. 2009. Retrieved 2009-03-16.

Mertens, D. M. 2005. Research methods in Education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative and qualitative approaches, 2nd Ed. SAGE: Thousand Oaks.

Mestry, R. 2006a. Financial Accountability: the principal or the school governing body? *South African Journal of Education*, 26(1): 27-38.

Mestry, R. 2013. A critical analysis of legislation on the financial management of public schools: A South African perspective. *De Jure*, 46(1): 162-177.

Mhlongo, P. P. 2012. Teaching methods used by grade one Educator whilst developing reading skills. University of KwaZulu Natal, Durban.

Miller, D. 2002. Reading with meaning: Teaching comprehension in the primary grades. Stenhouse Publishers: Portland.

Minskoff, E. 2005. Teaching reading to struggling learners. Paul Brookes: Baltimore.

Mitasha, N. 2013. A study of reading assessment in the Grade 4 classrooms. Unpublished MED dissertation, University of KwaZulu Natal: Pietermaritzburg.

Mitchell, H. and Myles, F. 1988. *Second Language Theories*. Arnold: London.

Mitchell, J. E. 2000. *Strategies for the Development of Academic Literacy of first year Education Students at Vista University*. Unpublished PhD thesis, Vista University: Port Elizabeth.

Moats, L. 1999. Reading is rocket science: what expert teachers of reading should know and be able to do American Federation of Teachers. online: <http://www.aft.org/pubsreports/downloads/teachers/rockets.pdf>. 25 July 2017.

Moerk, E.L. 1994. Corrections in First Language Acquisition: Theoretical controversies and Factual Evidence. *International Journal of Psycholinguistics*, 10: 33-58.

Moleni, C. and Ndalama, L. 2004. *Teacher Absenteeism and Attrition in Malawian Primary Schools: A case study of four Districts Draft report*. University of Kwazulu Natal: South Africa.

Mona, V. 2004. The Teacher. Naptosa in Dispute over Wage Increase. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 2(11): 3-12.

Montgomery, M., Durant, A., Fabb, N., Furniss, T. and Mills, S. 2000. *Ways of reading*. 2nd Ed. Routledge: London.

Moore, A., Destefano, J., Jerway, A., and Balwanz, D. 2008. *The expansion of secondary education and the need for teachers: How big is the gap?* Working paper. USAID: Educational quality improvement programme.

Moreno, J. D. 1999. 'Ethics of research design'. *Accountability in Research*, 7:175-82.

Morlan, D. B. and Tuttle, G.E Jr. 1976. *An Introduction to effective oral communication*. Indianapolis, IN: Bobbs- Merrill.

Mqgwashu, E. M. 2007. *English studies and language teaching: Epistemological access and discursive critique in South Africa*. University of KwaZulu-Natal: Durban.

Msimango, N. M. 2012. An exploration of how English First language teachers teach reading to grade three learners in multilingual contexts. Unpublished MED thesis: University of KwaZulu Natal: Durban, South Africa.

Mudzielwana, N. P. 2018. Teachers' practice of shared reading as a strategy. In Nomlomo, V., Desai, Z. and September, J. (Eds.). *FROM WORDS TO IDEAS: The role of literacy in enhancing young children's development*. British Council South Africa. Cape Town.

Mulkeen, A. and Chen, D. 2008. *Teachers for rural school's experiences in Lesotho, Malawi, Mozambique, Tanzania and Uganda, African human development series*. The World Bank, Washington DC.

Mustafa, H. M. H., Mahmoud, S., Assaf, F. H., AL-Hamadi, A. and Abdulhamid, Z. M. 2014. Comparative analogy of overcrowded effects in classrooms versus solving 'cocktail party problem' (neural networks approach). *International Journal of Engineering Science and Innovative technology (IJESIT)*, 3(2): 175-182.

Mwiri, K. and Wamuhlu, S.P. 1995. *Issues in Education Research in Africa*. East African Education Publications: Nairobi.

Nachmias, D. and Nachmias, C. 1992. *Research methods in the social sciences*. St Martin: New York.

National Economic Council. 2002. *Qualitative impact monitoring (QIM) of poverty alleviation policies and programmes in Malawi. Vol 1 survey findings*.

National Reading Panel. 2000. *Teaching children to read: an evidence-based assessment of the scientific research literature on reading and its implications for reading instruction*. National Institute of Child Health and Human Development: Washington DC.

