

UNIVERSITY
of DERBY

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, HEALTH AND SCIENCE
PROGRAMME CODE: PX3AA

PROGRAMME TITLE: DOCTOR of EDUCATION (EdD)

MODULE CODE: 8EU007

MODULE TITLE: Work Based Project (Independent Phase)

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Education (EdD) award of the University of Derby .

A case study of a school in Zimbabwe: Investigating challenges faced by rural
O-level students and strategies used by teachers in the English Reading-
comprehension classes.

By: MAXWELL OBEDIAH GUNDUZA KANYOKA: B.Phil. M.Ed.

ID NUMBER: 100087076

May: 2018

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

My Director of studies, the late Dr Michael Flay, for his positive advice and never-ending constructive support in guiding me through the different stages of the research, and for his perceptive advice from whom I have learnt so much that will assist my own-going career;

Then after his death his replacement, my programme co-ordinator Dr Neil Radford and first supervisor for his support and advice, my second supervisor Dr Codra Spencer for her unending zeal to help me include whatever she thought useful, advised and suggested as important to be included in the study; and my friend's Dr Washington Karumazondo, Dr Kordwick Ndebele and Mr Onisimo Takaingofa for their unwavering support;

The Ministry of Education Sport and Culture in Zimbabwe, which accommodated my study in one secondary school in Zimbabwe;

The headmaster of the school where I carried out this study, the HoD and the department of English personnel who generously cooperated and allowed me to conduct this research during their busy schedules;

The 8 wonderful teachers, their headmaster and the 20 enthusiastic students in the English Department, who cooperated passionately and allowed me to conduct thinking aloud tests, FGD, interviews, and observations at different times of the school day and even after school hours;

The Secretary and Provincial Director of Education (PED), who allowed me to use their school in rural Zimbabwe for the benefit of this study and the ministry with interest and professionalism.

LIST of FIGURES

1.1.	Concept Mapping Concept Mapping on Problems due to 2008 crisis	8
2.1.	Author's image showing zone of proximal development (ZPD)	52
2.2.	Author's image showing interactions of factors affecting academic background knowledge	57
2.3.	Author's image showing Rosemary's academic achievement at three levels of academic background knowledge.	59
2.4.	Author's image showing semantic mapping with birds	65
2.5.	Conceptual Framework Illustrated in Phases	70
3.1.	Research methodology illustrating triangulation of methods to achieve validity	75
3.2.	Timeline for Data Gathering at Research School	97
3.3.	Author's image showing sources of evidence for case study	98
3.4.	Advantages of Observation: Disadvantages of Observation	114
3.5.	Data Analysis: The Analytic Hierarchy	135
3.6.	Example of a cross-sectional data analysis	138
3.7.	Code analysis of data	139
3.8.	Colour coding analysis system	142
3.9.	Data Coding management	143
3.10.	Coding management of Collected Data	146

LIST of TABLES

2.1.	Yearly Percentage Pass-Rates for X School	62
3.1.	Homogenous stratified samples	124
3.2.	Systematic samples	126
3.3.	Showing open coding used in the data analysis	144
4.1.	Outline from the think aloud on the expository text	150
4.2.	Students' scores from the expository text	151
4.3.	Outcomes from the think aloud on the narrative text	151
4.4.	Students' scores from the narrative text	152
4.5.	Students' ability to ask themselves questions during reading	162
4.6.	Responses from what students did when comprehension became difficult	164
4.7.	Reactions from what students did when reading-comprehension was successful	165
4.8.	Purposively-sampled students	170
4.9.	Purposively-sampled teachers	173
4.10.	Other verbatim utterances by L2 students	200
4.11.	An example of an observed lesson	206
4.12.	XZ district composite-subjects' results for 2008	213
4.13.	XZ district composite-subjects' results for 2009	214
4.14.	XZ district results' analysis for 2010	215
4.15.	Yearly percentage pass rate in 5 subjects including English Language.	216
4.16.	ZIMSEC yearly national percentage pass rates in 5 subjects including the English Language from 2009 to 2012.	219

CONTENTS

Abstract		xiii
CHAPTER ONE		1
1.0.	INTRODUCTION	1
1.1.	Contextual Background on Educational Issues	2
1.2.	Contextual Background in Relation to Political socio-economic and Educational Issues Facing Zimbabwe	3
1.3.	Understanding the importance of the 2008 crisis to the study	6
1.4.	The final Impact on Education by the 2008 Crisis	10
1.5.	The Research School and School Development Committees (SDCs)	13
1.6.	Summary on Teachers' Conditions of Service	14
1.7.	Rationale of the study and background information that leads to the research.	14
1.8.	Research questions	17
1.9.	Significance of the Study	17
1.10.	Strengths of the Research	18
1.11.	Research methods	18
1.12.	Brief Research Results	19
CHAPTER TWO		20
2.0.	LITERATURE	20
2.1.	Introduction	20
2.2.	Overview of the literature	20
2.3.0.	Communicative competence and promotion of CLT	22
2.3.1.	The Communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches	25
2.3.2.	Task-based language teaching (TBLT)	28
2.3.3.	Major Characteristics of CLT	29
2.3.4.	Critical Look at the Communicative Approach	32
2.3.5.	Language as Discourse	36
2.3.6.	Krashen and theories of L2 learning supporting CLT	40

2.3.7.	A critical view of Krashen's comprehensible input	43
2.4.0.	Language skills needed to answer O-level comprehension and summary exam questions in Zimbabwe parentheses	46
2.4.1.	Importance of Syntax in reading-comprehension	48
2.4.2.	Challenges students are facing with O-level reading-comprehension exams	53
2.4.3.	Preparational strategies showing advantage of background knowledge	55
2.5.0.	Methods that Enhance acquisition of Vocabulary Synonym Language	60
2.5.1.	What makes reading-comprehension successful in O-level exam questions	60
2.5.2.	Semantic mapping	63
2.5.3.	Extensive Reading	66
2.5.4.	Conceptual Framework	69
2.6.0.	Conclusion	71
CHAPTER THREE		73
3.0.	METHODOLOGY	73
3.1.	Research questions	73
3.2.	Choice of Research Methodology	74
3.3.	Inductive versus deductive	78
3.4.0	Case Study	79
3.4.1.	Critique of case study methodology	82
3.4.2.	Internal and External-Validity	87
3.4.3.	Exemplifying My Exploratory Case Study	89
3.4.4.	Epistemological and Ontological and Paradigm Consideration	93
3.4.5.	Research Approach	94
3.4.6.	Research Methods	94
3.5.0	Research Protocols	95
3.5.1.	Timeline of Data Gathering October 2010 to March 2011	97
3.5.2.	Think-aloud as a method	97
3.5.3.	Advantages of think-aloud	99
3.5.4.	Disadvantages of think-aloud	101

3.6.0.	Interview as a method	104
3.6.1.	Advantages of interviews	107
3.6.2.	Collection of First-Person Data	107
3.6.3.	Collection of Honest Feedback	108
3.6.4.	Disadvantages of interviews	108
3.7.0.	Focus Group Discussion (FGD) as a Method	109
3.7.1.	Advantages of FGD	109
3.7.2.	Disadvantages of FGD	110
3.8.0.	Observation as the main research method	111
3.8.1.	Advantages of Observation	112
3.8.2.	Disadvantages of Observation	115
3.9.0.	Non-Participant observer	116
3.9.1.	Non-participant-advantages	118
3.9.2.	Non-participant-disadvantages	119
3.10.0.	Sampling	119
3.10.1.	Purposive Sampling	119
3.10.2.	Justification for the choice of the Purposively-sampled School	120
3.10.3.	Rationale for Purposive Sampling	121
3.11.0.	Stratified Sampling of students	123
3.11.1.	Advantages of stratified sampling	124
3.11.2.	Disadvantages of stratified sampling	125
3.11.3.	Systematic sampling	126
3.12.0.	Validity and Reliability	127
3.12.1.	Negotiating and Gaining Access and meeting the gatekeepers and research Protocols	129
3.12.2.	Informed Consent Protocols	132
3.12.3.	Ethical considerations and Ground-breaking Time	133
3.13.0.	Thematic analysis	135
3.13.1.	Analysis of data	137
3.13.2.	Themes	141

3.13.3.	Coding of Collected Data	142
3.13.4.	Pattern Coding	144
3.13.5.	Procedures for the Analysis of the Data	145
3.14.0.	Conclusion	147
CHAPTER FOUR		147
4.0.	FINDINGS	148
4.1.	Findings Focus	148
4.2.	Research Questions	148
4.3.0.	Data presentation	149
4.3.1.	Think-aloud protocol-findings	149
4.3.2.	Findings from the think-aloud	150
4.3.3	First FGD was conducted with students	153
4.3.3.1.	Important reasons why quotations were used	154
4.3.3.2.	What is your reason for reading library books?	157
4.3.3.3.	What do you understand about reading comprehension?	159
4.3.3.4.	What do you do when approaching different texts? (Expository/narrative)	160
4.3.3.5.	Do you ask yourself questions during reading?	161
4.3.3.6.	What do you do when reading-comprehension is not successful?	163
4.3.3.7.	What do you do when you get a pass mark in reading-comprehension test?	165
4.3.3.8.	Are you able to summarise what you read in reading-comprehension?	166
4.3.3.9.	What do you do to assist yourself to comprehend better what you read?	167
4.3.3.10	Do you utilise previous knowledge to assist you in reading-comprehension?	168
4.4.0.	Second FGD for students (Appendix D)	169
4.4.1.	Question A: Why do many students fail the English Language examination at secondary school O-level?	169
4.4.2.	Question B: What are the challenges associated with the use of the approaches that teachers use?	171
4.4.3.	Question C: Are the teachers' approaches to teaching reading-comprehension responsible for your poor reading-comprehension skills in learning?	172

4.4.4.	Question D: What makes you not do well in reading-comprehension writing exercises and examinations?	173
4.5.0	Third FGD was conducted with teachers and this was captured during the discussion.	174
4.5.1.	What is the students' ability to make sense of the text as opposed to word-by-word reading?	174
4.5.2.	What is the significance of students' ability to understand the goal for reading?	175
4.5.3.	What is the students' ability to make use of prior knowledge in reading activities?	175
4.5.4.	How do the students' show they are attempting to comprehend texts?	176
4.5.5.	What is the students' attitude towards reading-comprehension?	177
4.5.6.	Do students persist in reading, if so what makes them do this?	177
4.5.7.	What texts do you prefer to teach in reading-comprehension?	178
4.5.8.	What strategies do you use to teach reading-comprehension to O-level students?	179
4.6.0.	What approaches do teachers utilize in the teaching of reading-comprehension? Headmaster/HoD	181
4.6.1.	Headmaster's and HOD's interviews, (18 -10-2010)	182
4.6.2.	How do students perform in your school? How do the teachers help them learn? In addition, how are the students motivated to learn in general?	182
4.6.3.	How is reading-comprehension taught in your school at O-level? (Form4)	184
4.6.4.	Head of Department (HOD) Interview	185
4.6.5.	Do teachers use checklists when they mark their students' work to reflect areas of weakness?	185
4.6.6.	Do teachers evaluate the students' understanding and application of grammar usage in their teaching?	186
4.6.7.	Do teachers develop a series of instructional activities for improving students' understanding and application of syntax and punctuation?	187
4.6.8.	Do teachers develop inductive /deductive reasoning in their teaching to develop the concept of context, syntax and representation in their teaching?	187
4.6.9.	Do teachers give instructional activities to help students with creative writing skills and strategies?	187
4.6.10.	Do teachers instruct reading-comprehension by making students talk and use the language and reinforce it through positive feedback and reinforcement?	188
4.6.11.	What instructional approaches do teachers use to develop learning and listening skills in reading-comprehension?	189
4.6.12.	Do teachers ask students to read many books and assign them book reports/reviews to enhance reading-comprehension?	189

4.6.13.	How do you know that your teachers are teaching well? What methods are they using to teach reading-comprehension?	191
4.6.14.	Do you carry out a book inspection, where you look at students' work?	191
4.6.15.	How long is a reading-comprehension lesson and how often is it taught in a week?	191
4.7.0.	Interviewing Teachers	192
4.7.1.	Question: What procedures/approaches do you use in teaching reading-comprehension in your class?	192
4.7.2.	Question: What is your choice of reading-comprehension passages for students to answer questions on?	195
4.7.3.	Question: How do you give feedback to the students about their work?	196
4.7.4.	Question: How often do your students write reading-comprehension in a week, and why?	196
4.7.5.	Question: How often do your students go to the library in your attempt to enhance their reading-comprehension?	195
4.8.0.	Interviewing students	198
4.8.1.	Question: Do you have a notebook for doing reports on books you read at the library?	199
4.8.2.	Question: What problems do you encounter when you do reading-comprehension in your daily exercises?	199
4.8.3.	Question: Describe what you do when writing reading-comprehension in class.	201
4.8.4.	Question: What does your teacher do in class to help you?	202
4.8.5.	Question: What type of comments do you get from your teachers after your reading-comprehension is marked?	202
4.8.6.0.	Research Question 2:What are the challenges or problems associated with the use of the approaches?	203
4.8.6.1.	What are the Challenges or Problems Associated with the use of the Approaches?	203
4.8.6.2.	Question: Do your students have problems in reading-comprehension work?	203
4.9.0	Research Question 3:	204
4.9.1.	What other factors contribute to poor reading-comprehension skills?	204
4.9.2.	Question: Which aspect of English reading-comprehension do you enjoy learning and why?	205
4.9.3.	Question: Which aspect of English do you least enjoy learning and why?	205
4.10.0.	Observation of a Lesson	206
4.10.1.	Insufficient sight vocabulary, which was observed.	207

4.10.2.	Inadequate reading-comprehension Skills.	209
4.10.3.	Inadequate auditory analysis skills.	210
4.10.4.	Comments about one of the teachers whom I observed teaching.	210
4.10.5.	Marking of Students' Work and Error Analysis: Documentary Evidence	211
4.10.6.	Spellings and Grammar	212
4.10.7.	Lack of Comprehension skills	212
4.10.8.	Low Achievers—below average	219
4.10.9.	Top achievers: above average	220
4.11.0.	Summary	221
CHAPTER FIVE		222
5.0.	DISCUSSION	222
5.1.	Research questions	222
5.2.	Discussion focus	223
5.2.1.	Discussion focus1: What challenges are faced by rural O-level students in reading-comprehension?	223
5.2.2.	The Students' knowledge of reading comprehension	224
5.2.3.	Students inability to approach texts differently	225
5.2.4.	Using words in sentences	227
5.2.5.	Looking up the words	230
5.2.6.	Using the context	231
5.2.7.	Students' inability to make use of prior knowledge in reading activities	231
5.2.8.	Students' other reading-comprehension problems	232
5.2.9.	What students did when reading-comprehension was difficult	232
5.2.10.	What students did when reading-comprehension was difficult	233
5.3.0.	Discussion Focus 2: Discussing data that falls under what approaches teachers utilize in the teaching of English reading-comprehension.	236
5.3.1.	Dominance of testing students in reading-comprehension.	236
5.3.2.	Teacher feedback in reading-comprehension	238
5.3.3.	Lecturing dominating reading-comprehension lessons	239
5.3.4.	Comprehension taught as an isolated event	240

5.3.5.	Setting goals for reading-comprehension	241
5.3.6.	Absence of teaching aids	241
5.3.7.	The use of literature in teaching reading-comprehension	242
5.3.8.	Reading Comprehension	243
5.4.0.	Discussion Focus 3: Discussing data that falls under other factors that contribute to poor reading-comprehension.	244
5.4.1.	Students' inability to answer reading-comprehension questions	244
5.4.2.	Lack of motivation to write and read	246
5.4.3.	Large class size	249
5.4.4.	Subject Matter	249
5.4.5.	Shortage of Reading Materials	250
5.4.6.	Other resources for teaching reading-comprehension	251
5.4.7.	Place of oral work in reading-comprehension	251
5.5.0.	Conclusion	251
CHAPTER SIX		254
6.0.	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	254
6.1.	Introduction	254
6.2.	Summary of findings	254
6.3.	Conclusion	256
6.4.	Recommendations	257
6.5.	Further Research	259
6.6.	Contribution to knowledge	259
6.7.	Dissemination of findings to appropriate professionals	260
7.0.	REFERENCES	263
8.0	Appendices for the thesis	299

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to determine the challenges O-level students face and other factors that contribute to poor reading-comprehension and it further seeks to establish the strategies that teachers employ in teaching reading-comprehension to O-level students. This study applied the qualitative case study methodology at a rural secondary school in Zimbabwe with twenty-nine participants purposively sampled. The students were first given two texts to read; one narrative and the other expository to provide information about the strategies they use to comprehend texts using a think-aloud protocol to determine the challenges they face before, during and after reading narrative or expository texts. Further, the researcher conducted observation as a non-participant observer, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions (FGD) and documentary evidence from class and exams' records about students' work. The results of the study reveal that O-level students face challenges in reading-comprehension as they are unable to approach written texts actively to interact meaningfully with texts and are incapable of setting specific goals for reading hence face challenges with word meanings, resulting in them unable to make connections with new vocabulary. When reading-comprehension gets difficult, students are only able to monitor their reading-comprehension using the clarifying strategy, which is only one of the monitoring strategies used to repair reading-comprehension failure. The main conclusion about students is that they lack vocabulary synonym-language to handle reading-comprehension tasks; they have not been availed reading materials to expand their vocabulary through extensive reading. Findings indicate that teachers are contradictory in their use of strategies that help students activate their prior knowledge and they use less effective methods such as lecturing and testing. They do not make use of the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches to process-teach reading-comprehension. Therefore, the researcher recommends a reflection upon current reading-comprehension teaching methods so as to improve instruction and that the government should buy textbooks and library books for students and reduce class sizes. Teachers also should conduct a formative assessment to improve teaching and draw up detailed schemes and organise school training days and also acquire old magazines and newspapers to provide students' extra reading material and give timely feedback to inform and monitor student progress in reading-comprehension.

CHAPTER ONE

1.0. INTRODUCTION

This study examines reading-comprehension teaching and learning, particularly the strategies rural teachers use and the challenges their O-level students face in the classrooms and other factors that cause reading-comprehension failure to inhibit students' performance, not only in examinations but also that dent students' ability to handle real-life situations. In particular, the study focal point is on exploring the teaching methods employed by rural secondary school teachers in teaching O-level English Language students. Accordingly, this chapter provides the background to political/socio-economic and educational issues, the rationale of the study and background information that leads to the study and research questions. The chapter further gives a brief literature review, to develop a holistic and well-rounded approach towards reading-writing reading-comprehension in English and the various strategies that can be deployed by these teachers to improve the standard of reading/writing in reading-comprehension. Further, the significance of this study gives a brief description of the various research methods and the key research questions as well as the strengths of the study, which are presented in this chapter on an attempt to investigate teaching/learning of reading-comprehension.

The themes arising out of this research include finding out more information about the current methods of teaching and learning for O-level students in Zimbabwe using a range of time-tested research strategies (including a case study) on a thematic basis by remaining a non-participant observer. In addition, ascertaining the loopholes in the current Zimbabwe education system that is impeding the development and improvement in the students' reading-comprehension, which ultimately affect their knowledge about the subject in its entirety. The research, therefore, suggests actionable steps that can be undertaken by teachers, students as well as parents to raise the level of English language reading-comprehension aspects of vocabulary and comprehension skills in writing.

1.1. Contextual Background on Educational Issues

In view of the importance of the English Language in the Zimbabwean society, I present its significance, and the summary of some of the crisis in 2008 that have drawn backwards the standard of learning especially in the English Language in Zimbabwe of which reading-comprehension is a major component. As such, Zimbabwe is a former British Colony and the English continue to serve this purpose as a medium of instruction from grade four until tertiary education in the school system (Education Act, 1987, 2006). Following a great deal of debate on the utilisation of English Language as a medium of instruction, it was given another mandate to serve as a medium of instruction for most subjects throughout the education system after independence (Education Act, 1987; 2004; 2006). That being the case, in Zimbabwean secondary schools, the English Language is based on teaching written and spoken grammar, composition, summary writing and reading-comprehension in preparation for the O-level exams (Maposa, 1992). The circumstance that makes the English Language the most important subject in Zimbabwe is the fact that a secondary school student needs to attain a "C" grade or higher in English Language in addition to passing four other subjects in order to attain a full-O-level certificate. To that end, this study emphasises the importance of English Language to a Zimbabwean student by quoting Maposa, who states:

...a pass in the English Language is regarded as a pre-requisite for employment and admission into most tertiary academic and vocational institutions for professional training. The final grade in the English Language is determined by the comprehensive English language examination, which is written in the final year of secondary school (O-level). This final examination consists of composition and summary writing and reading-comprehension (1992: 249).

As such, previous discussions on high failure rate in the English Language have usually acknowledged four predicaments that are attributed to poor results, which include: 1) shortage of trained teachers; 2) quality of teacher training; 3) shortage of reading materials, and 4) shortage of textbooks (Maposa, 1992). Chinodya (1997), proposes that the Teachers' Book 4 clearly elaborates most important principles of the method to be utilised in Zimbabwe as those related to the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches. This course of textbooks aims to provide pupils with communicative skills necessary for different roles and situations, to avoid just testing students as the Grammar-Translation and Audio-lingual approaches utilised before,

but mostly focusing on the summative assessment of writing skills along with an understanding of grammatical forms that is exam driven.

Against this background, it must be remembered, in addition to language practice in key areas that the course seeks to identify common language negative transfers and encourage remedial exercises to be provided and to create links with other subjects in the curriculum (Chinodya, 1992). The overall objective, as pointed out, is to enable students to deal with the roles and circumstances they are likely to meet on leaving school; thus, the language taught is drawn upon real-life situations. Furthermore, Zimbabwe O-level syllabus has projected that language learning should be legitimised by including Zimbabwean culture, social, economic, political, scientific and technological experiences that mirror national needs in these areas (ZIMSEC Syllabus, 2008; Appendix-W). For this reason, there are themes linked to students' needs. In students' Book 2, there are topics such as 'AIDS'; 'The boyfriend' (Chinodya 1992); in students' Book 4: 'crime predicaments in Southern Africa'; 'the out-of-shape generation'; 'the migrants' and so on (Chinodya 1994: 47-92) to relate to research questions 1-3. However, these learning accomplishments may have been hampered by some crisis that has befallen the education system in Zimbabwe mainly the 2008 crisis.

1.2. Contextual Background in Relation to Political socio-economic and Educational Issues Facing Zimbabwe

The evidence reflects that, upon the attainment of independence in 1980, the government of Zimbabwe embarked on massive educational reforms to remove colonial inequities and massively improved the infrastructure in schools, which they ruined later. The government adopted the socialist principle of "growth with equity" and reforms in public education which was in line with the principle of "Education for All" also adopted at independence (Nhundu, 1992: 80). The education policy initiatives hinged upon free and compulsory primary education, removal of age restrictions, community support for education through School Development Committees (SDCs) and automatic promotion from primary to secondary school and unhindered progression into secondary school (Nhundu, 1992: 80).

Further, the government expanded the education system:

...by building schools in marginalised areas and disadvantaged urban centres, accelerating the training of teachers, providing abundant teaching and learning materials to schools...The supply of teachers was increased by introducing the Zimbabwe Integrated Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC), a low-cost teacher-training scheme (Kanyongo, 2005: 66).

Also, at this stage, the focus of the government was on:

...accessibility to education and not much about quality and efficiency... “Through the Education Act of 1987”, the government abolished all forms of discrimination and made primary education free and compulsory (Mlambo, 2013: 360).

This increased the number of primary schools by:

...187.6 percent from 2401 to 4504 between 1979 and 1989 and secondary schools by 748.6 percent from 177 to 1502 in the same period. As a result, primary school enrolment rose by 177.5 percent from 819,586 to 2,274,178, while secondary school enrolment increased by 950.9 percent from 66,215 to 695,882 (Kanyongo, 2005: 65–74).

Throughout this first decade of independence, the Zimbabwe government managed to establish racial equity and improved gender parity in schools, increasing enrolment as well. “White and black students could access the same education regardless of race” (Kanyongo, 2005: 70). As a result, the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) (2003: 2) cited “the national male literacy rate at 94.2 percent, female literacy rate at 87.2 percent that gives 90.7 percent as a whole”. This made Zimbabwe become one of the top countries on literacy in Africa, a development that was appropriately endorsed by UNICEF. In 1988, the World Bank acknowledged that the government of Zimbabwe had managed to “achieve the elusive goal of universal primary education and uninhibited access to secondary education” (Nhundu, 1992: 80).

As Zimbabwe was hailed leader in Africa for highest literacy rate, it came very close to achieving its goal of “Education for All by the year 2000” (UNICEF, 2003; Tonini, 2005:101). If Zimbabwe achieved so much so early, what really went wrong in 37 years of independence? (Kapingidza, 2014). The party behind the early achievements is the same Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) that has been in power up to now. Before they came into government, teaching used to be one of the most respected professions in Zimbabwe, teachers had a choice of working in urban areas or rural areas, owing to its low cost of living but now government has made it a worthless profession by making teachers’ salaries so low like what is in many other

developing countries in Sub-Saharan Africa (UNESCO, 2008). Even though the Zimbabwe Government has budgetary restrictions, in general, they should have improved the allocation to education to appease teachers who have been front-runners since the liberation struggle. It is common that the teachers' remuneration consumes the largest portion of the education budget in developing countries but Zimbabwe's situation appears worse than in other countries (UNESCO, 2008).

As such, historical developments in education leading to the 2008 crisis since independence, throws more light to my research (see Fig.1.1: 8). My attention is focused on the gains of the early years of independence in contrast to the challenges imposed to the sector thereafter that affected children's learning and teachers' service-conditions. Firstly, the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP), which was put into practice from 1991-1995, affected the economy that disturbed public sectors such as education and health by pulling apart many of the controls which confined the country's economy. Critical fiscal reforms were made sluggish and uncertain progress occurred and keeping budget deficit high and created uncertainty and shortages of capital for private producers which delayed investment in new investments' capacity and job creation was slowed (Zimbabwe Government,1991). Secondly, the Fast Track Land Reform Programme in the year 2000 that forcibly redistributed land from the white farmers to the indigenous Zimbabweans also attracted criticism from the international community and affected the economy further, leading to the subsequent 'smart' sanctions from the international community. This led to a political turmoil that caused an economic meltdown in 2008 which was the climax of the Zimbabwe crisis and created some of the challenges in reading-comprehension that led to this research.

The public sector such as health and education collapsed in 2008 as the crisis created a vacuum in the teaching and health sectors when teachers and nurses emigrated to other countries to work. It is in this context that my research explores some repercussions of this crisis on the supply of resources, unavailability of teachers to erode quality education in the rural areas of Zimbabwe. It eroded the quality of education through the unavailability of books and other learning materials used by students and the methods used by the few available untrained teachers, worsened students' challenges and disturbed proper learning. This concept underlies that

despite the obligation of the state to meet the right to education in its entirety firstly, there has been the marginalisation of children due to the state's inadequate provision of resources. This crisis inhibited the state's ability to provide quality education. The decline of state support to education transferred the cost of education to parents who still laboured to make a living. Thousands of children dropped out of school as poor parents failed to meet the cost of education. At the order of "current earning-levels and the current poverty brought about by the ruthless economic environment, the cost of education became prohibitively high" (UN and Zimbabwe Government, 2010:52). The catastrophe manifested in deprived working conditions for teachers who are always on the frontline of implementing education policies by enduring and adopting a range of practices.

Then teachers indulged in malpractices, which included deliberate absenteeism, migration to other countries for work and negligence of duty, moonlighting, (because of poor remuneration) demanding payment from parents, and spending time on social media during working hours. In reality, such practice is not overlooked but occurs against the background of poor teacher remuneration and a lack of the schools' supervision, which was generated by the 2008 crisis. The Zimbabwe government is constantly legislating policy directives to control the conduct of teachers without addressing their working conditions and remuneration (Kapingidza,2014).

1.3. Understanding the importance of the 2008 crisis to the study

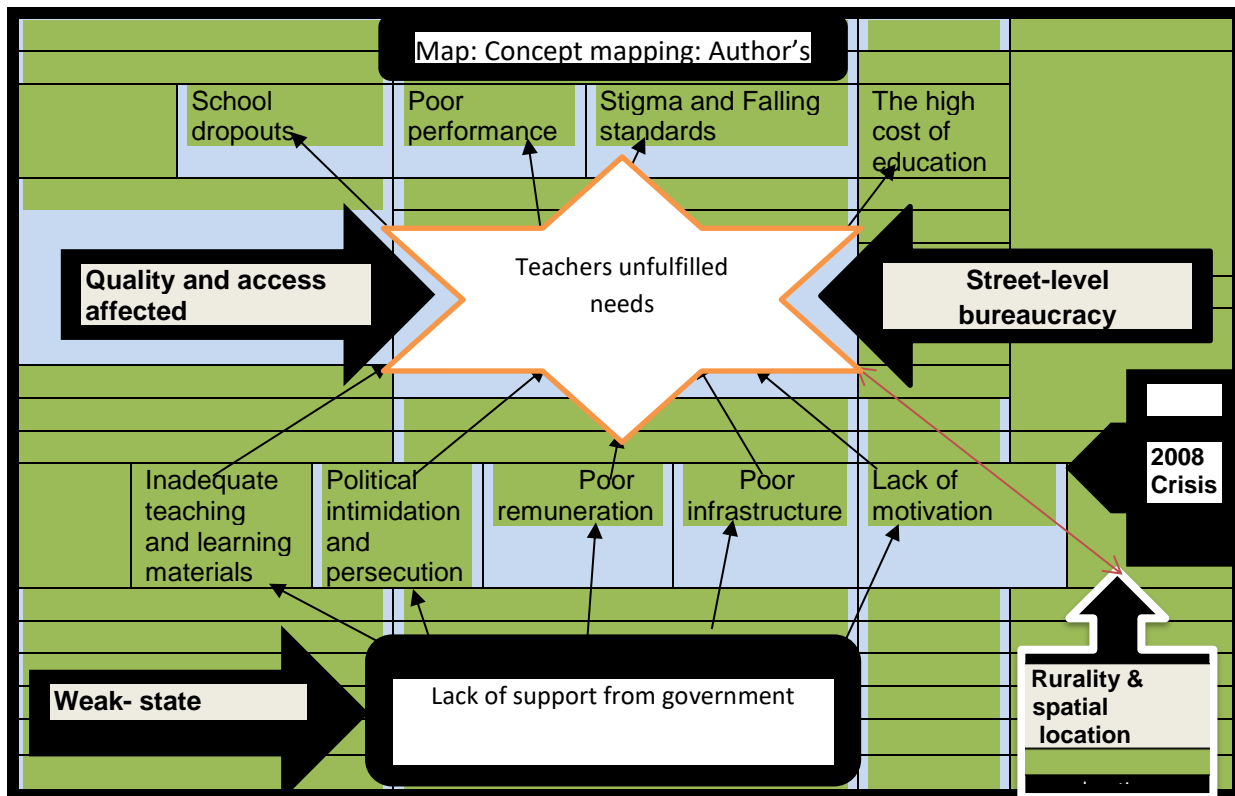
That being the case, this researcher blames Zimbabwe's political/socio-economic crisis on the 2008 crisis in view of students' challenges in reading-comprehension and against the gains made soon after independence. Evidence from the 2008 crisis suggests, that the Zimbabwe economy fell to its least ebb ever and made the education and health divisions and other social services to become bankrupt in the year (Kapingidza, 2014; UNICEF, 2008). The year was also notable for harmonised national elections that did not produce an outright winner and went for a re-run that Mr Mugabe contested alone for the first time in the Zimbabwean history making the political campaigns brutal and violent, forcing the leader of the opposition Mr Tsvangirai to pull out of the re-run race (Kapingidza, 2014). The political situation in

the country was so precarious that the teacher participants feared the use of a tape recorder in that it might endanger their lives if it was exposed to the government who tortured them for political reasons so that is why its use was dropped in this research (Kapingidza, 2014). This came after the Zimbabwe authorities entered into a state of violent political crisis in the aftermath of the presidential elections held in two rounds in 2008. The authorities led a campaign of terror against opposition parties and the ruling party supported their supporters to carry out acts of violence where about 200 opposition supporters were killed because of their political beliefs/affiliations of which Progressive Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe (PTUZ, 2011) confirmed. The state sponsored-violence resulted in massive human rights violations, which did not spare the teachers in rural areas (Fig.1.1). One of the observations was that Zimbabwe was listed amongst the countries that were leading in attacks on its own people, especially on teachers in rural areas (RUA, 2012). This was largely because during every election since 1980, teachers were at the forefront concerning the administration of polling stations and were later blamed for enabling the opposition party to win (Fig.1.1: 8). Kapingidza further confirms:

The rural schools ...became the battlefields for political parties. Schools, especially in rural areas, were turned into bases of political campaigns. Secondary school children were coerced into youth gangs who roamed villages to unleash violent political campaigns. Teachers were labelled political campaigners for opposition party and faced violent attacks that forced them to flee for their lives. (Kapingidza, 2014: 4)

These attacks stigmatised rural teachers with such levels of paranoia. The crisis discussed here led to the numerous challenges students face in education and the exodus of the teaching personnel to other countries or just staying at home. The 2008 disaster subjected teachers to political violence, lack of funding in schools, worthless low salaries and poor working conditions subsequently demeaning the once respected profession. Parents had to meet the cost of education for their children to continue learning, while a failure to do so would result in school dropouts. As such, incentives were introduced and these overburdened the rural parent. However, this crisis led to the formation of the Government of National Unity (GNU) as the crisis was no longer bearable. The GNU attempted to restore order but its efforts were dependent on donor funds as the government had no money. The quality of education was still debatable and its access was questionable in the face of increasing school-dropouts in 2008 and lack of support. Not much has been done to improve the motivation of rural teachers up to now, who constitute participants in this research.

Figure 1.1: Concept Mapping on Problems due to 2008 crisis



Author’s own imagination

However, at the time this research was carried out, some trained teachers were starting to return after the donors had contributed money and after the formation of GNU that started to restore some sanity, but only for a while before another election was held. Figure 1.1 summarises the effects of the 2008 crisis on education as it shows causes and effects of the 2008 crisis on rural schools and the government lack of response that was a defining period for the education sector. It is a big assessment of the government’s responsibility to give quality education to all the children of Zimbabwe (Kapingidza, 2014). In spite of the GNU to revitalise the education sector in 2008, the economy faced further challenges. There is concern that if the present trend continues, Zimbabwe might retrogress to the 2008 crisis as it is further worrying to note that state support for education and health sectors is fast fading away and worse still, non-governmental organizations (NGOs) are pulling out their support due to political violence and lack of government support (Kapingidza, 2014). Teachers are hated because they are always voter educators and polling officers in elections and are thus suspected of plotting the failure of Mugabe to garner at least 50.1 percent to

be declared a winner (UNICEF, 2008). Another study by the Research and Advocacy Unit (RAU) revealed that “51 percent of the teachers directly experienced political violence and intimidation, whilst 56 percent reported witnessing the same” (RAU, 2012: 17). Rural teachers were forced to profess illiteracy or blindness so that they could be ‘assisted’ to vote (Fig.1.1) for ZANU-PF as narrated below:

All teachers at St. Joseph High School were forced to attend a ZANU-PF rally held at the school grounds on the 25th June 2008. The teachers were allegedly allocated a polling station where they were going to vote. They were also allocated a number in the voting queue that was going to form on the allocated polling station. At the same meeting, teachers were accused of being sell-outs who contributed to the disastrous performance of ZANU-PF in the March 29 elections. They were bluntly told to declare themselves illiterate so that they could be assisted in casting their votes. On Election Day, 27 June, teachers, their family members and house cleaners were force-marched from the school cottage to the polling station (PTUZ, 2011: 6).

It is interesting to note that political attacks on education in Zimbabwe could be traced to the liberation struggle against colonialism of which during that era schools provided recruiting ground for freedom fighters and were targeted by the colonial regime. After independence, the same politicians who fought the colonial system cannot afford to sanction political violence in schools against a teacher and that the teacher in both pre-and post-independent Zimbabwe is still a ‘political suspect’ who can never be trusted by the government of the day, it is fascinating. Pswarayi and Reeler (2012: 2) reported an incident that exposes the current government (former freedom fighters) who have already forgotten what the teachers did during the liberation struggle as reports were received of teachers being targeted:

to join ZANU-PF, with hundreds of teachers being forced to hand over their earnings as punishment if they refused to do so. The situation has prompted many of Zimbabwe’s teachers to flee the country and seek refuge in neighbouring states like South Africa and Botswana or go to countries overseas.

President of the PTUZ expressed his disappointment at the information his union received from teachers being victimised and threatened with extreme violence in rural areas since President Mugabe announced that elections would take place in 2013. These cases of violence are supported by different extracts of incidents reported in rural areas. First PTUZ reports:

...PTUZ president has expressed his union's fears for the teachers' lives because of escalating state-sanctioned violence and intimidation. He said we want to put on record that the situation in and around schools is disturbing us. The election that is coming will not solve any problems facing teachers. In fact, the election will increase graveyards and orphans. (PTUZ, 2011: 6).

Secondly, Kapingidza, (2014: 4) a resident of Mashonaland Central reported:

Six teachers from Gwangwawa Primary School in Rushinga Mt Darwin were forcibly transferred to other schools in Bindura after war veterans and supporters of President Mugabe's (ZANU-PF) said that they did not want the teachers in their community (Kapingidza,2014: 4).

This was summed up by PTUZ in their national study that revealed that teachers were a target of political persecution because "they were suspected to sympathise with opposition party; as influential figures, they were deemed to influence people to vote for opposition; and were accused of not actively supporting ZANU PF" (PTUZ, 2011: 2).

1.4. The final Impact on Education by the 2008 Crisis

Through the review of government records and papers, it has been revealed that Zimbabwe teachers are conscious that politicians utilise education as an apparatus to augment their political gains by using their political fanaticism unfavourably against school operations (Kurasha and Chiome, 2013: 92). Excellence in education is unachievable when aggression takes precedence in schools. In view of that from 2007 to 2008, more than 20,000 teachers resigned from the service owing to political harassment and hyperinflation that turned them into destitution (Government of Zimbabwe, 2011: xv). The teachers' self-esteem for those who stayed behind in schools was at its lowest level and by the end of 2008, just 20% of children were still attending school in contrast to 85% in late 2007 (Mlambo, 2013: 373). That means in the whole of Zimbabwe, if only 20% of students countrywide can be attending school then it entails that roughly a few children were in school at the pick of 2008 crisis in the rural areas because of the uncertain political environment and violence. By 2009, the Zimbabwe Teachers Association (ZIMTA) cautioned that the Ministry of Education was facing an impending problem owing to a "critical shortage of teachers, teaching and learning materials because of poor ministry funding that caused low morale among teachers" (Mlambo, 2013: 372). A UNICEF (2008) statement pointed out that the country's reduced economic circumstances had pessimistically affected school

turnout and the education structure was dominated by “low enrolment numbers and declining attendance and a low transition rate to secondary schools and insufficient learning spaces, shortage of teachers and learning materials” (UNICEF,2008: 4). In March 2009, two months after schools were formally revived, a further 80 percent of rural countryside schools remained non-functional, the 2008 public examination papers had not been marked, and results not yet published (UNICEF, 2008). Non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and United Nations (UN) agencies determined that the year was a written off in terms of children’s education and it remained a vacuum in the education of Zimbabwean children of that generation (UNICEF, 2008).