Nehal, M. 2013. *A study of reading assessment in the grade 4 classrooms*. University of KwaZulu Natal: Durban.

Nel, N., Nel, M. and Hugo, A. 2012. Learner support in a diverse classroom: A guide for foundation, intermediate and senior phase teachers of language and mathematics. Van Schaik: Pretoria.

Neyman, P.F. 2002. Helping children learn to think in English through reading storybooks. *The internet TESL journal*, vii (8).

Ngoqo, V. M. 2016. A case study of Effective teaching and learning as determinants of Discipline and Academic performance in schools, Unpublished PhD thesis, University of Fort Hare, Eastern Cape: South Africa.

Nieuwenhuis, J. 2007b. Qualitative research designs and data gathering techniques. The Guildford Press: New York.

Norman, J. 2002. Two Visual Systems and Two Theories of Perception: An attempt to Reconcile the Constructivist and Ecological Approaches. *Behavioural and Brain Sciences*, 24(6): 1-62.

Nieuwenhuis, J. 2007b. Quality research designs and data gathering techniques. The Guildford Press: New York. In Maree, K (Ed.). *First steps in Research*. Van Schaik Publishers: Pretoria.

Norton, D.E. 2007. Literacy for Life. Boston. Allyn and Bacon

Nunan, D. 1991. Language Teaching Methodology. Prentice Hall International: Hertfordshire.

Nuttall, C. 1996. Teaching Reading Skills in a foreign language. Heinemann: Oxford.

Nwabueze, A. 2011. Library work with Research Children Young Adults/ Adolescent. Unpublished dissertation, UNISA: South Africa.

Oberholzer, B. 2005. The relationship between reading difficulties and academic performance among a group of Foundation Phase learners. University of Zululand. *Journal of Higher Education*. 16(3): 196-206.

O'Connor, R. and Vadasy, P. 2011. Handbook of reading interventions. The Guildford Press: New York.

Olabiyi, O.S. and Asimolokun, B.A. 2009. Challenges of using information communication technology (ICT) in Nigerian Technical Vocational Education Institutions. University of Lagos: Nigeria.

Oliver, W. A. 2013. Reflection on the training of teachers for the CAPS mathematics curriculum—a brief report.

Omaggio, M.A. 1993. Teaching language in context. Heinle and Heinle: Boston.

Onwuegbuenzi, A. J. and Leech, N. L. 2005. Sampling designs in qualitative: making the sampling process more public. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Southwest Educational Research Association. February 9-12. New Orleans: L.A.

Openshaw, R., Soler, J., Wearmouth, J. and PaigeSmith, A. 2002. The socio-political context of the development of reading recovery in New Zealand and England. *The Curriculum Journal*, 13(1): 25-41.

Opuko-Asare, N.A., Agbenatoe, W.G. and DeGraft-Johnson, K.G. 2014. Instructional strategies, institutional support and student achievement in general knowledge in art: Implications for visual arts education in Ghana. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 5(21): 121-134.

Oyetunde, I. and Unoh, J. 1986. Teaching reading comprehension and summary writing in the secondary schools. Meseum Press: Josi.

Painter, C. 1986. The role of interaction in learning to speak and learning to write. In C Painter and J Martins (Eds.). *Writing to mean: Teaching genres across the curriculum. (Applied Linguistics Association of Australia Occasional Paper No 9)*. Department of Linguistics, University of Sydney: Sydney.

Patton, M. Q. 2002. Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods. Sage Publications: London.

- Perfetti, C. A. and Marron, M. A. 1998. Learning to read: Literacy acquisition by children and adults. In D.N. Wagner (Ed.). *Advances in adult literacy research and development*. Sage Publications: London.
- Phatudi, N. 2014. *Introducing English as First Additional Language in the Early Years*. Pearson Holdings South Africa: Cape Town.
- Pienaar, K. and Bekker, I. 2007. The body as a site of struggle: oppositional discourse of the disciplined female body. *South African Linguistic and Applied Language Studies*, 25(4): 539-555.
- Pluddemann, P., Mati, X. and Mahlalela-Thusi, B. 1998. Problems and possibilities in multilingual classrooms in the Western Cape. PRAESA: Cape Town.
- Pomerantz, E. M. 2005a. Mother's assistance with homework: The importance of believing in Children's competence. Unpublished manuscript. Sage Journals.
- Powdermaker, H. 1966. *Stranger and Friend: The way of an Anthropologist*. W.W. Norton: New York.
- Pretorius, E. J. 2002. Reading Ability and Academic Performance in South Africa: Are we Fiddling While Rome is Burning? *Language Matters*, 33: 169-196.
- Pretorius, E. J. and Machet, M. P. 2004. Literacy and Disadvantage: Enhancing Learner's Achievements in the Early Primary School Years. *African Education Review*, 1(1): 128-146.
- Pretorius, E.J. 2000. "What they can't read will hurt them: reading and academic achievement". *Innovation*, 21: 33-41.
- Pretorius, E. J. and Mampuru, D. M. 2007. Playing football without a ball: language reading and academic performance in a high-poverty school. *Journal of Reading Research*, 30(1): 38-58.
- Prince, C. D. 2003. Higher Pay in Hard- to Staff Schools: The case or Financial Incentive. *SACAT*, 23(1): 91.

Probyn, M. 2006. Language and learning science in South Africa. *Language and Education*, 20(5): 391-414.

Probyn, M. 2009. Smuggling the vernacular into the classroom: Conflicts and tensions in classroom code switching in township rural schools in South Africa. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 12(2): 123-136.

Probyn, M., Murray, S., Botha, L., Boyta, P., Brooks, M. and Westphal, V. 2002. Minding the gaps: an investigation into policy and practice in four Eastern Cape districts. *Perspective in Education*. 20 (1):123-135.

Ragin, C.C. 1994. *Constructing social Research*. Pine Forge Press: California.

Ramanathan, H. 2008. *Language enrichment teacher preparation and practice predicts third Grade Reading Comprehension Reading Psychology*. Prentice Hall Inc.: NJ.

Republic of South Africa. 1996. The South African Schools Act No 84. Government Gazette. 377(19579). Government Printers: Cape Town.

Reutzel, D.R. and Cooter, R.B. 2000. *Teaching children to read: Putting the pieces together (3rd Ed.)*. Prentice Hall Inc.: Upper Saddle River, NJ.

Richards, J.C. 2011. *Competence and performance in Language Teaching*. Cambridge University Press: New York.

Richardson, L. 2007. 'Narrative and Sociology'. *Journal of Contemporary Ethnography*, 19: 116-135.

Richardson, P. and Eccles, J. 2007. Rewards of reading: Toward the development of possible Selves and Identities. *International Journal of Education Research*, 46: 341-356.

Robson, C. 2011. *Real world research (3rd Ed.)*. Wiley: Chichester, West Sussex.

Rodolo, N.G. 2008. *The practice of Inclusive Education in the Lusikisiki Mega District with special reference to Flagstaff sub-district, Eastern Cape*. Unpublished dissertation: University of South Africa.

Rogan, J. M. and Grayson. B. 2003. Towards a theory of curriculum implementation with particular reference to Science Education in Developing countries. *International Journal of Science Education*, 25(10): 1171-1204.

Rogoff, B. 1990. Apprenticeship in thinking: Cognitive development in social context. Oxford University Press: Oxford, UK.

Rose, D. 2012. Genre in the Sydney school: The Routledge handbook of discourse Analysis. Routledge: London.

Rosenblatt, L. 1995. Literature as exploration. The Modern Language Association of America: New York.

Rosenblatt, L. 1978. The reader, the text, the poem: the transactional theory of the literary work. Southern Illinois University Press: Carbondale, Illinois.

Rule, P. and John, V. 2011. Your Guide to case Study Research. Van Schaik Publishers: Pretoria.

Rumelhart, D. E. 1977. Towards an interactive model of reading. In Dornic, S. (Ed.). *Attention and performance* vi (pp.573-603). Lawrence Erlbaum: Hillsdale, New Jersey.

Ryde, P. 2009. Understanding reading. Rinehart & Winston: New York.

SACMEQ 2. 2002. Southern and Eastern Africa consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality.

Sadoski, M. and Pavio, A. 2007. Towards a unified theory. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 11(4): 337-356.

Sanderson, G. 2002. Contemporary themes in the research enterprise. *International Journal*.

Savage, J. F. 1994. *Teaching Reading Using Literature*. Brown and Benchmark: Madison, Dubuque.

Scheaffer, R.L., Mendenhall, W. and Ott, L. 1996. Elementary Survey Sampling. Belmonte. CA: Wadsworth Publishing CO.

Scheffner-Hammer, C., Hoff, E., Uchikoshi, Y., Gillanders, C., Castro, D. C. and Sandilos, L. E. 2014. The language and literacy development of young dual language learners: A critical review. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78: 597-620.