On another note, an effort by a political opponent, Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) party to break through into rural areas, a long-established stronghold for the ruling party annoyed ZANU (PF) party resulting in severe inter-party conflicts. Conversely, metropolitan areas were predominantly opposition stronghold and hence mostly politically stable for that period. Subsequently, rural schools were unsuccessful in attracting qualified staff and depended on unqualified teachers thus compromising competence and quality in rural schools (Pswarayi and Reeler, 2012: 15). This meant poor results in ZIMSEC examinations with several rural schools recording zero percent pass rates and that is what necessitated this study. The 2008 crisis caused teachers’ incentives to the least possible level ever. “The teachers turned into corruption, by sometimes selling school property, moonlighting, and forced children to pay for ‘extra’ lessons” (The Standard, 2013). As soon as Coltart took over as the Minister of Education in 2009, roughly most schools were closed, many teachers had resigned from the teaching service. Further, from 2007-2008, 90,000 teachers were on job strike on many occasions and ZIMSEC examinations of the preceding year had not been marked (*Newsday*, 2014). The state of the economy made it necessary to implement a multi-currency arrangement in 2009 and it was the beginning of the Government of National Unity (GNU), making teachers and the rest of civil servants starting to receive a salary of USD100 per month (Zimbabwe Government, 2013). This made teachers threaten to go on strike for better pay, but they were frequently reminded by the government to be patriotic. In view of that Kurasha and Chiome (2013) revealed, that “financial rewards commensurate with economic realities must accompany the idea of quality education” (:88) meaning that teachers should be paid better than this. In view

of that, it means the government failed to pay good salaries and the then Minister of Education asked parents to pay teachers inducements as a supplement to their low salaries. This temporary solution of incentives implemented negatively affected the struggling rural parents. This was introduced to inspire teachers back to work to imitate the economically rich private schools that managed to keep their teachers by giving them incentives burdening the poor, struggling, urban and rural schools. These incentives potentially created disagreements between teachers and parents and divided rural and urban teachers. In view of that, Kurasha and Chiome established that these factors had a bearing on the quality of education in Zimbabwean schools by stating that:

poor remuneration; poor working conditions; lack of teacher retention incentives; shortage of resources; administrative shortcomings; absenteeism; lack of a shared vision; lack of professional development; no research-based innovations; non-use of ICT to achieve excellence; hostile political environment; and lack of cluster governance of schools (Kurasha and Chiome, (2013: 88)

On that note, the 2008 crisis above, made Chireshe and Shumba concur with the above findings (2011: 4-5) that teacher incentives and inducements were missing in rural schools causing them to interfere with quality education environments that created even worse problems with low ability students in learning but high ability students would catch up somehow. The 2008 crisis led to the problems being investigated in this study by causing a high failure rate in reading-comprehension, particularly English Language a major subject at O-level when teachers left their schools because of violence and poor conditions of service. The students were left without teachers and even textbooks and library books were not available for them to read on their own due to violence and lack of funds as pointed out earlier. This shows a lack of self-evaluation on the government about the real cause of this high failure rate, which originated from the 2008 crisis the government created for this age group by poor governance, making this generation a “lost generation” who would need redemption by the government through properly supported schools. DESPITE being rated highly across the region for their contribution to the country’s high literacy rate, Zimbabwean teachers in government institutions are still among the lowly-paid in the region.

1.5. The Research School and School Development Committees (SDCs)

That being the case, this research school which was established in 1980 was also affected by the 2008 crisis, had an enrolment of 550 students (300 boys 250 girls) and had a staff complement of 22 teachers in 2010 when I visited the school for the purposes of this exploratory research. Incidentally, some teachers at the research school could be heard saying, despite their contribution to the country's high literacy rate they are still among the lowest paid in the region. Some even reiterated that they are a laughing stock in the community because of poor remuneration.

On the other hand, the donors who built the schools, through the government, had completed building six classroom blocks, a science block, fashion and fabrics building as well as building studies along with agriculture classrooms with their practising sites. The administration block houses the headmaster's office and his deputy headmistress, senior teachers, as well as the English Language Department 's office. The staff room is also in the administration block where the teachers have their individual desks and mark their students' books when they are not teaching. There are about eight teachers' houses built by donors for 22 teachers who always share accommodation in the school. Incidentally, some teachers commute from the nearby township. The school building blocks are dilapidated (no locks on door-handles, no window panes, not fenced etc) because they were built soon after independence when the donors assisted the government who had introduced rural day secondary schools and hence, have not undergone much repair and refurbishment as donors left it to the government to maintain. This caused the buildings not to look well because they are not well looked after since the school does not have enough money for maintaining the school buildings by painting them on a yearly basis in order to keep them in good condition. Some financial woes then necessitated central government to devolve some of its schools' management roles to local authorities through the statutory instruments 87 of 1992 and 70 of 1993. As such, the government then created school development committees (SDCs), in schools, a representative of the community to look after the school buildings. "These statutory instruments give parents and guardians of school-going children authority to constitute a School Parents Assembly which in turn establish a School Development Committee (SDC)" (Education Act, 2006:137).

Even though the above statutory instruments empowered the government of Zimbabwe to devolve the governance of rural schools to local communities; the rural schools have remained in such poor state still due to lack of funds after donors built them. Worse still, it is unbelievable to note that some children in some rural communities are still learning under trees or thatched pole-and-dagga structures, (where donors had not built schools) even sitting on the ground due to the dwindling state of the economy (Newsday, 2014) (see Appendix-X). As such, the education infrastructure in the rural areas has remained in such poor state due to lack of funds that has led to the fall in education. This has subsequently affected the pass rate in rural schools also due to worsening conditions of service for teachers.

1.6. Summary of Teachers' Conditions of Service

In conclusion, teachers are the frontline implementers of education policies and they have all the capacity of shaping the fortune of the children if they are inspired and motivated by improving their salaries and conditions of service. The current working conditions for teachers as a whole particularly in rural areas compromises access and makes quality education an elusive goal as the successful implementation of educational programmes mostly hinges on the teachers who are happy and can be chief implementers of new programmes. That being the case, poor infrastructure, lack of teaching and learning materials discourage these teachers through the unmanaged cost of education that has compromised access and quality of education caused by government surrendering its responsibilities to finance education to donors and then parents, hence schools have remained in such deplorable state that has created problems in education. In summary, teachers are educated people who are extremely conscious that this government is an authority full of unfulfilled promises and that they have mastered the art of continued existence under antagonistic working conditions and if their conditions of service are improved it is obvious that they can uplift most new programmes of the government to overcome the crisis.

1.7. Rationale of the study and background information that leads to the research.

From the impact of the 2008 crisis discussed above, this section will discuss the developments that led the researcher to decide to take up this research after being

provoked by some of the problems discussed above and some of the previous events he encountered, that led him to finally take up the research. First and foremost, it is the problems rural O-level Zimbabwean students are facing in education that may be inhibiting them from passing English Language even though it is a language of most fields of national acts such as government, education, business, administration and the law courts in which, it performs a major role in the national life.

That being the case, the researcher decided to undertake this research after careful consideration. Firstly, the idea about this research was brought into mind after a research study was conducted in Zimbabwe in 1985 on incoming University of Zimbabwe students, many of whom were said to be below minimum acceptable standards in reading-comprehension and yet many of them were top students (McGinley,1985).

Secondly, the idea was further implanted into my mind when I worked in the Schools Psychological Services where we were analysing students' errors in reading-comprehension using various diagnostic tests and I got more interested in the reasons why students do not understand reading-comprehension texts. Thirdly, the idea was further activated in my capacity as secondary school headmaster when I started to analyse the pattern of students' results year after year in reading-comprehension and got more interested about their performance in the subject. Fourthly, from 2006, my interest was rekindled when I started to ask for the national exam results' analysis from the ministry and studied their pattern and got seriously concerned about the state of rural students' exam results in the English Language of which reading-comprehension is a major component which affects the whole English Language subject. I then resolved to research about reading-comprehension, seeking greater understanding of reading-comprehension learning.

In view of that, I sought understanding through an in-depth research to find out about the problems. As such, I was convinced that there is a problem in rural secondary schools learning of the English Language, and then I approached the University of Derby for a place to undertake this research. I then decided to use a suitable methodology that would give me results since nobody had ever researched in this area and in a rural setting. I decided to use an exploratory case study design which is conducted about a research problem when there are no earlier studies to refer to. The focus is on gaining insights and familiarity for later investigation or undertaken when

problems are in a preliminary stage of the investigation. Therefore, it required a strategy that would allow me to get as close to the participants as possible; hence, a non-participant observation case study that enabled me an extended stay at the research site. A non-participant observer relies on multiple sources of evidence in a manner that would enhance greater observation and interaction in adapting research to contextual realities. Lastly, I then contemplated using a multiple-composed-technique-approach, which triangulated methods appropriate to the investigation of the challenges to O-level reading-comprehension learning, teachers' approaches to reading-comprehension teaching and other factors that would affect students' learning to complement participant-observation. The methods triangulated are methods that include interview, observation, focus group discussion (FGD) and think-aloud and documentary evidence. Amidst all these concerns cited in Figure 1.1: 8, reading-comprehension has remained a pressing problem. Students have not had adequate resource books exacerbated by the 2008 crisis, so they have lagged behind due to inadequate resources since reading-comprehension needs more reading materials to augment the acquisition of vocabulary to develop synonym-language. Many O-level students face the challenges of not being able to recognise synonym-language skills needed to answer O-level reading-comprehension questions (Spencer and Hay, 1998). O-level syllabus expects students to read, comprehend and apply the knowledge to new learning situations upon their graduation (Appendix-W). Not all students graduating from secondary school nowadays attain this goal. They leave school devoid of the basic literacy skills of reading-comprehension also noted by Tembo (2011) in Zambia.

There has been a general call for teachers to teach reading-comprehension with emphasis on augmenting vocabulary synonym-language acquisition to eradicate the problem. As such, authorities have called upon teachers to guide students in reading-comprehension through teaching reading-comprehension processes using a variety of methods (Zimbabwe School Examination Council (ZIMSEC) that include communicative language teaching approaches (CLT) (ZIMSEC, 2013). While studies based on reading-comprehension have included the investigation into the thinking skills of O-level students, there has not been any research studies, according to my knowledge, on the exact challenges that rural students face in reading-comprehension from their own perspectives as well as the approach-strategies used by teachers

(Tembo, 2011). Therefore, I go into this research hoping to get knowledgeable about rural students' challenges in reading-comprehension that affect their performance versus their teachers' methods of teaching.

This study expects results from the research about how many rural Zimbabwean O-level students are failing to pass the English Language, mostly because of the visceral predicament of flawed reading-comprehension teaching methods, the unstable political situation and lack of procurement of educational materials exacerbated by the lack of teacher incentives. Reading-comprehension helps in the learning of all the other subjects on the curriculum as it enhances understanding of texts. Therefore, the rationale for the study is to establish the challenges rural O-level students face in reading-comprehension and the approach-strategies their teachers employ in teaching reading-comprehension skills needed to answer O-level exam questions as well as other factors that contribute to reading-comprehension failure. Students are encouraged to recognise key word-sentences and read what is necessary to recognise reading-comprehension question types. Thus, this study intends to find out what challenges students face and what methods teachers use in teaching reading-comprehension. Further, the research hopes to find out other problems that inhibit students in doing well in reading-comprehension in response to the following research questions deductively developed from the research topic.

1.8. Research questions

- 1) What approaches do teachers utilize in the teaching of English reading-comprehension?
- 2) What are the challenges that rural 'O' Level students are facing in reading-comprehension?
- 3) What other factors contribute to poor reading-comprehension skills?

1.9. Significance of the Study

This study is exploratory in nature as it seeks to identify the challenges faced by rural O-level students, other factors that contribute to poor reading-comprehension skills and the strategies their teachers use as the research is seeking to understand through in-depth findings rather than aiming for a generalisation of findings. The study expects

that the findings of this research might reflect upon the current practices in reading-comprehension teaching/learning problems in reading-comprehension. Any intervention can only be made possible after establishing what challenges students face and with what teaching methods.

1.10. Strengths of the Research

The small and specific sample implied that the attention of this research remains focused on the exploration of the depth of the study. In addition, the small specific sample and non-participant observer's long time-span allowed the opportunity to explore the real world of the participants and their unique intricacies. Arguably, therefore, data that is collected and analysed has enough substance to provide a rich base and material for the development of future research. A relationship of trust that existed between the researcher and the participants was of considerable benefit to the quality of the qualitative research results. A triangulation of these methods - tests and think-aloud protocols, insider-observations, FGD, document examination, interviews and a triangulated diversity of participants - yielded very rich data which protected itself from bias (Bogman and Taylor,1987). The data was analysed in detail and the participants' trust meant that they were willing to share their thoughts, feelings, and experiences without fear of prejudice or victimisation. This helped in yielding data of considerable depth.

1.11. Research methods

A qualitative non-participant observation was set-up over six months from October 2010 to March 2011 to examine the reading-comprehension challenges faced by students and their teachers' teaching methods. Data were generated through a triangulation of interviews, FGD, think-aloud protocol and testing, observation, teacher and student workbooks; the Ministry of Education exams' records which helped to counteracted the limitations and biases that stem from using a single method. The fourth form students (O-levels) were purposively sampled to establish the targeted population of 110 fourth form students (O-levels) as deemed suitable for this study. The target population was then stratified-sampled into taxonomies that included average, above average, and below average classification labels using the teachers' monthly record books. Each stratum was then systematic-sampled, where every fifth

student was sampled in each stratum to come up with seven, eight and seven students respectively, totalling 22 students. Two student-participants exercised their right to opt out, thus leaving the number of participants as 20 students. The research site and participants were purposively sampled.

1.12. Brief Research Results

The research revealed that students experience problems with many aspects of reading-comprehension in its entirety. The use of narrative and expository texts asked participants to furnish information concerning the strategies students use when reading for a purpose. The research revealed that students were unable to approach written texts actively and intelligently to interact with comprehension texts, which inexorably affected their assimilation and retention of information. The findings reveal that the teachers were mainly using two methods of teaching that were influential in students' approaches to reading-comprehension—lecturing and testing. This possibly contributed to some students considering reading-comprehension as a kind of test or chore. They had difficulties with word meanings, resulting in the failure to make connections between new vocabulary synonym-language and prior knowledge. The literature linking results of the research study are presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

2.0. LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

This chapter endeavours to explore the importance of the ability to read and comprehend texts in the current learning situation. It starts by giving a detailed overview of the literature that includes main theorists as a summary of the themes that will develop in the study. It then analyses the ways in which communicative competence can influence the communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches. The chapter further contributes towards discussions on the communicative language teaching approaches, task-based language teaching, major characteristics of CLT approaches, provides critical views on communicative approaches and language as discourse. As such, various theories and models including Krashen's (2003), Hymes (1989), Chomsky (1965;1992) and Halliday (1993), theories in the L2 learning in reading-comprehension are discussed. The chapter further discusses necessary language skills needed for answering O-level reading-comprehension exam questions, the importance of syntax in reading-comprehension and the challenges that students face while taking this approach and the importance of background knowledge in reading-comprehension. In different contexts, it discusses and analyses the methods that enhance acquisition of vocabulary synonym-language and the importance of extensive reading in reading-comprehension also pursued how the literature review was the relation to the conceptual framework that made distinctions to organise ideas and to capture something real in the research. The conceptual framework is given as a system of ideas and objectives that can lead to the creation of knowledge in this study through the overview of literature to give direction to the study.

2.2. Overview of the literature

The literature review identified a lot of themes useful to this research. For Instance, Hymes's (1989) proposal that the concept of communicative competence teaching should be based on the social world of the learner. In Hyme's support, Canale and

Swain (1998) argue that communicative competence requires the active involvement of the learner in oral learning of the target language. This can be achieved through the use of CLT. Richards et al. (1992) also emphasise the goal of teaching in communicative competence. The relevance underpins the view of how learners learn a language to gain competence in the target language. By using Chomsky's (1996) idea of linguistic competence, a child acquires a system of grammar and its use within a social matrix of language communicative competence.

However, Hymes (1989) contends that learners gain competence through classroom activities to best facilitate their learning. Secondly, speakers should use language for communication in real situations (communicative competence) rather than focusing on the potential ability of the ideal speaker to produce grammatically correct sentences (linguistic competence). It is also important that speakers of a language in particular communities are able to communicate with each other in a manner that is not only correct but also appropriate to the socio-cultural context.

Theorists agree on current ideas in teaching using CLT approaches and link up on reading-comprehension by reflecting on universal methods teachers use. However, there are other authorities such as Kumaravadivelu (2006), Brown (2006), Burns (2010), Brown (2002) and Renandya (2002) who are antagonistic about teaching methods. For example, Richards and Renandya (2002) maintain that for decades countless teachers took the notion of imperative teaching methods in their didactic world. They challenge that; the methods appear infallible schemes for classroom teaching (Richard and Renandya,2002). On the other hand, the idea of methods has met a fierce challenge from academics such as (Kumaravadivelu 2006; Brown, 2006; Nunan, 2004). Brown (2006) for instance, considers the universal methods as a disease and dispute that the methods are expensive and that they are characteristically top-down and bottom-up dogmas of specialists' ideas of teaching, thus far reducing the position and influence of the individual teacher.

Burns (2010) argues that in language teaching/learning these viewpoints and practices play an important role in manipulating our interactions and behaviours in the classroom. This section also suggests basic features of communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches where they use methods such as TBLT to solve tasks using CLT approaches in order to make students interact purposefully. For example,

Swan's (1998) approach highlights on the CLT approach critical issues that discredit some major characteristics of CLT approaches which clarify points, raised about structure and meaning. Brumfit (1983: 91) states that "Meaning is paramount" since it helps the learners to manage the message they engage with their interlocutors. Brown (1994) considers fluency and accuracy as complementary values underlying communicative exchanges. Thus Brumfit (1983) emphasises the value of accuracy not in abstract but in context. Krashen (2003) believes that for language output to be meaningful there is a need for proper input and adequate processing period. Thus Krashen (2003) presents the input theory which requires language acquisition in one traditional way that of being immersed in written and spoken languages that is comprehensible. At face value, the identified theories appear to be antagonistic to each other such as Chomsky (1996) versus Hymes, (1989) Halliday (2014) and Brown (2006) Kumaravadivelu (2006) versus CLT proponents however, these are reconcilable and are linked in one way or the other in the natural ways of language learning processes.

2.3.0. Communicative competence and promotion of CLT

Based on this research, this section will discuss the importance of competency relating to communicative skills and how promoting communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches is significant. Through this, it is possible to answer the first and third research questions. A review of Hymes's (1989) literature claims that the study of human language should place it in the social world when proposing the concept of communicative competence. As such, I write about the communicative competence in relation to the construction and interpretation of reading-comprehension and other topics in this chapter that contributes to CLT. Further, Wilkins (1983) defined communicative competence in terms of notions and functions rather than traditional categories of grammar and vocabulary. Recent evidence from Canale and Swain (1995) suggests communicative competence as the ability to interpret and enact appropriate social behaviours, as it requires the active involvement of the learner in the oral learning of the target language. As stated by Richards, et al., (1992: 65) "CLT are approaches to the L2 teaching/learning which emphasise the goal of language teaching as communicative competence". That means CLT approaches focus on the

aim of communicative competence. This study's conviction is understood as the interpretation and construction of reading-comprehension meaning, as it requires the active involvement of the learner in the learning of the target language through talking and writing. Initially, Hymes invented the expression in 1965 responding to the perceived deficiency of Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance linguistics (Chomsky, 1996). As such, it is a term in linguistics, which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax (rule), morphology (meaning), phonology (sound), and semantics (study of meaning), as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately (Hymes, 1989). As a result, communicative competence looks at the CLT approaches, which involve learners in their learning and then applies a critical look at the CLT approaches and grammar contrasting them on how they affect reading-comprehension through interaction. It underpins the review of how learners learn a language to gain competence in the language particularly reviewing Chomsky's (1996) theories, and lastly how learners gain competence through classroom activities to best facilitate their learning.

Having weighed the evidence, Hymes (1989) was particularly critical of Chomsky's generative grammar on his failure to account for linguistic variations. This paradigm shift in the understanding of competence reflects Hymes's (1989) concern for disadvantaged children who do not have equal access to the sociolinguistic resources they need (Hymes, 1989). As such, Hymes (1989) made Chomsky (1965) account for his linguistic variations on:

...1) his idea of linguistic competence in the area of utterances 'function. In addition, 2) his definition of linguistic competence. 3) That a child from whom any and all the grammatical sentences of a language, come with an equal likelihood of a social monster within the matrix in which it acquires a system of grammar. 4) A child acquires also a system of its use 5) that the system of use children acquire within a social matrix of language is 'communicative competence', which is Hymes's alternative to Chomsky's 'linguistic generative grammar' (Hymes, 1989: 75).

Hymes (1989) further took Chomsky's (1965) underpinning theory to task for the failure of his transformational-generative grammar in relationship to linguistic disparities. Chomskyan linguistics centre attention on the aspects of language that are uniform across speakers, ruling variations off the field of study by stipulating idealised speaker/hearers in completely homogeneous communities as its research object. Hymes (1989) disagrees with Chomsky's linguistic variety:

...as found in speech and therefore calls for 'concepts and methods that enable us to deal with diversity. The great stumbling block is that the kinds of organization most developed by linguists presuppose the grammar as their frame of reference because they are concerned with the analysis of a single, more or less homogenous, norm' (1965: 433).

Hymes's (1989) intended paradigm-shift is from considering speech as an abstract replica and move towards investigating the diversity of this speech as it is encountered in observation fieldwork. Hymes stated...that the study of language must concern itself with describing and analysing the ability of the:

...speakers to use language for communication in real situations (communicative competence) rather than limiting itself to describing the potential ability of the ideal speaker/listener to produce grammatically correct sentences (linguistic competence). Speakers of a language in particular communities are able to communicate with each other in a manner, which is not only correct but also appropriate to the socio-cultural context. (Hymes,1989: 433).

Hymes appears right as this is concerned with the questions of what a person knows about appropriate patterns of language use in his/her community and how s/he learns about it. Hymes's (1989) objection suggests for linguistics as "ways of speaking and the idea of language" as a set of ways of speaking as an alternative to the idea of the language of grammar as an abstracted set of rules or norms (Hymes 1989: 433). Therefore, Hymes (1989) offers a theoretical basis for language study that accounts for both linguistic variation from individual to individual and relative linguistic coherence across the social realm, while also offering a methodological heuristic for investigating communication, which the researcher agrees with on this matter, because a language must have some rules to guide its operation. That being the case, communicative competence is Hymes's (1989) expression in linguistics which denotes a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and the like, in addition to his social information concerning how and when to utilise utterances correctly, whereas, Chomsky's (1965) Grammatical Performance is the capacity to distinguish and create the characteristic grammatical construction of a language and to exploit it efficiently in communication. There are four components of Hymes's (1989) communicative competence that includes: linguistics, sociolinguistic, discourse, and competence strategic. These four workings of communicative competence ought to be appreciated in teaching a foreign language and they are frequently utilised by contemporary teaching methods engaged in L2 teaching using CLT approaches (Hymes,1989). Usually most of the above is best learned if the language learner

immerses themselves into the culture of a community that speaks the target language to invoke communication through CLT approaches.

2.3.1. The Communicative language teaching (CLT) approaches

In view of the concept of CLT approaches this section will show how they are linked to reading-comprehension by reflecting on current ideas in teaching using CLT approaches which involve theories that can engage a special spot in the history of language teaching in Zimbabwe. As such, Richards and Rodgers (2001) review the literature that indicates that this tendency observed many previous methods such as Grammar-Translation and Audiolingual that ascended to significance in their good days although they no longer achieve that prominence nowadays. Richards and Renandya (2002) further maintain that for decades countless teachers took the notion of imperative teaching methods in their didactic world. Richard and Renandya (2002) remotely challenged that; the methods appear to proffer, infallible schemes for classroom teaching. On the other hand, however, this idea of 'Methods' has met a fierce challenge from academics such as (Kumaravadivelu (2006) Brown (2006) Nunan (2004). A 'method', in teaching and learning provisos, is described as a collection of hypothetically incorporated classroom modus-operand contemplated to be generalisable crosswise a comprehensive assortment of circumstances and audiences Brown, (2002) Renandya (2002). Brown (2006) for instance, considered the 'universal methods' as a disease and dispute that these methods are 'expensive methods' that are intended to engage wherever in the world and for anybody. Brown (2006) condemns these 'expensive methods' arguing that they are characteristically top-down than bottom-up dogmas of specialists' ideas of teaching, thus far reducing the position of the individual teacher. Brown (1994) as well disputed the methods for their inability to attend to the broader perspective of teaching/learning.

Concentration has slowly transferred from 'post methods of the era Kumaravadivelu (2006) to stress on didactical teaching the lively interaction amid teachers, learners and teaching resources throughout teaching/learning. With that vision, teachers drive teaching engagements that search to maintain, teacher-led pedagogical didactics have materialised. CLT is one didactic-approach challenger of 'post methods era' in search of promoting that. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is a precise model

of CLT approaches which have been initiated for teachers/students' engagement in the realm of teaching/learning in Zimbabwe (Brown,2006). The teachers in Zimbabwe appear to be confused about the degree to which they should teach language structures in the wake of the CLT approaches. They are uncertain about when they should teach language usage and when they should teach language structure, hence problems have beset the system to affect the teaching of reading-comprehension (Maposa,1992). On the other hand, Kumaravadivelu (2001) points out incidences of disenchantment, which come with the CLT approaches in some countries such as Zimbabwe as mentioned. Coleman and Briggs (2003) dispute that all theories and practices in education are local and political and to disregard their requirement, is to disregard the lived experiences of children. These are several idiosyncrasies that teachers contend with when initiating CLT approaches in their own circumstances.

However, "teachers develop their individual conceptions about language teaching/learning and language understanding through their personal interpretations of experiences" (Klapper 2006: 26). Therefore, our "constructions of the meaning we attach to phenomena" Klapper (2006: 18), is continuously revised as we are constantly influenced by our experiences. For Burden and Williams (1998: 104), "the framework for making sound judgement that depends on an understanding of the particular subject knowledge and as well on training in effective teaching and learning methods". What teachers know about a subject has a crucial influence on how the subject is taught Klapper (2006) maintains that for teachers to enhance their professional practice, they require being aware of the philosophy that enlightens their practice. Burns (2010) concurs that teachers' philosophies and beliefs form systems of suppositions that are kept within their practices on the need to understanding CLT approaches. Therefore, in language teaching and learning, these viewpoints and practices play an important role in manipulating our interactions, and behaviours in the classroom (Burns, 2010). Recent evidence suggests Richards (2006) asserts that CLT approaches orbit around the objective of teaching embracing communicative competence about the concept of communicative understanding to give its proper meaning. As such, according to Richards (2006), he recognises communicative competence as knowledge people have for a language that accounts for their ability to produce sentences in a language. As a result, Richards (2006), further confirms communicative competence as knowledge of the building blocks in sentences, for

example, in parts of speech, tenses, phrases, clauses and sentence patterns on how sentences are built. It can be noted that in recent years, language learning/teachings viewed from a different perspective, result in processes such as the interaction between the learners of the language to achieve more through encouragement on collaborative learning. Having weighed the evidence, negotiation of meaning by learners enhances more confidence through interaction with learners' interlocutors to arrive at some understanding of the language; they demand to get feedback when they use it in trying to incorporate new skills into their development of communicative competence (Richards, 2006). On another point, Maposa (1992) asserts the Zimbabwe problems in establishing CLT approaches as:

...not been adapted adequately to the second language-learning situation...where the purposes of language teaching/learning are not primarily for competence in verbal and sociolinguistic interaction. It is for proficiency in sentence-level grammar, written comprehension, composition and summary writing, and writing in general, which are the skills examined in the comprehensive O-Level English language final examinations (Maposa,1992: 264).

This can be looked at from a different viewpoint in that there appears to be some conflict of interest because the approach in countries such as the UK - and the US CLT approaches were meant to enhance the verbal and sociolinguistic interactive skills of ESL learners, whereas in Zimbabwe it has not been adequately adapted to the L2 learning situation through misinterpretation of CLT approaches (Maposa,1992). Rather, in Zimbabwe, there is the fondness for teaching literature rather than language. This propensity is manifested by the fact that the BA English programme at the University of Zimbabwe is purely a literature programme, and that, as Morrison (1988) found out, English teacher training programmes in teacher's colleges are heavily biased towards literature which has affected the teaching of reading-comprehension.

Current evidence suggests many language teachers may agree that beginning from the simple to the difficulty is the perfect order of sequencing teaching in line with Maposa (1992). While Larsen-Freeman (2000) concurs that beginning with the known, moving to the unknown structures is best, with each succeeding structure built upon the one before it, by recognising this principle, teachers are advised to teach the fewer complex structures before the more complex ones. It can be asserted that teachers can teach using the above principles; however, they may be handicapped by

theoretical lacunae caused by the lack of adaptation of the CLT approaches to the needs of Zimbabwe English language teaching/learning (Maposa,1992). Dismissing the argument to incorporate the idea of using CLT approaches, which has further confused teachers in Zimbabwe, about the degree to which they should teach language structures as encouraged by Maposa (1992), teachers have resorted to lecturing blaming it on the lack of resources.

Having weighed the evidence, the implementation of CLT approaches has brought many advantages orbiting around the teaching of English as the L2 unlike audio-lingual and grammar-translation discarded language teaching methods, CLT emphasise on Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), which is a student compliant language teaching method and provides students with comprehensive use of English language, for communication (Richards, 2006). Current evidence suggests that other scholars have suggested several other advantages for CLT approaches that include motivation for students to improve their ability to use English by themselves since it emphasises on fluency in the target language, meaning that, it provides students with assignments that allow them to improve their own ideas (Kumaravadivelu, 2006). When thinking about CLT approaches we focus on the aims of communicative competence which enable learners to utilise the language in a communicative manner having the major portion of the learning process not to be upon the teacher but demonstrating that CLT approaches have moved from teacher-centred to learner-centred programmes through methods such as TBLT (Canale and Swain, 1998).

2.3.2. Task-based language teaching (TBLT)

TBLT is an example of CLT approaches which nurtures gaining momentum in reading-comprehension teaching that encourages the emphasis on classroom communication which fosters more thinking about the learners' authenticity and involvement among other contributors to learners through meaningful tasks as the ultimate goal of learning (Brown, 2006: 242). This task-based approach to the L2 teaching/learning centres on the learner's capacity to execute target-like tasks without any overt teaching of grammatical rules Rahimpour (2008) and comprises procedural syllabuses, practice syllabuses and TBLT (Long and Crookes, 1992). There are many definitions of 'tasks'. 'A task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on

meaning, to attain an objective' (Skehan, 2003: 3). TBLT is a variant of CLT approaches which base work cycles around the preparation for doing and of reflective analysis of tasks that mirror real-life and skills referred to as 'authentic experiences' (Scrivener, 2011). The principles of TBLT present the educational value system espoused by progressivism which stresses the growth and self-realisation of the individual (Beglar and Hunt, 2002). The difference of TBLT from other approaches is that it emphasises dialogue between learners and teachers and between learners themselves in promoting ideas of CLT approaches during oral dialogues of new ideas, opinions and perceptions that are stimulated as opposed to being passive recipients of education (Ellis, 2003).

Proponents of TBLT Kumaravadivelu (2006) Ellis (2003) Long and Robinson (1998) argue that language form is naturally embedded in tasks, which learners undertake. Tasks also provide input to learners and opportunities for authentic and meaningful language use. Kumaravadivelu (1994) and Beglar and Hunt (2002) argue that tasks will create conducive linguistic environments that will manipulate learners' intuitive heuristics and natural cognition. Therefore, it is hoped that with TBLT, the combination of contextualised, meaningful input and output will ensure more CLT approaches' characteristics.

2.3.3. Major Characteristics of CLT

According to the view on reading, this section draws attention concerning understanding problems that the teachers of Zimbabwe face regarding the appropriate time when they should teach the usage of language and its structures. This addresses research question one. The section also suggests basic features of CLT approaches where they use methods such as TBLT to solve tasks using CLT approaches in order to make students interact. Evidence suggests Swan's (1998) approach highlights on some CLT approaches' critical issues to discredit some major characteristics of CLT approaches, which clarify points, raised about structure and meaning. As such, the notion represents the learners who require knowledge of the linguistic structure of meaning and function. A review of the literature indicates communicative competence users' grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, and phonology is imperative, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately to

provide primary meaning to the use or function of the language and secondary meaning to its structure to embrace communicative competence (Larsen-Freeman, 1986). Swan (1998) disagrees that knowledge does not imply that grammar is not important for real communication, rather organised treatment of both functions and forms is imperative in CLT approaches. Littlewoods (2007: 1) maintains, that one of “the most important characteristic features of the CLT approaches is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language”. “CLT approaches propose that grammatical structure may better be included under various functional categories. Evidence suggests we should give less attention to the presentation of grammatical rules than we did before” Brown (1994: 245), which is rather confusing for ESL teachers in Zimbabwe, as students should learn grammar rules in order to write English well. As such, emphasis on the meaning of messages learners are generating is important in assignments they are writing rather than the correctness of the language structure that enhances confidence. For example, Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 91) state, “Meaning is paramount” since it helps the learners to manage the message they engage with their interlocutors while Brown, (1994: 245) considers “fluency and accuracy, as complementary values underlying communicative exchanges”. This viewpoint entails accuracy and fluency as two factors that can determine the success of English Language students in their current learning. In view of this, many learners tend to monitor their use of the language too much, focusing more on accuracy than fluency which in turn prevents them from using the language in a communicative way (Krashen, 2003). As such, accuracy is the ability to produce correct sentences using correct grammar and vocabulary while fluency is the capacity to construct language effortlessly and efficiently. However, sometimes fluency might have more prominence than accuracy because “fluency and acceptable language are the primary goals” Finocchiaro and Brumfit (1983: 91) and accuracy is evaluated not in the abstract but in contexts. A review of literature indicates fluency is accentuated over accuracy in order to keep students purposefully committed to language use, for that reason, it is imperative; but, fluency must never be encouraged at the expense of clear, unmistakable, direct communication and much more spontaneity is present in communicative classrooms (Brown, 1994).

It can be emphasised that language-teaching methods are intended to engage students in some practical, genuine and functional utilisation of language for

meaningful purposes, where classrooms should further the prospects of rehearsing the full real-life situations to provide the opportunity for real communication. This implies that CLT approaches' activities that engross real communication endorse language learning activities utilised for manifesting meaningful conversation that encourages learning; and language that is meaningful to the student when it supports learning to be advocated (Rodriguez-Bonces, 2010). On that note, stress on creative role-plays' simulations, dramas; games and projects are imperative activities that promote oral talk, which can assist the learner with the confidence-boosting activities, not just repetition and drills. In line with that information gap, choice and feedback are thought to be truly communicative activities (Dougill, 1987). CLT approaches normally adopt the method of pair and group work that requires negotiation and collaboration among students in which, students engage in fluency-based exercises that support development of their confidence, also role-plays in which they practise and expand language functions, as well as sensible utilisation of grammar and oral focused pronunciation activities (Johnson and Morrow, 1981)

It can be argued that grammar can still be taught, but on a reduced frequency, following conventional ways together with more innovative CLT approaches. Savignon (2002: 7) "maintains that for the enhancement of communicative approaches his research findings to support the integration of form-focused exercises with meaning and purposeful experiences" in CLT approaches. As such, Savignon (2002) advocates that grammar is imperative and students appear to focus best on grammar when it aligns with their communicative needs and experiences. As a result, research warns that a disregard of grammar will virtually guarantee breakdown in communication (Savignon, 2001; Thompson, 1996). The two researchers state the same paradigm about misapprehension about CLT approaches that complicates it for many teachers to visualise clearly, on what is happening and to note the useful innovations that CLT has brought to education. Current evidence suggests an unrelenting misapprehension in CLT approaches about the teaching of grammar, although "the exclusion of explicit consideration to grammar teaching was never part of an issue for CLT approaches" (Thompson, 1996: 10), whereas CLT approaches incorporate communicative input as deemed central to communicative language augmentation and this inclusion necessarily entails attention to structure.

One aim of CLT approaches is not to restrict to oral skills alone but also reading and writing skills that require enhancement to augment pupils' confidence in all four-language skills where it concurs with the Zimbabwe situation. As such, learners work on all four-language skills from the beginning, that is a given activity that can incorporate reading, speaking, listening and perhaps writing Celce-Murcia et al., (1991) and the idea of emphasising the oral skills creates uncertainty among ESL teachers, especially in Zimbabwe. Evidence suggests there are misconceived ideas in CLT approaches as if they were dedicated to teaching speaking only whilst "CLT is not completely concerned with face to face oral communication" only (Savignon, 2002: 7). In view of that assertion, the philosophy of CLT relates consistently with reading and writing activities that unite readers and writers in the interpretation, expression, and negotiation of meaning in which teachers in Zimbabwe can adapt. On the same note, it is imperative to point out that it is not only the speaker (or writer) who is communicating; but all communication through language occurs in both the written and spoken mode and entails at least two people. Thompson (1996) recognises, that, although there is a criticism that CLT approaches disregard written language, a look at current mainstream textbooks shows that reading and writing materials have been given attention too. Evidence suggests learners frequently brainstorm in groups or pairs to relocate, and if possible, to negotiate meaning in situations where one person has information that others lack Celce –Murcia et al. (1991) to give more emphasis to critical issues of CLT approaches. There is a reason to give more emphasis to critical issues of CLT approaches so that there is no danger of focusing too much on oral skills and less on the critical promotion of reading and writing skills (Brumfit and Johnson, 1991).

2.3.4. Critical Look at the Communicative Approach

Krashen (2003) presents the input theory, which requires language acquisition in one traditional way, that is exposed to written and spoken the language that is comprehensible in terms of the input Krashen advocates for. That being the case, the adequate conditions for language acquisition to take place, the learner needs L1 knowledge for the comprehensible input to take place. In language acquisition, meaningful interaction in the target language in which speakers are concerned not

only with their utterances but also the messages they convey and understand through writing. In view of that comprehensible input is the crucial and necessary ingredient for the acquisition of language (Krashen,2002). The best methods are, therefore, those that give comprehensible input in low anxiety situations, containing messages that learners really want to hear which Krashen (2003) suggests. These methods do not force early production of L2 but allow students to produce it when they are ready, understanding that improvement that comes from supplying communicative and comprehensible input is not forced and corrected production. According to Krashen, there are two independent systems of L2 performance called the acquired and the learnt systems. In the acquired acquisition is the product of subconscious process learners undergo when they acquire their L1 which requires meaningful interaction in the L2 in which learners are involved not in the form of their utterances but rather in the communicative act. The learning system involves the product of formal instruction and it comprises a conscious process which results in conscious knowledge involving the language, for instance, the knowledge of rules of syntax. In line with Krashen (2003) learning is of less significance than acquisition.

As such, Krashen (2003) refers to that instance of comprehensible input as caretaker speech (CS), occasionally referred to as baby talk, teacher talk or foreigner talk by (Gregg, 1984). In view of Krashen's claims the student initially acquires support from one's knowledge of L1 acquisition which Krashen (2003) categorises as CS, where the language is particularly directed to learners who are learning their L1 which makes it easier in a way for communication to assist in the L2 acquisition.

As such, this researcher challenges that Krashen is "misguided" in creating such an assertion of those types of simplified inputs. Krashen's (1985) stance can be refuted on two bases: firstly, in the L1 acquisition, CS does not always entail simplified speech; secondly, "comprehensible" input does not unavoidably signify "simplified" or "caretaker speech". In view of the above, is CS simplified speech? On the balance of probability, CS is assumed to bear the following qualities: 1) that it is simplified for communication; 2) that it is roughly tuned to the child's level, and 3) that it concerns the child's direct surroundings. Krashen (1985) stance utilises CS as confirmation for the input hypothesis primarily because it is generally taken to simplify communication, which he perceives as one method that creates the comprehensible input. It is however debatable; though, that CS ought to be simpler in grammar structures than

in adult speech (AS). As such, input by utilising specific proportion of data has revealed that CS is not grammatically simpler than is AS in such features as in subject verb object (SVO) in the functions of sentences: clauses with deletion or movement of elements, questions and imperatives in which (Gregg, 1984) concurs.

As a result, foreigner talk, for instance, desires to be "roughly-tuned to the level of the non-native speaker" for the input to be comprehensible (Krashen, 1985: 9). Conversely, White (1987) and Gregg (1984) criticise this form of input and dispute the reasoning. As such, White (1987) utilises a couple of instances of deprived input or non-target structures to emphasise the threats of simplified input. This study disputes that because mere sentences do not include many complicated language properties if students are called upon only this way; they are disadvantaged in some important input. Besides, not all teachers or native-speakers will modify their speech contrary to speech rate and spoken discourse and its analysis to affect their speech rate. This study, therefore, notes that there are some extreme cases, where there are bad teachers and insensible or incompetent native-speakers who do not know their audience to realise input, even though some native-speakers do that, it does not mean merely to simplify the speech.

Krashen (2003) highlights the fact that the more one reads, the more one's vocabulary synonym-language is augmented. Krashen (2003) reaffirms the methods, that support the CLT approaches as designed to simplify teaching and learning of the four language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—to involve learners in reading-comprehension as it emphasises talking and interaction. This study has noted that reading-comprehension skills, can improve students if they listen to the teacher and other people speaking the same language in order to improve their speaking, writing, and pronunciation. Current evidence suggests CLT approaches used in Zimbabwe can help students discuss the topics in their lessons, with others in their classrooms (pairs or groups) and enhance their language in preparation for reading-comprehension. Further, games and pair work activities, though sometimes not supported on other specified representations, promote language manipulation by presenting students with a certain amount of choice. Krashen's (2003) asserts the reading theory that the more we read in the L2 the better our vocabulary synonym-language grows. This study sees it imperative to engage reading in the language

classroom to augment knowledge of the language and the way it is utilised in the real-life situation. In line with Krashen's theories, language attainment does not need wide utilisation of syntactical regulations and also does not call for tiresome drill from the teacher where; syntax is the centre of Hymes's (1989) argument with (Chomsky, 1965).

In dismissing the input hypothesis argument this researcher thinks it is overclaimed and takes it to be invalid as supported by McLaughlin (1987) and Brown (2000), who both argue against it internally and externally. This researcher thinks it is Krashen's (2003) ambitious hypothesis theory of the L2 learning process where the researcher thinks an overall input hypothesis theory is overemphasised by Krashen who hails it to be one of the most important single concepts in L2 learning and tries to answer the critical question of this language acquisition. There appears to be an exceedingly strong claim that comprehensible input is the contributory factor in the L2 acquisition. Krashen (1985: 4) in his own words said "All other factors are thought to encourage L2 acquisition work only when they contribute to comprehensible input. This assertion this researcher contemplates it as invalid as it is argued both against internally and externally systems.

This study cites the example of the passive voice given by White, (1987: 98) "who has shown that the child can acquire the passive voice form in L1 by simply basing on the child's existing syntactic knowledge, with no need for any extra-linguistic information." Therefore, this researcher considers that there are some very similar mechanisms underlying the L1 and L2 acquisition which point that there appears to be more than one potential route for grammar change. That means, apart from the internal system factors, some structures can be acquired without being comprehensible as Krashen (2003) propounds that some formal expressions often used by a single unanalysed item can contribute significantly to the native speaker's fluency in a language. At first, the L2 learner learns to use formulaic expressions automatically for communicative purposes, but s/he does not understand fully or accurately the meanings of those expressions either as a whole or individually as a whole or individually, nor its internal structures.

Conversely, L2 acquisition cannot be ascribed to comprehensible input alone, as in 1) the monitor model, the comprehensible input is conditioned by the effective filter; and 2) in the L2 acquisition framework, a lot of factors are needed for successful

acquisition. In the monitor model Krashen (1985: 3) suggests that the filter hypothesis, in which “effective filter” functioning as a mental block, can be “up” or “down” to block or allow comprehensible input to be received by the learner. In view of that, the filter is up when the learner lacks motivation while it is down the learner confronts himself with the target language and while the child’s community has no concern about the possible failure of the child in the acquisition (Krashen, 2003).

In view of the input hypothesis, comprehensible input alone is not the only underlying factor in the acquisition but this researcher argues that the acquisition of structures can happen even without the input hypothesis (Krashen, 1985). In other words, internal factors can foster grammatical change and lead to the acquisition of certain grammatical structures that, this researcher argues strongly that the effective filter hypothesis does not explain the growth and function of such a filter, and there is no evidence to support its existence (Krashen, 2005). In view of that, the L2 acquisition framework’s input hypothesis needs to be supplemented with other theories that involve the interaction of input hypothesis and the output hypothesis where this researcher, endeavours to put it right straightaway on how to make the comprehensible input, which Krashen (2003) has failed to fulfil. This study proposes to suggest one way through the modified interaction cited by Long (1983) through his interaction hypothesis. In this interaction hypothesis Long (1983) suggest to do it through an empirical study of conversations between native speakers’ and non-native speakers, by giving three kinds of devices for modification of interaction which includes strategies, tactics and both. However Long (1996) stresses corrective feedback and negotiation of meaning in the interaction of language acquisition.

2.3.5. Language as Discourse

A review of literature discourse differentiates functions of a language and some overlying factors in language that differ from culture to culture to show the contributors of CLT approaches. Understanding these functions and factors is necessary to appreciate the close connection between teaching and learning reading-comprehension and language to realise question 1 and 2. In view of CLT approaches, discourse is utilised to direct to “an example of spoken or written language that has describable inner interactions of structure and meaning, for instance, words, structures or consistencies that relate consistently to an outside communicative purpose or

function and a known audience or interlocutor” (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000: 4). As such, the focal point here is a linked and meaningful element of language utilisation which is concerned broadly about discourse as used in spoken and language in a written social context. The grounding of discourse analysis in the 1970s started to add background partially as an answer to the domination of the Chomskyan analysis of language as a structure that focused primarily on incoherent and contextualised units of phonology, syntax, and semantics (Chomsky, 1965). Chomsky (1965) posits that even though there are several writers who contributed to the understanding of language as a discourse, Chomsky considered the influential works of Halliday (1993), Hymes (1989), and Austin (1962), Halliday (1993) in discarding his emphasis on grammar and his definition of language was termed a learning potential, that is, a collection of options in the semiotic meaning systems that are accessible to the speaker–hearer in social perspectives (Halliday,1993). From this Halliday (1993), instead of presenting language as internal to the student he takes language as a way of an operation in society. Halliday (1993) views language from a practical point of view as he perceives three macro-functions or meta-functions of language, which include 1) the ideational 2) the interpersonal and 3) the textual. In view of the ideational/idea as a function it signifies the individual’s meaningful perspective and relays to the experience and expression of the idea, objects, and processes overriding the physical and innate phenomena of the world around (Halliday,1993). Halliday’s (1993) three macro-functions or meta-functions in contributing to CLT were given to mean:

- Ideational function (creative process) --we use language to talk about our experience of the world, including our inner world, to describe events, states and the entities involved;
- The interpersonal function looks at the individual’s personal interaction with other people, to establish and maintain relations with them, to please them, to anger them, and influence their behaviour, to get their help or sympathy.
- The textual function takes language as a system that organises messages in a unified manner so that chunks of messages fit logically with others around them and with the wider context in which the talking or writing takes place.

From Halliday's (1993) view, language communication is the result or the product of the practice of interaction amid the ideational, interpersonal, and textual purposes of language. Having weighed the micro-functions' relationship, the meaning potential of language is acknowledged. According to Halliday (2014), learning a language, subsequently, means, learning to represent functions of the language that includes instrumental, regulatory, representational, interactional, personal, heuristic and Imaginative.

That means, when the child intermingles with language and language consumer/user, s/he starts to comprehend the semiotic meaning possible inside the language and increases the ability to utilise it (Halliday,1993). It confirms that by simply acknowledging the significant interpersonal performances in communicative perspectives a child deepens and widens the ability for language utilisation. Therefore, language utilisation is constantly entrenched in a sociocultural setting. When thinking about Halliday's (1993: 52) ideated definition of semiotic meaning possible for his micro-functions "not in provisions of intellect but in conditions of the culture" where he "describes language as a semiotic system which relates to a systematic resource for meaning". Contrary to Halliday (1993) who quarries Chomsky's (1965) idea of competence and proposed to replace it, Hymes (1989) suggested to expand it. Chomsky's (1965) competence is an intellectual structure of unspoken knowledge, which is obsessed and saturated by a speaker-hearer's ideation (the creative process), which Hymes (1989), refutes that competence is added to the communicative capacity to utilise a language. On the balance of probability, research must take explanation for the ontological being that an average child gains knowledge of statements not simply as grammatical but appropriate as well. The child attains the epistemological information about language on what to converse with whom, when, where and in what mode. It can be anticipated that a child develops into being capable to accomplish a collection of speech rate proceeds, to partake speech processes, and to assess achievements by others (Hymes, 1989: 277–278). Hymes (1989: 282) asserts to report information by maintaining the notion of communicative competence, that it "is reliant upon both implicit knowledge and capacity for utilisation". Communicative competence is made-up of grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence, which are, aspects controlling successful communication Hymes, 1989). Hymes (1989), is concerned with identifying some issues, and utilised

an acronym SPEAKING to illustrate his flexible overlying competence factors diverging from culture to culture:

- Setting denotes the place and time in which the communicative place happening occurs.
- Participants mean speaker-hearers, and their functions and relationships.
- Ends mean the confirmed or unconfirmed objectives the participants desire to achieve.
- Act sequence means the structure, matter, and succession of statements.
- Key means to the way and manner (serious, sarcastic, etc.) of the statements.
- Instrumentalities mean the route (oral or written) and the code (formal or informal).
- Norms mean the standard of interpretation and communication based on shared knowledge.
- Genre means the groups of communication such as the report, essay, poem, lecture, and so forth. Oft-quoted

These flexible overlying factors, which diverge from culture to culture, give the basis for determining the regulations of language utilisation in a specified background. A review of Hymes's (1989), the literature indicates that perceiving a language does not mean knowing the rules of grammatical practice only but the rules as well of communicative utilisation. Hymes (1989) propose to clearly elaborate on his oft-quoted theory statement: that "rules for utilisation, devoid of the rules of usage of the language are useless." Co-incidentally, Chomsky and Hymes both admit and use the concept of competence, which is informative to contrast it in its widest terms but Hymes castigated Chomsky for calling it linguistic communicative performance while the others called it communicative competence. Hymes' (1989) idea goes well past that to embrace real knowledge and capability obsessed by the language consumer. However, Chomsky's (1980) view is biologically based, whereas Hymes's (1989) idea is restricted to the unspoken knowledge of reserved linguistic assets haunted by the idealised speaker-hearer, which is more social.

"Chomsky (1980) basically is an individual, while Hymes (1989) is mostly social based, further Chomsky concerns structure; and Hymes is apprehensible about the function where Chomsky is typified by stating; and Hymes engages processes" (Taylor, 1988:

156). In view of this rather that Hymes (1989) obviously, contributes a much broader view to the concept of competence and one that has added relevance for understanding and treating language as a vehicle for communication in response to CLT approaches. Current evidence suggests that discourse is the utilisation of spoken or written language in a social perspective to effect communication in promoting CLT approaches. As such, oral and written communication, are also known as discourse, as a significant skill that can augment CLT approaches (Cagri, 2013). For instance, narrative storytelling is followed by an explicit design of stories characteristically that comprise an opening, middle and conclusion. Narratives depict the key characters and the background in which they exist in their inconsistency and the resolution as noted in a comprehension's story organisation which is necessary for reading-comprehension and written narratives (Kispal,2008). In contrast, the research considered the structure of expository in its tests discussed earlier as an informational text. This form of expository writing as well pursues certain structures, such as persuasive, cause and effect, comparison. It is essential that students comprehend these structures through listening comprehension before they even instigate to focus on reading-comprehension. As such, initially, they should be able to comprehend and tell stories in the two formats, before they can begin to write those kinds of stories to appreciate and augment reading-comprehension to appreciate some of Krashen's input hypothesis to acquire a second language (Krashen,2003).

2.3.6. Krashen and theories of L2 learning supporting CLT

Reading-comprehension is the capacity to read a text, develop it, and comprehend its meaning (Krashen,2003) to realise question 1 and 2. Even though this description might appear easy, it is not inescapably simple to impart, practise, or acquire, as such, an individual's capacity to understand texts is largely prejudiced by their skills and traits, one of which the capacity to brand inferences to promote CLT approaches Richards,2006). Krashen (2003) elucidates several theories including monitor model, natural order hypothesis, input theory, affective filter theory and reading theory to enhance vocabulary synonym-language. When thinking about language discourse, Krashen, (2003), provides more light to language teaching through his six theories that focus on language teaching to promote CLT approaches. Krashen's (2003) second language acquisition (SLA) theory, the Monitor Model, stimulated the establishment of

the Natural Approach and Focal Skills in English Language Teaching (ELT). In view of that, CLT campaigners advise that grammar should be instructed inductively to guide learners to find out the rules themselves, as in linguistics' data problems, instead of teaching rules deductively, inductive method is more appropriate than giving students language rules (AbuSeileek,2009). Nonetheless, since adult students have analytical skills, they sometimes insist on gaining from explicit grammar teaching. Krashen's (2003) implication is that grammatical analysis and drills do not control CLT approaches because teachers realise that learners learn more by immersing themselves in the language than teaching the language.

Recent evidence suggests CLT approaches accommodate students' errors, but they are conscious that developing communicative competence comprises students developing interlanguages, or their own perception on how the language works, which is often flawed until learners develop a higher proficiency level of their own interlanguages (Swan,1998). A review of the literature indicates CLT approaches establish patterns of students' miscues, rather than taking students miscues wholesomely as though they are the same and therefore CLT teachers correct the patterns. It can be anticipated that CLT teachers' focus is not on accuracy at the expense of fluency or communicativeness according to Krashen's model theory, but they aim foremost for fluency, then for accuracy, while Swan (1998) concurs. According to Krashen's (2003) original writing in this field marks the distinction between writing competence and writing performance in line with Hymes (1989) mentioned elsewhere. This advocate for competence to be taken as a sub-conscious, nonfigurative understanding of what comprises good text. In view of that, competence should be attained for the most part through the act of reading competence, in other words, it means being cognizant of the application of rules or approaches that have been learnt and experienced (Hymes,1989). Therefore, the difference between competence and performance is in writing equivalents that are between attainment and learning in the L2 growth.

Krashen's (2003) research suggest that there is no basic deviation amid the way we learn our first language and our succeeding languages to effect CLT approaches. Krashen (2003) further maintains that people have an inborn capability that directs their language learning process. Young children gain knowledge of their mother

tongue by listening intently to spoken language that is meaningful to them of which L2 is attained in an identical way (Aktas,2017). The assertion that humans have an inborn language learning capability appears to stem from Chomsky (1965) who discarded Skinner's (1976) behaviourist view that language learning is habit development using a response and stimulus which Chomsky named the exceptional innate Language Acquisition Device (LAD) capability. From this view, Chomsky (1980) produced the theory that all languages share a fundamental structure named Universal Grammar. Further, Pinker (1994) a Linguist claimed that this capability is intertwined in the genes and reaffirmed the same hypothesis that the capacity to learn a language is inborn more recently.

While Chomsky (1980) and Pinker (1994) are nativists, Sampson (2005), was a contemporary empiricist who restated Skinner's (1967) claim that language develops in response to environmental influences and opposes their theories. There are previous linguists and cognitive scientists, such as O'Grady (2005), who concur that people have considerable inborn capabilities. Nonetheless, they propose that language learning is guaranteed by a common cognitive faculty rather than on a definite language acquisition mechanism.

However, Krashen (2003) maintains that there is no fundamental distinction between the way one acquires his first language and succeeding languages. Krashen still posits that people have an inborn capability that directs the language learning procedure concurring with (Chomsky,1965). Further, Krashen (2003) invented the Monitor Model, which is viewed as the most important and has two methods of developing language ability: that is by attainment through acquirement and by learning at school. Acquirement is an involuntary procedure, as in the situation of a child learning its own mother language or an adult 'picking up' the L2 by staying and operating in a foreign country, while learning is the mindful route of developing a foreign language by attending programmed lessons and a focus on the grammatical description of that language (Krashen,2003).

Krashen (2003) further proposes the natural order hypothesis, in which people learn languages in an expected system that does not rely on the apparent complexity or effortless way of the grammatical characters concerned. The enduring teaching

of this type the student is not really prepared to gain the language and cannot manipulate the natural order of acquisition.

The Monitor Hypothesis is one theory that enables human beings as proposed by Krashen (2003) that facilitate students to utilise what they have learnt about the rules of a language by giving the sense of monitoring, in view of where one corrects oneself. Further, Krashen (2003) states that for language output, which is clearly seen in the correction of written work but more difficult in a usual talk.

Krashen (2003) further presents the input theory, which requires language acquisition in one traditional way that of being exposed to written and spoken languages that is comprehensible, going by what Krashen (2003) terms the comprehensible input, as necessary but as well an adequate condition for language acquirement to take place, and needs nothing from the learner.

In language acquisition, it can be noted that effective filter theory helps in language attainment, as a 'screen' that is prejudiced by emotional sentiments that can stop learning and this theoretical filter does not involve acquisition straightaway but rather stops input stimulus from reaching the language acquisition part of the brain. In line with emotional clean up that provokes many diverse emotions such as anxiety, self-confidence, motivation and stress which Krashen (2003) concurs with his comprehensible input. Krashen's reading theory is a theory that asserts that the more we read in the L2 the better our vocabulary synonym-language becomes. This study, therefore, sees it imperative to engage reading-comprehension in the language classroom to augment knowledge of the language and the way it is utilised in a real-life context. In line with Krashen's, language attainment theory which does not need wide utilisation of syntactical regulations which does not call for tiresome drills from the teacher. However, Krashen's monitor theory has provoked widespread debate.

2.3.7. A critical view of Krashen's comprehensible input

Krashen (2003) presents the comprehensible input theory, which requires language acquisition in one traditional way, that of being exposed to written and spoken language that is comprehensible in terms of the input Krashen advocates for, as well as adequate conditions for language acquisition to take place, that needs nothing from

the learner because of his/her L1 knowledge. Krashen (2003) further state that in language acquisition, it can be observed that the effective filter theory that settles itself in language attainment, is a screen that is prejudiced by emotional sentiments that can stop learning and this theoretical filter does not involve acquisition straightaway but rather stops input stimulus from reaching the language acquisition part of the brain. In line with that, the emotional clean up may be provoked by many diverse emotions such as anxiety, self-confidence, motivation and stress while Krashen (2003) upholds. Krashen's (2003) reading theory asserts that the more we read in the L2 the better our vocabulary synonym-language grows. This study sees it imperative to engage reading in the language classroom to augment knowledge of the language and the way it is utilised in the real-life background. In line with Krashen's theories, language attainment does not need wide utilisation of syntactical regulations and does not call for tiresome drill from the teacher where; syntax is the centre for Hymes's (1989) argument with (Chomsky, 1965).

As such, Krashen (2003) refers to that instance of comprehensible input as caretaker speech (CS), occasionally referred to as baby talk, teacher talk, or foreigner talk by (Gregg, 1984). In view of Krashen's claims the student initially acquires support from one's knowledge of L1 acquisition which Krashen (2003) categorises as CS, where the language is particularly directed to learners who are learning their L1 which makes it easier in a way for communication to assist the L2 acquisition. As such, this study challenges that Krashen is misguided in creating such an assertion of those types of simplified inputs. Krashen's (1985) stance can be refuted on two bases: firstly, in the L1 acquisition, CS does not always entail simplified speech; secondly, "comprehensible" input does not unavoidably denote "simplified" or "caretaker speech". In view of the above, is caretaker speech (CS) simplified speech? On the balance of probability, CS is assumed to bear the following qualities: 1) that it is simplified for communication; 2) that it is roughly-tuned to the child's level, and 3) that it concerns the child's direct surroundings. Krashen (1985) stance utilises CS as confirmation for the input hypothesis primarily because it is generally taken to simplify communication, which he perceives as one method that creates the comprehensible input. It is however debatable; though, that CS ought to be simpler in grammar structures than in adult speech (AS). As such, input by utilising specific proportion of data, have exposed that CS is not grammatically simpler than in AS in such features

as canonical subject verb object (SVO) functions of sentences: clauses with deletion or movement of elements, questions and imperatives in which (Gregg, 1984) concurs.

As a result, foreigner talk, for instance, desires to be "roughly-tuned to the level of the non-native speaker" for the input to be comprehensible (Krashen, 1985: 9). Conversely, White (1987) and Gregg (1984) criticise this form of input and dispute the reasoning. As such, White (1987) utilises a couple of instances of deprived input or non-target structures to emphasise the threats of simplified input. This study disputes that because mere sentences do not include many complicated language properties if students are called upon only this way; they are disadvantaged in the certain important input. Besides, not all teachers or native-speakers will modify their speech contrary to speech rate and spoken discourse and its analysis to affect their speech rate (AL-Magid, Mohammed, 2005). This study, therefore notes that there are some extreme cases, where there are bad teachers and insensible or incompetent native-speakers who do not know their audience to realise input, even though some native-speakers do that, it does not mean merely to simplify the speech.

Krashen (2003) highlights the fact that the more one reads, the more one's vocabulary synonym-language is augmented. Krashen (2003) reaffirms the methods, that support the communicative-language-teaching approach as designed to simplify teaching and learning of the four language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—to involve learners in reading-comprehension as it emphasises talking and interaction. This study has noted that reading-comprehension skills, can improve students if they listen to the teacher and other people speaking the same language to improve their speaking, writing, and pronunciation. Current evidence suggests CLT approaches used in Zimbabwe can help students discuss the topics in their lessons, with others in their classes (pairs or groups) and enhance their language in preparation for examinations to come. Further, games and pair work activities, though sometimes not supported on other specified representations, promote language manipulation by presenting students with a certain amount of choice (Aktas, 2017).

In dismissing the input hypothesis argument this researcher thinks it is overclaimed and takes it to be invalid as supported by McLaughlin (1987) and Brown (2000), who both argue against it internally and externally. Further, the comprehensible input

hypothesis itself is not the single fundamental factor in the acquisition. It is disputed that the acquisition of language form can still take place without input. Conversely, internal functions or internally determined structures can as well advance grammatical modifications and guide the acquisition of definite grammatical structures. As such, White (1987: 98) quotes the instance of "the passive voice structure from Berwick and Weinberg (1984), who have proved that the learner can attain the passive voice form in his/her first language, merely by being supported by his/her prevailing grammatical or vocabulary knowledge, without the need for some contextual or extra-linguistic knowledge". In view of the very comparable structures underlying L1 and L2 acquisition, White (1987: 98) reveals the likelihood that "there may be more than one potential route for grammar change".

2.4.0. Language skills needed to answer O-level comprehension and summary exam questions in Zimbabwe parentheses

A review of literature in this section focuses on discussing the importance of language skills required for answering O-level reading-comprehension questions to answer research questions 1-3. It will indicate that eight language skills are required for answering questions and achieving expertise over the sentence structure, grammar, writing reading-comprehension, summary writing, and composition and for general writing. Following this, the researcher has also shed light on the syllabus that contributes towards sufficient understanding and gathering of knowledge in this reading-comprehension (Appendix-W). However, students themselves make efforts to understand the meaning of words, ideas and sentences. It suggests that teaching O-level students is based on CLT approaches and practising reading-comprehension. For ESL candidates, generative grammar strategies are also considered effective. English Language learning should purposefully focus on portraying generative grammar to augment reading-comprehension. To focus the skills, the syllabus projects language teaching to be legitimated by integrating language structures into Zimbabwean culture in relationship to students' social, economic, political, scientific and technological experiences that mirror national needs (Appendix-W). As such, the syllabus relates teaching to O-levels to aim:

...at promoting in pupils an awareness of the usefulness of the English Language as a medium of national and international communication through the value of effective

language command and use of personal and national development strategies. It further investigates the development of reading abilities and necessary success skills that are useful for everyday life such as newspapers, reports, synonym language, keywords, recognizing question types and general reading habits of books that are essential for understanding books on various subjects across the curriculum. (ZIMSEC, O-level Syllabus, 2008: 2-3).

By itself, the syllabus encourages, reading-comprehension students, to follow:

...the sequence of events in texts and recognise how language is used to understand it. To follow the development of an argument and recognise the main propositions and exemplifying or qualifying details and identify the writer's attitude(s) towards his or her subject. The syllabus urges students to understand explicitly stated information and infers information that indirectly states texts in prose passages (ZIMSEC, O-level Syllabus, 2008: 2-3).

Evidence suggests that the syllabus provides an opportunity for students to obtain sufficient understanding and knowledge of English Language become effective users of English Language in their daily lives, where they are encouraged to communicate effectively in both spoken and written to express themselves creatively in imaginative writing (Appendix-W). As a result, students need to unlock the main or underlying meanings of words, sentences and ideas within a given passage, which will obviate the need for them not to simply memorise for the sake of exams.

Having weighed the evidence, the features of the content of materials provided in the CLT approaches enable practice of reading-comprehension question types, to enhance the approach of teaching L2 O-level students to practise reading-comprehension (Al-Magid, 2005). It can be noted that the purposes of language teaching and learning are not primarily for competence in verbal and sociolinguistic interaction but for proficiency in sentence-level grammar, written comprehension, composition and summary writing and writing in general, (Appendix-W) which are the skills examined in the comprehensive O-Level English Language final examinations in Zimbabwe (Maposa, 1992). In view of that, the syllabus materials are designed to show the development of proficiency in these L2 students' communicative competencies (Appendix-W). As such, communicative competence is the researcher's reference to a term in linguistics, which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology, and semantics as well as social knowledge about how and when to use these utterances appropriately (Hymes, 1992). Chomsky (1965) explicates it as part of the foundations for his generative grammar that may not

augment ESL O-level candidates to respond appropriately to various authentic reading-comprehension question types.

Chomsky (1965) designed generative grammar approaches for ESL candidates to create a clear atmosphere in the learner's mind in the learning of four language skills in English—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—intended to augment reading-comprehension. According to Chomsky, (1965) and Hymes, (1992) maintenance of grammar competence is a perfect ESL speaker-hearer's understanding of his/her language and is the “mental reality” responsible for all those aspects of language use characterised as 'linguistics. As such, this researcher argues that only under an idealised situation is the speaker-hearer unaffected by grammatically irrelevant conditions such as memory limitations and distractions, whereby, performance may be a direct reflection of generative grammar competence (Hymes,1989). A sample of natural speech character consisting of numerous false starts and other deviations will not provide such data and therefore, this study, claims that a fundamental distinction to be made between language competence and performance, directly affects reading-comprehension classes (Krashen,2003). This includes the importance of syntax in O-level reading-comprehension exams which refers to the rules used to join words into meaningful sentences.

2.4.1. Importance of Syntax in reading-comprehension

Research by Krashen (2003) has major implications for the teaching of reading-comprehension writing in the L2 to realise research question 1 and 2. Therefore, current evidence suggests that a discussion about the significance of syntax in reading-comprehension highlights the noteworthiness of understanding syntax before adopting suitable strategies for incorporating CLT approaches in teaching reading-comprehension. As such, different approaches suggest a review of the significance of syntax in reading-comprehension to understand the importance of syntax in adopting appropriate strategies to incorporate CLT approaches in teaching reading-comprehension. Hymes's (1989) views about communicative competence ask if there is any relationship between grammar and reading-comprehension in line with Chomsky's Universal Grammar performance competence where he believes that children are born with an inherited ability to learn any human language. On the balance

of probability to this question, Meier's (2014) research, suggests that as students learn to employ complex key sentences in their oral and written language, their ability to make sense of what they read increases, too. While evidence from Rupley et al., (1999) suggests that syntax in vocabulary development purports to syntactic factors that are highly related to reading-comprehension meaning that simply knowing syntax may allow the reader to decide its parts of speech or what the word means, Harmer (2007) concurs. Evidence passed by, Maposa (1992) maintains that a discussion of meaning in a typical literature lesson style may lead to the study of the grammatical structures that may be taught inductively, as something emanating from literary analysis, to augment reading-comprehension learning while also Harmer (2002) concurs. Krashen (2003) highlights the fact that the more one reads, the more one's vocabulary synonym-language is augmented. Krashen (2003) reaffirms that methods, that support CLT approaches which are designed to simplify teaching and learning of the four language skills—listening, speaking, reading, and writing—augment reading-comprehension as they emphasise talking and interaction. This study has noted that syntax knowledge, can help students improve if they listen to the teacher for better use of grammar parts of speech and other people speaking the same language to improve their speaking, writing, and pronunciation. This happens when teachers encourage students to collaborate with contemporaries and native speakers of a language through listening to how they speak to expand communicative strategies to augment self-confidence. Teachers can also attempt to take in many kinds of reading-comprehension questions from learners to deliberate on the content of texts and invite learners to scrutinise their listening performance and engage in discussions. To reinforce the strategy, they can model answers and clear-up and regularly involve learners in setting up goals and objectives on tasks and plan tasks, self-monitor, and assess themselves and control their listening reading-comprehension. Current evidence suggests approaches used in Zimbabwe can help students discuss the topics in their lessons with others in their classes through pair or groups to enhance their language in preparation for examinations to come. Further, games and pair work activities, though sometimes not supported on other specified representations, promote language manipulation by presenting students with a certain amount of choice.

A review of the literature indicates that targeting CLT approaches when teaching grammar appears to have an effect on reading-comprehension and summary writing to promote strategies that teach key words and sentences to help students to understand what they read; most likely, because they help them understand how keyword sentences affect paragraphs (Meier, 2014) concurs. As such, this researcher suggests that being familiar with the vocabulary of grammar (verbs, adjective) benefits students' understanding and this is supported by the researcher's experience and findings in this study, which confirm that for any speaking exercise to have the intended result; students must acknowledge that there, is a genuine rationale for asking a question, participating in a discussion, or supplying information for discussion (Rupley,1999). From that underlying principle, teachers should be certain that activities they are presenting to the students offer strong grounds for talking which includes answering questions, acting in a game or finding out information from passages during reading-comprehension brainstorming sessions in the classroom.

As such, questions that test the students' ability to give the meanings of words and expressions can enhance students' important language skills needed to answer reading-comprehension questions. As a result, important language skills needed to answer reading-comprehension questions should be enhanced through extensive reading to augment the students' vocabulary synonym-language and expressions in the contexts, which they utilise in acquiring the contextual meanings of the words or expressions in prose-passages (Krashen, 2003; Hedge, 2003). However, many students fail to do this due to the lack of proper reading-comprehension skills. The meanings of the words and expressions should be given in the same part of speech as the word in question. For example, students can be asked to give the meaning of a word (ridiculously) by recognising their synonym-language to get word meanings that word should be in the same part of speech as ridiculously as used in the passage (Appendix 5-7).

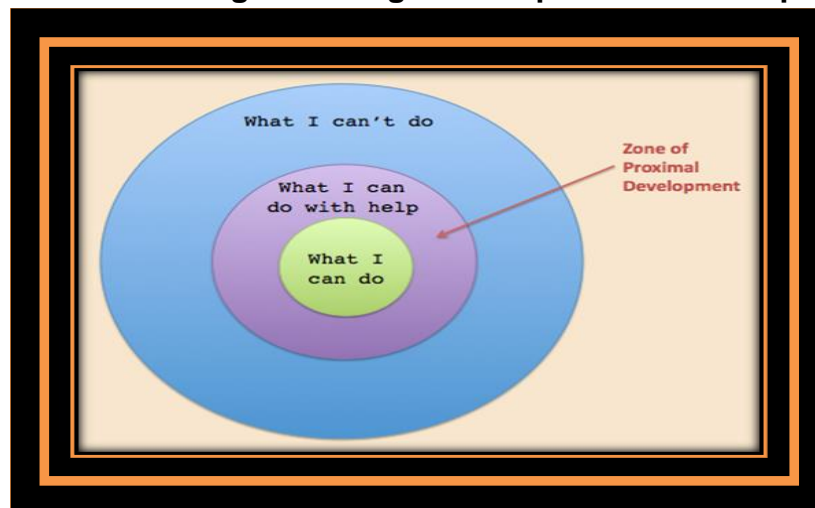
Syntax ought to be reviewed as rule-based to help to understand reading-comprehension. Research has reported debates over the years in the circles of English Language teaching on whether grammar should be taught deductively or inductively in relationship to reading-comprehension. Incidentally, there were debates on the teaching of English in Zambia where Chikalanga (1983) proposed the teaching of syntax inductively, by presenting situations and then helping students form

overviews. Evidence suggests for syllogistic reasoning approach to teaching syntax as an example, in Haight et al., (2007: 288-309) research that revealed “teachers ...who tended to state some kind of rule, then give an example, and then repeat the rule, were more successful than those who did not”. However, Haight et al., (2007) were not specifically referring to the teaching of grammar, but it may be interesting to find out whether inductive or deductive teaching leads to the better acquisition of grammatical knowledge to support reading-comprehension. Nevertheless, since learners’ learning methods are likely to establish the degrees to which they benefit from these two approaches, which include both inductive and deductive presentations of language structures, will most likely meet the needs of various students (Maposa, 1992). What needs to be emphasised is that the teachers should facilitate a conscious and not a passive learning of grammar. Chikalanga maintains:

...grammar is the means through which linguistic creativity is ultimately achieved, and an inadequate knowledge of grammar would be a serious limitation (comprehension). This knowledge of the grammatical system of the second language, unlike that of the mother tongue, has to be acquired by the learner through a conscious process (Chikalanga, 1983: 12).

Different approaches advocate for teaching grammar or linguistic structures deliberately in accordance with recommendations that have already been proposed implicitly by Nyawaranda (1989), and explicitly by Maposa (1992). When thinking about Zimbabwe, one of the reasons why grammar is not taught consciously is because of the adherence to and the misinterpretation of the CLT approaches. Therefore, this study reviews the literature that indicates that CLT approaches aim at equipping the ESL learner with the knowledge of utilising language structures to construct meaning and thereby improve and overcome challenges in reading-comprehension. As such, communicative competence is significant in Zimbabwe because ESL students use and speak the language as they learn to converse appropriately through utilisation of CLT approaches to creating language skills needed for exam purposes (Wilkins, 1983). That being the case, evidence suggests students are not confronted with the shifting character of reading tasks, that is why Hopkins (2005) advocates that students should avail themselves with synonym-language strategies to help them succeed with reading-comprehension tasks as students may also lack some of the strategies that good readers put into practice as they read (Pressley, 2000).

Figure 2.1: Author's image showing zone of proximal development (ZPD)



Centre-middle circle: what the student can learn without help
Second-circle: what student can learn with help.

Third-outer circle: what student cannot do.
ZPD: area of 'potential' where learning takes place?

Good readers should sit with struggling readers to interact with each other, in line with Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD). Vygotsky (1978) believes that learning takes place within the ZPD. Vygotsky (1978) and Bandura (1986) maintain students can learn, with help from more capable adults or peers to master concepts and ideas that they cannot understand on their own. Some students might not be able to recount the content background knowledge on reading-comprehension or simply lack sufficient fluency to achieve reading-comprehension success. It can be noted that a number of pupils learn/study for themselves on their own on how to identify strategies used in one domain, such as English Literature, to other domains, such as History and Science (Anderson and Pearson,1984). Further, some students are not able to practise to enhance these strategies on their own and might never know how to apply them to the expository text found in Science, History, Biology, and other content subjects. These students might have limited background knowledge in the relevant areas which might be widened through organised field trips (Snow and Biancarosa, 2004). The structure of high school texts may also present challenges to these students as the expository text is the commonest text structure in most high school work.

Students can be exposed to expository texts and more significantly, may not have been taught reading-comprehension strategies using expository texts (Santa, 2004).

Current evidence suggests that common categories for expository texts comprise cause/effect, problem/solution, comparison/contrast, chronological order or series, concept ideas with examples, and proposals with support. As such, students encounter expository texts across their content-area courses and expository texts are found in newspapers and magazine articles, Science and Social Studies texts and research articles, which may exist in categorised disciplines. However, research has it that some individual students who might be fluent may lack the utilisation of reading-comprehension strategies, such as creating questions, summarising, preparing and monitoring strategies on their reading-comprehension (Carlisle and Rice, 2002) which then is applied in learning reading-comprehension, to help students identify themes and strategies to infer texts and monitor them. As such, communicative competence is significant in Zimbabwe because ESL students use and speak the language as they learn to converse appropriately through utilisation of CLT approaches to creating language skills needed for exam purposes. In view of that, students have challenges in other components of language to gain meaning from their reading-comprehension.

2.4. 2. Challenges students are facing with O-level reading-comprehension exams

Dependable evidence from the literature suggests that reading-comprehension challenges also occur in learners who are in fact *good* decoders and spellers which categorically answers questions 1-3. On another point, a breakdown in reading-comprehension can happen for a number of reasons, detailed below. On the other hand, lack of knowledge regarding this language knowledge is another challenge. This often causes disinterest towards the subject. As such, this section will examine challenges O-level ESL learners face in the process of utilising language structures in communicative language teaching to overcome these challenges in reading-comprehension. A review of the literature indicates that nothing is less than learning itself that does not depend on vocabulary synonym-language, especially for ESL learners. For example, learning to be a strategic reader can promote reading-comprehension and “failing to be strategic in reading may result in either developmental inability or poor learning” (Paris et al., 1983: 293).

According to the assessment of reading-comprehension one of the challenges that the teachers have always remarked on has been how to identify the reader's missing skills

in reading-comprehension. As such, this study advocates for the identification of challenges that should be tackled, in two progressions: Firstly, the students must develop to be capable interpreters of new words to develop gradually a sizable vocabulary in order to answer O-level reading-comprehension questions through the help of an expanded synonym-language. Secondly, the students must be competent enough to understand or attach meaning to those new words so that they can interpret meaning to develop language skills needed to answer reading-comprehension questions in sentences, paragraphs, pages, and entire prose passages in readiness for O-level reading-comprehension exams. Current evidence suggests that training should relate to supporting the learning of reading-comprehension that demands that successful reading-comprehension should depend on appropriate strategy usage for students to improve their reading-comprehension by involving those strategies effectively (Farrell, 2001). As such, this research has discovered that the teaching of reading-comprehension by teachers may take various forms of approaches in teaching to lessen students' challenges by using the CLT approaches, which make students interact to reduce challenges (Maposa, 1992). If the precise challenges students face regarding reading-comprehension are diagnosed, teachers need to start remedying the challenges early enough. Having weighed the evidence there appears to be more testing than teaching students to develop their reading-comprehension skills in order to overcome challenges. It seems teachers give an entire reading-comprehension passage as a test before actually processing it using various methods of teaching, then mark the answers right or wrong (Appendices R1-22). This takes place before giving informative corrective models to students' work with regard to grammatical and vocabulary perceptions, eventually, teachers give another similar exercise that further threatens the students that they should do better or else they fail (Corder, 2009). As a result, the challenges students face is further exacerbated in that the teachers do not give detailed reasons for the answers, (Appendices R1-22) or teach students strategies to utilise in order to do better in future as it becomes difficult for students to learn and improve when they only spend their time in making more mistakes!

There are other methods available than to constantly test or lecture to students, such as instructional scaffolding students' memory by systematically building on students' experiences and knowledge as they are learning new skills. Instructional scaffolding refers to a progression through which an instructor enhances support for learners in

order to augment learning and assist in the mastery of tasks. As such, evidence suggests that constructivist teaching can aid that, when it is based on the belief that learning occurs, when students have actually involved in a process of interpretation and knowledge construction as opposed to passively receiving information from the teacher, as students are the makers of their learning and knowledge. It can be argued that constructivist teaching fosters critical thinking and creates motivated and independent students' thinkers as it involves the skills' method, which provides students with practice in doing simple and small things properly before they are challenged to do things that are more difficult (Jonassen, 1999). When simply put, students gain knowledge stage by stage, progressing from easy to difficult, mastering each stage along the way to overcome the challenges. It can be argued that the skills' method is the normal approach to teaching and involves knowing the distinction between general knowledge or 'content' and actual English Language success skills necessary. By highlighting the main objective of a lesson pupils understand particular bits of content, and communicate language skills in writing, reading, listening and speaking to introduce new learning. This is achieved by introducing background knowledge which may come from a learner's experience of the topic, vocabulary and structure of a new text.

2.4. 3. Preparational strategies showing the advantage of background knowledge

From a different viewpoint, this section will discuss advantages of preparational strategies and the reasons behind their importance in teaching reading-comprehension effectively to realise questions one and two. They do that by viewing Gunning's (2006) preparation strategy as a consolidating factor in teaching reading-comprehension to stimulate previous knowledge (see Fig 2.3: 58; 2.4: 64) about a particular topic when students read, while Marzano (2014) and Kumar (2012) results supply such vivid background-experiences to augment the language skills. Klaus (2013) maintains that teaching strategies include methods that help the teacher to teach using chalkboards and whiteboards, posters, calendars, charts, book drawings and pictures as visual teaching aids that can appeal to the students' aligned background knowledge Klaus (2013) which when applied to this study teachers can avoid lecturing. Background knowledge can be enhanced by taking students on field

educational trips. As such, apparatus is used to get students to think about the topic they are about to read, which is much easier when the students' background knowledge activates skills needed to answer O-level reading-comprehension questions and in which Gunning's (2006) identified predicting as another type of preparational strategy that involves previewing parts of the text to aid reading-comprehension. On that point, Gunning's (2006) research revealed that segments of visual aids supportive of retrieving information are pictures, diagrams, titles, and the covers of the book pictures.

As such, story titles may trigger memories of texts with similar content, allowing readers to predict the content of the new texts and may tend to revise any prediction strategy that is not confirmed by reading. This study supports the view that good visual aids utilising predicting as a strategy to link prior background knowledge to connect new knowledge in order to get meaning from what learners read and use when they know about the texts to forecast what a comprehension text will be about (Marzano, 2014). On the other hand, as students contemplate what will take place on the subject and the extracts, they focus their attention to understand better, their aligned background knowledge for the assignment to come; they will, therefore, be guided through a process that influences natural development in learning especially field trip and Clarke and Silberstein (1994) concur. As such, learners approach the assignment armed with a plethora of multimedia resources, as it is important to remember that teaching aids are meant to stimulate students' learning by aligning their background knowledge to new knowledge; hence, learning aids should accompany all lessons to provide enlightenment to new learning and Klaus (2013) supports the idea.