Schunk, D.H. 1996. Learning Theories: An Educational Perspective, 2nd Ed. Prentice-Hall: New Jersey.

Schunk, D. H. 2008. Learning Theories: An Educational Perspective, (5th Ed). Upper Saddle River: N J, Pearson.

Schwartz, N. 2008. The Teacher chronicles: Confronting the demand of students, parents Administrators and Society. *Laurelton Media*,14.

Sentsho, J.L. 2000. The rural school: With special reference to the use of English Second Language as medium of teaching and learning. Unpublished dissertation, University of Limpopo, South Africa.

Setati, M. 2005. Teaching Mathematics in a Primary Multilingual classroom. *Journal for research in Mathematics Education*, 36(5): 447-466.

Shahidullah, M. 1995-6. "Product and Process: View of Reading and Their Pedagogical Implications". *Rajshahi University Studies*, 23-24: 209-230.

Sikes, P. 2004. Methodology procedures and ethical concerns in doing educational research: A guide for first- time researchers. Sage Publications: London.

Singh, P. 2009. Trawling through language policy: practices and possibilities post-1994. *Language Learning Journal*, 37(1): 281-291.

Singh, R.J. 2010. Teaching reading to English First Additional Language (EFAL) Foundation Phase. *Mousaion*, 28(2): 117-130.

Sivasubramaniam, S.D. 2011. Coming to Terms with EIL Competence. From Defining EIL Competence to Designing EIL Learning. Asian EFL Journal Press for the EIL Journal, 35-64.

Sivasubramaniam, S.D. 2004. An Investigation of L2 learner' reading and writing in a literature-based language programme: Growing through responding. Unpublished doctoral thesis, University of Nottingham: UK.

Skinner, B. 2010. English as an additional language and initial teacher education: views and experiences from Northern Ireland. *Journal of Education Teaching: International Research and pedagogy*, 36(1): 75-90.

Slavin, R.E. 1983. Cooperative Learning. Longman: New York.

Smith, F. 1971. Understanding reading. Rinehart & Winston, New York.

Solomon, Z. P.1991." California's Policy on Parental Involvement: State Leadership for local initiatives". *Phi Delta Kappan*: 72(5).

South African Democratic Teachers' Union (SADTU). 2005. *The educators' Voice*. Minister's Acknowledge Teachers' Uncompetitive Salaries, 8(2): 4-6.

South African Schools Act (1996). Act No 84 of 1996. Department of Education: Pretoria.

Stahl, S. 2004. What do we know about fluency? In P. McCardle and V. Chabra (eds). *The voice of evidence in reading research*, 187-211.

Stake, R. 2005. Multiple Case Study Analysis. Champaign: Illinois.

Stanovich, K.E. 1980. Towards an Interactive- Compensatory Model of Individual Differences in the Development of Reading Fluency. *Research Reading Quarterly*, 16(1): 32-71.

Stanovich, K. E. and Stanovich, P. J.1999. How research might inform the debate about early reading acquisition. In J Oackhill and R Beard (Eds.). *Reading Development and the Teaching of Reading*. Blackwell: Oxford.12-41.

Stenbacka, C. 2001. Qualitative Research requires quality concepts of its own. *Management Decision Qualitative Research*, 39(7): 551-555.

Sterling. 2004. The teacher shortage: national trends for science and mathematics and science; collaborative exploration. Van Schaik: Johannesburg.

Sternberg, H. 2000. Handbook of Intelligence. Cambridge University Press: Cambridge, UK.

Street, B. 1995. Social literacies: critical approaches to literacy development, ethnography and education. Longman: London.

Strickland, D., Snow, C., Griffin, P., Burns, M. and McNamara, P. 2002. Preparing our teachers, opportunities for better reading instruction. Joseph Henry press: Washington DC.

Stroller, F. L. and Grabe, W. 2001. Action Research as Reflective Teacher Practice in the context of L2 Reading Classrooms. *Tydskrif vir Taalondering*, 35(2&3):97-109.

Swaffar, J. K., Arans, K. M. and Byrnes, H. 1991. *Reading for meaning: Integrated Approach to Language Learning*. Prentice Hall: New Jersey.

Sweet, A.P. and Snow, C.E. (eds). 2003. Rethinking Reading Comprehension. Guilford: New York.

Talbot, M. 2007. Media Discourse: Representation and Interaction. Edinburgh University Press: Edinburgh.