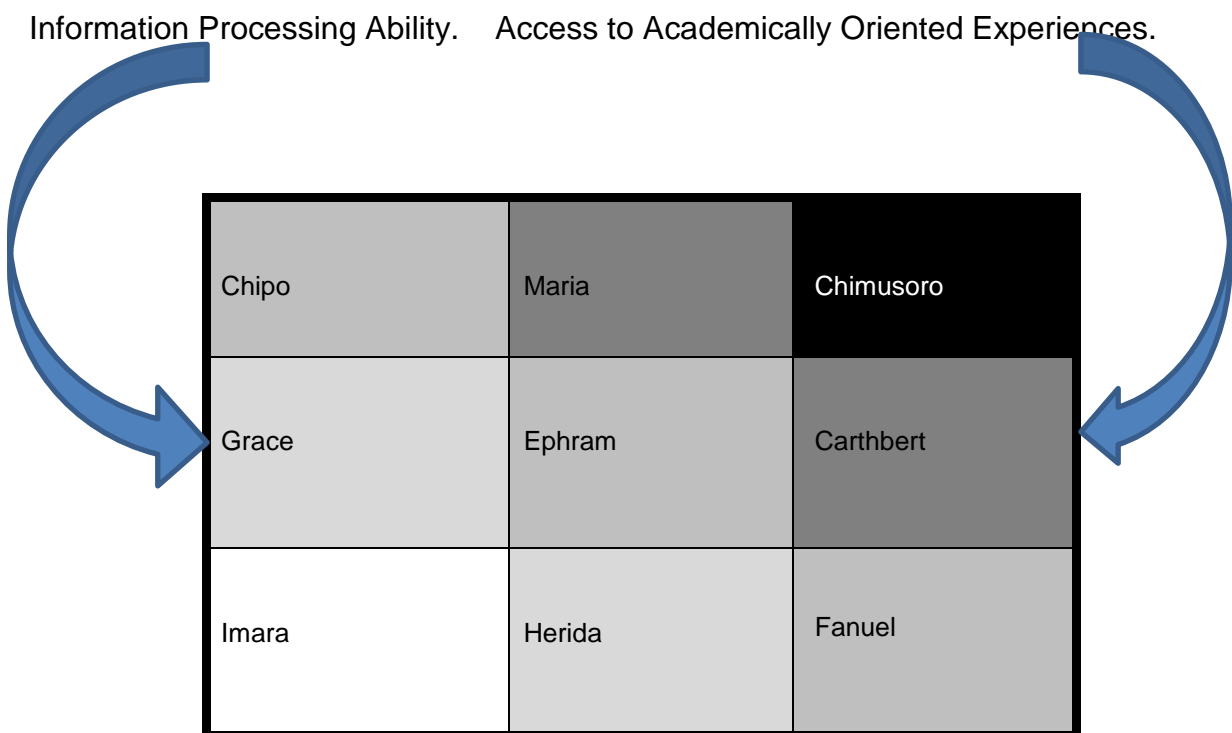
Schema theory clarifies how our prior knowledge experiences, sentiments, and considerations impact how and what we learn (Harvey and Goudvis, 2000). The schema is the knowledge background and practice learners bring to the prose passage which good readers use previous knowledge and involvement to assist them to comprehend what they read before to enable them to use that information to connect to new knowledge (Marzano, 2004). However, less able learners frequently move straight through a manuscript without pausing to reflect on whether the manuscript has some sense based on their own prior knowledge background, or whether their data

can be utilised to assist them to comprehend unclear or challenging materials (Keene and Zimmermann, 1997).

In view of that Keene and Zimmermann have suggested seven strategies for teaching reading-comprehension

- 1)-Determining what is Important - identifying themes and diminishing focus on less important ideas or pieces of information,
- 2) -drawing Inferences - combining background knowledge and textual information to draw conclusions and interpret facts;
- 3) -using prior knowledge - building on previous knowledge and experiences to aid in comprehension of the text;
- 4) -asking questions - wondering and inquiring about the book before, during, and after reading;
- 5) -monitoring reading-comprehension and
- 6) -meaning - Using an inner voice to think about if the text makes sense or not;
- 7) -creating mental images - Implementing the five senses to build images in the mind that enhance the experience of reading (1997: online)

Figure 2.2: Author’s image Showing Interactions of Factors Affecting Academic Background Knowledge



In view of that Biggs (2003) concurs that students who have a great deal of aligned background knowledge in a given subject are likely to learn new information quite easily when it is augmented by the use of learning aids, on which Figure 2.3: 58 confirms the importance of interaction of students’ information processing capacity with their access to academically oriented experiences that produce their academic aligned background knowledge. Biggs (2007) further reiterates ‘that learning takes

place through the active involvement of the students by emphasising that the student does the learning, as opposed to the teacher doing' the lecturing. That being the case, learning is student-centred, and the outcome is focused through background knowledge, however, opposing this view are disparities in the factors that revealed a discrepancy in students' academic background knowledge and subsequently, their achievement. As such, further examination of the interaction of these factors paints a sobering picture of the academic advantages possessed by some students and not others (Marzano, 2014). Figure 2.2 represents nine students with different levels of capacity to process and store information. The darker the box, the more academic background knowledge a learner has; in this case, Chimusoro has the most background knowledge. He has immense strong contact with experiences that enhance the academic background knowledge capacity to process and store those experiences similar to the bright student referred to in Chapter 4 in this study.

Factors on background knowledge are illustrated in Figure 2.3 which shows how previous knowledge influence academic performance through the impact of the experience base students have in school (Marzano, 2014). As such, academic background knowledge brings better performance in school subjects as Marzano (2014) propounds that the more academically inclined experiences one has, the more prospects one will enjoy academically because of aligned background knowledge which enhances understanding in new information.

Therefore, Figure 2.3 shows Rosemary, who is performing at 50 percent in her school work in terms of both her background knowledge and academic achievement (Marzano, 2004). Figure 2.3 further demonstrates that Rosemary's achievement is shown as 50 percent in the middle (level 2). As such, if her background knowledge is increased by one standard deviation (that is, move her from the 50 percent to the 84 percent deviation), her academic achievement is expected to increase from 50 percent to 75 percent deviation (level 3) (Marzano, 2014).

Figure 2.3. Author's Image Showing Rosemary's academic achievement at three levels of academic background knowledge.

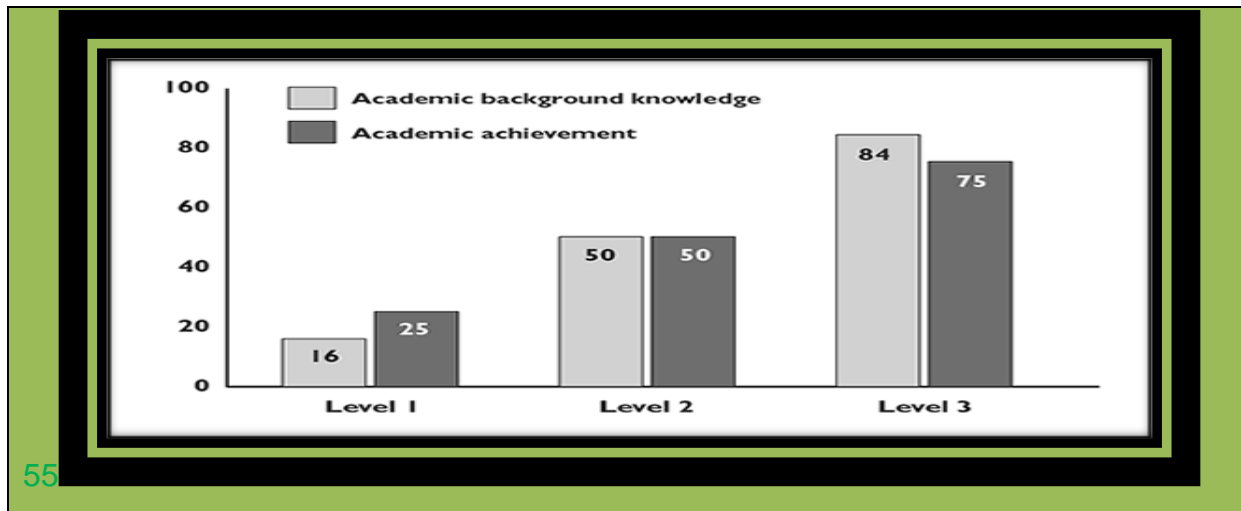


Figure Illustrating Levels 1, Level 2 and level 3 as explained in relationship to Achievement due to background knowledge

Conversely, if Rosemary's academic background knowledge is decreased by one standard deviation (that moves her from 50 percent to 16 percent), her academic achievement is expected to drop to the 25 percent deviation (level 1) (Marzano, 2004). Therefore, the three graphs (above) demonstrate the dramatic impact of academic aligned background knowledge for success in school performance. The levels shown at the bottom of Figure 2.3 represent the distribution of background knowledge either increasing to cause movement to the right or decreasing to cause movement to the left from the middle to affect Rosemary's performance.

That means students who have a great deal of background knowledge in a given subject area are likely to learn and retain new information readily Marzano (2014) as figure 2.3 shows. The research represents factors on Figure 2.3 that influence the development of academic background knowledge with an academically oriented experiential base, the number of experiences that will directly add to the knowledge of content we encounter in school (Marzano, 2014). This study, therefore, advocates for restructured and repeated exposure to new words in order to increase experiences, in order to prepare the student to encounter words in various contexts, where extensive reading, appears to enhance vocabulary development. As such, substituting easy words with more difficult ones can assist low-achieving students to develop through hierarchical levels which Apollo teachers can employ. Ultimately by employing

background knowledge, it is imperative and paramount for students to make reading-comprehension successful and motivational to enable them to overcome challenges to succeed.

2.5.0. Methods that Enhance acquisition of Vocabulary Synonym Language

A review of the literature indicates that English Second language (ESL) students need a great deal of vocabulary as an essential tool in their vocabulary toolbox to make their writing style more powerful and effective to help them say exactly what they mean by creating a particular technique and tone for their readers. As such, this essential tool helps the ESL learner choose the best word for the writing s/he does and avoid vague words that do not give her/his readers a good sense of meaning. For that reason, the building of one's vocabulary is imperative for the individual to improve the power of writing that makes her/his reading-comprehension writing task much less challenging, as the ESL learner will always have several words on her/his repertoire to pull from each time. In order for ESL student to develop, s/he needs lots of vocabulary synonym-language in the storehouse. As a result, this section will discuss four ways students can use to reload their storehouses in order to improve reading-comprehension vocabulary synonym-language such as 1) Pair and group work interaction; 2) Semantic mapping; 3) Extensive reading, and 4) Intensive reading with pairs and group-work.

2.5.1. What makes reading-comprehension successful in O-level exam questions

A review of the literature demonstrates how success in reading-comprehension can be achieved through extensive reading to reduce the students' challenges. I, therefore, give an example of the impact of extensive reading based on my own experience at X school (Table 2.1: 62) concurring with Krashen (2003) reading theory. As such, I urge teachers to support students to undertake extensive reading in order to acquire more vocabulary to augment their reading-comprehension skills in line with Krashen (2003).

Hedge (2003) maintains that one of the most reassuring results of extensive reading is a noticeable increase in the students' reading-comprehension success confirmed in Table 2.1. Current evidence suggests, "When we examine the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading-comprehension, we find a very strong correlation" (Blachowicz, 1999: 213). On the other hand, correlation does not signify there is a

discriminatory cause-and-effect relationship between the two; rather, this study seeks to demonstrate that there is a strong association between vocabulary synonym-language acquisition and students' extensive reading in relation to reading-comprehension performance. As such, it maintains that vocabulary acquisition, through extensive reading, enables readers to augment vocabulary synonym-language to their mental lexicon and improve their understanding of reading-comprehension texts (Krashen,2003), while Adelman (2006) concurred that if students cannot read and comprehend well, much of this knowledge will be beyond their comprehension. It can be asserted that vocabulary is tested by reading-comprehension that is the ultimate goal of reading, but this goal cannot be achieved unless learners can recognise the words in the passage (Weiser, 2013). More exactly, Weiser's (2013) vocabulary development focus is based on helping students learn the meaning of new words and concepts in various contexts and across all academic content areas. Further, Weiser supports that a:

...limited vocabulary knowledge can negatively affect the development of a student's reading-comprehension skills. There is a strong relationship between vocabulary knowledge and reading-comprehension; students need to understand the meaning of critical words they will be reading to promote reading-comprehension. Vocabulary knowledge, along with background knowledge, provides students with a better chance of understanding the texts they read (Weiser, 2013: online).

The students' lexicon reflects the frequency of exposure to certain words, which in turn, reveals the identification of words' meanings in context. Conversely, students with a limited mental lexicon will most likely be limited in vocabulary scope throughout their reading-comprehension experiences (Xhaferi and Xhaferi, 2008). As previously mentioned, specific types of obstacles to reading-comprehension success depend on the number of unknown keywords in a passage, including a lack of language skills needed to help students answer O-level question-types. Blachowicz (1999: 215) reaffirms that "A large number of unknown words in a conventional text should not obstruct reading-comprehension understanding" if students are taught to use contexts properly. For that reason, the more extensive reading the readers undertake, the higher their probability of understanding and enjoying what they read (Blachowicz, 1999).

Evidence suggests, “Vocabulary knowledge has consistently been found to be a strong predictor of reading-comprehension success” with enhanced language skills needed to help students answer O-level questions (Ewers and Brownson, 1999: 11). As such, Blachowicz (1999: 214) maintains, “When a student fails to show good reading-comprehension understanding, the problem can sometimes be traced to lack of familiarity with new words and a lack of sufficient reading-comprehension practice”. At the outset, teachers should introduce new words one by one before students begin reading a passage to lessen challenges. While research explicates that no matter how well the student learns grammar, no matter how successful the sounds of L2 are mastered, communication in the L2 just cannot happen in any meaningful way without words to express a wider range of words (McCarthy and Carter, 1994). Even more beneficial than that is to provide students with word-attacking skills so that they are able to read and deduce meanings of unfamiliar words, independent of the teacher (Herman et al., 1987). Kelly and Clausen (2008) advocate for reducing the pressure on students by suggesting meaningful ways of integrating reading-comprehension with other content subjects so that students can frequently practise reading-comprehension while learning other subjects. This integration enhances reading-comprehension success (Ndebele, 2009).

Table.2.1. Yearly Percentage Pass-Rates for X School

Year	Number of candidates	Number that passed 5 subjects including the English language	Percentage pass rate
1996	100	10	10
1997	102	12	12
1998	102	11	11
1999	100	40	40

In support of this, this study, in line with the researcher’s experience at X school where the researcher once taught, a class was involved in a reading programme from Form1 to Form 4 (O-level); as such, at the end of four years, the examination results improved from previous years (see Table, 2.1). Two expatriate teachers donated library books used for this exercise. This gave English Language teachers encouragement to introduce a reading programme to Form 1 classes in 1996. The English Language

teachers were not transferred from this school until these students wrote their final examination after 4 years. As such, we involved students in order to promote interaction with CLT approaches where they engaged in pair and group communicative engagement to augment their gains in various books read. Book reviews showed that students were gaining vocabulary synonym-language through extensive reading (Table,2.1) through written book reports.

2.5.2. Semantic mapping

In view of related activities using pairs and groups, this section views semantic mapping on how it is a tool to evaluate students' reading-comprehension in ESL aligned background knowledge, involving experience-text-relationships as procedures that emphasise reading-comprehension analysis, which is reading for meaning (Carrell et al., 1989). As such, semantic-mapping is based on the discussions intended to link to what the student already knows to what s/he will encounter in the following three steps:1) experience, 2) text, and 3) relationship (ETR) (Carrell et al.,1989). This experience phase encourages the teacher to lead the students in conversations using their reading-comprehension knowledge background experiences, aligned in some ways to the passage to be read (Marzano,2014). In the next step, the teacher needs to correct any mistakes made by students and in the forwarding step and the relationship sequence, the teacher can try to assist the students to draw relationships between the content of 88the reading-comprehension texts and outside experience to their new knowledge. As such, in all three stages, the teacher can try to model and direct the students logically through cognitive procedures to align understanding of written reading-comprehension texts, hence Carrell et al., (1989: 665) confirm by stating that:

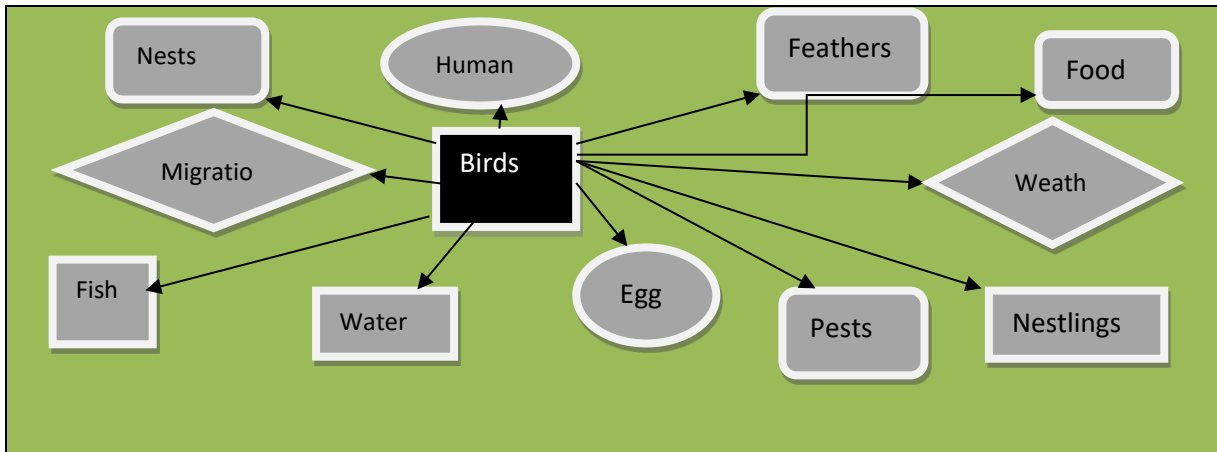
...metacognitive ("knowing about knowing) strategy training which does enhance ESL reading when compared to nonstrategic training, as in the control group (and, that) while there are similarities between the two methods in their enhancement of ESL reading on some measures, on other measures, there are differences between them. Our results show that there are significant interactions between students' learning styles and the effectiveness of training in the two different.

Evidence suggests that even though such small-scale research requires substantiation by "further experimental work," research has at least contributed towards the ESL method in raising awareness about the characteristics of effective language teaching/learning skills (Hedge 2003: 81).

Therefore, the final step, Carrell et al., (1989) gives the relationship sequence as the teacher can endeavour to help the students draw relationships between the reading-comprehension texts and students' outside background knowledge experience. In all three steps, the teacher is attempting to model and guide the students systematically through cognitive processes related to understanding written reading-comprehension texts (Carrell et al., 1989). More exactly, Gunning (2006) maintains that mapping allows students to see the relationships between words and reading-comprehension passage-concepts that students have previously experienced or read. In order to ensure that students grasp the features and purposes of mapping, the teacher can utilise a web with an empty centre (Rekrut, 1996) then fill in related words. As a paradigm shift, it becomes more and more difficult to provide direct experiences with new words because, instead of learning words by directly experiencing them, it is much more typical for new concepts to be learned through indirect experiences (Gunning, 1996) in the imagination of another individual. Firstly, we read about the new words and talk about the new knowledge, but we do not directly experience them. Secondly, vocabulary learning becomes more complex as kids progress through the grades/forms because words are organised into categories and subcategories (Gunning, 2006). Current evidence suggests that organising ideas and concepts according to categories is "natural" in the sense that good verbal learners all do it; learning to categorise can be complex and difficult for some students. Students can begin to understand the relationship of words on the web by choosing and considering words that might match the centre word as in Figure 2.4 (Gunning, 2006). Semantic Mapping is "an apparatus for arranging words graphically according to categories" (Gunning, 1996: 169). For itself, semantic mapping is often called a vivid arrangement for discussing, and webbing, although each approach seeks to achieve the same goal—to "stand for a significant idea and make students brainstorm in pairs or groups as many interconnected words as possible, which are written in broad categories" (Rekrut, 1996: 68). Processes of word identification, parsing, referential mapping, and a variety of inference processes all contribute to produce a mental vision-model of the text (Perfetti, 2004). Semantic mapping starts with a middle word and lets students expand on that word by adding connected concepts to words related to the middle word and associated categories, for instance, the teacher may surround the word birds (Fig.2.4) on the chalkboard. As a result, under the teacher's guidance, students make

subsections relating to birds--such as how they develop, where they live, what they eat in order to stay alive.

Figure 2.4. Author's Image showing semantic mapping with birds



In view of different kinds of birds—each of these broad topics branch off from the keyword birds, the same method can be done with words' families or other parts of speech (Perfetti, 2004). By using semantic mapping strategy, students can evaluate as many words as they can and write them in the suitable places. After reading more about birds, students repeatedly add and adjust the map to incorporate new words and terms connected to birds. It can be asserted that “Semantic mapping appears to help students classify words and focus on their similarities and dissimilarities on values which may serve as a structure which may increase recall” (Rekrut, 1996: 68). While Buzan (1993) extended this practice into a plot, he called mind mapping. As a result, “mind mapping” helps students think visually and engage into writing down, or more generally drawing, a vital proposal and accepted the wisdom of new and related data, which radiates out from the centre (Perfetti, 2004). To conclude, an easy concept is used to chart out the connections connecting characters in a story which may widen students' synonym-language base through drawing maps (see, Fig.2.4: 70) from recall to check what they still remember or plot a story read in extensive reading by semantic mapping.

2.5.3. Extensive Reading

This section examines the contribution of extensive reading to assist students to overcome challenges they face in vocabulary synonym-language deficiency as it is 1) a readily available form of comprehensible input; 2) that enhances a general language competence 3) by assisting learners to develop general word knowledge 4) that extends, consolidates and sustains vocabulary growth and 5) to create and sustain motivation for learners to read more (Maley, 2008). In light with that, Krashen (2003) explicates the importance of vocabulary synonym-language development by linking its size to the academic achievement of students (Fig, 2.2: 56; Table,2.1: 62) above. Krashen's (2003) reading input hypothesis fundamentally states that the more we read in the L2 the greater our vocabulary will be. It is imperative to involve reading in the language classroom to enhance knowledge of the language and the way it is exploited in real-life backgrounds as this reading input hypothesis aims to: 1) enlarge the range of vocabulary synonym-language; 2) develop the reading-comprehension skills; 3) consolidate the results of intensive reading; 4) to arouse interest in reading; 5) that forms the reading habit and 6) strengthen cultural consciousness in reading (Krashen, 2003). As such, the focus of extensive reading places emphasis on reading skills to augment synonym language in reading-comprehension that is acknowledged on four levels: 1) literal comprehension, 2) precognitive comprehension, 3) inferential comprehension, 4) ...evaluative comprehension. Considering the cognitive level of the senior middle school students, 2), 3) and 4) should be the focal points for extensive reading (Zhang, 2002). Some studies take extensive reading to mean, skimming and scanning and others relate it to the quantity of material, while Hafiz and Tudor maintain that:

...the pedagogical value to extensive reading assumes that exposing students to large quantities of meaningful and interesting L2 material will, in the end, produce a beneficial effect on the students' command of ESL (Tudor and Hafiz, 1989: 5).

Evidence suggests Krashen's (2003) comprehensive Input hypothesis, have shown renewed interest in extensive reading and the idea has been seen most beneficial in the various trends adopted by English language teaching (ELT) institutions. As such, students are encouraged to read independently by utilising the reading-comprehension materials within their level (Hedge, 2003: 200-201). On the other hand, there has been mounting interest lately in researching the value of extensive reading

where Hafiz and Tudor (1989) have carried out a three-month extensive reading agenda as an extra activity to augment synonym language. Their participants were looked at from the Pakistani ESL pool of students in a UK school and their parents were manual workers with limited formal education. As a result, findings provided a noticeable development in the performance of the experimented participants, especially in terms of their writing skills. As such, participants improved in their writing skills which might be due in part to “exposure to a range of lexical, syntactic, and textual features in reading-comprehension” as well as the nature of “the pleasure-oriented extensive reading” (Hafiz and Tudor, 1989: 8). This being the finding by Hafiz and Tudor (1989) in their research it concurs with the researcher’s findings at X school in Table, 2.1: 62.

On the other hand, Hedge (2003) argues that extensive reading diverges in line with students’ motivation and school resources. Shoebottom (2014) shifts his discussion to mean that the best way to acquire a large reading-comprehension vocabulary is to read extensively to support synonym-language. He reports that students have the opportunity to recognise words and reinforce what students already know or have learned in class to add to new reading-comprehension vocabulary by taking notes of unfamiliar words and using a dictionary to find their meanings at some point. The Reading Teacher journal deals with this support as publishers of lists of over 300 newly published books for students that teachers have reviewed and recommended. In Zimbabwe Ngugi’s (1986) literature and Chinodya’s (1994) Step Ahead, New Secondary English support this purpose. Hedge collaborates in a theory that extensive reading assists in developing reading-comprehension vocabulary capacity, which must be developed to fit into an ESL agenda provided the selected texts are authentic –that is, “not written for native language students and published in the original language” (Hedge,2003: 218) and graded. Educators who teach ESL students at low levels may either utilise modified texts that suit them. As such, extensive reading assists students to attain their autonomy by reading either in class or at home, through sustained silent reading activities. Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) dispute that sustained silent reading activities can be successful in assisting students to turn out to be self-directed agents looking for meaning, provided a sustained silent reading program is based on student-selected texts so that the students will be interested in what they are reading. The researcher supports this idea of extensive reading in line with his results at X School.

Silent reading transforms students' structural awareness in developing language, to build vocabulary synonym-language, and to promote confidence in the language and reading-comprehension. Sustained silent reading (SSR) time is useful for many students, but teachers should take note not to let it be the solution or intervention for struggling readers (Sadita, 2015). Firstly, let me address SSR as useful for many students. As such, when students read, the better their reading skills become, and their lexicon also grows and fosters the concept of motivation and self-directed learning that is critical in advancing more reading ideas to endorse motivation in students (Sadita, 2015). Secondly, one way to instil motivation and engagement is by maintaining to provide students with the opportunity to choose for themselves the books they read and titles they research on, which can be achieved by incorporating independent reading time in which the students can read whatever they want (Sadita, 2015).

However, this researcher argues that he is not sure if Krashen's (1989) comprehensive, input hypothesis facilitates intake in ESL students as it is difficult to know exactly how any student will actually utilise the input available. Yet, it can be seen as an input enabling activity. This researcher, therefore, corroborates that no one can contradict the truth that extensive reading assists greatly in exposing students to wide-ranging literature, for ESL students, particularly when the teaching time is limited as at this research school. As such, this researcher supports the underpinning theory that merits extensive reading-utilisation for students to 1) build their language competence; 2) enhance their reading-comprehension ability; 3) become more autonomous in their studies; 4) acquire cultural knowledge, and 5) develop confidence and motivation to carry on reading. In that context, the types of strategies that students acquire through extensive reading in learning techniques are: 1) Cooperative learning 2) Use of graphic, semantic and story maps 3) Question answering 4) Question generation 5) Story structure and 6) Summarisation. Krashen (2003) has summed up the benefits of extensive reading as the hub of academic advancement by stating that: 1) It gives autonomy to the learner; 2) offers learner with comprehensive input; 3) enhances general language competence; 4) helps develop general word knowledge; 5) extends, consolidates and sustains vocabulary growth; and 6) helps improve writing skills through intensive reading. In summary, my conceptual framework captured conceptual distinctions and reality in order to organise my ideas as this was formulated

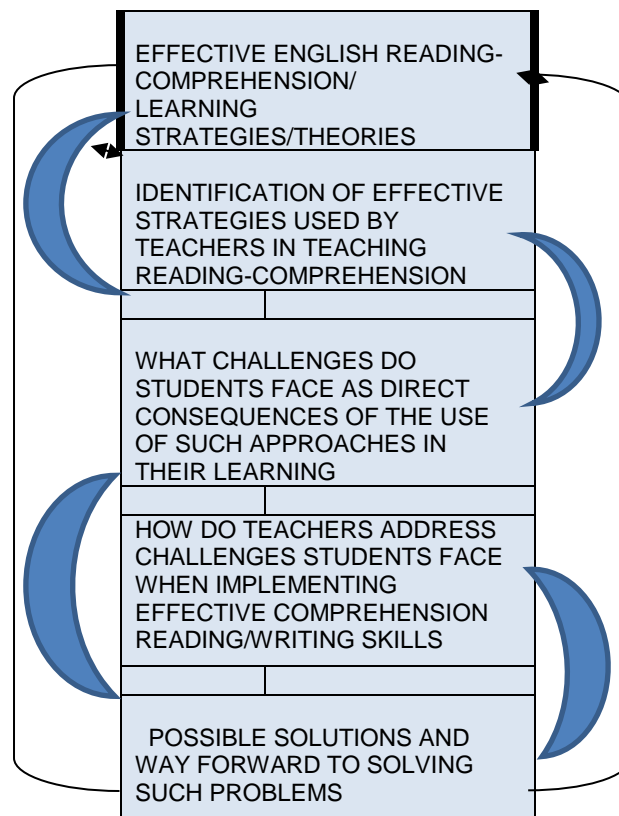
to explain, predict and understand phenomena and to challenge and extend existing knowledge within limits of my critical research assumptions.

2.5.4. Conceptual Framework

This study's conceptual framework is based on the challenges students face in reading-comprehension and the methods teachers use in teaching it in a bid to answer research questions 1-3. They are key to the design which I constructed to embrace Krashen (2003), Gunning (2006), Marzano (2014) and Shoebottom (2014) on their existing theories about reading-comprehension that assert that the more we read in the L2 the better our vocabulary synonym-language grows to overcome challenges. This links with the challenges students face in reading-comprehension learning and teaching and methods their teachers employ in teaching the subject in relation to the conceptual framework in Figure 2.5., help to explore research questions 1-3. The theoretical framework was created to link-up with Hymes (1989) communicative competence and Krashen's (2003) six hypotheses on how they affect learning by requiring meaningful interaction through the comprehensive input.

Communicative competence is a term which was created by Hymes in 1966 in reaction to Chomsky's (1965) notion of linguistic competence that links up with my research questions 1-3 through the conceptual framework in Figure 2.5 below. It is based on the conceptual framework when the teachers identify effective strategies in teaching reading-comprehension using CLT approaches that resonate with Hymes's (1989) communicative competence. Communicative Competence is a term in linguistics which refers to a language user's grammatical knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology and semantics, as well as social knowledge about how and when to use utterances appropriately. Teachers also need to identify the students' challenges they are facing as direct consequences of their use of such approaches in students learning of reading-comprehension. Teachers equally need to address students' challenges they are facing when implementing effective reading-comprehension learning/teaching strategies and need to resonate with Krashen's (2003) input hypothesis which supports students to interact using methods that supply comprehensible input and effective filter hypothesis.

Figure: 2.5. Conceptual Framework Illustrated in Phases



Theoretical framework that supported this research study

To implement this, teachers need to take aboard Hymes’s (1989) views which propound that a person who acquires communicative competence also needs both knowledge and ability to use the language as it redefines what it means to know a language, while Chomsky (1965) chose theories that focus on competence and performance in a language that gives rise to CLT. On background knowledge Marzano (2014) links up with this study by suggesting that 1) it plays a significant role by making students understand and retain new vocabulary; 2) it is used by students to develop and retain vocabulary meaning 3) it activates background information in order to bring it to surface in order to build knowledge and 4) it stimulates and builds interest in the target language’s vocabulary. Further, Halliday (1993) who studied how language functions, suggests that learning a language means representing the functions of its grammar and proposed seven main functions of grammar that spurred a child to want to use the language. Canale and Swain (1998) define communicative competence in terms of three components 1) grammatical competence 2) sociolinguistic competence and 3) strategic competence. Through the implementation of these theories and methods, teachers may be able to offer solutions to the learners’ challenges. As such, this study further links with the communicative language teaching approaches which

are part of the communicative competence, including TBLT to language teaching in order to emphasise interaction as both the means and the goal of this study is to link with Burns (2010), Kumaravadivelu (2006), Brown (2002), Wilkins (1983), Gunning (2006), Renandya (2002), Colman (1996), Halliday (1993), Swain and Canal (1998), Marzano (2014) and Klapper (2006) Krashen (2003) with their theories. The main objective of this qualitative study was to explore how teachers teach reading-comprehension to O-level students at a rural secondary school in Zimbabwe in order to address the challenges students are facing in the subject by linking up with these theorists. The above literature links are aligned with the research questions 1-3, also attempt to illustrate the research design and paradigm, that resonate with Krashen (2003) who propounds in his reading hypothesis input, that the more we read in the L2 the greater our vocabulary will grow which accompanies the CLT approaches that encourage learners to converse about personal experiences in various activities. This input hypothesis theory also known as the monitor model put primary importance on the comprehension input (CI) that language learners are exposed to. Teachers should teach lessons communicatively outside the realm of traditional grammar in order to promote language skills in all types of situations. These CLT language teaching approaches are based on Hymes (1989) communicative competence linguistic theory he gave as listening comprehension that encourages learners' interaction also cited by Krashen's (2003) input hypothesis and Marzano's (2014) three performance competences' levels for students that relate to the use of methods that supply comprehensible input and effective filter hypothesis.

2.6.0. Conclusion

In summary, this chapter attempts to show how the ability to read, comprehend and apply knowledge to new learning situations is important. It has seen how communicative competence in relation to the construction and interpretation of reading-comprehension texts contribute to CLT approaches. Hymes (1992) coined this Communicative competence when he was reacting to the perceived inadequacy of Chomsky's (1965) distinction between linguistic competence and performance. Further, it has been established that teachers, in effecting CLT approaches, are confused about the degree to which they should teach language structures in the wake

of the implementation of CLT approaches in teaching, as to when they should teach language usage and when they should teach language structures; as they are, unsure about how these two aspects should co-exist. The chapter further endeavours to demonstrate how extensive reading can help increase the vocabulary synonym-language of an ESL learner. Further, it has attempted to demonstrate how different strategies can assist students to answer O-level questions as reading-comprehension has tended to be difficult for ESL learners. In addition, wide vocabulary has established how it plays a key role in reading-comprehension to recognise vocabulary synonym-language where a lack of application of prior knowledge leads readers to failure in reading-comprehension (Laufer, 1988). Furthermore, the challenges that readers face have been seen as having to do with whether readers approach texts actively since reading is an interactive process. Lastly, the following chapter describes the tools the study employed to establish whether O-level students face challenges and what teaching strategies do teachers use in reading-comprehension?

CHAPTER THREE

3.0. METHODOLOGY

This study seeks to investigate the challenges and other factors that contribute to poor performance faced by O-level students in reading-comprehension and to establish the strategies teachers use in teaching reading-comprehension classes. As such, it is accomplished by employing qualitative case study methodologies, theoretical perspectives and paradigm and triangulation of research methods as sources of evidence to collect data. It describes the sample magnitude, as well as, the sampling procedures engaged. Procedures for the compilation of data analysis, critiques, validity, reliability and informed consent and ethical considerations are discussed in this chapter. The chapter further examines negotiating and gaining access to meeting gatekeepers and data collection procedures and data analysis under these topics:

- 1) Choice of research methodology-Case study
- 2) theoretical perspectives and paradigm
- 3) research methods
- 4) sampling
- 5) validity and reliability
- 6) Thematic analysis-data analysis
- and 7) Conclusion.

Considering the above topics, the following research questions were drawn to guide the direction of the study.

3.1 Research questions:

- 1) What approaches do teachers utilise in the teaching of English reading-comprehension?
- 2) What are the challenges that rural O-Level students are facing in reading-comprehension?
- 3) What other factors contribute towards poor reading-comprehension skills?

It can be stated that the identification of these research questions enabled the researcher to conduct this qualitative exploratory case study research, which was considered the most appropriate methodology to generate the relevant data at this rural Zimbabwean school. As such, answers the above research questions concerning strategies used by teachers and the challenges faced by rural O-level students in English reading-comprehension classes, which triggered the research at O-level to provide answers to Research Question 1-3. The findings from the study are used to answer research questions that are based on the analysis of the approaches utilised by the teachers and challenges faced by students through the determination of an appropriate research methodology.

3.2. Choice of Research Methodology

On the balance of probability, the thesis's epistemological theoretical approach and theoretical perspective describe the objectives of the qualitative investigation that was appropriate to set-up modalities of the research study, as McMillan and Schumacher (2002) state, that qualitative research is concerned with understanding the social phenomena from the participants' perspectives. May (2002) further argues:

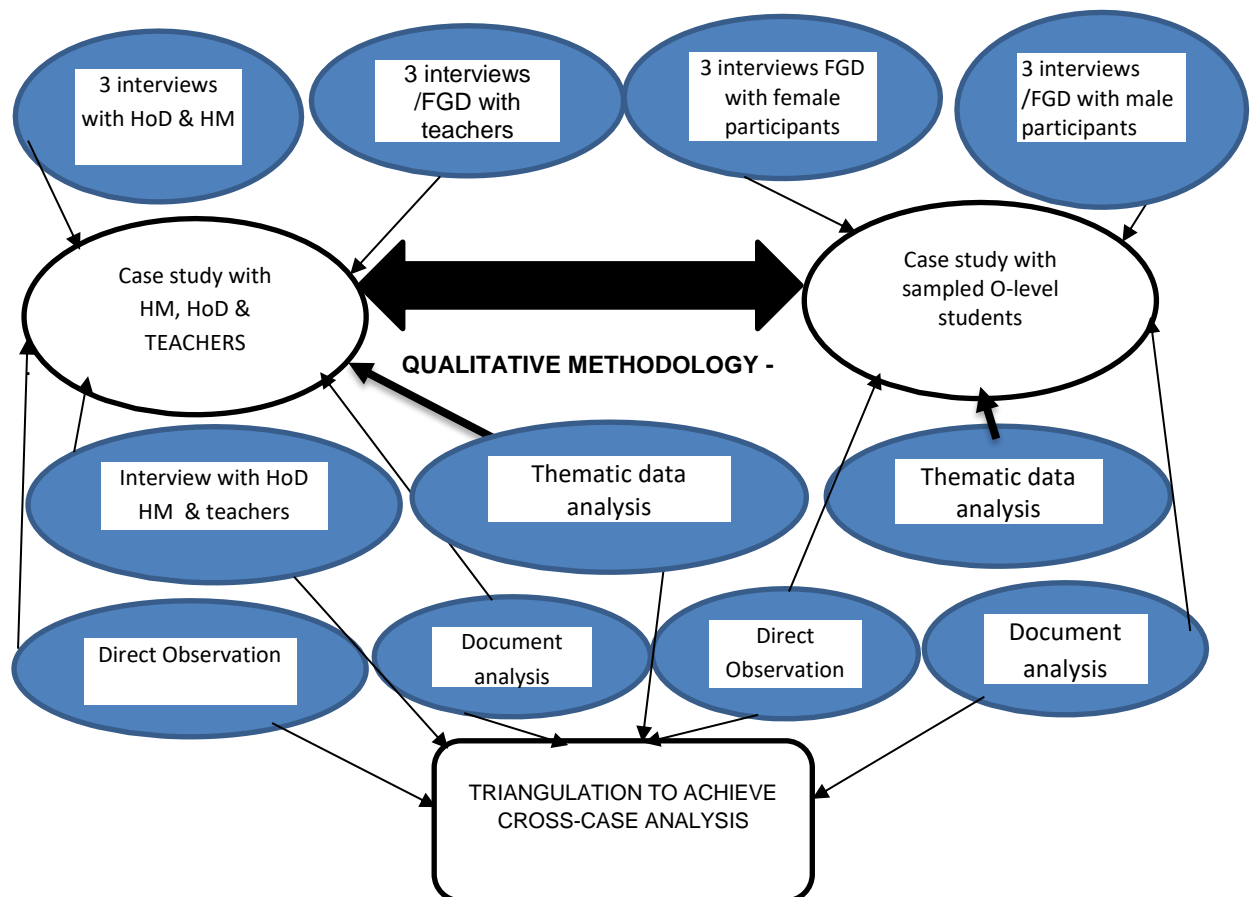
...qualitative research always involves some kind of direct encounter with 'the world'...qualitative approaches typically include the attention to dynamic processes rather than (or in addition to) static categories and they aim to discover or develop concepts rather than imposing preconceived categories on the people and events observed by them. (May,2002: 199)

In view of Travers (2001: 180), "conducting a qualitative study demands to present a wealthy and comprehensive explanation of what happens within a particular establishment which can address realistic questions of interest to practitioners," and involves setting-up an exploratory research for data-collection. Most qualitative research is liable to "illustrate and investigate people's individual and collective social actions, beliefs, thoughts and perceptions" (Travers, 2001: 372). On that note, the researcher was inclined to probe how students felt about the challenges they face in O-level reading-comprehension classes. To accomplish the above set questions and objectives, this exploratory research employed a qualitative case study methodology.

Different approaches for qualitative methodology often blame the overuse of interviews and focus group discussions (FGD) at the expense of other methods this

study has triangulated most of these research methods to overcome the critiques regarding the limitations of qualitative research methods (Anderson, 2006). As such, qualitative research offers numerous strengths that counterbalance the limitations. Further, the qualitative approach was considered to be the most appropriate methodology to investigate the relevant reading-comprehension challenges students face and strategies teachers use in teaching; consequently, necessitating to answer questions concerning these strategies used by teachers and the challenges faced by rural O-level students in English reading-comprehension classes (Glaser and Strauss 2006: 7).

Figure 3.1: Research methodology Illustrating triangulation of Methods to achieve Validity



In support of this research, some writers feel that researchers should stay within one paradigm, while they also argue that qualitative methods come from different philosophical backgrounds, and as such should remain separate (Weaver and Atkinson, 1994). As a result, multiple methods were employed, including literary research, conversations with participants, focus group discussions (FGD), personal

interviews, observation, and thinking aloud. To be more precise, triangulation combined all these methods in order to achieve rigour in this qualitative research and establish the results' validity. Furthermore, triangulation was used "to obtain different yet complementary data on the same topic" (Morse, 1991: 122), to best, understand the research problem which Patton (1990), maintains is the intention in using the design that combines the differing strengths and non-overlapping weaknesses of these qualitative methods.

As previously mentioned, the philosophical grounding for why this study used so many methods are embedded in the significance mentioned in many studies arguing the virtue in terms of greater understanding and/or validation of results from the use of triangulation (Denzin, 1998; Patton, 1990). As such, it was meant to accomplish the purpose of this study, which was to find the challenges students face and the strategies teachers use in teaching reading-comprehension (Figure 3.1). On the same note, in providing corroborating evidence for this qualitative research study displayed which the headmaster, HoD, teachers and students were investigated to portray their results. My research orbited around the use of a single research methodology that may suffer from limitations associated with that methodology or from the specific application in contrast to the triangulation of many research tools that offered the prospect of enhanced confidence (Bryman, 2004). Further, Bryman (2008) maintains that triangulation refers to the use of more than one method to the investigation of research questions in order to enhance confidence in the ensuing findings which Campbell and Fiske (1987) call multiple-operationist. Bryman (2008) cautions that much social research, "within-method" and triangulation essentially entails cross-checking for internal consistency or reliability, while the "between-method" triangulation tests the degree of external validity (Glaser and Strauss, 2006).

Whilst the use of figures and tables was utilised in this thesis to represent data that enhanced my interpretations to shed light on my ideas, triangulation was also employed to achieve that. Figures and diagrams are important in assisting the reader to comprehend what I have written, especially through which included tables to represent my data so as to illustrate and verify my ideas (Table 3.3: 143, Fig.:3.1: 74, 3.2: 96). It is imperative though, that these tables and figures represent data diagrammatically and appropriately; in order to make information look abridged, straight-forward and comprehensive to understand my research, in line with my

arguments which symbolise my data findings. However, these figures and tables cannot replace my texts but only supplement my writing wherever possible to enhance my evidence from my research tools, that assists the reader to appreciate my ideas. As such, I should, however, still elucidate my ideas and theories which I present in written form to be understood literally for the reason that the figures and diagrams just assist the reader to comprehend what I have written visually. That being the case, it can be argued that the dispute is not just confined to combining research methods across paradigms, but also attends to different data collection methods within the same paradigm presented through figures and tables.

As such, the study was administered from a more pragmatic view that steered the research across paradigms using varied methods (Holloway and Wheeler, 2002). The argument is that the researcher aims to collect as much data as possible in order to achieve validity and reliability using many research qualitative methods as they are the two concepts that are important for defining and measuring bias and internal consistency complemented by figures and tables. On the other hand, the research can achieve philosophical grounding through triangulating the data collection methods in addition to underlying philosophies of paradigms, reliability and validity to instil the idea of research methods uniting to collect data.

Conversely, some researchers erroneously believe that there is only one method of data gathering with qualitative data they meet with challenges they find in collecting their data to identify patterns and trends; hence, this study entailed the use of many methods. While there are general guidelines on how to work with qualitative data, in performing the actual tasks and actions of data collection, there need to be ideas which require creativity and innovation to combat bias (Tewksbury, 2009).

Arguing from a different viewpoint, data collected by qualitative research comes from a range of collection methods that include interviews with individuals, observations of participants, procedures, actions, interactions, and an absolute surrender to the environment to understand the finer details of the social structure. As such, these approaches to data collection differ in the source(s) and methods of gathering information; yet, all should include the idea of collating information to assimilate data in the wake of commonplace content and situations. Immersion in a setting is a data collection method that drives the production of data through long stays at the research

site to understand how it operates (Pearce, 2002). The observer needs to take notes on what he experiences, sees, hears and his own actions/conversations with participants that serve to inform him of what is happening, and why it is happening as it is. A researcher spends protracted periods at the research site, which in itself can introduce serious stresses and challenges for the researcher at the research site when trying to introduce his research approach.

3.3. Inductive versus deductive

In view of the interpretivism, inductive and deductive methods of reasoning have a very different "feel" to themselves when you are conducting research. By its very category inductive reasoning, is more undefined and exploratory, particularly at the beginning, while deductive reasoning is, more focused in nature and is concerned with testing or confirming hypotheses (Gabriel, 2013). On that note, the major distinction concerning inductive and deductive interpretation to research is that while a deductive reasoning mainly tests a hypothesis, whereas inductive reasoning is more concerned with the creation of new knowledge from data (Gabriel, 2013). In view of that, an inductive approach more often utilises research questions to focus the extent of the study to collect data, however, a deductive approach commences with a hypothesis. On a different view, an inductive reasoning is normally associated with qualitative research, whereas deductive approach is more commonly associated with quantitative research (Gulati, 2009). The current study is shaped by using inductive research design where Goddard and Melville (2004) note that the inductive approach gives the chance to have more explanation of what is going on. I started the research process by exploring and collecting the data from different sources. In consideration of that, my research orbits around a multiple of research approach sources of evidence that include: semi-structured interviews, think-aloud protocol, direct observation, focus group discussion (FGD) and document analysis in an attempt to investigate the best practice models for these rural O-level students' challenges and teachers' methods of teaching (Bernard, 2011). The secondary sources of data collected in this research, involved: critically reviewing previous research, reports, records and previous exam results and other documents on these rural O-level secondary school students, while primary data were collected by interviewing, testing students using think aloud, FGD

groups and observing them throughout all the time I was there with the teachers and students. Wilson et al. (2010) and Bernard (2011) indicate that qualitative research is often associated with inductive research designs in which a range of methods are used to collect the data to explore the problem from different paradigm perspectives through targeting case study.

3.4.0. Case Study

This section views case study method as a particular example of reading-comprehension teaching researched in order to analyse data to illustrate problems in reading-comprehension through looking at case study school, its critiques, its exploratory nature and how it exemplifies this study. Case study method is used to narrow down a very broad field of research into one easily researchable sample-Apollo School (Jablonski, 2013). On this view, the research is limited to a group of O-level students at a rural Zimbabwean school who share similar characteristics. Such work may be biased in order to generalise it to other cases but may not be biased to understand the students' reading-comprehension challenges and the approaches their teachers use (Shuttleworth, 2008).

According to Stake (2005), three categories of the case study are identified in terms of their broad purpose that includes intrinsic, instrumental, and collective. My exploratory case study school is aligned with the three categories; whereby I used categories as a means to better understand the performance of rural O-level reading-comprehension students (Stake, 2005). As Bell (2005) argues, the exploratory case study approach is suitable because it gives an opportunity for one aspect of a problem to-be-studied in depth within a limited period. In addition, an exploratory case study school is appropriate to gain more insights about a little-acknowledged problem; thus, this case was a suitable choice for investigating reading-comprehension problems (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005). In addition, the study used the think-aloud approach as a method of enquiring students' thoughts when doing reading-comprehension (Newell and Simon, 1972) (see Table 4.1: 149). An adaptation of the think-aloud protocol was used to determine the challenges faced by students before, during reading a narrative or expository text that required them to report their thoughts while reading (Cavalcanti, 1987). A review of case study research revealed characteristics that the think-aloud

approach offers indispensable properties of qualitative methodology. According to Stake (2005), this case study school research is particularistic, descriptive, heuristic and inductive in the investigation. Particularistic focuses on one progression or condition which is the hub of the study. Descriptive means the rich and loaded set of facts describing the phenomena in school case study. Both of these are heuristic since they advance appreciation of the phenomena, while inductive entails the type of reasoning utilised in determining generalisations or ideas that emerge from the data. Furthermore, defining the uniqueness of a case study school is not so much in the methods employed in the investigation, but more so in the questions asked, and their relation to the phenomenon under investigation. Stake (2005) maintains that knowledge from case studies research is vivid, more developed, and appropriate on a sampled population.

In view of Stake's comments about case study research, Yin (2003: 23) defined it as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly defined; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used". On that note concerning Yin's (2003) definition of case study research, this study has also utilised case study research method to investigate challenges students face and teaching strategies their teachers employ in teaching reading-comprehension. The choice of a case study school was endorsed for a number of reasons. To investigate issues about reading-comprehension teaching where two cases were formed with the headmaster, HoD and teachers and the other with the O-level students (see Fig.3.1: 74). On another note, case study research method justifies selection for a research methodology explained in detail elsewhere in this subsection. In view of that, it proffers an opportunity to "explain why certain outcomes may happen – more than just find out what those outcomes are" (Denscombe, 1998: 31). This is actually imperative for the present case study school to recognise why students face challenges in reading-comprehension and what strategies orbit around the teachers' teaching methods for reading-comprehension. Gray (2004) maintains that a case study approach is particularly useful in revealing the informal relationships between the phenomenon and the context in which teaching, and learning take place. While Denscombe (1998) maintains that this case study school enables the researcher to use multiple sources of data and a variety of research methods to explore the research questions that, in turn, foster the validation of data through triangulation. Therefore, any findings or

conclusions are expected to be more compelling and accurate (Yin, 2003). In view of that, this has also supported the use of case study research as a research methodology for the current study. Further, this case study school is best for gaining a deeper understanding of the research being investigated (Morris and Wood, 1991).

However, the philosophical perspective attached to case study methodology use is enshrined in Yin (2003) and Stake (1995) who base their reasons for favouring case study research on the constructivist operational basis. Constructivists maintain that truth is comparative and that it is based on an individual's perspective. Constructivist paradigm "recognises the significance of the prejudiced human construction of meaning but doesn't discard absolutely some idea of objectivity. Constructivism is created on the basis of a social construction of reality (Baxter and Jack, 2008). One of the merits of this case study school is the security partnership between the researcher and the participants, whilst facilitating participants to tell their stories to someone they know (Crabtree and Miller, 1999). By debriefing these narratives, the participants are capable of explaining their views of reality and this allows the researcher to understand the participants' viewpoints better (Lather, 1992).

For understanding complex issues or an object case study research can often be depicted as an excellent approach, and through this approach, it is possible to strengthen earlier statements proved in previous research. According to (Stake,2005), for detailed contextual analysis of conditions, events and relationships, this case study of this school is highly effective. This particular research has focussed on O-level students at a case study rural Zimbabwean school, whose real-life situation and challenges that students are facing while doing reading-comprehension and the strategies taken by students for developing reading-comprehension. In this case for understanding facts, a wide range of qualitative research methods has been implemented. Through this case study of a school, the researcher can utilise qualitative research methods for examining the contemporary real-life situation in connection with reading-comprehension for O-level students in this rural Zimbabwe and providing a basis for the implementation of ideas and extension of methods. The same thing is defined by Yin (2005) Stake (2005) Simons,2009) for the case study school which contributes towards investigating a contemporary phenomenon within a real-life context where much of the evidence is used and where the distinction between context and phenomenon is clarified.

On the contrary, Bennett and Elman (2006a) state that based on the study of the limited number of cases it is not possible to establish reality. On the other hand, Gerring (2004) states that due to intense exposure to this case study school, it can offer biased opinion towards it while some researchers have dismissed this approach as only an exploratory tool or method. But as this study is based on the real-life situation, and the issues and problems confronted by the O-level students in reading-comprehension, the issues that the teachers face while teaching reading-comprehension, so it can be stated that the case study approach is appropriate for the research. Many reputed researchers including Stake (2005), Simons (2009) and Yin (2003) have put down certain techniques for developing this case study school. These include determining and defining research questions, selecting cases, determining data gathered and analysing techniques, preparation for collecting data, gathering data in the field, evaluating and analysing data and preparing the report (Stake,2005; Yin,2003; Simons, 2009). This case study approach is appropriate for this kind of research as it is based on real life and human situations and through this approach, it is possible to understand complex real-life situations. On the other hand, case study approach has not been widely accepted as a reliable, objective and legitimate research methodology where one of the most critical criticisms directed the approach to difficulty in generalising the findings to a larger population (Yin, 1994; Thomas, 2003).

3.4.1 Critique of case study methodology

A review of the literature in this section focuses on a number of critiques that largely concern the inter-connected problems of methodological thoroughness, researcher prejudice, generalisation and external-validity (Yin,1994). As such, the most debatable projecting criticism of a single case study of one school analysis is the problem of its generalisability. That being the case, do we always do well with additional observation as the base of our generalisation, while, King et al., (1994: 212) maintain that “in all social science research and all prediction, it is important that we must be as explicit as possible about the degree of uncertainty that accompanies our prediction”. This is an inescapably valid critique.

Therefore, first, in view of Flyvbjerg misinterpretations cited below, this researcher forewarns that the review of these five misinterpretations about case study research

should not be construed as a rejection of case study research, which focuses on large samples or targeted populations (2006). Second, with regard to Thomas's (2003), criticism on case study which he said does not focus on generalising findings on a larger population in research about which Flyvbjerg (2006) concurs by pointing out in one of his misinterpretations on generalising from a single case; that, a single case study of a school cannot contribute to social and scientific development; which provokes much debate. As such, Flyvbjerg gives his five misinterpretations as:

1). "Theoretical knowledge is more valuable than practical knowledge; 2) One cannot generalise from a single case; therefore, a single case study cannot contribute to social/scientific development; 3) Case studies are most useful for generating hypotheses while other methods are more suitable for hypotheses testing and theory building. 4) The case study is not impervious to a bias toward verification; and 5) it is often difficult to summarise specific case studies" (Flyvbjerg, 2006: 219-245).

In a synopsis, this researcher would say it appears true that one cannot generalise from a single case,' while some would reiterate that social science is about generalising. Still, I would maintain that this case study school might fit for piloting studies but not for complete research structures. The study further repeats to remark that the case study school findings may be influenced by personal researcher feelings, through providing too much room for the researcher's own interpretations. Therefore, the validity of case study method is compromised and deficient as this study maintains on focusing on Flyvbjerg's, (2006) misinterpretations.

In view of these misinterpretations, Diamond (1997/96) holds the same view that the misinterpretations concerning case-study cited by Flyvbjerg (2006) research, entails that the approach upholds a prejudice regarding verification, which is taken as a tendency to confirm the researcher's defined ideas, so that the research thus turns to be a doubtful social value. Further, Diamond (1997: 6), exemplifies his opinion by revealing that the case study suffers from what the researcher calls a "crippling drawback," "since it does not ensure social and scientific methods," by which he comprehends the methods as suitable for restricting one's tendency to stamp out one's established understanding on data as they accrue. In view of that, Diamond (1997/96) refutes that one cannot generalise from a single case; therefore, the single case study school cannot contribute to a larger social/scientific development which opens up criticisms from other researchers. Further, an insignificant number of participants seriously restrict the capacity of the researcher to comprehend the complex and

diverse elements across individuals about the uniformity of the phenomenon being researched and can portray unrealistic accounts that exaggerate the uniformity of the phenomenon or enforce a false representation that just fits a portion of the population (Maxwell, 2005). However, Yin (2003) refutes this by pointing out that it is imperative to be clear that the reason of involving a single case study school is to expand and create a theory or an investigative generalisation as different from proving the theory or statistical generalisation. This declaration maintains that the role of case study research as an exploratory tool establishes the problem. As such, if a collection of examples of case studies is utilised then the scope for generalisation increases (Yin, 2003; Stake, 2005).

Nevertheless, MacLeod's (2008) research refutes that since a case study operates with only one individual we may not be certain if the information gathered from this specific case can apply to other situations. As such, the findings of the research are not generalisable since we may not distinguish whether the case we have researched is applicable to the broader community of comparable examples. As such, generalisability is another way of saying "ecological validity". Basically, generalisability is the degree to which findings from a study can be extended or generalised to those findings in their natural settings, that is, outside the researched area (McLeod, 2008). In research, when researchers talk about generalisability, they are applying findings from a particular research case study sample to the larger population from which the sample was selected.

Further, Diamond, (1997) argues, case study results are grounded on the investigation of qualitative research through descriptive investigation, where its data depends a lot on the explanation of an individual's understanding of the data s/he has collected. This suggests that there is an ample chance for researcher prejudice to occur and it can be argued that the personal sentiments of the researcher bias can encroach onto the assessment of the data interpretation (McLeod, 2008). For instance, Freud a psychologist was denounced for creating case studies in which his data appeared partisan to be acceptable to some specific theories about behaviour (Appendix-U-1-2). This is as well the same with Money another psychologist's interpretation of his data which (Appendix-U1-2) disregarded the evidence that it was in contradiction with the established theories. McLeod (2013) further, reflects that the process utilised in case study suggests that the investigator can use a description of the data which

derives from interviews, FGD and observation where the participant as well may report aspects of proceedings from his/her own opinion prejudicing the findings. The investigator then transcribes the data from all other sources used in the case study and may interpret the findings in his own biased way. However, by inferring in the data means the investigator may choose what to take in or leave out whereas a virtuous case study must always make it clear which data is a realistic description of what transpired not a suggestion of the researcher's own opinion.

In view of the above, case study analysis has been exposed to a number of other issues regarding criticisms that concern the inter-related issues of methodological researcher subjectivity/bias, and internal/external validity (Bennett and Elman, 2006a). With regard to the first issue, the prototypical view here is that of Maoz (2002: 164-165) who suggests that "the use of case study absolves the author from any kind of methodological considerations where case study has become a synonym for freeform research where anywhere anything goes" there is no control. In view of that absence of systematic measures for case study research is something that Yin (2009: 14-15) perceives as "traditionally the greatest concern due to a relative absence of methodological guidelines". As this study suggests, this critique appears somewhat unreasonable; as many contemporary case studies have increasingly sought to clarify and develop their methodological techniques and epistemological grounding (Bennett and Elman, 2010) to suit their situations. In view of that, one approach sees *case study* issues of construct validity, incorporating concerns of the reliability and replicability of various forms of single case study analysis addressed as a second issue, which is usually tied to a broader critique of qualitative research methods as a whole (Berg and Lune, 2012). Whereas, the latter obviously tends toward an explicitly acknowledged interpretive basis for meanings, and understanding meaning that:

quantitative measures *appear* objective, but only so long as we do not ask questions about where and how the data were produced...pure objectivity is not a meaningful concept if the goal is to measure *intangibles* [as] these concepts only exist because we can interpret them (Berg and Lune, 2012: 340).

The issue of researcher bias is a valid one, which might be intended only as a methodological criticism of what are noticeably less formalised and researcher-independent methods (Verschuren, 2003). Nevertheless, it does as well relax on assured assumptions that can elevate higher and potentially irreconcilable ontological

and epistemological issues, which are suggested by (Flyvbjerg, 2006). Flyvbjerg further argues that case study contains no greater bias toward verification than other methods of inquiry, and that “on the contrary, experience indicates that case study contains a greater bias toward falsification of preconceived notions than toward verification” (Flyvbjerg, 2006: 237). One of the biggest critiques to employing the case study method in research has something to do with external validity (Kohlbacher, 2006) in which the researcher frequently loses control over certain factors and events. Subsequently, the researcher utilising this case study may have content that his/her findings can only be applicable to similar cases and not others (Altheide, 1996). In that situation, what the case study loses in the external validity is what it gains in internal validity. From that, the differences can be revealed between internal and external validity and they are applicable to assessing the validity of a research study as they accompany procedures (Kohlbacher, 2006). Internal validity refers to the fact that the findings obtained in a study are due to the manipulation of independent factors and not because of some other factors (Kohlbacher, 2006). At some point:

...there is a causal relationship between the independent and dependent factor whereby internal validity may be enhanced by controlling unsuitable factors, utilising standardised directives, to counterbalance, and eliminate demand characteristics, researcher effect, in addition to computational methods producing valid generalisations (Mcleod, 2008: online).

Therefore, external validity has it that the validity of generalised inferences in social/scientific research usually is based on trials as their experimental validity (Mitchell and Jolley, 2001). Many researchers leveraging this case study research method often make the mistake of depending excessively on the interpretation to guide their findings and recommendations (Babbie, 2001). In real terms, the researcher becomes part of the research itself and may perhaps unknowingly guide the participants to those results, thereby confirming the expected results. In real issues, known as the self-fulfilling prophecy or Pygmalion effect in modern post-positivist social/scientific belief the researcher assumes the role of a disinterested observer; s/he has no stake in whether the research turns out one way or another which frustrates further exploration of the study (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

In view of the critique of case study May (2011: 226) observes, “the objectives for several advocates of case studies is to surmount dichotomies linking generalising and particularising, quantitative and qualitative, deductive and inductive methods”.

Investigating aspirations must steer methodological choices, somewhat than contracted and dogmatic predetermined approaches. As confirmed above, there are diverse advantages to both idiographic and nomothetic solitary case study analysis – particularly the empirically rich, context-specific, holistic accounts that they have to proffer their input to theory-building to a lesser degree, that of theory-testing. Moreover, whilst they do have obvious limitations, whatever research method engrosses essential trade-offs; the inbuilt weaknesses of any one approach, nevertheless, can potentially be counterbalanced by situating them within a wider, pluralistic mixed-method research approach. However, whether or not single case studies are employed in this manner, they obviously not have an immense deal to offer due to limitations and subjectivity but to gain understanding. Nevertheless, case study findings relay unwaveringly to the common reader's daily practice and enable an understanding of intricate real-life conditions through its exploratory nature of research.

3.4.2. Internal and External-Validity

According to Glaser and Strauss (2006), internal validity is the approximate truth about implications relating to relationships, whereas, external validity is the process of generalisation of findings which refers to whether results gathered from a small sample can be generalised to other similar situations. Bryman (2008) raises a concern regarding the question of whether external validity results can be generalised beyond the specific research context in which they are conducted. That being the case, Cohen et al. (2005) suggest that internal validity should seek to demonstrate that the explanation of a particular set of data information from a research can actually be sustained by that data to be credible. In real terms, this concerns the accuracy with which the results can be applied to the qualitative research on whether the findings apply accurately in describing the phenomena being researched. However, in relation to external validity Cohen et al. (2005) emphasise the degree to which the results of the research can be generalised to the wider community or to cases with the same situation. However, the issue of generalisation appears to be problematic whereas, in one school of thought, generalisability through stripping out contextual features is important, for the other, generalisations that say little useful information about human behaviour are not (Cohen et al., 2005: 109). However, this researcher suggests that it

is possible to assess the typical situation of the participants' settings that classify possible comparisons with similar groups with data that specify different settings and cultures where findings accurately describe the phenomena they are investigating.

According to Carter and Little (2007), external validity refers to the extent to which the results of a study can be generalised to other settings, or circumstances to reflect participants data. Referring to Glaser and Strauss (2006), they sum it up by referring to internal validity as the extent to which the results can be attributable to other autonomous factors, that can be applied to other areas, while Bryman (2008) raises a concern with the question of findings that integrate a fundamental relationship amid two or more credible factors.

That being the case, there are always some differences that exist between internal and external validity which are appropriate in assessing the rationality of a research process, because they depend on the researchers' theoretical viewpoints. However, some qualitative researchers discard the framework of validity because it is commonly accepted in quantitative research than in the social sciences (Carter and Little, 2007). Qualitative researchers reject the basic realist assumption that there is a reality external to our perception. In view of that, internal validity disputes the effects observed in a study on whether they are due to the manipulation of the autonomous factors or some other factors that support them (Mitchell and Jolley, 2001). Therefore, internal validity can resolve this by improving and regulating unimportant factors, using standardised instructions to counterbalance and eliminate the demand for characteristics regarding investigator effects on research (Cohen et al., 2011). These same differences that are found amid internal and external validity are not appropriate with either of the two in assessing the rationality of a research process, where, the research is depending on the validity and theoretical viewpoints (Carter and Little, 2007).

Cohen et al. (2005) offer a solution by stating that internal validity should seek to demonstrate that the explanation of a particular set of data can actually provide sustained data it collected that concerns the accuracy of validity can apply to the qualitative research where the findings are accurately describing the researched phenomena. However, in relation to external validity Cohen et al. (2005) prescribe the degree to which the results of that research can be generalised to the wider community

with the same situation where qualitative researchers reject the basic realist assumption that there is a reality external to the perception. In view of that Mitchell and Jolley, (2001) dispute the effects of internal validity observed in a study if they are due to the manipulation of the autonomous factors and not the other.

3.4.3. Exemplifying My Exploratory Case Study

Exploratory case studies are “commonly pilot projects that seek to reveal what phenomena or theory exists within a field of interest” (Raeburn,2013: online). My research field of interest exemplifies a rural Apollo Secondary School as a typical exploratory case study, a distinct phenomenon characterised by the lack of detailed preliminary investigation, especially formulated hypotheses that can be tested by a specific research environment and may not limit the choice of methodology and methods (Hammersley et al., 2009). This exploratory case study is often applied as a preliminary step of an overall contributory research design exploring a relatively new field of investigation in which, the exploratory research questions would either have not been clearly identified or formulated, or the data that requires a hypothetical formulation have not yet been obtained (Creswell, 1994). To support this study, my exploratory case study seeks to understand why a specific phenomenon or problem will be exposed to the data. This exploratory case study method is quoted as being chiefly suitable for a multiple case study project because pattern-matching can be utilised in data found. For instance, this study seeks to clarify why students are failing the English Language at this rural secondary school and what methods of teaching their teachers use in teaching reading-comprehension (Yin, 2009).

That being the case, my Apollo Exploratory Case Study Research is conducted to solve a persistent problem that has not been clearly defined and starts with this single case to investigate it in a pilot like a study. This investigation is taking place before I know enough in order to undertake conceptual distinctions to posit a descriptive relationship (Shields and Rangarjan, 2013). This Apollo exploratory case study research will help determine the best research design, data collection method and selection of participants. Given its fundamental nature, exploratory research often concludes that a perceived problem does actually exist (Shield and Rangarjan, 2013).

My research is exemplifying this exploratory case study approach that intends to explore the research questions (1-3) listed in this research study. In view of that, exploratory research frequently happens before we are knowledgeable enough to make any conceptual distinctions or posit explanatory relationships; hence, it helps determine the best research design, data collection methods and selection of future subjects (Shields and Rangarjan, 2013). This study, therefore, does not aim to offer conclusive solutions to the existing problems in reading-comprehension teaching/learning, but rather to set up parameters for future research at this rural school in Zimbabwe (Bell, 2010). As such, this exploratory research is defined as the initial research into a hypothetical or theoretical problem in reading-comprehension teaching/learning. On this instance, the high failure rate of these rural O-level students was the reason why the researcher took the initiative to investigate the reasons and factors behind it apart from seeking proactive solutions. Hence, this exploratory research project lays the groundwork that may lead the pathway to future research, as it seeks to determine whether the high O-level failure rate at this rural school may be attributed to current existing problems concerning learning materials and teaching methods (Lambin, 2000). In view of this study, exploratory research often commences with secondary research such as reviewing available literature that involves qualitative approaches such as informal discussions with students, teachers, administrators or managers to typify it more accurately and then use approaches that are more formal. It uses more triangulated methods that include in-depth interviews, observations and focus groups (Shields and Rangarjan, 2013) which, Saunders and his co-authors advise that the researcher should be willing to change direction because of new data findings and new insights while conducting the research (Saunders et al., 2007).

My exemplifying exploratory case study research design does not claim to proffer conclusive answers to research questions but merely extrapolates upon this current line of research to set up parameters for future research. My exploratory research is “pioneering a research to seek problems at this rural school on which little or no previous research has been done” (Brown, 2006: 43). Moreover, it should be noted, “Exploratory research marks the initial research which forms the basis of more conclusive research as well to help in “determining the research designs, sampling methodology and data collection methods” (Singh, 2007: 64) for future researchers.

However, the difference between exploratory and conclusive research designs is that my exemplified exploratory case study research design merely explores the research questions, thereby leaving plenty of room for further research, whereas conclusive research design is aimed at providing final findings for a research study. While research generally states that “an exploratory case study may not entail a precise methodology as is found in conclusive studies, and its sample size may be smaller”; however, my exemplified exploratory case study used a qualitative methodology and triangulated with as many methods as possible, “to give a clear picture about how future research studies may be conducted” (Nargundkar, 2003: 41). It is for this reason that I feel this exploratory case study research design is the most effective approach to address my research questions as it has not been researched before and was considered to be the most appropriate methodology to generate initial and relevant data at this rural school. The triangulated methods will give a clear view of which research methods to use. My exemplified exploratory case study research is effective for carrying out this investigation on a topic which has not been investigated before. Depending on secondary research like gathering qualitative techniques of informal discussions, exploratory research can be informal as well. If a researcher’s endeavour is to gain familiarity with a phenomenon or acquire fresh insights into a problem or to develop a hypothesis, exploratory studies come in handy (Shields and Rangarjan, 2013). Further, if the theory happens to be too general or too specific, a hypothesis cannot be formulated in a fruitful manner. Therefore, it means the reason for undertaking exploratory research is for gaining an experience that may help formulate a relevant hypothesis for a more definitive investigation into a problem (Shields and Tajalli, 2006).

However, the results of exploratory case study research are not usually conducive to decision-making by themselves, but they can provide significant insights into a situation. Even though the results of qualitative research can give some indications as to the "why", "how" and "when" something occurs, they cannot reveal "how often" or "how many" in research findings (Brains et al., 2011). Exploratory case study seeks a well-rounded understanding without any generalisation to the population at large. As such, exploratory case study research takes place when problems are still at a preliminary stage (Babbie, 2007). Exploratory case study research is usually utilised when the issue is new, and data is difficult to collect. It is flexible and can address

research questions of all types (what, why, how). Exploratory research is also often used to generate formal hypotheses. Shields and Tajalli (2006) link exploratory research with a conceptual framework-working hypothesis (Shields and Rangarjan 2006). Sceptics, however have questioned the efficacy and necessity of exploratory research in situations where prior analysis could be conducted. I will view the exploratory category of a case study where Yin (2005) notes three categories, namely exploratory, descriptive and explanatory case studies. In this study, I will describe Yin's (2005) exploratory category.

For most, exploratory case studies are intended to explore some phenomenon in the data, which serves as a point of interest to the researcher. For instance, this researcher is conducting an exploratory case study on reading-comprehension teaching where general questions are asked, such as, does a student use any strategies when he reads a text? Does he set goals when reading for comprehension? If yes, then how often? These probing questions are meant to open up the door for further examination of the phenomenon observed. In this case study as well, pilot study, prior fieldwork and small-scale data collection may be conducted before the research questions and hypotheses are proposed and set (Yin, 2005). For example, in a pilot study, this initial work helped prepare a framework for the study. The study considered a pilot study as an example of an exploratory case study (Yin, 2005; McDonough and McDonough, 1997) and was crucial in determining the protocol that was used to determine the time with one participant as well as the suitability of research questions 1-3 to the general perspective of the study.

In doing so, case study enables researchers to deal with research questions that guide the study and explore it in an acceptable way, through the approaches which allow such appropriate investigation and the usefulness of findings coming from such investigation (Dash, 1993) answering research questions 1-3. Subsequently, theoretical interrogations in this research developed from diverse conceptions and readings of social reality, from diverse paradigms that may evolve to control the conditions according to which this researcher chooses to investigate problems to align to his research questions 1-3. In that view Kuhn, who is acknowledged for the word 'paradigm', exemplifies my exploratory case study research to focus on the integrated cluster of substantive concepts, factors and problems attached to corresponding methodological approaches and research tools (Kuhn, 2011). According to Kuhn, a

paradigm suggests a pattern, structure and framework or system of academic thoughts, ideas and expectations for going into research to address the research questions (2011).

3.4.4. Epistemological and Ontological and Paradigm Consideration

Bryman (2008) contends that research methods are imbued with specific clusters of epistemological and ontological commitments. Epistemology is defined simply as a theory of knowledge (Bryman, 2004, 2008). Thus knowledge, a social reality, can be obtained through various natural science methods-positivism. Positivism belongs to epistemology, which is specified as a philosophy of knowing. The subjective meaning can also be obtained through interpretivism. As such, interpretivism implies researchers to interpret elements of the research to integrate human interest into the study. Therefore, ontology according to Bryman (2004; 2008) is a theory of the nature of social entities. These are positions that assert that social phenomena and their meanings exist independent of social actors, objectivism. Equally, another ontological position known as constructivism asserts that social phenomena and meanings are accompanied by social actors (Bryman, 2008; Oxford, 2017). Thus, researchers are inspired by the desire for quality research findings that are generally affected by the adequacy and suitability of methods through which the salient knowledge about the phenomena can be investigated. This is determined by the strength of data collection and data analysis techniques with which the chosen methodology is associated. Importantly, Bryman (2008) and Oxford (2017) posit that research methods are autonomous. Bryman (2004) further argues that the nature of research underpins the choice of paradigm. A paradigm is a cluster of belief dictates which for scientists in a particular discipline influence what should be studied, how research should be done and how results should be interpreted (Bryman, 2004; Guba, 1990; Cohen et al., 2005). My paradigm is constructivism which maintains that knowledge is constructed and then interpreted which opposes that there is one single methodology to generate knowledge. Constructivism is a paradigm of research in which knowledge is not regarded as an insight into some objective reality but instead constructed by humans (Guba and Lincoln, 2004). This is because researcher believes that there is no single reality or truth and therefore reality needs to be interpreted and are likely to use qualitative methods to get those multiple realities which this study seeks. Also, as a

qualitative researcher, I relied mostly on triangulated qualitative data collection methods and analysis which use words and was predominantly the source of my evidence where I assigned meaning from that data.

3.4.5. Research Approach

The four main approaches to research are quantitative, qualitative, mixed pragmatic and participatory. These research approaches are strategies and processes for research that occupy the steps from the comprehensive assumptions to the exhaustive methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Bryman, 2008). The choice of a research approach is as well based on the kind of the research problem or issues being addressed, the researcher's individual knowledge, and the audiences for the study (Silverman, 2006). The inductive research approach adopted by qualitative researchers tend to mean that they develop a theory or look for a pattern of meaning on the basis of the data that they want to collect. On the other hand, quantitative methodology tends to use quantification in collection and analysis of data. Bryman (2008: 697) argues that as "a research strategy, which is reductivism and objectivist is epistemological in nature, that incorporates a natural science model of research process influenced by positivism". The approach to data collection and analysis in qualitative is methodical and allows for greater flexibility than in quantitative research. The two research approaches commonly used include a) quantitative (b) qualitative, but in this research qualitative approach that involved case study methodology was utilised and was influenced by the sources of information that were drawn through a triangulation of methods.

3.4.6. Research Methods

Qualitative research is a form of inquiry that analyses data conveyed through language and behaviour in natural settings and is used to capture expressive information which is not conveyed in quantitative data research to trigger behaviour. Qualitative data characteristically consists of words while quantitative data consists of numbers as they present fundamentally different paradigms (Miles and Huberman, 1994). In view of this, a wide range of research methods is triangulated in this research such as interviews, observation, focus groups discussion (FGD), think-aloud and documentary evidence as data collecting methods (Bryman, 2008). These Methods vary according to the

main methodology. All these methods allowed the researcher to explore a topic in depth about reading-comprehension with a group of student and teacher participants (Silverman, 2006).

3.5.0. Research Protocols

Current evidence considers research protocol as a comprehensive set of activities for the research one proposes to undertake, and these activities are reinforced by evidence from secondary research and from one's preliminary investigations. As such, it is a valued pragmatic programme that guides the researcher's activities and provides some expectations from what one is trying to achieve. Therefore, protocols in this study stand for such instruments used to collect relevant data for analysis (see Fig.3.3: 97).

They included such methods as 1) The observational guide for teachers (Appendix A), which enabled the researcher to determine the approaches teachers utilised in teaching reading-comprehension as well as recording what went on in the classrooms during reading-comprehension lessons, including the stage-by-stage process and activities. 2) The interview guide for teachers was used by the researcher to further clarify or ascertain facts from the teachers in terms of the approaches they use (Appendix B). The teachers' perspectives and underlying reasons for why they are using such approaches in teaching; 3) the interview guide for students (Appendix C) enabled the researcher to cross-check the approaches adopted by their teachers to determine whether these approaches are creating problems for the students. Furthermore, the guide provided an opportunity to cross-examine the approaches used by the teachers. 4) The teachers and pupils' focused group discussion (FGD) guide (Appendix D-1-4) also enabled the researcher to examine the approaches used by teachers to re-establish some links with students in terms of reading-comprehension. The students responded to these questions by speaking in turns while the researcher sat as a non-participant observer, thus not contributing to the discussions in an informal manner. This is expected to extract a substantial amount of the students' thinking and problems they are facing; 5) Marking rubrics (Appendix E) were used by the participant teachers for the examination of the students' written work and for the grading of the written work (ZIMSEC, 2006). The researcher, to examine

the students' work, used the same rubric for students' written work because it is a standardised score-sheet used by teachers and authorised by ZIMSEC. Furthermore, it was a rubric that the teachers were familiar with, and it was hoped it would check the incidence of bias and subjectivity. 6) An interview guide for the head of the English head of department (HoD) (Appendix H) provided key information about the performance of students, the teaching ability of various teachers and the general standard of the department. This also included the supervision of teachers in the department by the HoD and the general performance of the department. 7) An interview guide for the headmaster gave information about the general performance of the teachers and students in his school. (Appendix I). This included an inquiry into whether the headmaster sees his teachers giving students something they can cheer about, or whether they sometimes give something to students in the manner of encouraging them to believe that they can at least achieve something. 8) Documentary evidence was used to support the viewpoints from students and teachers and were also used to categorise, investigate, confirm physical sources and were from children's written work, teachers record and from government exam records. 9) A think aloud protocol consisting of two texts - one narrative, and the other expository were used for the learners (Appendices K2-K7). A think-aloud protocol is a process of investigation into the thoughts of readers during reading, which was adapted and used for data collection

For think-aloud, two texts, -one narrative and the other expository were given to the sampled student participants on consecutive days. These texts were utilised to evaluate the students' use of reading-comprehension strategies (Rankin, 1988). Important to the detection of learners' utilisation of strategies was the monitoring of their reading-comprehension processes while reading. This was an apparent challenge for the researcher to be aware in terms of what the reader was thinking. As a result, the researcher urged students to think aloud in order to make their thinking visible (Rankin, 1988). The researcher asked students to write their thoughts on pieces of paper to present insights into their actual utilisation of reading-comprehension strategies as they read the texts. Yin (2003) confirms by identifying six sources of evidence for data collection as suitable for such research. He gave the six sources of evidence for data gathering as documents, archival records, interviews, direct observation, participant observation and document analysis. Among these, this study

chose to take five of these as research tools for data gathering as interviews, observation, think-aloud protocols, FGD and documentary evidence to distinguish them from other sources of evidence indicated by Yin (2003). This is summarised in (Figure 3.3: 96) below portraying research methods uniting to collect data.

3.5.1. Timeline of Data Gathering October 2010 to March 2011

This sample timeline outlines tasks that were on-going from October 2010 to March 2011 at Apollo School for data collection deliverables during the listed months which was the researcher's data gathering period. To keep the process on track, the itinerary was drawn clearly laying down key tasks for data collection and the months when it was supposed to be performed (see Figure 3.2). It was allocated enough time to develop instruments, collect data, and validate data collected from the data gathering site.