Tania, U. 2004. Evaluation of Teacher's Training programme under science project in Vehari City. Unpublished PhD thesis, Department of Education. Multan: Bahauddin Zakaria University.

Tashakkori, A. and Teddlie, C. 2003. Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioural research. Cassel: London.

Theron, L. and Nel, M. 2005. The needs and perception of South African grade 4 educators. Teaching ESL Learners, Juta: Cape Town.

Thomas, G. 2011. How to do your case study: A Guide for students and researchers. SAGE Publications: Los Angeles.

Thorne, S. 2000. Data analysis in qualitative research. *Evidence Based Nursing*; 3(3):68-70.

Thunzini, M. A .2011. An exploration of teachers' experiences in teaching standard four mathematics and science curriculum in Second language: A case study in three selected Lesotho Primary schools in rural Areas. Unpublished M Ed thesis: University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban.

Tindale, J. 2003. Teaching reading: Professional Development collection. National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research: Sydney.

Titscher, S. 2000. Analysing a Text: Verbal or Written. In Titscher, S., Meyer, M. Wodak, R. and Vetter, E. Methods of Text and Discourse Analysis. SAGE: London.

Toulmin, S. 1990. Cosmopolis: The Hidden Agenda of Modernity. Free Press: New York.

Trelease, J. 2006. How Non-Reading Students Are Related to Their Non-Reading Parents and Teachers. Online: <http://www.trelease-on-reading.com>. 02 April 2017.

Trochim, W. M. K. 2006. Qualitative Validity. Online: <http://www.socialresearchmethodsnet/kb/qualial.php> retrieved. (28 June 2016).

UNESCO. 2011. Teaching reading in primary schools.

Urquhart, S. and Weir, C. 1998. Reading in a Second Language: Process, Product and Practice. Longman: London.

Uys, D. and van Dulm, O. 2011. The functions of classroom code switching in the Siyanda District of the Northern Cape Province. *South African Linguistics and Applied Language Studies*, 29(1): 67-76.

Uys, H. N. M. and Basson, A. A. 1991. Research Methodology in Nursing. Kagiso Tertiary: Pretoria.

Vacca, R.T. and Vacca, A.L. 2009. Content Area Reading, 4th Ed. Pearson: Boston.

Valencia, S., Place, N.A., Martin, S.D. and Grossman, P.L. 2006. Curriculum Materials for Elementary Reading: Shackles and Scaffolds for Four Beginning Teachers: *Elementary School Journal*, 107(1): 93-120.

Van der Horst, H. and MacDonald, P. 1997. Outcomes based Education: Theory and Practice. Tee Vee Printers: Pretoria.

Van Dijk, T.A. (Ed). 1986. Handbook of Discourse Analysis: Volume 4 Discourse Analysis in Society. Academic Press: London.

Van Dijk, T.A. 1979. Discourse Studies: A multidisciplinary Introduction. In Van Dijk, T.A. (ed). Discourse as Social Interaction. Sage: New Delhi.

Van Lier, L. 2000. From input to affordance: Social-interactive learning from an Ecological Perspective. In Lantolf, J.P. (ed). Sociocultural theory and second language learning. Oxford University Press: Oxford.

Veerkamp, M.B., Kamps, D.M. and Cooper, L. 2007. The effects of classroom Peer Tutoring on the Reading Achievement of urban middle school students. *Reading Instruction*, 1(2):30.

Vegas, E. 2005. Incentives to Improve Teaching: Lessons from Latin America. *SACAT*, 23(1): 435.

Vijayalakshmi, G. and Sivapragasam, C. 2008. *Research Methods: tips and technique*. MJP Publishers: Delhi.

Vygotsky, L.S. 1978. Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Vygotsky, L.S. 1962. Thought and Language. MIT Press: Cambridge.

Wallace, C. 1992. Critical literacy awareness in the EFL classrooms. In Fiarclough, N (Ed.). *Critical Language Awareness*. Longman: Harlow.