Figure: 3.2: Timeline for Data Gathering at Research School

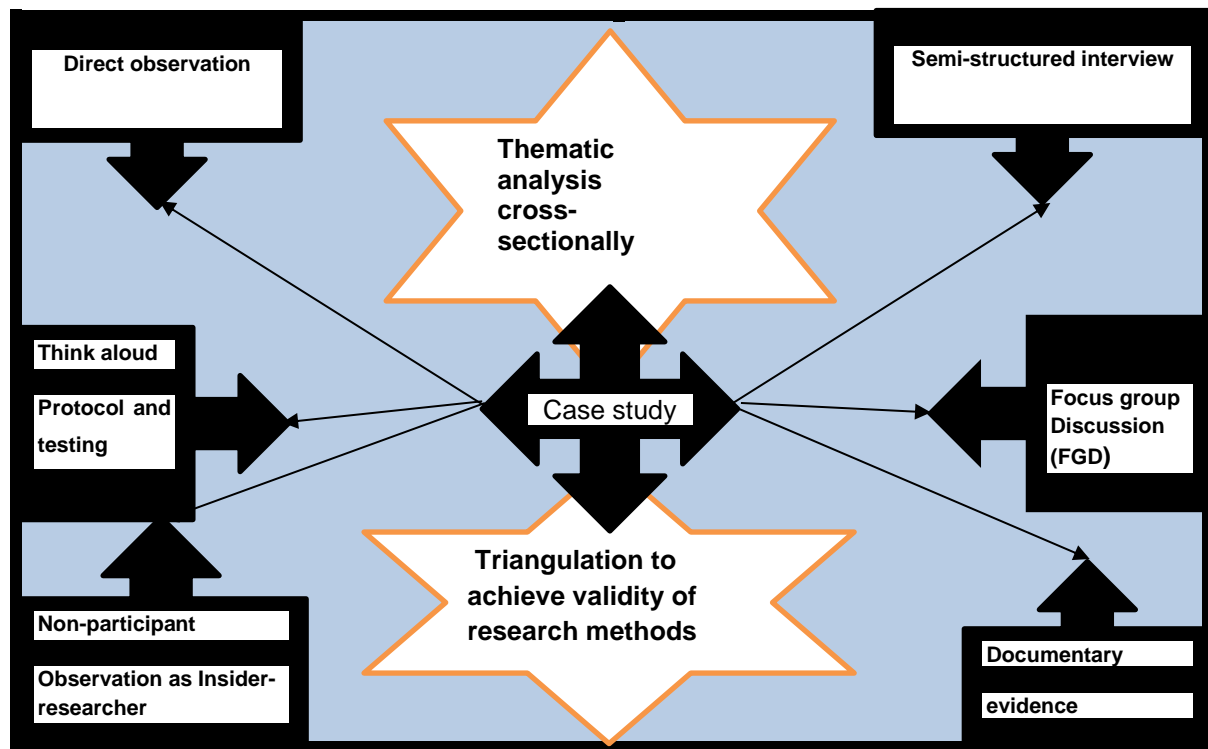
Data gathering activity	OCTOBER	NOVEMBER	DECEMBER	JANUARY	FEBRUARY	MARCH
Preparation - meetings with head/m students HoD teachers						
Gaining informed Consent						
Non-participant observations & think aloud						
Focus-group discussion -FGD)						
Teacher interviews & document evidence collection						
Respondent validation						
Year	2010			2011		

3.5.2. Think-aloud as a method

The figure above has the month in which the activity was performed on the left column and the shaded area shows the months the activity was performed in different colours.

Through using think-aloud approach-strategy learners articulate aloud while reading a passage orally in English (see Appendix, K2-7). Their articulations involved explaining things they were doing as they monitored their reading-comprehension. The purpose of the think-aloud strategy is to model how readers construct meanings from a text. Why do teachers utilise think-aloud? 1) It assists learners in monitoring their thinking as they read while also improving their reading-comprehension. 2) It teaches students to re-read a sentence, read ahead to clarify, and/or look for contextual clues to make sense out of what they read. 3) It slows down the reading process and allows students to monitor their understanding of a text (Farr and Conner, 2004; Davey, 1983).

Figure.3.3. Author’s image showing sources of Evidences for the Case Study



Students need to think while they are reading. By using think-aloud protocol, teachers can teach strategies that help students think while they read and build their reading-comprehension (Farr and Conner, 2004) (Appendix, K2-7). This is how the researcher found out what students usually do while reading in a foreign language (Elekes, 1998; Ericsson and Simon, 1993). Think-aloud was adopted for the purpose and use of data collection. In the present section, I have illustrated one kind of verbal report, the think-aloud method, and the manner it can be utilised in the L2 reading-comprehension

research and can be complemented by interview. The researcher utilised this method to get a transparent picture of what learners usually do while reading in a foreign language (Ericsson and Simon, 1993). Despite some shortcomings and criticisms of think-aloud data collection, many researchers maintain that much could be learned about reading-comprehension problems and mental thinking by making students think-aloud about definite problems and researchers can get how students actually cross-check processed information through interviews.

3.5.3. Advantages of think-aloud

Think-aloud is described as "eavesdropping on someone's thinking" (Davey, 1983:44-47). It is a protocol which has been used in a range of social sciences' research such as reading, writing and education (Duffy et al., 1984). Current evidence from Elekes, (1998) suggests that reading in the L2 is an investigative activity per se, that needs substantial attention from the learner in order to read and create meaning out of texts read in the L2. As such, the thinking process which necessitates understanding the wording written in the L2 may simply become the subject of verbalisation in a think-aloud test which was made useful in this study (Elekes, 1998). This was particularly correct for my reading-comprehension think-aloud test to create a precise goal, on this reading-comprehension test. The test questions created a further dilemma for the participants to resolve to answer questions, thus making the exercise appropriate for think-aloud.

That being the case, think-aloud as a research tool has numerous advantages over other kinds of research methods. As such, Duffy et al., (1984: 256) consider 'think-loud' as a method for gathering "systematic observations about the participants' thinking that occur during reading", which is used for gathering information concerning the otherwise invisible or unseen processes, for example, inferencing or the utilisation of previous knowledge. That being the case, this researcher perceives the method encouraging about the study of individual deviations, for instance, on the level of reading skills or the amount of background knowledge to be activated.

Current evidence from Elekes (1998) suggests on projects to use when investigating students' background knowledge levels in reading-comprehension (or the lack of it) that enhances or inhibits reading-comprehension, where think-aloud emerged to be

an appropriate research tool. Even though the participants were asked to read and recapitulate two linguistically fairly difficult prose-passages - one a narrative and the other an expository and the objective of the research was not to see how well the participants were capable of accomplishing the tasks, but it was rather projected to elicit the underlying thought processes and challenges instead. The think-aloud protocol was expected to reveal what problems the L2 readers would face when performing the reading task, was it mostly due to the deficiency of prior knowledge or the incapability to stimulate existing prior-knowledge (Elekes, 1998). The protocols exposed that, divergent to postulations, the existence of definite background knowledge did not only make a possible success but to a certain extent inhibited reading-comprehension. However, the deficiency of background knowledge did not always result in failure to understand the text but also inhibited it which can be augmented by field trips. In view of that, the reading progression was mostly prejudiced by the readers' characteristic knowledge and personal way of effecting that knowledge. Devoid of the think-aloud protocols it would have been impossible to observe how individuals arrived at an interpretation and how they determined what to embrace in the resulting summary.

The advantage of the think-aloud method is that it is the closest promising method to finding the cognitive progressions of readers. As such, only the watchful progressions are accessible for verbalisation, that is, to find much of what is going on in the readers' mind remains hidden. To that end, only the watchful progressions are accessible for verbalisation, that is, much of what is going on in the readers' mind remains hidden. That being the case, it is apparent that thinking needs to be slowed down to allow for the additional time that is required for verbalising thoughts, which may add to the incompleteness of the reports. In view of that, it is apparent that investigators should be conscious of this inbuilt incompleteness of verbal reports and take it into consideration when designing future research and analysis of data (Ericsson and Simon, 1993).

For all purposes, the literature of think-aloud research demonstrates its strength in theoretical groundwork and confirms its value as a way of exploring individuals' thought processes (Charters, 2003). However, the literature's emphasis on quantitative analysis may be too restricting (Charters, 2003). As found out by prior

researchers, seeking consistent mathematical patterns among statistically insignificant numbers of participants is limited in its efficacy and overlooks the possibility of individual differences. I recommend that future researchers consider designing and interpreting think-aloud research through a qualitative rather than quantitative lens. This is in view of think-aloud as a straightforward usability test where learners think aloud making think-aloud inexpensive, vigorous, convincing, flexible, and simple to learn and use. Think-aloud ought to be the first tool in one's toolbox; even though it involves some risks it does resolve most problems.

Having weighed the evidence, the think-aloud method has a horde of advantages. Mainly imperative is it operates as a window on the soul; enabling researchers to discover what learners actually think about their design. Particularly, participants listen to their misapprehensions, which generally revolve into actionable redesigned recommendations: when learners misconstrue design elements, researchers need to modify them. As such, even better, researchers frequently learn why participants deduce wrong elements about some parts of the think-aloud and why they find others easy to utilise. In view of the advantages of think-aloud, this method is responsive to numerous factors which include the instructions research participants receive, the wording types utilised in the research, the background in which the transcripts are read and the participants' capability to articulate their thoughts despite disadvantages of the think-aloud protocol.

3.5.4. Disadvantages of think-aloud

Conversely, Olson's et al., (1984) view maintains that directions for whichever think-aloud activity must be directed in relation to the research aims. Exclusive to providing the participants' common directions and requesting them to articulate whatever comes into mind while reading, may be assumed that they report on diverse things and do not confine themselves to precise strategies, suggested by the rubrics and so by this approach the impact of researcher expectation can be minimised. As such, it is as well a simple way to process the research effectively when the goal is to recognise the strategies a particular reading generation of texts which entail supporting their reading-comprehension.

One very crucial question is the age-group of the research populace which involves tertiary level students. Many research studies involving oral reports are done with

tertiary level students, that are educated enough as their research participants. Cohen (1987) cites several studies that were carried out with the diverse population for example with young women readers devoid of formal education and revealed that oral reports potentially had a wider application than had previously been suggested. In a related study (Sarig, 1987; Wijgh, 1995), conducted a research with secondary school students aged 16 to 18 who were found articulate enough to give reports and capable of verbalising their thoughts' processes after a short training session. In view of that, with think-aloud, it can be difficult to use with participants without a suitable formal education.

Different researchers tackle the use of language differently of which one should decide during the preparation stage, about what language the respondents will be expected to utilise when doing their think-aloud utterances. In view of that, some problems might take place from the use of think-aloud protocol if participants are asked to read in the L2 and talk in the L1. Confusion can be created by requiring participants to move back and forth amid languages while reading and verbalising would seem to encourage translation (Rankin, 1988). Looking at it differently, there appears to be danger in that respondents will be worrying more about uttering loudly and pay less attention to the reading itself if they are required to verbalise in the foreign language. This is why, as researchers, we should avoid this problem of participants with limited L2 production abilities (Lee, 1986) to avoid cognitive progressions, not in the focus of the study, but participants should be told to articulate in their mother tongue. Therefore, another reasonable alternative is to allow the participants to choose which language they would feel comfy with when doing articulations.

Further, extracting articulations is frequently considered problematic. As researchers, we need to find out the best way to draw utterances involving not much interference during the reading process. In view of that, literature provides many solutions as Rankin (1988), summarised, for instance, letting the participants articulate at will or giving some sort of signals at certain points of the text to remind participants to talk. Olson (1984) suggests a method where the researcher reads sentence-by-sentence while presenting these sentences to the reader one by one. The setback with all these methods is that "by predetermining the moment at which the participants must

articulate, those views that happen between the dots might be lost” (Rankin, 1988: 125).

Ericsson and Simon (1993) dispute the view that during the recording sitting, equally the recording tool and the researcher must be out of sight as this might augment the reliability of the data gained. As such, the researchers’ presence, even if they are undetectable to the research respondents, they may accelerate the rate of verbalisation by prompting the participants to keep talking whenever a period of silence, longer than expected, occurs. Also, as much well-directed involvement on the researchers’ part, though, ought to be avoided (Rankin, 1988). Conversely, it ought to be remembered that the researcher’s attendance might have a negative effect on the content of verbalisation. In view of the participants being aware to a certain extent, of the presence of the researcher, they might try to produce ‘socially acceptable data’ (Cohen, 1987). It, therefore, appears true that people normally feel less aggravated and less distressed to present a positive image of themselves when they are alone with a tape recorder than in the presence of an animate listener. This is why; it ought to be considered a suitable alternative to leave participants on their own, particularly, if during the training sessions if they seem to give sufficient data without nonstop prompting (Elekes, 1998).

Furthermore, one of the major doubts about the think-aloud is that it might hinder the reading practice, so it is significant to look for evidence about the readers’ behaviour in other ways, as well. To complement the think-aloud protocols, in his background knowledge study (Elekes, 1998) engaged two extra data compilation methods: that include précis writing as evidence of reading-comprehension of the texts; as well as semi-structured interviews to corroborate the findings of the protocols, after following Rankin’s submission, “as a supplementary safeguard, of which it might be desirable to have participants do a backward-looking analysis of the research passage after the thinking-aloud session” (Rankin, 1988: 125). The successful consequence of such a follow-up result on students’ learning need not be overlooked as this is confirmed by this study as useful. Several critiques and limitations have been noted on researchers’ concerns to using think-aloud protocols. Owing to a range of problems connected to the think-aloud protocol, some researchers suggest that students should practise the think-aloud procedures prior to using them for data collection. The following list

outlines some of these critiques as 1) Observers might influence how the person doing the think-aloud protocol behaves, while participants could only report cognition of which they are consciously aware (Ericsson and Simon, 1993). 2) People might process information differently from their private thoughts, which could lead to them editing their thoughts and ideas for the researcher (Ericsson and Simon, 1993). 3) The language might be an inadequate descriptive technique for the process being studied. In that view, many mental processes depend on visual, auditory or mathematical imagery for their execution. Therefore, it could be difficult to verbalise such events (Ericsson and Simon, 1993). 4) Analysis of audiotapes after data collection is time-consuming if ever used (Ericsson and Simon, 1993). 5) Experimental task directions to subjects might elicit an inappropriate level of verbalisation (Sharp, 2003). Despite some shortcomings and criticisms of think-aloud data collection, many researchers maintain that much could be learned about reading-comprehension problems and mental thinking by making students think aloud about definite problems and researchers can get how students actually cross-check processed information through interviews.

3.6.0. Interview as a method

Different approaches use the interview in research because it brings in typically structured conversations that participants utter during the process and makes it strong on validity with an in-depth understanding of one's findings. As such, one of the most productive ways to learn about a set of activities is to ask people questions who know about those activities. For this reason, the interview is used to solicit information from participants concerned (Tewksbury, 2006). The main purpose of interviewing is to understand the meaning of what the participants are thinking concerning reading-comprehension teaching/learning and increase the reliability and credibility of research data. Lindelöf and Taylor (2002) and Kvale (1996) described an interview as an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest. Kvale, (1996) posited that interviews enable participants, be they, interviewers or interviewees, to express how they regard situations from their own point of view. The type of interview given or used in any study is frequently dependent on the sources available and can be structured or semi-structured, formal or informal, closed or open-ended and so on (Kvale, 1996). Kvale (1996: 126-127) goes on to further categorize:

...interviews in the way they differ in the openness of their purpose, their degree of structure, the extent to which they are exploratory or hypothesis testing, whether they seek description, whether they are largely cognitive focused or emotion-focused.

The semi-structured interview with open-ended questions was used as one of the strategies of data collection in this study. These semi-structured open-ended questions provided detailed direct data quotations from participants. According to Cohen and Manion (2000), open-ended questions in an interview schedule have the advantage of making the whole exercise flexible. Cohen et al. (2005) sum it up when they say that this form of interview enables the interviewer to follow up ideas, probe responses, and investigate motives and feelings. They further argue that the semi-structured interview may be used to follow up unexpected results by going deeper into the motivations of respondents and their reasons for responding as they do.

However, in spite of the advantages of the interviews, Foddy (1993) conceptualises an interview as an inevitably biased transaction, which is to be recognized and controlled. The control alluded to was addressed by having a range of interviewees, who were provided by their teachers following the researcher's request for average, above average, and below average students (Norton, 2003). Importantly, these were not national averages but averages, based on school averages since the school was far below the provincial averages in line with diagnosed levels of reading-comprehension ability (Norton, 2003). The teachers and researcher used their weekly results and termly record marks to select the students in congruence with Norton's (2003: 352) diagnosed levels of reading-comprehension ability, which are stated as:

Above average... the independent level- at which the student was able to answer 90-100% of the comprehension questions; average...instructional level- at which a student is able to answer about 70-89% of the comprehension questions; below average...frustration level- at which the student answered fewer than 70% of the comprehension questions

The teachers' interviews were conducted in the HoD's office in the afternoon after their lessons had been observed during the morning. One research session would take about an hour on an average. This was done so that the researcher could focus on the lessons while they were still fresh in the mind following a day's deliberations using the prepared structured questions. This was done to clarify some reading-comprehension issues with the teachers concerned.

The students were also interviewed separately, only on a different day and in the afternoon after the lesson observation in the morning. To ensure confidentiality,

students were called into the HoD's office in the school. The researcher would chat with the student interviewee before doing the interview, sometimes talking to them about their areas of interest before getting back to the interview. In order to gather data regarding the students' construed effects of teaching strategies as well as the means to follow up, I drew upon interviews to gain insights into their perceived feelings. The interview questions were semi-structured and included questions on the following: pupils' relationships with teachers; guidance and support for pupils experiencing learning difficulties; teaching and assessment strategies and their impact on pupils' feelings and self-esteem, and pupils' feelings regarding reading-comprehension (Ndebele, 2009). No interviews conducted were tape-recorded due to the political situation in the country; instead, interview recordings depended on the notes taken during the interview' (Smith et al., 1995: 21). Bearing this in mind, I made sure to write down behaviour cues during the interview process.

Student interviews were carried out in the school, which was preferred by these participants. 'Participants generally feel comfortable in a setting they are familiar with...but ...there may be times where this is not practicable' (Smith et al., 1995: 19). I thus gave the participants an opportunity to decide the interview settings and sites before conducting the interviews. The researcher took the opportunity to explain some ethical corners such as the consent to participate and the participants' rights to withdraw or refuse to answer questions if they were not comfortable.

In addition, permission was sought through the parents' signatures allowing students to participate. The signatures served as the willingness to participate. Throughout the interview, any indications (verbal or non-verbal indications of distress) were assumed to mean an unwillingness to continue with the interview and were promptly acted upon by the researcher (Ndebele, 2009). Students determine how they preferred their interviews. The researcher wrote some comments or notes on the margins as cues: 'This way some kind of balance between the interviewer and interviewee can develop which can provide room for negotiation, discussion and expansion of the interviewee's responses' (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1995: 83). Therefore, as interview facilitates a one-on-one conversation with one-person interview can be supplemented by focus group discussion (FGD) to benefit from full advantages of the interview as a research method.

3.6.1. Advantages of interviews

An Interview is usually defined as simply a conversation with a purpose and specifically, the purpose is to gather information hence used in this study (Leech, 2002). As such, in interview research the main advantages are that 1) they are positive to gain detailed data about personal feelings, perceptions and opinions as they involve face to face feedback; 2) they consent to more comprehensive questions to be asked to get an insight of the research; 3) they frequently attain a high response rate; 4) participants' own words are recorded for onward transmission. Therefore, a significant advantage of interview research is its intuitive flexibility. Having got access to a person or group of people to interview, the interviewer is guaranteed about some sort of response.

3.6.2 Collection of First-Person Data

As such, the main advantage of a qualitative interview approach over other forms of data gathering is the ability to gather complex, in-depth data that is not easily obtained through questionnaires or question-and-answer interview approaches wherein the interviewer is essentially working as an observer, offering prompts for the subject to elaborate on. A qualitative interviewing approach allows an interviewer to assemble truthful as well as emotional data, for instance, asking a participant to explain the way he felt in a particular circumstance gives complete feedback than asking a subject to explain a process. Qualitative interviews provide the interviewer with the advantage of using a non-traditional line of questioning to glean first-person assessments of a situation. For instance, if you are meeting students with an intention of learning about cyber-bullying trends, traditional interview questions might include, "Have you ever been cyber-bullied?" or, "Do you know anyone who has been cyber-bullied?" A qualitative interview question might embrace questions such as, "Tell me what you know about cyber-bullying," or, "How would you describe cyberbullying?" This approach allows the participant to give a more generous response.

3.6.3. Collection of Honest Feedback

Even though most interview participants do not go into an assessment with the purpose of confusing the interviewer, there is a natural propensity to respond to an

interviewer's questions based on what the participant believes the interviewer wants to hear. However, in a qualitative interview, it might be difficult for a participant to discern what the interviewer is trying to get from him/her and therefore, s/he is more likely to talk sincerely and freely. This provides imparts the advantage of getting a truthful input.

3.6.4. Disadvantages of interviews

Conversely, the main disadvantages of interviews are: 1) they can be very time-consuming: that involves setting up, interviewing, transcribing, analysing, feedback and reporting; 2) they can be costly; 3) different interviewers may understand and transcribe interviews in different ways. As such, recent criticisms of interviews have been more radical; objecting to any dependence on people's debriefing accounts in interviews as a window to the social world in which they live and/or as a window into the minds of the participants (Hammersley, 2005). It is also argued that qualitative researchers should rely on the observation of naturally occurring behaviour, or that interview accounts must be treated as a topic as opposed to a resource. There must be an investigation on how interviews are constructed, and why they take the form that they take, rather than other forms they could have taken (Atkinson et al., 2003). In view of this, the researcher examined interview data for what it meant to him about reading-comprehension as the site for discussion and drawing conclusions, which involves many forms of discursive practice.

First, severe methodological caution' amounts to a radicalisation of the earlier criticisms of interviewing, where previous critics simply urged care in using interview data in the two standard ways. Some of the radical critics deny that research can depend on interview data at all in these ways (Hammersley, 2005). Research maintains that these forms of deductions are merely too speculative now that research has recognised how context-sensitive about what people say and do is, and therefore how unreliable it may be as a source of information, in comparison to the researcher's own observations.

A second criticism challenges one of the key rationales for interviews developed by qualitative researchers in that it gives access to personal understandings and knowledge that only one person has access to. Here, there is a rejection of the idea

that what people say somehow represents or derives from what goes on inside their minds. This is a general philosophical argument that challenges the idea that we can have private experiences; instead, it is insisted that the human mind must be viewed as behavioural as there is always a difference between what people say and what they actually do, especially using FGD as a data collection method.

3.7.0. Focus Group Discussion (FGD) as a method

The main purpose of FGD research is to draw upon the respondents' attitudes, feelings, beliefs, experiences and reactions in a way which would not be possible to find in other methods. The advantage of a focus group over a series of one on one interviews is that in a group setting, the comments and statements of each participant are available to all other participants and can serve to stimulate memories, alternative interpretations and achieve a greater depth of information. That information is likely to come from the participants interacting and engaging with one another (Carey, 1995). In this regard, the FGD provides this study with not only the data that would have been lost in a series of individual interviews but also yielded more in-depth information from the participants who were interacting among themselves, building on and replying to the comments of one another. The participants had their experiences and interpretations of events and actions questioned, thereby pushing themselves into greater clarity and thoroughness; hence, this produced an enormous amount of data for this study (Morgan and Spanish, 1985).

FGD is a qualitative investigating tool frequently utilised in the context of social research. Its justification is that FGDs are small and can address a specific point, which usually involves a designated purposive sample of participants who are either matched or diverse on specific characteristics of interest to the problem (Morgan and Spanish, 1985). FGD discussions require skilled researchers who can direct the discussion to maintain a focus. It is usually most effective for investigating learning problems while generating themes Carey (1995) as it verifies data through observation on the ground. It is an empowering process for participants and an exciting challenge for social researchers wanting to gain a different perspective in their field of interest and observation is used to correct circumstances of distortions during interviews and FGD.

3.7.1: Advantages of FGD

FGD is used in this study because it is cheap, relatively simple to gather, and flexible in terms of design, the kinds of questions required, and provide outcomes, which are suitable for students with, lower literacy levels, such as English Second Language learners (ESL). The open recording system allows participants to confirm their feelings. The tool presents diverse data through direct communication between the researcher and the participants. The face-to-face participation of the researcher may ensure that the discussions are constantly on track and promote the participants' commitment without one character dominating the discussions. The group dynamics can create new thoughts about a reading-comprehension exercise that will produce as much in-depth discussion as possible. Owing to the vibrant atmosphere in the discussion, the researcher can modify the questions to make the topic more suitable for the group and purpose; however, there are also limitations to using FGDs.

3.7.2. Disadvantages of FGD

However, there are limitations to using FGDs; for instance, one can only discover what people articulate rather than what they think or do. FGDs may not demonstrate any usable problems that exist on-site, as the users will not be really communicating or completing tasks. The other problem is that there is a likelihood of group thinking, i.e., people revealing a view, which is in accordance to the rest of the group, even if that opinion is at odds with their own personal views. One more likely disadvantage is that one or two participants may control the group, thereby creating an incorrect outlook of what participants' overall opinions are since these are necessary issues for a skilled researcher to carry out all FGDs. In using the FGD, the results may not be representative of the views of a larger sample of the participants. Difficult and loaded, the data might be complex to analyse since it is amorphous. In addition, FGDs are likely to develop into being influenced by one or two dominant people in the session, thus making the output very subjective and their output unprojectable (Creswell, 1998). The small sample size means that the group might not be a good representation of the larger population. However, limitations in FGDs were overcome through personal interviews conducted alongside focus groups. Ethical considerations for FGDs are the same as for most other methods of social research (Homan, 1991). However, because

of FGD limitations, the researcher would complement it with observation as a data collecting approach that examines people in their natural setting.

3.8.0. Observation as the main research method

Observation is the most common method used for getting information about the various things around us, as it is used to observe various processes related to those little things in research (Singh, 2010). Therefore, the observation was used in this study as the main research method because it does not depend on the participants' personal views but seeks explicit evidence through the eyes of the observer. Consequently, I chose this tool to be my main research tool because observed incidents are less predictable, there is a certain freshness to this form of data collection and leads to a description of people, events and cultures (Cohen, 2000: 305). Further, Observation is a holistic approach concerning the observation of everyday events and the description and construction of meaning rather than reproduction of events (Robson, 2002). Hence, it can be said that observation acts as a fundamental and a basic method of getting information about anything, but it must be kept in mind that observation is not just seeing things, but it is carefully watching the things and trying to understand them in depth, in order to get some information about them (Singh,2010).

Observation is looking at the actions and interactions of people with its roots in traditional qualitative research. It is a data collecting method, that looks simple and straightforward; but it is actually a very challenging method for gathering systematic information about people's activities and routines (Tewksbury, 2009). Researchers who draw upon observational data do so in one of two general ways: overtly, in which they openly acknowledge to those being observed that this is what the researcher is doing; and covertly, when the researcher "spies" on the people, places and things that one is studying (Pearce, 2002). The approach uses divergent settings where observations are conducted, and most importantly, by the research questions being addressed as guidelines. Patton notes:

Observational data are attractive as they afford the researcher the opportunity to gather "live" data from "live" situations, to look at what is taking place "in situ" rather than as second hand. This enables researchers...to be open-ended and inductive to

see things that might otherwise be unconsciously missed, to discover things that participants might not freely talk about in an interview situation, to move beyond perception-based data...and to access personal knowledge. (Patton, 1990: 203-205)

LeCompte and Preisle (1993) note that there are degrees of participation in observation such as those of the participant observer. As such, as a non-participant observer, s/he does not take a role in the situation but merely observes. The model of my observation status was that of a non-participant observer. Participants were aware of my presence but were not affected by it since the rapport was established during the first two weeks. In this position, the researcher was able to take notes of events, activities, reactions to specific stimuli and experiences even as the teachers and students lived them in their natural classrooms. However, the researcher thought that he would get an “insider-researcher” by being a non-participant observer.

3.8.1. Advantages of Observation

In this section, I describe why I used observation in this study as my main research tool through analysing advantages first that constitute why I chose it. As such, I start with a comprehensive view of the observation research method which is key to this study I can observe what people actually do or say, rather than what they say they do.

Observation is a useful tool to me as a researcher in a variety of ways as it manages all the other research tools by confirming their results. It provides me with ways to check for nonverbal expression of feelings, to determine who interacts with whom, grasp how participants communicate with each other and check for how much time is spent on various activities (Schmuck, 1997). In participant observation researchers are allowed to check for definitions of terms that participants use during think-aloud protocols, FGD and interviews, observe events that participants may be unable or unwilling to share, in doing so may be impolitic, impolite, or insensitive. As a researcher, I'm able to observe and check situations where participants have described something in FGD, interviews, and think-aloud thereby correcting circumstances of distortions or inaccuracies in descriptions provided by those participants (Marshall and Rossman, 1997). As such, Figure 3.4 summarises the advantages and disadvantages of observation. DeWalt and DeWalt (2002: 92) posit that "the goal for the design of research using participant observation as a method is to develop a holistic understanding of the phenomena under study that is as objective

and accurate as possible given the limitations of other methods". LeCompte et al., (1999) propose that participant observation is utilised as a way of increasing validity of data in the study, as observation may assist the researcher to have a better understanding of the context and phenomenon under study and (Fig,3.4) below reaffirms some advantages and disadvantages. With the inclusion of triangulation, observation's validity is stronger, because of using such tools as interviewing, document evidence and FGD, or other qualitative methods as employed. Participant observation can be used to help answer descriptive research questions, to build theory, or to generate or test hypotheses to capture data (DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002).

Further, DeWalt and DeWalt (2002) believe that before designing a research study that determines whether to use observation as a data collecting method, one must consider the types of questions that guide the study before, to focus the site under study and what opportunities are available on site for observation. Researchers may also consider the representativeness of the participants of the population at the research site, and the strategies to be used to record and analyse the data (DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002). In summary, LeCompte et al., (1999) list the reasons for using observation in research on why it is an important step in establishing research findings. Le Compte et al., (1999) and Bernard (1994) further give the advantages of observation, in using observation in research that it establishes what people are actually doing or saying on the ground, rather than what they say they do. In research, people are not always willing to give their true views on a questionnaire or tell an unfamiliar person what they really think of interview, but observation can bring this out. Observation can be used in real life situations to elicit this, allowing the researcher to access the contextual meaning surrounding what people say, and do during the process of learning (Williams and Thompson, 2004). There are numerous situations in the area of research investigation and other related disciplines, where approaching people for think-aloud, interview or FGD is unlikely to yield such positive response, but observations can yield valuable insights on an issue overall (Williams and Thompson, 2004). However, LeCompte et al., suggest that observation is filtered through one's interpretive frames and that "the most accurate observations are shaped by formative theoretical frameworks and scrupulous attention to detail" (LeCompte et al.,1999: 95). The quality of observation depends upon the skill of the researcher to observe and

interpret what has been observed and is most important during the early stages of the research process.

Figure 3.4: Advantages of Observation: Disadvantages of Observation

To access to situations and people where questionnaires and interviews are impossible or inappropriate to use	
	Can be viewed as too subjective and Problems of the past cannot be studied by means of observation.
Access to people in real life situations and helps in understanding the verbal response more efficiently.	
	Observation involves a lot of time as one has to wait for an event to happen to study that particular event.
Good for explaining meaning and context and data collected is very accurate in nature and also very reliable.	
	The actual presence of the observer himself Vis a Vis the event to occur is almost unknown, which acts as a major disadvantage of observation.
Observation is less demanding in nature, which makes it less bias in working abilities.	
	Overt may affect the situation and thus validity of findings
Can be strong on validity and in-depth understanding	
	Covert ethical principles and attitudes cannot be studied with the help of observations.
Very direct method for collecting data or information – best for the study of human behaviour.	High potential for the role conflict for practitioner researchers.

Also see Appendix-X-4 and X-5..

The researcher should make accurate observation field notes without imposing preconceived categories from the researcher's theoretical perspective, allowing categories to emerge from the participants under study and counter the limitations by supplementing direct observation with think-aloud, FGD and interviews (Kawulich, 2005). However, observation can be used in conjunction with other qualitative methods such as think-aloud, interviews; FGD and documentary evidence to gather data (see Fig 3.1: 74 and 3.3: 97). The researcher includes methods which are appropriate to

the problem of reading-comprehension on hand and included several other methods for triangulation (Patton, 1990) to counter react limitations in other methods. Conversely, in this section, I present the limitations of observation and that one of the problems of observation is that the past cannot be studied by means of the method. DeWalt and DeWalt (2002) noted that male and female researchers have access to different information sources, as they access different people, settings, and bodies of knowledge.

3.8.2. Disadvantages of observation

A biased individual who serves as an instrument for data collection conducts observation; this person must understand as to how gender, sexuality, ethnicity, class and theoretical approach may affect observation, analysis, and interpretation (Kawulich, 2005). Schensul and LeCompte (1999) refer to the participation as approximately meaning total immersion in a strange culture to examine others' lives using the researcher's participation knowledge as a full-time member of the community. Although they mention that most participant observers are not complete participants in the community life and several things influence the acceptance of the researcher in the community. These include one's appearance, ethnicity, age, gender, and class (Kawulich, 2005). The other aspect that might hamper one's acceptance relates to what research terms structural characteristics. This term refers to traditions that subsist in the community regarding the interaction and behaviour (Schensul et al., 1999). Research mentions some of the reasons why a researcher cannot be included in the community's observation activities, which include a lack of trust, the community's discomfort with a stranger living with them, and the community's lack of funds to further support the researcher (Kawulich, 2005). Some of the ways in which the researcher might be excluded include the community members' use of a language that is unfamiliar to the researcher, as maybe they switch from one language to another that is not understood by the researcher (DeWalt and DeWalt, 2002). Also, the change of the subject when the researcher arrives; their refusal to answer certain questions; their moving away from the researcher to talk out of earshot; or their failure to invite the researcher to social events are some of the things from which he might get isolated (LeCompte et al., 1999).

LeCompte et al., (1999) further comment that researchers should expect to experience feelings of exclusion at some point in the research process, particularly in the initial stages. The most imperative shortcoming researchers should note is for them to recognise what exclusion or fun behaviour means to the research process and expect that after the researcher has been in the community for a while, the community is most likely going to accept them up to a certain degree (Kawulich, 2005).

The researcher should determine as to how deeply they will participate in the lives of their participants, or whether they will intervene in some situations and guard against the potential limitations of researcher bias. Researchers should also note that unless they use other methods other than participant observation, there is a likelihood of a failure to report the negative aspects of the culture of their members. Researcher bias is one of the negative aspects of observation research, resulting in the flawed notion that observation research is subjective, rather than objective. As per Ratner's (2002), view that some observation researchers believe that one cannot be both objective and subjective while others believe that the two can coexist and that one's subjectivity can facilitate understanding of the world or another. Ratner (2002) maintains that when one reflects upon one's biases, one should guard against the prejudices that may distort the viewpoints and replace them with perspectives that are more objective. On this view, Ratner (2002) is suggesting that the researcher should be respectful of his participants by using a variety of methods to ensure that what s/he interprets actually matches the understanding of the participants. Furthermore, Breuer and Roth (2003) make use of a variety of methods for knowledge production, including positioning of various points of view such as special or temporal relativity, perceptual schemata based on experience and interaction with the social context to understand that any interaction changes the observed participant through non-participant observation.

3.9.0. Non-Participant observer

A non-participant observation process is a three-stage funnel, according to Spradley (1980) that begins with descriptive non-participant observation, in which the researcher carries out broad scope non-participant observation to get an overview of the setting, moving towards focused non-participant observation, in which, one starts to pay attention to a narrower portion of the activities that most interests him. In a non-

participant observation, a researcher observes the participants while staying with them, but not taking part in their activities. The researcher selected non-participant observation, in which he investigated relations among the participants that were selected as being of greatest interest (Spradley, 1980). However, non-participant observation ends when theoretical saturation is reached, which takes place when further non-participant observation begins to add little or nothing to researcher understanding. This usually takes a period of months, but, depending on the phenomenon in question." (Liu and Maitlis, 2010).

Non-participant observation is frequently triangulated with other data collecting methods to offer a more nuanced and dynamic appreciation of the situation that cannot be as easily captured through one method (Liu and Maitlis, 2010). Further, under non-participant observation, the observer does not participate in current-ongoing activities but records observations, which remains her/his main data collecting method. It extends beyond naturalistic non-participant observation because the observer is not a player in action. The technique was used in this study to gather data, particularly, when the researcher actually took on the role of reading-comprehension as a student sitting among the students, but not participating in their activities. In most cases, it is focused on the qualitative Constructivism or Interpretivism as it answers questions directed towards the CLT approaches (Dewalt and Dewalt, 2011). In non-participant observation, one does not need to do as the locals do: It is significant for the researcher not to join but demonstrate a relationship with the targeted population to be accepted as a member of the community. Spradley (1980: 59) calls this form of rapport establishment a "talking the talk" or "walking the walk". DeWalt et al., (1998) maintain that the researcher must strive to fit in with the community of the study through the moderation of language and non-participation. As is the case with any kind of researcher interacting with human participants, the researcher must make sure that those acting as the participants of study should never cross the ethical boundaries. The researcher should clearly establish the boundaries before the onset of the study and have guidelines in place, should any issues cross the ethical boundaries. In non-participant observation, the ethical concern that is most relevant is that of informed consent and voluntary participation (Dewalt and Dewalt, 1998). There is the issue of deciding whether to obtain informed consent from every sampled participant in the

group of study or seek the informed consent for non-participant observation from the person of leadership (see sect. 3.12.1.). The other is the possibility of not informing anyone about one's true purpose in fear of influencing the attitudes of members, thus skewing the observations recorded (Dewalt and Dewalt, 2011).

Non-Participant observation also brings up the issue of voluntary participation in events the researcher observes and records (Dewalt and Dewalt, 1998). There may be instances when members do not want to be a part of the study and request that all data collected pertinent to them is removed. In this case, the researcher is obligated to relinquish data that may identify the members in any way. Above anything else, it is the researcher's responsibility that the participants of the study do not suffer any ill effects either directly or indirectly. Participants are informed of their rights as subjects of the study, and that the group is justly chosen for study (Molyneux et al.,2004).

3.9.1. Non-participant-advantages

In view of non-participant observation, I present reasons why I chose it by referring to what DeMunck and Sobo (1998) provide advantages of employing non-participant observation amid other methods of data compilation. As such, non-participant observation entails observing participants devoid of actively participating. This alternative is chosen to comprehend a phenomenon by entering this Apollo community system involved while staying separate from the activities of participants.

- It makes the researcher able to notice the prevailing events with their own eyes and be able to formulate judgements and view participants' body language.
- The researcher becomes more open-minded as he is looking from outside the situation appearing less empathetic and thus becoming subjective to data.
- Additional ethical issues if accomplished overtly - without ethical concerns if people are conscious that they are under observation

These may comprise access to the backstage culture that consent to abundantly comprehensive description, which may construe to denote that one's goal of describing situations and events as unstated by one's participants is highlighted and that presents prospects for participating in unscheduled events to complement the first three advantages discussed. Further DeWALT and DeWALT (2002: 8) give advantages in non-participant observation as that they... "append that non-participant

observation enlightens the excellence of data compilation and interpretation” and therefore assists the expansion of new research questions or hypotheses.

3.9.2. Non-participant-disadvantages

This is in view of observations that are carried out devoid of the researcher participating. That being the case, there are some reasons why the researcher chose to do this, because as one eliminates the threat that people might be affected by the existence of a researcher, or it might be that the groups may be unwilling to assist in the research if researcher participates in the research. As such, if the observation is over you are more liable for threats from the Hawthorne effect as people are aware they are being watched. That being the case, researchers may not gain as much data as a non-participant observer as they are not so immersed in the group they are observing and therefore:

- Non-participant observation may lead to Hawthorne effect because people may perform differently because they recognise they are being observed.
- It might be difficult to get precise results as you are watching from a distance or coming from outside;
- It is difficult to create a good Impression to new people you have just met which might be difficult to manage on impression;
- It is time-consuming and expensive;

Sometimes the researcher might not be concerned with what is happening out of the public eye and also one may depend on the utilisation of key participants who may make results subjective. If the observation is an overt one, that may be liable to threats from the Hawthorne effect as people may recognise they are being observed. You may not gain much information, as sometimes participant observations are not so much immersed in the group they are observing. However, researcher’s triangulation guarded against the constraints and also being aware of them.

3.10.0. Sampling

3.10.1. Purposive Sampling

In this section I view purposive sampling, where I refer to a sampling method in which participants are chosen based on the purpose of the study; in this case, the English

Language teachers at Apollo School (Verma, 1991). Purposive sampling does not produce a sample that is representative of a larger population, but it can do exactly what is needed by the study: Sampling some English Language teachers and students who are a clearly defined and relatively small group constructed to serve a very specific purpose (Black, 2010). Here, the researcher selected participants he thought might be suitable for his study and there were a limited number of teachers who teach reading-comprehension in English at Apollo school. However, such samples may be biased when compared to other cases but may not be biased in terms of understanding the one case under study; reading-comprehension teaching at Apollo School (Lund Research, 2012).

3.10. 2. Justification for the choice of the Purposively-sampled School

During the design stage, the researcher decided to look for a school that was most likely to provide a broad sample comprising of students from diverse rural backgrounds that were amenable to the research context. This was a rural council school that did not administer entrance examinations for student's intake. Considering the research topic, it was not helpful to involve samples from 'private schools and mission schools where students are selected based on their exam results. This was in line with Denzin and Lincoln's (1994) observation on sampling choices.

In view of Denzin and Lincoln (1994), my sampling choice was based on a sampling criterion that selected participants basing on "information-rich" cases for studying them in depth (Patton, 2002). On that point, this purposive sampling was mainly employed because the researcher chose a sample from which the sources generally were rich and could be achieved (Merriam, 2009). In consideration of that, it is a sampling approach in qualitative research that looks for cases rich in information that is capable of being studied immensely about issues of great significance that satisfy the purpose of the research. The advantage of purposive sampling as Patton (2002) puts it views any general examples that come out of the centre of the research with shared position-settings or phenomena from which the most can be learned (Merriam, 2009). The school was purposively selected because of its unique nature in that it exhibited special features that make it different in the province from other schools according to results in the Provincial Office. The examination results revealed that less than ten percent of candidates managed to pass English Language from the period 2009-2012,

as shown in Table 4.15: 215. It rates between average and below average in the teaching of the English reading-comprehension in the district, and a little below average in the province. In addition, when the researcher sent his letters of request, Apollo School was the first one to respond.

The distance from school was significant because some of the students who travelled long distances to school could get tired during the day, which could affect their work in school. This was contrasted with their performance. For example, two students who travel 7km one way would be investigated; however, one bright student is not affected as he only travels 6km one way and is one of the top students since the distance is not so great. It does not affect all students, but quite possibly does affect a significant proportion, which influenced the choice of this school.

3.10.3. Rationale for Purposive Sampling

I chose to employ this approach over others due to the following flexibilities:

- As new factors emerged, the researcher had the flexibility to increase the sample to say more about them if they are chosen to;
- The approach allows the researcher to focus on a small part of the sample in early stages of the research using the wider sample for later tests of emerging generalisations (Silverman, 2006).
- Unexpected generalisations in the course of data analysis lead the researcher to seek out new deviant cases (Silverman, 2006).

Purposive sampling is almost identical with qualitative research; because there are several objectives that qualitative researchers may take. The lists of “purposive” strategies one can pursue are practically endless, and any given list will reveal the series of situations that the author of this list has considered. The general theme is that the biggest question any researcher needs to ask him/herself what exactly it is that one wants to accomplish and understand; the appropriate sampling strategy will follow from that.

The foremost aim of purposive sampling is to focus on certain features of a population that is of interest to the demographic feature that would best facilitate one’s research questions. The sample being studied does not represent an entire population. For

researchers pursuing qualitative research, they triangulate methods of research design, which is not considered a weakness but rather a strength, the purpose of which is to counter the weaknesses in sampling adapted. For instance, in homogeneous sampling, elements are chosen based on their related characteristics because they are of particular interest to the researcher. By contrast, significant case sampling is frequently utilised in this exploratory research to assess whether the phenomena of interest even exist.

Purposive sampling aims to attain an equal sample; that is, a sample whose elements share the same characteristics or traits, for example, a group of people that are similar in terms of background or occupation. Purposive sampling, also known as judgmental, discriminatory or biased sampling, is a kind of nonzero-probability sampling method that aims to sample subjects where the units that are being investigated are based on the judgment of the researcher, where more often than not, the sample being researched is quite small, particularly when contrasted with probability sampling techniques.

Purposive sampling enables a primary understanding of the circumstances, and to classify/distinguish the requirements of one or more appropriate groups, which generate a sample whereby the incorporated groups are selected according to specific characteristics, considered important to the situation. By means of such a sample, differences can be contrasted, resulting in the ability to brief a series of experiences, for example, the highest and lowest percentage of communities with access to education. The research will select a sample of participants, who represent a cross-section of affected groups. When using purposive sampling, it is important to seek participants that can interpret the situation of a wider group of affected representative people in the given sample. The criteria for selecting participants will largely depend on the context of this emergency. Meaningful stratification of localities is advised to ensure that different types and levels of impact are captured. The purposively sampled target population comprised of selected rural O-level reading-comprehension teachers and students (Table 4.8: 169). It consisted of all teachers purposively sampled (Table 4.9: 172 who teach O-level reading-comprehension in this rural school. The research interest focused on the investigation of strategies used by teachers in English reading-comprehension classes.

Almost all teachers in this study hold Diploma Certificates. The Diploma in Education in Zimbabwe is a three-year teacher training qualification acquired by enrolling at a teacher training college after passing O-level. Due to the lack of jobs in the country, those who are less qualified for the University with A-levels are also enrolling for this diploma course. The trainees specialise in the subjects in which they got the highest grades. Presently, the Diploma in Education for secondary teacher training is offered at the Belvedere Technical Teachers' College, Chinhoyi Technical Teachers' College, Hillside Teachers' College, and Mutare Teachers' College. These are government institutions and associated colleges of the University of Zimbabwe, which produced these teacher participants for this study and the purposively sampled students were stratified sample.

3.11.0. Stratified Sampling of students

The researcher purposively sampled O-level students. It was found that the O-levels were most suitable to take part in this research. The 110 O-level students were then targeted for the research. The targeted population was 110, who were then stratified into average, above average, and below average strata. A stratified sample is a population sample that needs the population to be divided into smaller strata so that stratified samples can be taken from each stratum as a form of relationship representation based on students' performance. This ensures that the resulting sample is distributed in the same way as the sampled population in terms of the stratifying criterion (Bryman, 2008). Dividing the population into strata allowed the researcher to draw conclusions not only about the general population but also about the subgroups of the population. In stratified sampling, the strata are created based on the elements' shared features or characteristics. In this case, students are sampled as average, above average and below average (Cohen et al., 2005). It is a process of dividing the target population into homogeneous strata before sampling; in doing this, it becomes easy to conduct stratified sampling sensibly because, through identification, one can allocate average, below average and above average criterion in these strata. A stratified sample from each stratum is taken in a number proportion to the stratum's size when compared to the population in this case 22 students were sampled (Bryman,2008). Stratified sampling was applied within each stratum. In this

case, the average stratum produced eight participants, with the above and below averages producing seven participants each, rendering 22. It produced a weighted (biased) mean that has less variability than the arithmetic means of a simple stratified sample of the population (Black, 2004). These subsets of the strata were pooled to form a stratified sample made up of 22 students. However, two students exercised their right to participate and opted out. The main advantage with stratified sampling is that it captures key population characteristics similar to a biased average.

Table. 3.1. Homogenous stratified samples

Above average	35
average	40
Below Average	35

This method of sampling produces participants in the sample proportional to the overall population sampled (Cohen et al., 2005). After the researcher had explained that he needed students who were average, above average, and below average in reading-comprehension based on Norton’s (2003) diagnosed levels (sect.3.6.0) of reading-comprehension ability, the teachers took samples from student participants using their monthly record books. Parents were not chosen for any part of this study; however, their children were allowed to participate after the parents consented by signing a consent form (Appendix: F2). When sub-populations do vary considerably, it is advantageous to sample each stratum independently. Stratification is the process of grouping members of the population into relatively homogeneous subgroups before sampling (Shahrokh and Doughty, 2014). The strata should be mutually exclusive whereby every element in the population may be assigned to only one stratum. The strata should also be collectively exhaustive, and no population element can be excluded (Hunt and Tyrrell, 2001). Systematic sampling is then applied within each stratum, which often improves the sample’s representation by ameliorating sampling

error. This guarantee weighed mean with less variability than the arithmetic means of a simple random sample of the population as another possible advantage.

3.11.1. Advantages of stratified sampling

If the target population density alters significantly within a place, stratified sampling will guarantee that estimates can be made with equal accuracy in different parts of the region while assuring that the comparisons of sub-regions can be made with equal statistical power (Shahrokh and Dougherty, 2014). For instance, a survey in the Mashonaland East Province of Zimbabwe might use a larger sampling fraction in the less populated northeast. Since the disparity in population in this semi-arid region near Mozambique is so great that a sampling fraction based on the provincial sample in its entirety might result in the collection of only a handful of data from outside Harare, the capital of Zimbabwe (an area previously tsetse flies infested). Therefore, the strength of stratified sampling lies in its representation of the population.

3.11.2. Disadvantages of stratified sampling

Although stratified sampling works well for populations with a variety of attributes, it is otherwise ineffective, owing to the lack of the formation of subgroups. Stratified sampling is not helpful when the population cannot be exhaustively partitioned into disjointed subgroups. It would be a misapplication of the technique to make subgroup sample sizes proportional to the amount of data available from the subgroups, rather than scaling sample sizes to subgroup sizes (Hunt and Tyrrell, 2001). An efficient way is to partition sampling resources among groups that vary in their means, variances, and costs. The problem with stratified sampling is that unknown class priors can have a deleterious effect on the analysis performance of the dataset, for example, classification (Shahrokh and Dougherty, 2014). The main disadvantage of a stratified sample is that it may require more administrative effort and is an expensive method that suffers from the challenges of weighting, stratification, and overlapping of strata. It can additionally become time consuming, as the categories need to be identified and calculated. Despite these setbacks, stratified sampling involves classifying the population into categories and choosing a sample of participants from each category in the same proportions as they are in the target population. The research also safeguarded against these shortcomings by confidently classifying every member of

the population into a subgroup using the teachers' record books. When students were stratified-sampled, they needed to be systematically sampled in their different strata.

3.11.3. Systematic sampling

Systematic sampling is a statistical approach that entails the choice of units from a given sampling frame. Many common types of systematic sampling use a nonzero-probability method where progression through the list is treated circularly, (permutation-by-duplication) with a return to the top upon the ending of the list (Black, 2004). The sampling begins by choosing a unit from the list at random.

Table: 3.2 Systematic samples

AB-AV	35	7
AV	40	8
BL-AV	35	7

Then, every $k^{\text{th}}(5^{\text{th}})$ element in the frame is selected where k , the sampling interval (sometimes known as the skip): this is calculated...where n is the sample size, and N is the population size $k=n/N$ (Black, 2004) which, in this research, the target population was 110 and was stratified sampled as above average, average and below average. The calculation was as follows: Above average: $110=35/5=7$, average: $110=40/5=8$, below average: $110=35/5=7$. The students who were above average in my target population were 35; these were systematically sampled by taking every fifth student from the above average stratum, rendering a total of seven.

This group was sampled to join the participants representing the above average stratum. In the average stratum, there were 40 from the target population; every fifth student was systematically sampled, taking the total number of students to eight in that stratum, with the below average stratum having 35 students on the target population. After the sampling of every fifth student, seven students were selected (see Table 3.2: 125).

Upon utilising this process, each unit in the target population has a known and nonzero-probability of selection, given the fact that this makes systematic sampling functionally similar to simple random sampling (Black, 2004). It is, however, most helpful if variance within a systematic sample is more than the variance of the target population (Cohen, 2005). Systematic sampling is to be applied only if the given population is logically homogeneous because systematic sample units are uniformly distributed over the population (Bryman, 2008). The researcher should be sure that the chosen sample interval does not conceal a pattern because that would threaten randomness.

It is nevertheless, most efficient if variance within a systematic sample is more than the variance of a population; in addition, it is much less costly to administer. According to Cohen et al. (2005), the advantages of systematic sampling are that the mistakes in sampling are minimised and the operation is speedy, it is spread uniformly over the population and is likely to be more precise than the random sampling which in this study, ensured validity and reliability in their implementation.

3.12.0. Validity and Reliability

In the realm of qualitative data, validity might be addressed through the honesty, depth, richness, scope of data acquired, participants approached (in this case, the direct responses from participants), and the extent of triangulation or objectivity of the researcher. Triangulation refers to “the researcher’s use of multiple sources, methods and investigators” (Lincoln and Guba, 1994: 305). The notion of triangulation makes methods that are more confident whether different sources lead to the same result (Rothbauer, 2008). In qualitative data, validity might be improved through careful sampling, appropriate instrumentation, and appropriate interpretation of data. Validity should then be seen as a matter of degree rather than an absolute state (Gronlund, 1981). Validity refers to the extent to which one’s test or other measuring tools are accurately measuring what one intends them to measure (Brown, 1996). For example, the test question “ $1 + 1 = 2$ ” is definitely a valid fundamental addition question because it truly assesses a student’s ability to perform basic addition.

By comparison, the qualitative method invariably creates descriptions along with expressions from participants reflecting how they view the social world. In other words, the researcher, as well as the readers of the study’s results Berg (2012) can better

understand the perspective of the producer of the text. Qualitative data analysis pays awareness to exclusive themes depicting the series of meanings of the phenomenon rather than the statistical significance of the occurrence of particular texts or concepts (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009). In line with Zhang and Wildemuth (2009), analysis for this study took a thematic analysis approach process. The researcher did not derive factors from existing theories or previous related studies and had not intended to verify existing theories; rather, he immersed himself in the research tools' transcripts but let the categories emerge on their own from data (Schamber, 2000). Several categorised data in the coding system could be easily identified based on manifested content, while others were harder to identify because they were partially based on the latent content of the texts (Allen and Reser, 1990). Data categories were expected to be reciprocally exclusive and exhaustive, whereby reliability assesses the validity of a researcher's reconstruction of social reality (Zhang and Wildemuth, 2009).

Adeyemi (2008) posits consistency in reliability to refer to the constancy of a measure. The measurement is an aid to be consistent or reliable if it is able to produce comparable results if expended again in similar circumstances. In qualitative research, reliability may be considered as a fit between what researchers' record as data and what actually occurs in the natural setting being researched (Adeyemi, 2008). With reference to this deviation, Kvale (1996) pointed out that in interviews, there might be as many perceptions of the qualitative data as there are researchers. This is why Bell (1993) maintained that whatever procedure is selected for data collection, it should always be examined critically to assess the extent to which it is likely to be reliable and valid (Adeyemi, 2008). In this study, the validity and reliability generated by think-aloud, FGD, interview questions, and observation checklist were ascertained in different ways. The lesson observation developed by the researcher was also instrumental to this, as were collegial views, input, and the stages of the writing process (Cox, 2002).

Regarding the above reference by Kvale (1996), he is right because Holstein and Gubrium (1995) made a similar point to reject the objective nature or unbiasedness of interview data. Similarly, Harre (1998c) argues that since the researcher is embedded in the social scene of the interview, they are not independent of the participants' responses. The impossibility of objectivity for these researchers implies that subjectivity must be acceptable and understood in depth. Conversely, Silverman's

(1993) work is possibly too individualistic to allow for the social nature of human subjectivity; however, he maintains that qualitative research values the subjective aspects of social life. The researcher, therefore, agrees with Kvale's (1996) point of view that there might be as much diverse perception of qualitative data as there are researchers because of different views on the part of researchers.

The strategies employed in ensuring that validity and reliability of the research findings were assured consisted of triangulation of research methods, a purposive sampling which had the advantage of having participants who had given consent to participate ensuring informed consent and ethical issues are observed after negotiating access and meeting gatekeepers from the Ministry Authorities.

3.12.1. Negotiating and Gaining Access and meeting the gatekeepers and research Protocols

In view of gaining access and meeting gatekeepers in this section, I will write how I accomplished negotiating access and meeting them to process my research protocols. On the balance of probability, I was concerned that I might find it extremely difficult to get a school willing to accept me to carry out my research in their schools and was aware of the sensitive contexts of my presence in the ministry where I had worked before on different roles. However, despite that predicament, I was able to find my way through the process. Even, Bell (1999) concurs that no researcher should claim access to an institution or an organisation without meeting gatekeepers and gain access, which can critically influence their design, planning and sampling in carrying out educational research. However, Vulliamy et al., (1990) observed that in research settings, there tends to be a hierarchy of consent, whereby those in positions of power grant permission for research to be done on individuals lower down the hierarchy (Vulliamy,1990). As such, this can lead to understandable resentment, which can only be overcome by researcher's very careful management of their role (Vulliamy,1990).

Consequently, the problem of access required that I planned the research well in advance to minimise difficulties in gaining access to the research site, to participants and the setting-up of the study. Participants themselves can refuse access to the researcher for realistic reasons, for example, time or potential participants have something to protect (Cohen et al., 2005). I had to be watchful of this and the methods

of data collection and their suitability and fitness for the purpose in relation to my potential participants.

Bell (1999) argues that permission to carry out an investigation must always be sought at an early stage; therefore, the process of seeking an ideal school began about six months earlier. I also thought it was feasibly easier to be accepted in the Ministry of Education Schools, particularly, in schools I had been acquainted with before as a teacher. I had hoped that if I was granted permission, that would minimise the degree of resentment as assumed by Vulliamy (1990) referred above. Another due consideration, I made was to cut or minimise travelling costs as well as reducing time on travelling. I decided from the onset to conduct a participant observation in the Ministry of Education Schools where I had worked before.

Having worked in the Ministry of Education Schools in Zimbabwe, I was knowledgeable about who to approach first and what protocols to follow to gain access. The only distressing feeling was whether the gatekeepers still remembered me since a considerable time had passed between my teaching tenure in the ministry then. While I ironed out a few technical issues such as putting in place a copy of research ethics and obtaining my introductory letter from my Director of Studies, I decided to head to Zimbabwe Ministry of Education Head Office armed with these documents. For my journey, that first step involved ironing out a few logistical issues with my Director of Studies that of collecting my letter to present to the Ministry of Education in Zimbabwe and all research consent forms. This done, I looked for money for my air ticket to Zimbabwe and money to use in my research. I approached my bank and applied for a loan to use on this journey. The bank was very generous and gave me the money.

When I arrived in Zimbabwe, I headed straight to the Ministry of Education Head Office and presented my letter from The University of Derby asking for permission to undertake research at one of their schools in the country. In Zimbabwe, you cannot just arrange with the school headmaster without first seeking permission from ministry authorities, unlike in the UK where you just arrange with the head teacher. The ministry granted me permission to carry out my research and handed me a letter to present to the relevant Provincial Authorities in the Ministry of Education.

The then Provincial Education Director (PED) read my letter from the Ministry of Education Secretary. After reading my letter, he wrote his own letter to introduce me to the District Education Officer who, after reading the letter from the Provincial Director, he endorsed my letter from the PED by stamping it to show I had passed through his office which introduced me to the school. I took this letter to the school and presented it to the headmaster who then introduced me to the head of the English Language Department (HoD). The HoD then took me to her office and I started to explain to her about my research. At this stage, I believe the need to point out that I was respectful and polite during my discussion with the HoD and other members of the school who came in to meet me (Vulliamy, 1990).

The HoD called all English Language teachers and I conducted my first meeting with teachers who were going to participate in the research as all English Language Teachers were purposively sampled for the research. I explained the research to the teachers about any impending informed consent and all ethical issues. All English Language teachers agreed to participate in my research by signing consent forms, who were told that they were free to withdraw and were not coerced to remain in the research (mentioned elsewhere) and I emphasised that their views were very crucial. I as well told the participants that their involvement was voluntary. Relentlessly, I repeatedly reminded participants that their identity and involvement would be held with extreme privacy and confidentiality. I employed all these precautions to guarantee that participants gave informed consent. "Informed consent entails that participants are knowledgeable, involved voluntarily, independent, not betrayed, not pressurised and not induced" (O-Leary, 2014: 64). I then asked the HoD if I could meet all O-level students (form 4) so that I could explain my research to them. All O-level students were purposively sampled for the research. I also took that opportunity to explain their consent forms, which were going to be signed by their parents to allow them to participate in the research since they were minors. I took this class because it had finished the syllabus and was about to write their final exams and would produce quality data consistent with analysis.

3.12.2. Informed Consent Protocols

Informed consent is a legal and principled lawful requirement for research concerning human participants in a research. It is an imperative and noble requirement for whatever research project. In view of that, my research project is a practice in which participants consented to participate in my research process concerning its procedures, risks, and benefits (Bulger, 2002). Informed consent is the procedure where participants are educated about all aspects of the research, which are vital for the participants decide. After studying all portions of the research, the participants voluntarily authenticated their willingness to participate in my research. On that note, after fully understanding the information regarding the research project, the participants provided complete and conscious consent for the researcher to carry out the project by reading and signing the consent forms. The theory of informed consent is contained in the principles of British Education Research Association (BERA, 2012). Even though informed consent is intended to make sure that participants fully comprehend the processes, benefits, and risks implicated in the research, it is not without its own flaws about the practical application. In view of that, many secret barriers may stand between participants and researchers that usually lead to misunderstandings, but this was avoided because I was knowledgeable about the community's culture.

My informed consent protocol was about giving responsibility to each individual participant his/her own informed consent to participate in the research. I made available a synopsis of informed consent information where its meaning or consequences, the required elements of consent, the consenting processes, and documenting consents are all given and explained to participants whereby participants read the full text of consent information provided to them before signing them. On the same note, informed consent is a voluntary agreement for research participants to consent to participate in a research. In view of that, the participants' rights to this research study are explained thoroughly in accordance with the revised BERA (2012) code of ethics where it is made clear that participants are not compelled to partake to the research study. The researcher designed consent forms in which the participants are provided with clear, concise information about the study in which they are invited to participate (see Appendix, F1-3). Further, informed consent is necessary prior to

registering a participant to participate in your research. Participants in my research participated willingly. The participants were also informed that this was a non-participant observer and therefore the length of the study could not be predetermined from the onset.

The aim of informed consent practice is to give adequate information so that a participant may make an informed choice about whether or not to participate in the research. The informed consent document was explained in their L1 which was understood by all the participants easily, to reduce the likelihood of coercion or unwarranted manipulation, and the participants were given sufficient time to consider participation. The participants eventually signed the informed consent and ethical forms when they chose to participate.

3.12.3. Ethical considerations and Ground-breaking Time

In view of informed consent ethical issues also accompanied them as a set of rules that direct how research is performed and managed, making ethical issues really the hub of research, which set standards of the research conduct. There are six key ethical principles that are expected to be followed and these include: 1) participants rights; 2) research worthiness; 3) appropriate information for participants; 4) anonymity of research participants and findings; 5) research design, review and undertaken to ensure integrity; and 6) independent clarity and meeting gatekeepers and gaining access. Many of these ethical issues are entwined in the informed consent protocol. To appreciate the significance of the research process, the circumstance that led to these ethical issues should be included in the research project in order to be understood. After getting permission from authorities, I then sought permission from the headmaster, HoD, teachers and students who all agreed to participate; however, the participants because of the political situation in the country prevented the researcher from using a tape recorder (mentioned above). Therefore, transcriptions were taken from the FGD and interview data. All nine teachers volunteered to participate in this research (including headmaster).

Ethical issues for the research study were, therefore, observed and emphasised to protect participants from harm. Realistic ethical issues were observed in line with the

revised BERA (2012) code of conduct and were treated imperatively to gain respect from all individuals who directly or indirectly contributed to this research study. BERA (2012) guidelines were valuable to the researcher as they indicated his responsibilities as a researcher. As a result, the following procedures were implemented which involved consent to carry out classroom research as granted by the Secretary of Education through the headmaster of the school, who works with 13-18-year olds in rural Zimbabwe.

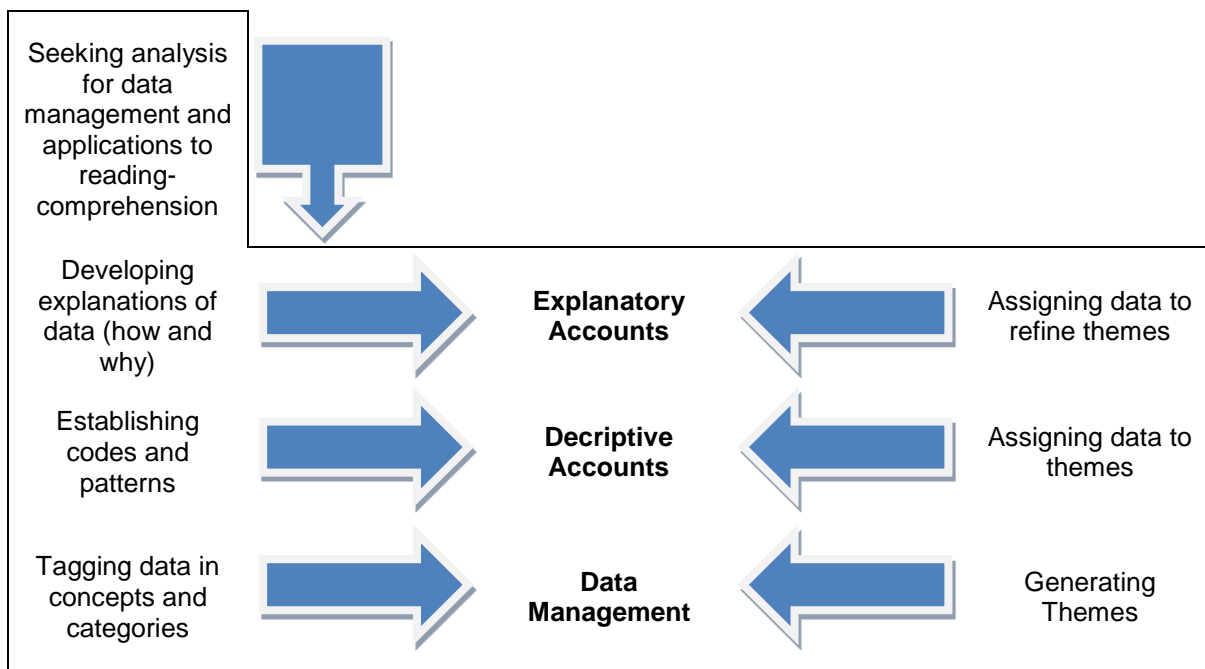
A general outline of the study and letters of request were presented for the parents' approval (Appendixes. F1, F2, F3, G). It is necessary to state that participants were not coerced into joining the research study, but they were invited and expressed willingness to participate. Procedures were followed in this study to guard the participants from harm as informed permission was obtained from all the participants and confirmed in a well laid-out consent form. They were free to pull out at any time if they so desired (see appendix. F1). Confidentiality was protected by not identifying anybody and by giving the school by a pseudonym Apollo. As such, the researcher decided to adopt the procedure for anonymous identification to blanket confidentiality to gain trust and protect the participants' identities, as suggested by (Hammersley, 1999). Hammersley argues, "We emphasise that confidentiality is not simply a mechanical procedure, but a continuous methodological concern closely related to the values contained and communicated by the research" (Hammersley,1999: 189). However, de Laine (2000) points out, "Omission of identification of information can cause a quagmire during critical analysis...omission of personal identifying information from field notes can affect critical features for analysis" (de Laine,2000: 147). Lastly, Bell (1999) cites semi-structured interviews centred on a topic as allowing the participants to talk about core issues pertaining to them, while the researcher recorded participants' responses for subsequent analysis and interpretation, which needed to be protected ethically. Ground-breaking time was reserved for the researcher to observe and familiarise with the participants before actually embarking on the research process. The researcher also used this time to mingle with the system, give participants informed consent and ethical information issues and to learn about the group's culture of learning and teaching to become a member of the group involved in the research (Lopez, 1993). As a non-participant observer, I was not participating in their activities but just observing as stated elsewhere in order to fulfil some ethical

issues. Ethical and informed consent forms were signed during the ground-breaking time after negotiating access and meeting gatekeepers who allowed me into the research programme.

3.13.0. Thematic analysis

In view of the study’s findings this section will demonstrate that my data analysis was thematic (Appendix: J 5 A) that is leveraged in qualitative research and focuses on examining themes within data (Kellehear et al., 1997).

Figure 3.5. Data Analysis: The Analytic Hierarchy



Researcher’s summary showing analysis of data

It is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data and often goes further than this by interpreting various aspects of the research topic (Boyatzis, 1998) (Appendix: J5-A). The *range* of different possible thematic analysis process will further be highlighted in relation to a number of decisions regarding it as a method (Fig.3.5). This method put emphasis on organisation and loaded accounts of the data set. The thematic analysis goes beyond merely counting phrases or words (Appendix J-5a) in a text and moves on to identify implicit and explicit ideas within the

data where Guest and MacQueen (2012) diagnosed the problem from the participants' responses. Coding is the main practice for budding themes within in Fig: 3.5: 134 the raw data by distinguishing significant moments in the data and encoding it before interpretation Boyatzis, (1998), where Charmaz (2009) maintains coding is a way of the researcher getting into data, and that coding is a heuristic device to understand data (Fig.3.7: 138 Fig. 3.6: 137).The leading discussion in the literature is the manifestation of deprived operational conditions forcing teachers to take on practices on teaching where lecturing and testing were practised resulting in students' poor results in public examinations emanating from a lack of enough vocabulary and reading-comprehension skills and the piecemeal reaction of the government in dealing with the challenges. Every one of these issues is indicative of a diminishing performance in education. In the course of analysis, I deliberately fixed my attention on the literature, observed features and primary data to see if it was affected by the 2008 crisis and got some idea that the 2008 crisis was partly to blame. I was inquisitive to find out if my findings established or disproved the literature reviewed. I utilised the thematic analysis approach to data based on Charmaz's (2009) data analysis in which confirm that it is work designed to construct theories that is engrained in the data themselves (Kellehear' et al.,1997). In this study, I sum up my data analysis process using line-by-line coding as a way of the researcher to get into data and as a heuristic device that I used to understand data to confirm or reject if the 2008 crisis had an impact. Charmaz (2009) further emphasised that codes serve as shorthand devices that separate data to create themes.

The understanding of these codes can further embrace contrasting and comparing these frequencies, identifying theme concurrences, and graphically displaying relationships between different themes (Guest and MacQueen, 2012). Many researchers regard thematic analysis to be an extremely valuable method in capturing the details of meaning within a data set (Guest and Macqueen, 2012). The thematic analysis takes the perception of supporting assertions with data from the field. Charmaz (2006a) confirms that it is work designed to construct theories that are engrained in the data themselves (Fig.3.6: 137).

3.13.1. Analysis of data

This data analysis was approached using analytic induction. It is a process seeking to transform, cleanse, inspect and model data, with a goal of discovering useful information to suggest conclusions and supporting decisions in this research. Therefore, data analysis was carried out cross-sectionally by looking at similar responses from the five research methods (interviews, observation, FGD, think-aloud, documentary evidence and children's work) which were used to find out how participants reacted to research questions 1-3. In view of that, a social sciences' cross-sectional analysis was carried out which embraces a scrutiny of data analysed from the research methods (Lee, 2008; Schmidt-Co-Kohlmann, 2008). In this cross-sectional analysis, data were collected from the research methods at a single point in time to examine the relationships among data from the five research methods. Therefore, in this research, responses were looked at to find what they signified in the research methods' responses, as suggested by (Allan, 2003). Where they occurred differently colour-codes were used to identify their source (Richards, 2005), for example in Figures, (3.7: 138) and (3.8: 141) and also in Appendices J-5A to J-9.

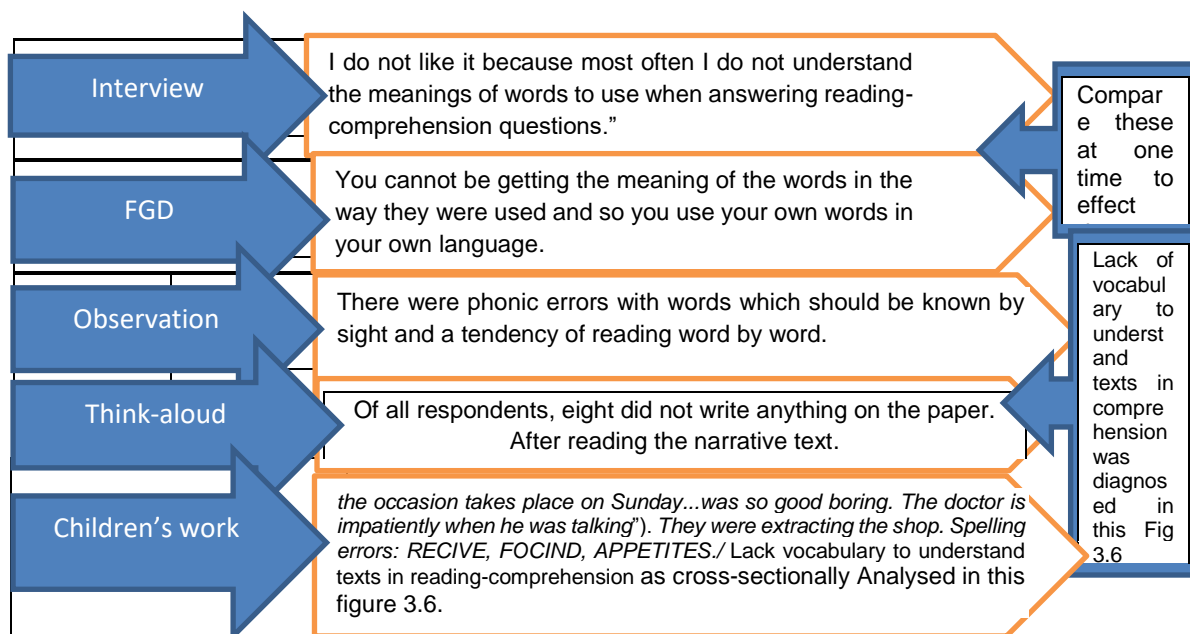
According to Andrew (2005), a cross-sectional analysis is a set of responses from participants' responses collected for matching relationships among factors in the data, matching these responses from different research methods for data processing and analysis were matched as all research tools focused on research questions 1-3. In the cross-sectional analysis of data, a comparison sought differences and similarities among the participants' responses related to the research questions. As such cross-sectional analysis scrutinised data collected by observing similarities and differences among the different methods' responses, at the same time to find their relationships (Andrew, 2005).

In view of this example of cross-sectional data analysis, similar responses were compiled to come up with the diagnosis that students lack the vocabulary, maybe due to lack of reading resources that have affected even their senses in the construction of sentences (see Appendix-R8-R16). Their ability to spell was even affected. There were many unimagined spelling errors which highlighted the problems students face with vocabulary (see section 4.10.6). Students themselves even confessed that they

fail to get the words to use while one said the same during FGD sessions that they do not get meanings from words in English and so they substitute those difficult words with words in their own language so that they are able to proceed (see sections 4.8.2 and 4.3.2.1).

As revealed by the triangulated research methods adopted by the researcher during data analysis, data focused on the same themes concentrating on the data gathered (Figure 3.6: 138) and then cross-checked to see if other methods reflect the same theme as indicated below, the responses focused/revealed on the lack of vocabulary Brady and Johnson, (2008). Incidentally, Krashen’s (2003) reading theory revealed that the more we read in the L2 the greater our vocabulary will be which has linked up with this study as it has revealed that wide reading is an important goal for learners to succeed in reading-comprehension.

Figure:3.6. Example of a cross-sectional data analysis



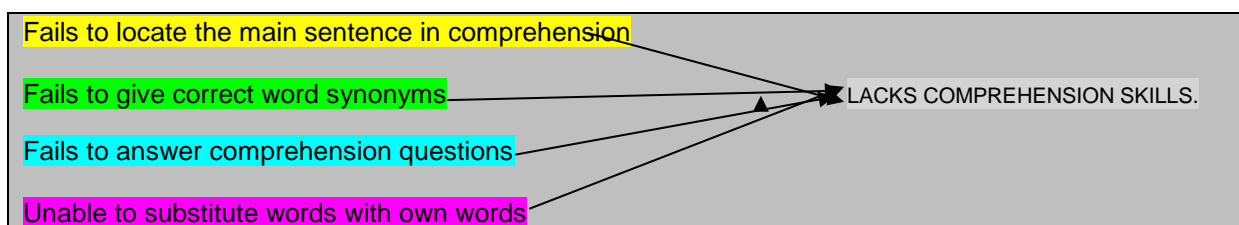
Also see Appendix-X-3.

The statement about diagnosis above has come out through recorded responses from observation, think-aloud, documentary evidence, interviews, and FGD perpetuating Krashen’s (2003) view that competence on lexical items of language plays a significant role in learning new concepts in reading-comprehension. Figure 3.6 above shows that

all the five methods have revealed that learners do not have enough vocabulary to do well as each one of them has contributed data revealing the same problem. In the observation of lessons, students were heard reading word by word showing that there are many phonic errors in words which should be known by sight (see section,4.10.1). That means the researcher recorded information about the participants' responses showing data across the methods that reflected the same pattern pointing at the deficiency of vocabulary. In view of that, the researcher simply recorded levels of responses as they appeared along-side each research method which revealed information that was of interest to the researcher which contributed to the theme of vocabulary deficiency.

In view of this example from a cross-sectional data analysis, similar responses were compiled that come up with the diagnosis that revealed that students lack vocabulary. This may be due to the lack of reading resources that have seriously affected their learning in reading-comprehension, even the construction of sentences (see Appendices R8-R16) and also their ability to spell was affected. Students themselves even revealed that they fail to get the words to use while two more students echoed the same problem during FGD that they do not get meanings of words in English and so they substitute difficult words with their own L1 so that they are able to advance (see section 4.10.6 and 4.8.2). In the observation of lessons, students were heard reading word by word and also there were many phonic errors in words which should be known by sight (see section,4.10.1). Thus, more vocabulary synonym-language is the gateway to knowledge that unlocks the doors of inspirational ideas to the readers.

Figure 3.7. Code analysis of data (see appendix J5a-J8)



This thematic theory is reflective in the analysis because the process consists of reading transcripts which identify possible themes that compare and contrast responses to come up with themes and building theoretical models (Fig.3.8:

141) (Guest and MacQueen, 2012). Like most research methods, this process of data analysis can occur in two primary ways—inductively or deductively (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In an inductive approach, the themes identified are strongly linked to the data because assumptions are data-driven (Boyatzis, 1998). This suggests that the practice of coding happens without trying to fit the data into a pre-existing model or frame. It is imperative to note that right through this inductive progression, it is not possible for the researchers to free themselves from their theoretical epistemological responsibilities. However, deductive approaches are theory-driven Crabtree (1999) and are liable to be less descriptive because the analysis is limited to the defined frames. The result is liable to centre on one or two specific aspects of the data that were determined prior to data analysis. The choice between these two approaches generally depends on the researchers' epistemologies.

Further, thematic analysis emphasises pinpointing, examining, and recording themes within data (Braun and Clark, 2006). Themes are patterns across data sets that are important to the description of a phenomenon and are associated with a specific research question (Fig 3.5: 134) (Daly et al., 1997). The themes become the categories for analysis (Fereday and Muir-Cochrane, 2006). Thematic analysis is performed through the process of coding in six phases to create established meaningful patterns (see Table 3.3: 143). These phases are familiarised with data, generating initial codes, searching for themes among codes, reviewing themes, defining and naming themes (Fig.3.10: 145; Table 3.3), and producing the final report (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Blaxter et al instruct the themes of research as;

...subjects of your report or thesis ...which are the key issues, concepts or questions you identify as being of relevance and interest. These will both inform the research you undertake, so will be evident in your contextual discussion, and help to structure your analysis and findings. They are the aspects of your field or discipline to which your research is contributing (Baxter et al.,2001: 215).

As such, Crabtree (1999) and Blaxter (2001) further maintain that themes are consistent internal structures that can be achieved by using concepts as quoted above. Blaxter et al., (2001) further advise that if the *themes* are repeated in successive sections of the thesis' writing, the reader will be encouraged to follow the routes for one to become conversant.

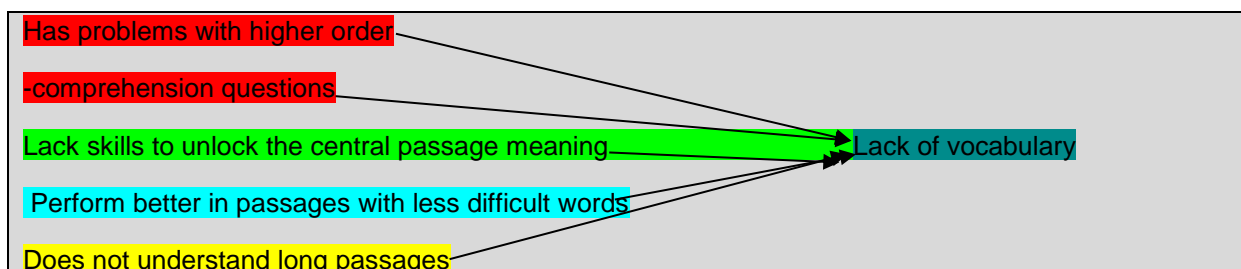
3.13.2. Themes

A theme represents a level of patterned response or meaning from the data that is related to the research questions at hand. Determining what can be considered a theme can be used in deciding prevalence. This does not necessarily mean the frequency at which a theme occurs, but in terms of space within each data item and across the data set (Daly et al., 1997). It is ideal that the theme will occur numerous times across the data set, but a higher frequency does not necessarily mean that the theme is more important to understanding the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). A researcher's judgement is the key tool in determining which themes are more important. A potential data analysis pitfall occurs when researchers use the research question to code instead of creating codes and fail to provide adequate examples from the data (Fig.3.6: 137, 3.7: 138, 3.8: 141). Eventually, themes need to provide an accurate understanding of the "big picture" from data (Braun and Clarke, 2006). There are also different levels at which themes can be identified—semantic and latent (Richard and Boyatzis, 1998). A thematic analysis generally focuses completely on one level. Semantic themes attempt to identify the explicit and surface meanings of the data where the researcher does not look beyond what the participant said or wrote but look at what the participant said (Richard and Boyatzis, 1998). In this instance, the researcher wishes to give the reader a sense of the themes, thus some depth and complexity are lost. However, a rich description of the entire data set is represented, by latent themes that identify underlying ideas, patterns, and assumptions. These require much interpretation of the data that researchers might focus on one specific question or area of interest across the majority of the data set (Saldana, 2009). A theme is different from a code where several texts advocate that researcher's code for themes (Saldana, 2009). This can be misleading because the theme considers the outcome or result of coding, not that which is coded but the code is the label that is given to particular pieces of the data that contribute to a theme, for example, security can be a code, but a false sense of security can be a theme (Saldana, 2009). The formulation is illustrated in Fig 3.6: 137, 3.7: 138,3.8: 141, and Table 3.3: 143.