- Wallace, C.S. 2003. Framing new research in science language use: Authenticity, multiple discourses, and the “Third Space”. A paper presented at the annual meeting for the National Association of Research in Science Teaching Philadelphia, 23-36 March.
- Waterland, L.1985. Read with me: An Apprenticeship to Reading. *The psychologist*, 14(9): 474-7.
- Weaver, C.1994. Reading Process and Practice, 2nd Ed. Heinemann: Portsmouth.
- Wertsch, J.V. 1985. Vygotsky and the social formation of mind. Harvard University Press: Cambridge, Massachusetts.
- Wessels, S. 2011. Promoting Vocabulary Learning for English Learners. *The Reading Teacher: A Journal of Research- Based Classroom Practice*, 65(1): 46-50.
- Westwood, P. 2008. What teachers need to know about Reading and writing difficulties. Australia Council for Education Research Ltd. Australia.
- Whitlow, A.L. 2005. The Difference in Stress Levels of Teachers at Previously Disadvantaged Schools in the Western Cape. *SACAT*, 30(1): 144.
- Wienand, M. 2011. Empowering Teachers to Render Children Support to Children who experience Reading Barriers. Nelson Mandela metropolitan University: Port Elizabeth.
- Williams, E. 1996. Reading in the Language Classroom. Modern English Publication: Malaysia.
- Willig, C. 1992. Assumptions in people’s talk about AIDS. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 2(3).
- Willis, J.W. 2007. Foundations of Qualitative Research: Interpretive and Critical Approaches. SAGE Publications: London.
- Wilson, K. 1999. Note-taking in the Academic Writing Process of Non-Native Speaker Students: Is it Important as a Process or a Product? *Journal of College Reading and Learning*, 29(2): 166-179.

Wilson, S.M. and Peterson, P. L. 2006. *Theories of Learning and Teaching: What do they mean for educators*. National Education Association: Atlanta.

Wodak, R. 1996. *Disorders of Discourse*. Addison Wesley Longman Limited: New York.

Wolfendale, S. 1989. *Parental Involvement: Developing Networks between school, home and community*. Cassel Educational Ltd: London.

Wolters, C. A. and Daughtery, S. G. 2007. Goal structures and the Teachers' sense of self- efficiency. *Journal of Education Psychology*, 99: 12-28.

Wragg, E. C. 2004. Performance Pay for Teachers. *SACAT*, 24(1): 224.

Xaba, I. and Ngubane, D. 2010. Financial accountability at schools: challenges and implications. *Journal of Education*, 50: 139-159.

Xaba, M. I. 2011. The possible cause of school governance challenges in South Africa. *South African Journal of Education*, 31: 201-211.

Yeats, B. 2010. *Early Reading Ignition Education for all. A report by the early grade learning community of practice, revised Edition*. Research Triangle Institute: Triangle Park, N.C.

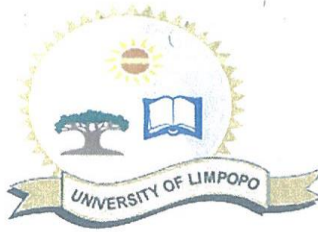
Yin, R. K. 1993. *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Sage Publications: Thousand Oaks: London.

Yin, R.K. 2003. *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Sage Publications: London.

Yin, R. K. 2009. *Case Study Research: Design and Methods*. Sage: Beverly Hills.

Young, J., Walsh, M. and MacDonald, L. 2012. Revelations on the teaching of reading in the early years of schooling. *Journal of Catholic School Studies*, 84(1): 44-55.

Appendix A: Ethical Clearance Certificate



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: 31 August 2017

PROJECT NUMBER: TREC/245/2017: PG

PROJECT:

Title: Teachers' challenges in teaching reading to English First Additional Language Learners: A case study of Seshego High Schools

Researcher: AP Moswane

Supervisor: Dr JW Foncha

Co-Supervisor: N/A

School: Education

Degree: PhD in Language 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

Appendix B1: Permission letter from the Provincial Department of Education



LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

Ref: 2/2/2 Enq: MC Makola PhD Tel No: 015 290 9448 E-mail: MakolaMC@edu.limpopo.gov.za

Moswane AP
Private Bag X1106
Sovenga
0727

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

1. The above bears reference.

The Department wishes to inform you that your request to conduct research has been approved. Topic of the research proposal: **“TEACHERS CHALLENGES IN TEACHING READING TO ENGLISH FIRST ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE LEARNERS: A CASE STUDY OF SESHEGO HIGH SCHOOL.”**

2. The following conditions should be considered:

- 3.1 The research should not have any financial implications for Limpopo Department of Education.
- 3.2 Arrangements should be made with the Circuit Office and the 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 fourth term.
- 3.5 During the study, applicable research ethics should be adhered to; in particular the principle of voluntary participation (the people involved should be respected).
- 3.6 Upon completion of research study, the researcher shall share the final product of the research with the Department.

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MOSWANE AP

CONFIDENTIAL

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

The heartland of southern Africa - development is about people!

- 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.



Ms NB Mutheiwana
Head of Department

12/06/17
Date

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MOSWANE AP

CONFIDENTIAL

Appendix B2: Permission letter from the Capricorn District Department of Education



LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF
EDUCATION
CAPRICORN POLOKWANE DISTRICT

Private Bag X 9711
POLOKWANE
0700
Tel: 015 285 7300
Fax: 015 285 7499

CONFIDENTIAL

Ref : 2/2/2
Enq : Mphaphuli AJ
Tel No.: 015 285 7410
Email : MphaphuliAJ@edu.limpopo.gov.za
Date: 30 May 2017

To : Moswane AP
University of Limpopo
Private Bag X1106
Sovenga
0727

**SUBJECT: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SESHEGO CIRCUIT AND
PIETERSBURG CIRCUIT : POLOKWANE DISTRICT.**

**TITLE: "TEACHER'S CHALLENGES IN TEACHING READING TO ENGLISH FIRST
ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE LEARNERS: A CASE STUDY OF SESHEGO HIGH
SCHOOLS".**

1. The above matter refers.
2. The Department wishes to inform you that your request to conduct a research has been approved.
3. The following conditions should be considered :
 - 3.1 The research should not have any financial implication for Limpopo Department of Education.
 - 3.2 Arrangements should be made with both the circuit offices and schools concerned.

Cnr Blaauwberg & Yster Street, Ladanna

" We Belong, We Care, We Serve "

REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SESHEGO CIRCUIT AND PIETERSBURG CIRCUIT : POLOKWANE DISTRICT

- 3.3 The conduct of research should not in any way disrupt the academic programs in schools.
- 3.4 The research should not be conducted during the time examinations especially the fourth term.
- 3.4 During the study, research ethics should be practiced, in particular the principle of voluntary participation (the people involved should be respected).
- 3.5 Upon completion of research study, the researcher shall share the final product of the research with Department.
- 4 Furthermore you are expected to produce this letter at Circuit and Schools where you intend to conduct your research as evidence that you are permitted to conduct the research.
- 5 The Department appreciates the contribution that you wish to make and wish you success in your research.

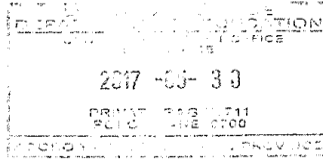
Best wishes



MR MOTHEMANE KD
DISTRICT DIRECTOR



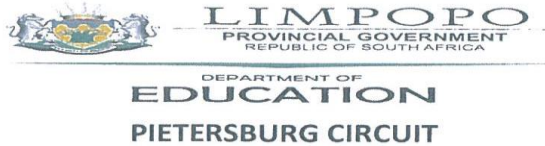
DATE



Cnr Blaauwberg & Yster Street, Ladanna

"We Belong, We Care, We Serve"

Appendix B3: Permission letter from Pietersburg circuit



ENQ : Tladi NP
TEL No : 015 290 9484
Email : TladiNP@edu.limpopo.gov.za
DATE : 31 May 2017

Mr AP Moswane
3455 Zone 2
Seshego
0742

Dear Sir

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH.

Research topic: "Teacher's challenges in teaching reading to English First Additional Language learners: a case study of Seshego High Schools"

1. The above matter bears reference.
2. This office grants you permission to conduct your research in the schools in Pietersburg Circuit.
3. Kindly adhere to all the conditions given by the District Director, as you have been granted permission to conduct your research in Pietersburg Circuit schools that are in Seshego Schools.
4. You are also expected to call and confirm with schools the dates of your visit.
5. We wish you a successful and happy stay in all these schools during your period of research.

Ratale SM: Circuit Manager

"We Belong, We Care, We Serve"

Appendix C: Consent letter to Teachers

I am a senior phase English teacher at Kabelo secondary school. I am a registered PhD student at the University of Limpopo. My thesis titled: **“Teachers’ challenges in teaching reading to English First Additional Language learners: A case study of Seshego high schools”** under the supervision of Dr JW Foncha.

My research focuses on teachers’ experiences of teaching reading in the senior phase to EFAL learners. I will be exploring their experiences and challenges they are encountering in teaching reading using semi-structured interviews and classroom observations.

All information obtained will be kept strictly confidential and pseudonyms for the schools and for the participants will be used. Participants will be free to withdraw at any stage of the research if need be. I give you my accountability that I will pursue due research ethics in handling the data.

Thank you and look forward to your cooperation.

Name

Date

Signature

Appendix D 1: Interview questions for teachers

The researcher makes use of the open-ended questions during the interviews which were in a semi-structured to serve as a guide to the participants. A total of 22 questions were designed. The 22 questions were that were used as interview guidelines were as follows;

Question 1: Do you prepare yourself before coming to class?

To find out the strength and weakness of teachers with regard to planning.

Question 2: What could be some of the reasons that hinder preparations ahead of time?

To check if there are any things that prevents teachers not to prepare thoroughly before the lessons start.

Question 3: Are there available libraries and computer laboratories?

To find out if there are libraries and computer laboratories buildings in the schools.

Question 4: What kind of resources would assist you in teaching reading?

To see if there is any kind of resources that would assist teachers to facilitate the teaching of reading.

Question 5: Do your school receive enough budget to run its affairs?

To find out if schools do receive the norms and standard money from the government.

Question 6: Is the norms and standard money well utilized in your school?

To check whether the money paid to schools is properly managed.

Question 7: Are there any fundraising activities in your school?

To find out if there any money received by the school to supplement the norm and standard from the government.

Question 8: Are teachers paid well according to their workload?

To find out if teachers' salary worth the work they are doing.

Question 9: What could be done to motivate teachers to teach reading?

To see if there is anything that would be given to teachers to motivate them to teach reading.

Question 10: Is there any team teaching taking place in your school?

To check if teachers work as a team in their schools.

Question 11: What other factors do hinder you to teach as a team in your school?

To find out if there is anything that disturbs teachers not work as a team in their schools.

Question 12: Do parents help in teaching reading at homes?

To check if parents help their children in teaching reading at home.

Question 13: What kind of support do teachers get from parents?

To find out if there is any kind of support parents are providing to teachers with regard to teaching.

Question 14: Are teachers well trained to teach reading?

To check if teachers are trained to teach reading.

Question 15: What kind of support do teachers get from the school and the department of education with to training?

To see if teachers have received any form of training either from their schools or from the department.

Question 16: What are the sizes of these classes?

To check how full the classes are.

Question 17: What kind of strategies do you employ in teaching reading in overcrowded classes?

To check if there are any strategy in place to address the challenge of teaching reading.

Question 18: Do you think that your current strategies of teaching reading are successful?

To find out whether the strategies teachers are using yield results or not.

Question 19: What communication difficulties do teachers encounter in teaching reading?

To see if teachers encounter communication difficulties in teaching reading.

Question 20: What kind of communication strategies would you employ in teaching reading?

To find out if there are any strategies teachers would employ in the teaching reading.

Question 21: Are teachers fluent enough to teach reading?

To check whether teachers are able to speak English fluently.

Question 22: What other factors hinder teachers not to be fluent in teaching reading?

To find out if there are any factors that make teachers not to be fluent in teaching reading.

Appendix D 2: The Seminar Questions for teachers

The topic of the seminar was: Challenges encountered in the teaching of reading. This topic was followed by strict guidelines from the literature review on the challenges encountered by EFAL teachers in teaching reading. A total of ten questions were used during the seminar. The guidelines are as follows:

Question 1. Unpreparedness of teachers

To check if teachers are able to prepare themselves thoroughly before going to class.

Question 2. Lack of reading resources

To find out if there are any libraries and reading materials in schools

Question 3. Insufficient budget to schools

To establish if schools have been allocated enough budgets so as enhance the good running of the schools

Question 4. Poor remuneration of teachers

The researcher wanted to check whether teachers are satisfied with salaries they receive as this would motivate and encourage them to perform well in their duties

Question 5. Lack of teaming

To find out if English language teachers work as a team in addressing the challenges that they encounter in teaching reading in their different classrooms.

Question 6. Parental support

The researcher wanted to establish the extent to which parents are involved in teaching their children how to read at home

Question 7. Poor training of teachers

The researcher wanted to check if teachers have received necessary training and are best qualified to teach reading.

Question 8. Overcrowded classrooms

Because rural schools have a challenge of large number of classes, the researcher wanted to establish how this impact on the teaching of reading.

Question 9. Communication difficulties

To check the extent to which teacher communication difficulties impact on the teaching of reading.

Question 10. Teacher proficiency in teaching reading

To check the ability of teachers in speaking the English as LoLT fluently and more efficiently in relation to the teaching of reading.