3.13.3. Coding of Collected Data

A code in the qualitative investigation is generally a word or short text that figuratively allocates a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or suggestive feature for a part of language-based or visual data (Saldana,2009). As such, field and participation observation notes were transcribed to catch words and phrases for coding. In line with Strauss and Corbin (1990), transcription must always be systematically carried out in accordance with the demands of the research itself. Line numbering was used for easy and quick identification of themes to understand data (Appendix, J-5-A). The next step involved compiling analytical files that attempted to answer the three main research questions. The other factors that contributed to poor reading-comprehension were kept in these files according to the questions/sections in which fewer than three main heading strategies were used. The transcripts were then purposefully open-coded according to emergent categories consistently following the methods Richards (2005) used and outlined below.

Figure 3.8. Colour coding analysis system (see also Appendix J.5A)



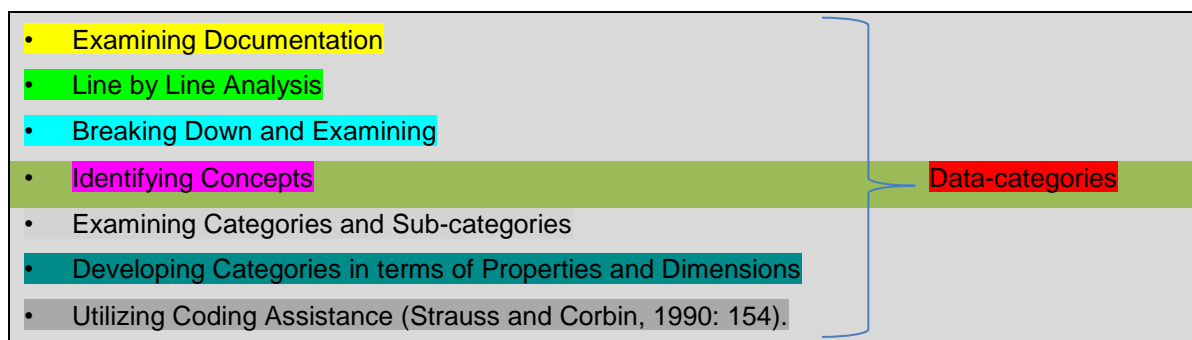
In line with Miles and Huberman, the codes are the:

...tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during a study. Codes usually are attached to 'chunks' of varying size or words, phrases, sentences, or whole paragraphs, connected or unconnected to a specific setting. They can take the form of a straightforward category label or a more complex one (, for example, a metaphor) (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 56).

Coding is the first stage of opening up meaning from data' which serves as shorthand devices to label data (Richards, 2005: 94). This first level of coding involved reviewing the transcripts in order to "dissect them meaningfully while keeping the relations between the parts intact" (Miles and Huberman, 1994: 56). Fig.3.7: 138, in this process, name and categorise the data to become an important step that serves as a

foundation for further analysis of data. Markers and highlighters of varying colours were adopted for the coding process (Appendix.5A). Initially, the researcher adapted 'in-vivo coding' (within the process) (Richards, 2005). Richards argues that this term refers to categories named by words people themselves use' (Richards,2005). The themes were assigned labels or codes close to the terms they represented. However, Richards (2005) cautions against using well-known terms from the relevant technical literature as names for categories, which he says constitutes a risk if the terms are already shrouded in analytic meaning, leading to bias consequently. Nevertheless, this process helped me to become familiar with the data, through which some frames or outlines became vivid thereby making the researcher aware of emergent reflections (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Figure 3.9. Data coding management



According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), open coding uses comparisons to shape meanings and is concerned with coding data using a number of inter-related procedures listed in Figure 3.8: 141. Further, Strauss and Corbin (1990) argue, "it is useful to identify initially as many phenomena and concepts as possible because it catalyses entry into the domain" (Strauss and Corbin,1990: 154). For purposes of this research study, the researcher used open coding, selective coding, and pattern coding in the data analysis process. In summary, thematic coding is a structure of content analysis to discover and conceptualise the fundamental issues amongst the 'noise' of the data (Allan, 2003). At some point in the analysis of an interview and FGD, the researcher becomes aware that the interviewee is utilising words and phrases that draw attention to an issue of significance or interest to the research that can be described in a short phrase (Allan, 2003). This problem might be mentioned once more

in the same or similar words and is yet again noted, the process is called pattern coding, and the short descriptor phrase is a *code* (Allan, 2003).

3.13.4. Pattern Coding

Preceding the coding of the data is a process referred to as pattern coding which tends to be in constant revision (Charmaz, 2009). Pattern coding is essential in finding supporting and conflicting evidence according to specific themes.

Table 3.3. Showing open coding used in the data analysis.

Steps in Open Coding	Step-by-step coding used in the analysis
1) Breaking down and examining data	The data relating to the research study was examined including field notes and journal entries. This process involved taking to pieces of categories into components the record of the researcher's personal observations and feelings with regard to the participant observational notes, FGD, interviews and the interview material etc.,
2) Line by Line Analysis	This was a laborious exercise that needed time. It was a process which was used to break down and examine the data. Each transcript was analysed line by line by isolating the focus of the sentence and noting it in the allocated margin of the transcript page on the computer. The core ideas embedded in the sentences were copied and transferred to a new page and closely examined. Line-by-line coding facilitated the asking of salient questions such as <i>What is going on? What is the meaning of this?</i> etc. Each line's transcription-coding enabled me to reflect more about the participants' responses; thus, revealing a rough picture of what was happening in the data rest during intervals.
3) Identifying Concepts	Going through the data, each discrete incident, event, or identified idea was given a name. Here, a name denotes an object of thought, and an object of thought is the theme. Then, discrete ideas, observations or events emerging from the transcripts were named as representing themes or ideas.
4) Discovering Categories	For the thematic theory analysis, open coding is concerned with the naming and categorising of the data and is considered as a foundation for further data analysis. At this stage, the exercise involved putting tags and classifying identified concepts.
5) Examining Categories and Sub-categories	This process of identifying sub-categories opens up the elements related to the identified categories which are used to identify and name codes with open coding.
6) Developing Categories in terms of Properties and Dimensions	According to Strauss and Corbin (1990), the properties and dimensions of categories facilitate the identifying of core categories and the development of a thematic theory analysis. This exercise was achieved by developing the properties and dimensions in a rigorous yet dynamic manner. During this step, I tried to identify any properties that I opined was associated with a category.

Miles and Huberman (1994: 69) argue, "Pattern coding is a way of grouping those summaries into a smaller number of sets, themes, or constructs". During this process,

analysis and comparisons between cross cases were conducted. The researcher adopted boldfacing to mark identified themes or categories, with his reflective remarks shown in red and allotted for easy spotting. The researcher's reflections provided meaningful clues and interpretations of the data throughout the data examination process. When the quantity became bulky, the information was sorted into spreadsheet charts according to the emerging categories and stored on a computer. Table 3.3 above is an example of line-by-line coding process that I incorporated to derive meaning from the data (Charmaz, 2009). Numbered pages (on the computer) were used to group coded data according to themes (Appendix, 5A). Data was then digitally transferred onto a new page for an emergent theme. Thus, data obtained from each subgroup was bunched for easier comparison with other subgroups as the procedure for data analysis proceeded (Fig.3.8: 141 ;3.7: 138).

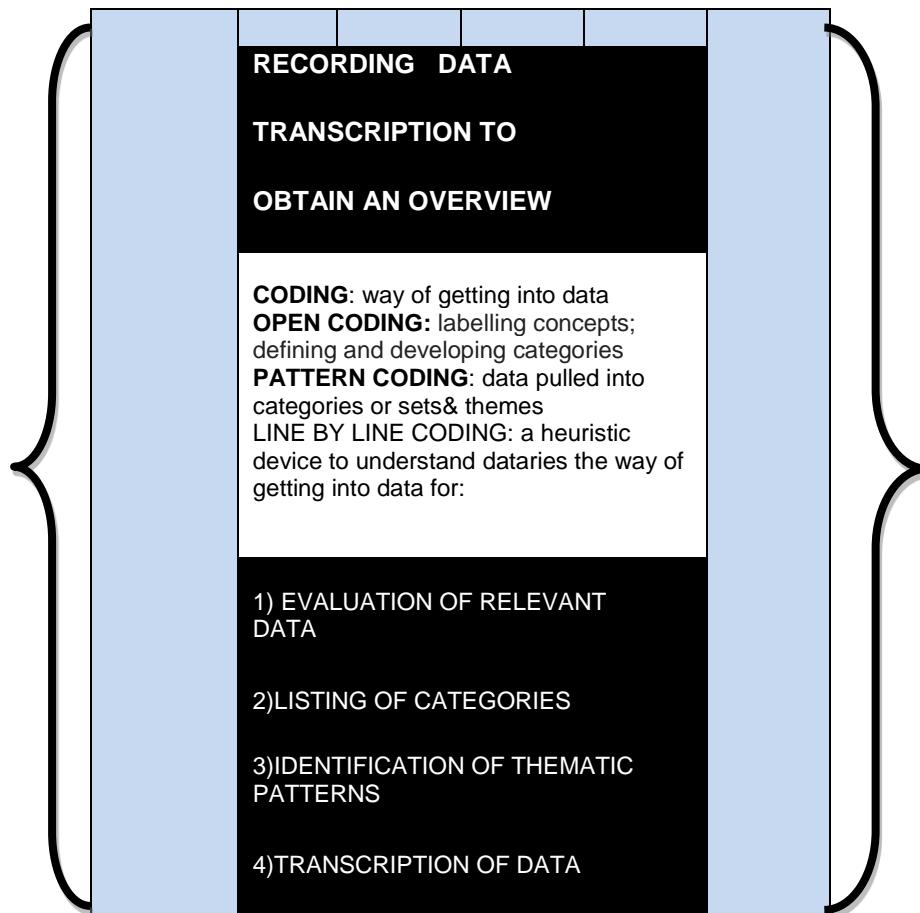
3.13.5. Procedures for the Analysis of the Data

The qualitative content analysis involves a process designed to condense raw data into categories or themes based on valid inference and interpretation where it forms one of the most important yet complex research methodologies in social sciences (Neuendorf, 2002). Code analysis of data (see Appendix J 5A-J8). This process uses inductive reasoning by which, themes and categories emerge from the data using the researcher's careful examination and constant comparison (Tesch, 1990; Weber,1990). Thematic analysis guards against data overload, for example, (Fig.3.9: 142) where you have four statements through code analysis you will end up with one. This content analysis involves the examination of media or communication formats for the purposes of identifying how such messages construct and reflect a part of their culture of learning/teaching patterns (Miles and Huberman, 1984).

This researcher was engaged in content observation by examining the students' work to collect different types of data from participants' lesson notes, record books, textbooks, children's workbooks, teachers' notes, interview confessions, and media data etc. Following the data collection phase, the researcher worked on a structured, systematic manner to identify patterns and trends as to what is included, the meanings being communicated, the type of vocabulary used, or the manner in which various

types of messages are contextualised within their particular form of media (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

Figure 3.10. Coding management of Collected Data



Author’s summary of coding as an analytical process of data.

The data analysis in this research followed suggestions from different research authorities including: (Richards, 2005; Creswell, 2009; Smith et al., 1995; Lincoln and Guba, 1994). The investigative analysis thematic theory Smith et al., (1995) and progressive manner. In my analysis, I looked for what Gee (1992: 107) calls “discourse memberships”, which is a precise pattern of:

...ways of talking (i.e., discourses), acting, valuing, and believing, as well as the spaces and materials ‘props’ [that a] group uses to carry out its social practices...that are recognised as constructing opportunities for people to ‘be,’ and display being, particular types of persons’.

Nevertheless, initial data required coding to begin the analytical process (Fig.3.6: 137, 3.7; 138; 3.8: 141,3.9: 142.). “Coding is the process of defining what the data are all

about” (Charmaz,2009). On the other hand, even though the data analysis procedure should be orderly and be able to be a logical step-by-step approach, it, however should be flexible to the precise needs and requirements of the research. Therefore, thematic theory analysis methods provide a set of strategies for conducting rigorous qualitative research. This approach accorded me a method that not only assisted with data collection but also gave me strategies for handling data analysis; (i.e.) ‘synthesizing them and making analytic sense of them (Charmaz, 2009). Charmaz (2009) further argues that using a thematic theory analysis approach accelerates one’s research, which enables one to produce a convincing analysis which stimulates excitement about the research. The researcher chose to use thematic theory analysis due to its provision of rigorous procedures that allowed him to get into data, understand and manage it.

3.14.0: Conclusion

In summary, the methodology chapter has delineated the research paradigm, which is a qualitative one. The study entailed a case study targeted by interview, observation, FGD, think aloud and documentary evidence to look for data collection as research methods. In view of the instruments for data collection, it further included two texts; a narrative and expository one, FGD, interview and observation guides for students and teachers, and a think-aloud protocol to collect data. The research methods’ critiques have also been made. The researcher administered this test to the students and conducted interviews with both students and teachers. In analysing the data, the researcher applied the thematic theory coding analysis as discussed above by reading through data collected, reviewing it and coding it to categorise the phenomena to come up with a theory. Issues of critiques, getting access and meeting gatekeepers, informed consent and research ethics were tackled. The results of this research study are presented in chapter four.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.0. FINDINGS

This study endeavours to investigate the challenges faced by O-level students in reading-comprehension and other factors that cause poor reading-comprehension results. The study further seeks to examine the strategies that teachers use in teaching O-level reading-comprehension classes. These findings are presented in the following category-themes below:

4.1. Findings Focus:

- 1) The first part presents findings from the 'thinking-aloud' protocol, which gauges and determines the challenges students face and the main themes are drawn from the use of "think-aloud" to ameliorate the challenges in reading-comprehension. (4.3.1)
- 2) The second part presents findings from FGDs regarding the students and teachers' responses to the open-ended questions that answer the research questions to determine the extent of the challenges and the degree of strategies used by teachers in reading-comprehension. (4.3.2,4.4.0,4.5.0)
- 3) Thirdly, the findings from interviews, observation and documentary evidence from the headmaster, HoD, teachers and students' workbooks and exam documentary records to confirm and establish the challenges faced by students and the methods used by teachers in reading-comprehension. (4.6.0,4.7.0,4.8.0.,4.9.0,4.10.0)

These are a response to the research questions below.

4.2. Research Questions

- 1) What approaches do teachers utilise in the teaching English reading-comprehension?
- 2) What are the challenges that are rural O-Level students facing in reading-comprehension?
- 3) What other factors contribute to poor reading-comprehension skills?

4.3.0. Data presentation

4.3.1. Think-aloud protocol-findings

In this section, I present think-aloud protocol or thinking aloud; also known as talk-aloud, which is a protocol used to gather data in research and development, in psychology and a range of other social sciences, for example, reading, writing, translation research, decision-making, and process tracing. My think-aloud, protocol involved participants thinking aloud as they performed specified tasks in reading-comprehension using narrative and expository texts (Appendix, K2 and K3). Participants were asked to say whatever came into their minds as they completed the tasks. This included what they were looking for, thinking, doing, and feeling which gave me as an observer an insight into the participants' cognitive processes, to make thought processes as explicit as possible during task performance. In this research protocol, all verbalisations were noted and recorded, then analysed.

In view of that, Kuusela and Paul (2000) state that think-aloud protocol can be implicated in two different types of experimental processes. The first is the concurrent think-aloud protocol, which collects data during the task while the second is the retrospective think-aloud protocol, which gathers data after the task has been completed, often prompted by another prompt to confirm the data recorded (Kuusela and Paul, 2000). However, this research adopted the first concurrent protocol type of think-loud. There are benefits and drawbacks to each approach, but in general, a concurrent protocol is used to collect commentary as evidence while participants talk about the task at hand it is complete, and participants verbalise on the basis of their working memory and speaking their thoughts while performing the tasks. While a retrospective protocol has fewer chances of interfering with task performance in the study, but studies may need very large sample sizes for outcomes (Ericsson and Simon, 1993). As this section continues to present the research findings through the think-aloud protocol using expository and narrative texts, with participants described in Chapter 3 of this research study, it is going to seek data qualitatively. The findings are presented qualitatively in line with the three research questions of this study. In order to do this effectively, the aims, objectives and research questions have been re-stated as background to the findings as categorised above.

4.3.2. Findings from the think-aloud

All the student participants read the expository texts, which were premised on “Child Abuse” (Appendix K2). Before reading, none of the 20 respondents wrote anything on paper. During reading, two students were capable of identifying the important concepts from the text. Two students thought that the passage was uninteresting while seven had long lists of words whose meanings they did not comprehend. The other nine did not write anything.

The researcher adapted and utilised the think-aloud protocol for the learners to gauge the challenges they faced and the main themes to be drawn from the use of “think-aloud” that included: vocabulary synonym-language development, identifying reading themes, inferring, extracting main ideas from texts, monitoring, exploring and defining comprehension texts, interaction and approach to texts. These contribute to ameliorating the challenges in reading-comprehension.

Table 4.1 Outlined from the think aloud on the expository text

	Before reading	During reading	After reading
Wrote nothing	20	9	18
Able to identify concepts	0	2	0
Had long lists of vocabulary	0	7	0
Thought passage was boring	0	2	0
Thought some answers were similar	0	0	2

After reading the passage, all students responded to the nine questions based on the texts, two students wrote that the answers to the comprehension passage were

somehow similar and were apparently confused. The others did not write anything concerning the questions. The results obtained by the respondents relating to the expository text are shown in the table that follows.

Table 4.2 Students' scores from the expository text.

Frequency	Scores out of 20
1	4
5	5
1	6
2	7
4	10
3	11
3	13
1	15

Regarding the narrative text, (Appendix K3) all the respondents read it and before reading it, none of them wrote anything on the pieces of paper given to them

Table 4.3. Outcomes from the think aloud on the narrative text.

	Before reading	During reading	After reading
Wrote nothing	20	8	0
Wrote down important concepts	0	2	0
Wrote down lists of vocabulary items	0	10	0
Students who wondered why answers were so similar	0	0	2

During reading, two respondents wrote down the concepts they did not understand, whereas ten of them wrote down long lists of words that they found difficult to understand. Of all respondents, eight did not write anything on the paper. After reading the narrative text, all the respondents attempted the nine questions that followed. Of the 20, two wondered on their pieces of paper as to why the answers to some questions appeared to be so similar. Marked scripts revealed scores as shown in the table below. Frequency represents the number of students who got that mark out of 20; hence, in this case, one student got 15 out of 20, 2 got 13 out of 20 ...1 got 2 out of 20 and so on.

Table 4.4. students' scores from the narrative text

Frequency	Scores out of 20
1	2
1	3
1	5
2	6
3	7
3	8
3	10
1	12
2	13
2	9

From the Table 4.4, Two of the students managed to achieve 13 and 2 got 9 marks. From this study, it is clear that most of the students have managed to score more than 7 out of 20. Thus, it can be stated that these students despite all the challenges and

constraints have managed to secure average marks and if they put more effort than they have done they may definitely develop their skills.

The primary aim of think aloud protocol is to make students more reflective, more cognitive and are independent learners (Weddle, 2013). This approach can fulfil the first research question about the approaches teachers utilise regarding teaching reading-comprehension to O-level students. Through this approach, the students are capable of understanding the fact that reading-comprehension is often very much a complex process and they are required to put more effort as they have problems in understanding texts and vocabulary regarding reading-comprehension. Thus, through this process, it is also possible to fulfil the second question about the challenges rural students face in reading comprehension. The students are required to understand their problems while doing reading-comprehension and if they are capable of thinking aloud then they can easily make their teachers realise their problems. Thus, teachers can put significant effort into solving their problems by adopting effective strategies. The teachers and students through the adaptation of this approach can understand what they are capable of understanding each other.

4.3.3. First FGD was conducted with students

Focus groups can be used at the preliminary or exploratory stages of a study (Kreuger, 1988). The student participants in this study used the information that they gained at an exploratory stage using expository and narrative texts during their FGD discussions. They held the discussions in the form of a debating meeting following the think aloud tests (See tables 4.1- 4.4: above). This was done to facilitate the answering of Research Questions 1, 2 and 3 to determine what teachers' approaches were when teaching reading-comprehension and to establish the students' challenges in reading-comprehension. An isolated classroom was chosen to hold these FGD sessions with all students' research participants. The exercise book and chalkboard were used to document the comments made by students. The researcher ensured that he led FGD's discussions while the other teacher took notes and recordings during the meeting to ensure consistency existed across FGDs in response to guaranteed preparation beforehand, with regard to the role and responsibilities of the researcher. The researcher controlled the proceedings of the FGD session and called upon students

to respond to the questions. They raised their hands to speak as they responded to questions written on the chalkboard with one of them acting as chairperson.

The themes that came out in this section of the study focus on the challenges faced by students which included vocabulary synonym-language, contextual clues in vocabulary, identifying main ideas and themes, inferring, extracting main ideas from texts, monitoring of reading-comprehension and definition of texts, describe scenes, interaction and analyse texts to make students control their own learning.

4.3.3.1. Important reasons why quotations were used

The quotes are chosen in this section to provide a rich source of visual data that places a human face on to data through real-life stories as evidence to the researcher's findings regarding participants' statements, which establish what participants are actually saying on the ground where teaching is actually happening concerning reading-comprehension teaching/learning. Further, the main purpose of having quotations was to show meaning onto what the participants were saying regarding reading-comprehension teaching/learning to authenticate my data in order to achieve reliability as well as validity on the researched data. The quotes were also used to follow up on unexpected results by going deeper into the motivations of participants and their reasons for responding as they did.

What problems do you encounter when you do reading-comprehension in your daily exercises?

For example, the following quotations were signifying the importance of quotations in a research of this magnitude. In view of that, one student said in response to the question above:

"Most often I do not understand the meanings of words to use when answering reading-comprehension questions... and I look for such words from my own language and translate them... I do not like it because most often I do not understand the meanings of words to use when answering reading-comprehension questions."

The other said:

"Mine is difficult words whose meanings I do not know... and I find such words in my own language. The problem is that I do not know how to answer questions with answers that are not found in the passage...my first problem is with the words whose

meanings I do not know... I sometimes find such words in my own language and use them.”

Even this one confirmed:

I sometimes become sick when I think too much about what to write when I do comprehension test. I'm usually unable to understand the sentences and sometimes I get my words wrong and mixed, although I can read but do not understand what I read.

In this instance the students, are giving a cry for help as they do not have enough vocabulary to enable them to do reading-comprehension successfully, that is what the students are calling for while their teachers confirmed that in the quotes below. It means that students are lacking enough vocabulary to enhance their synonym-language when they do reading-comprehension. The quotes, therefore, answer research questions 1-3. The teachers have confirmed that students lack reading-comprehension reading materials and also that has affected their spellings and grammar and sometimes use their L1 to answer questions.

Do your students have problems in reading-comprehension work?

“Students lack enough vocabulary...the problem is when they have to communicate in writing especially questions beyond the literal level they get stuck because they do not have enough reading materials.”

While one teacher concurred:

“Students often have problems with verb tenses, spellings, low vocabulary and punctuation when answering reading-comprehension questions and sometimes translate from Shona to English (Table 4.8.0; 168).”

Another said:

“The problems usually are those that arise as a result of maybe having an inadequate vocabulary, as a result, they are unable to get whatever text that they are given and assimilate what is being put across resulting in students not having the skills to unlock the central meanings of passages.”

Mr S. pointed out that:

Teachers here have problems with the shortage of students' textbooks and depend on lecturing to give information and we do not have a library in the school although UNICEF has promised us some books...while HoD said; our teachers mainly use the lecture method because they say books are not enough and so they just give the information through lecturing.”

In view of the quotes, they are revealing that general reading augments the common language competence and vocabulary for students to be able to do reading-comprehension successfully. The teachers have mentioned the importance of vocabulary in reading-comprehension. Therefore, there is the effect from this reading-

competence on other language skills such as writing, speaking and control over syntax to affect the general learning of other subjects and in view of this, learners can even notice evidence of development in their spoken language. As such, this extensive reading appears to promote all language skills, not just in reading-comprehension but in all other subjects. In reference to the students' and teachers' quotes above it is abundantly clear that extensive reading consolidates, sustains and extends vocabulary growth as vocabulary is not mastered by one single exposure but repeated contact with print as it allows its mastery. Vocabulary mastery allows for multiple encounters with print and phrases in perspective thus making possible the progressive accumulation of meanings to them and through presenting items in context, it as well makes the inference of meanings of unknown words easier. As such, there is a deep-rooted link between reading and writing success creating a virtuous circle - success upon success -which guarantees that, as we read effectively in the ESL we augment our vocabulary in the L2, therefore we are positively encouraged to read more literature. In view of this, the result on self-esteem and motivation of reading one's prime book in the ESL is undeniable which communicates back to the point made in this study of the need to find 'compelling', not merely interesting, reading material especially African literature which is that which fuels the compulsion to read the next book. This answers to research questions 2 and 3.

On the same note, quotations from research participants are a powerful form of qualitative data because they provide invaluable citation perspectives, from participants' own words, adding on the value and meaning of research quotations. This further provides solutions and cause for respecting participants' own words that have a high level of validity and credibility. Such quotations often provide researchers direct glimpses into what is happening during research sessions to give clues, as participants give direct research intentions, which are sometimes influential quotations that trickle into the bank of researched data presentations to influence researchers. The quotations show that students themselves are aware that if they read they gain information and vocabulary, also shows the importance of letting students choose books that interest them. This is important so that they are motivated and are aware how vocabulary is enhanced by reading extensively. In view of that, as researchers, we have an ethical commitment to represent what is actually transpiring on the ground

in a research process objectively and that we should choose to record and represent what is actually happening during research sessions impartially to give a direct bearing on a study's outcome. Therefore, it is essential that I thoughtfully represent participants' ideas, perspectives, and impressions about the quotes they give in answer to my questions.

FGD is conducted in order to understand the approaches teachers have used in teaching reading-comprehension and the types of challenges that the students face while learning reading-comprehension. Through, this FGD the researcher has set certain questions which have been discussed by teachers/student participants and through these questions the researcher is able to understand more clearly whether the prevailing methods of teaching are able to help students overcome the challenges in reading-comprehension and which challenges are confronting the students.

Further, to add the importance of reasons why we should include participants' quotations in a research, there is also the representativeness of data, which should be authenticated by citing one or more real quotations as evidence of the prevailing opinion or viewpoints from participants in the research as in the quotations below. To this end, data collected as a representative quotation from research participants should try to ensure that the participants share the same opinion for it to be an authentic process, when that happens we should turn that raw data into the print-ready material without changing its wording to authentic findings (Weddle, 2013).

Lastly, there is the motivation of which sometimes participants gain to articulate meaning in new or surprising ways or those participants may express their own emotional responses in an authentic, captivating manner when answering a research question. This is taken as a direct quotation; in this case, on the idea of understanding the meaning of what the participants say concerning reading-comprehension teaching/learning to increase reliability and credibility of researched data.

4.3.3.2. What is your reason for reading library books?

Of the 20 students, nine responded that they read to acquire more knowledge. One student confirmed:

“I read to acquire knowledge about something, to learn new things, for fun and to pass out the time especially reading African literature we read about people we have heard, or we heard, in our region”.

Another further confirmed:

“To gain more information in order to know everything”.

Of the nine students, four also read for fun as they put it. Four out of 20 students read to improve their vocabulary.

One student stated:

“The reason why I read is to improve my vocabulary and just to know the meanings of English words to be familiar”.

One other student voiced:

“...to know more words, to develop my English and for interest especially some African literature give me a lot of interest”.

The other responses were varied including:

“I think reading helps us in many ways, as for the press what’s the news, current happenings and all sorts of things”, “I read for spelling and proper understanding of words and pronunciation”, and “I read in order to have information and the information the examiners want”.

The student-participants are giving their reasons for reading library books in the quotations above. The second question of FGD was to understand the reasons for their reading and almost nine students responded that their primary aim for reading is nothing but gaining more knowledge. In this regard, the researcher has given certain quotations as well because he wanted to support and strengthen the statement more clearly. The main objective of providing quotations is to provide the validity of the gathered data from research. On the other hand, some have put emphasis that they read to have fun and entertainment and four students out of twenty have stated that through reading they want to have fun (interest). At the same time, the objective of four students behind reading is to develop their vocabulary. More than half of the students have different views on the importance of reading. Some said they want to read to understand immediate happenings across the world while some readers to understand appropriate application of words in a sentence and correct their spellings and punctuation. In view of qualitative research quotations, they can assist

investigators to enter the views and feelings of their research participants, through what they say they do which can allow development of an understanding of the meaning that participants attribute to their experiences in learning/teaching reading-comprehension to authenticate and validate their findings to answer questions 2 and 3.

4.3.3.3. What do you understand about reading comprehension?

The majority of the students understood reading comprehension as being given a passage to read and thereafter questions to answer. One student commented:

“...reading comprehension, it is all about when you’ve been given a passage you go through it and then you understand it better so that because we do expect questions at the end of the passage”.

Another student had this to say:

“I give you a piece of, let me say, a story that you read through and give questions that test you whether you’ve understood or not”.

A third student answered:

Reading comprehension is reading a passage and you are expected to answer some questions at the end of the passage”.

The quotations above are showing us that students expect some questions at the end of a prose-passage as teachers dwelt much on asking questions in reading-comprehension passages which show us why students hate it. This third question was about what students understand about reading-comprehension and through this question; the researcher is capable of understanding the concept of students regarding reading-comprehension. Through this question, the researcher can understand the extent to which the students understand the concepts regarding reading-comprehension clarity. Most of the students stated that by reading they understand that they are given a passage and thereby solve, and answer questions based on the passage. Through the quotation of a student, the researcher has understood more distinctly about the concept prevalent among students regarding reading-comprehension. On the other hand, through the quotation of another student the researcher realised that through reading-comprehension the teachers realise how clearly, students have understood the passage to answer questions 1-3. The third quotation of the student also suggests that by reading-comprehension they mean

reading the passage and answering questions based on that passage which a sign is showing what teachers often do when teaching reading-comprehension to answer questions 1-3.

4.3.3.4. What do you do when approaching different texts? (Expository/narrative)

Out of the 20 students, 18 responded that they varied their reading speed when reading expository texts. A student responded:

“I change, when I am reading a story, I quite read it fast. Then technical subjects like Biology I read it slowly so that I can understand apart from understanding I also memorise”.

Maybe this could be the reverse and another student replied:

“I believe the method I read novels and the method I read subjects like Biology are different, when you are reading a novel it is as if you are reading a story and we do have a lot of interest but when you are reading a subject like Biology, you anticipate questions on the subject or a certain topic. So, in terms of speed, Biology I do read it in a way that I understand. I do not have to be fast because you can miss out points.”

The quotations above are showing us how students approach texts differently. In this question, only two students replied that they manipulate print at the same speed regardless of whether it is an expository or narrative text. The fourth question is based on the students' approaches towards different texts including expository and narrative. Eighteen students stated that their reading speed varies with expository text. One of the students stated that when they read a story they read quickly. On the other hand, when they read a biological piece then their reading speed decreases as they keep in mind the fact they need to memorise the text along with reading it. From this question, it becomes clear that stories can be remembered without much effort, therefore, the reading speed of stories are quite high and on the other hand, whenever pupils are burdened with the responsibility of memorizing their texts then the reading speed becomes quite low.

On the contrary, another student stated that whenever he reads biology though it is not a story, yet it drags more attention as he is interested in knowing the subject. On the other hand, when he reads the novel he cannot remember it properly when he finds no interest in its storyline. Thus, from the quotation of the student, it becomes clear that interest level is the primary driving force behind the speed of reading. Some

pupils feel more interested in reading novels while some are interested in reading Biology or other subjects. Only two of the students replied that their reading speed remains the same irrespective of narrative or expository texts. From this question, the researcher is able to understand research questions 2 and 3 which are about whether students find any challenges regarding the study of narrative texts and if they find any difficulties then which are those leading to their low performance. Thus, it can be stated that interest of students is a determining factor in this regard. The quotation in this instance shows participants read texts differently which shows the purpose of reading for different circumstances.

4.3.3.5. Do you ask yourself questions during reading?

Only five students responded that they asked themselves questions during the process of reading. One student noted:

“...Like while I am reading a story of a narrative whereby someone remained an orphan when both parents died. Then I will sit down and imagine what if this thing happened to me what would I do? How can I manage to cope with this situation? School things I try to ask myself how a question can come?”

Another student remarked:

“I wouldn't want to lie. If I find that what I am reading is not interesting I do not ask myself questions, I just peruse the book. However, when it comes to schoolwork, I do ask myself questions. You have to articulate matters”.

Only three students responded that they asked questions before reading, while one student observed:

“...I like while I'm reading about 'blood' before I do it, before I start reading, I ask my opinion questions then I answer it before reading and then I read. Reading again I jot down some questions for later when I come back again”.

Eight students responded that they asked themselves questions only after reading, while one student said:

“I ask myself questions. Like when I am reading maybe Chemistry, I read, and then I start making questions”.

Another student responded:

“No, I cannot ask myself questions unless at the end...you ask yourself questions ...at the end”

Table 4.5. Students' ability to ask themselves questions during reading.

Comprehension-stage.	Frequency
Before reading	3
During reading	5
After reading	8

The quotations above are showing us how students monitor their reading-comprehension. The fifth question of the first is concerned with whether pupils ask themselves questions while reading. While answering this question only five students conformed to the fact that they try to ask themselves questions while reading a passage. One of them stated that if they study the story of an orphan the student tries to put himself into that situation and question himself what would happen if they would face a similar situation in their family. This inquisitive approach possesses colossal significance in reading-comprehension. This helps the reader to build analytical skills and thus they can become more innovative towards answering a question or providing a solution to the problem. On the contrary, through the statement of another student, it became clear that students become inquisitive when they find the content interesting. Another student has stated that she wants to ask herself questions because through her answers she would understand whether her thinking is progressing towards the right path. Eight of the twenty students stated that they ask themselves questions after reading the whole passage and another student stated that he is incapable of asking questions to himself unless he has completed reading the whole passage. Through this question, the researcher is capable of understanding the fact that various factors are responsible for the inquisitive approach students are taking and inhibiting their interest in reading. Therefore, through this approach, the teachers should keep these facts in mind while formulating strategies for the learners' reading programme to answer research questions 2 and 3.

4.3.3.6. What do you do when reading-comprehension is not successful?

Out of 20 students, 11 said that they read throughout the passage at least two or three times. Six out of the 11 responded they paused after reading through twice or three times without comprehending. One student stated:

“I read through again. Sometimes I get a clue of what I am reading about if I do not, I just stop...”

Another student pointed out:

“I feel irritated that I do not have even interest to continue reading it, and I get bored fast.”

Yet another student noted:

“As for me, if I ‘m reading a passage, sometimes you can start reading a passage, but the word meanings are strange to you. What makes someone get bored? With the passage, it is because of word meanings. So, if I find that the words in a passage many are strange, I take note of those words and go and research”

The quotations here are showing us what students do when reading-comprehension gets difficult. This sixth question is related to the understanding of the fact that what the students do if their reading-comprehension is not satisfactory and they get bored due to new vocabulary to them. Eleven of the students in this study stated that they try to read two or three times to try to understand the passage clearly. Another student has responded that if he does not understand something while reading, then he simply puts a halt to reading process and tries to gather clues. On the other hand, another student stated that if he is incapable of understanding the passage then he just simply stops reading, feel irritated, and even nurtures an attitude of boredom. Another student stated that he feels that the meaning of words makes him/her not to understand the passage. Then he simply keeps a record of those words, which he is incapable of understanding, and researches those words and thus tries to understand the narrative better instead of getting bored. From this question, the researcher is capable of understanding which types of challenges a student can face while reading a narrative and these include the inability of understanding meanings of words, losing interest and feeling irritated. This signifies that students have problems with vocabulary to answer research question 2.

Table 4.6. Responses from what students did when comprehension became difficult.

What students did when there was comprehension failure/breaking down	Frequency
. Read two or three times	11
Stopped after reading two or three times without understanding	6
Consulted teacher, people around and the dictionary after reading two-three times without comprehension	3

Three students said that they consulted the teacher, people around them and the dictionary after reading twice to three times and still without understanding the texts.

One replied:

“If I am reading something, which I do not understand, I read through twice or thrice but if I do not understand I just stop...if I am not getting any sense I need someone to help me”.

This information is outlined in the table above.

This shows how students behave when they meet difficult passages. The researcher framed another question for understanding what approaches a student adapts after confronting failure in understanding reading-comprehension in order to understand how much effort they put into the narrative. Eleven of the students stated the fact that they read two or three times as often and enabled to understand the meaning of narrative after reading multiple times. Six students stated that even after reading two or three times they still confront failure then they simply stop reading as most of the time they lose interest and motivation for working harder in order to understand it better. Three students stated that even after reading two or three times they cannot understand the narrative then they take the assistance of teachers, other people and even dictionary. This question is connected to the second question of the research about the challenges students face while reading the texts shows the significance of ZDP in reading-comprehension.

4.3.3. 7. What do you do when you get a pass mark in reading-comprehension test?

There were various responses to this question; five students responded that they answered questions asked at the end of the passage. One student addressed the matter in this way:

“Well and good I answer the question and I can know everything, but I have to go through again”.

Table 4.7. Reactions from what students did when reading-comprehension was successful

What respondents did when comprehension was successfully executed	Frequency
Responded to questions at the end of the passage	5
Developed interest and read on quickly	4
Read passage again if it was interesting	1
Able to tell someone else what they read	2
Ask questions of self to confirm recall of Information	2
External gesture on comprehension i.e. shaking of the head, nodding, smiling and laughing out loud	6

Four said that they developed an interest in what they were reading and kept on reading very fast, one student admitted to reading the passage again if it was interesting, saying:

“Ah! At times, I get to read the whole passage and re-read it a lot of times at least I understand something, and it gets to be so interesting when it involves some African literature”.

Another student surmised:

“I feel good. It tells me that what I am getting from reading is something I can apply. I can tell someone about it...I develop the interest if it is something interesting, I read it again especially when I read African literature

Two said that they were able to tell someone else what they read about; one student stressed:

“When you are reading something, you understand you’ll be able to memorise and know it better and be able to share with your friends”.

Two of the students were able to ask questions of self to see if recall of the material was easily remembered and 'jot' down what was read, respectively. The quotations show us how students react when they read something they understand. It also tells us that the rest of the students felt contented and made a noticeable demonstration on comprehending what they read by doing a number of things including shaking of the head, nodding, smiling and even laughing aloud. One exclaimed:

"I feel very happy... I read it very fast... Sometimes I shake my head, and smile"

What participants did while reading-comprehension was indeed successful.

In response to the seventh question the quotations tell us how students react when they achieve a passing mark in reading-comprehension as the students made varied reactions, as such, this motivates students. Four of the students out of twenty have stated that they make themselves more interested towards the subject and develop the thinking that they can do anything if they want. Another student stated that they feel more interested in the subject if it involves African literature. One student said that he considers reading the passage again if it is interesting; two stated they are capable of telling someone and two stated that they develop inquisitive approach if the reading-comprehension was successfully done to answer the question of interesting material in reading.

4.3.3.8. Are you able to summarise what you read in reading-comprehension?

The majority of these students responded positively and were able to retell what they had read in English most of the time. One student affirmed:

"Maybe Civic Education, maybe you read about social challenges then you go and tell friends about it. You explain to them what is written about the same topic; maybe you are from studying then you go and tell your friends of course that you'd have to use English because that is what we use even when we are writing. So, you use that language, but you cannot be getting the words the way they were, you use your own words in your language you even add your own words."

Of these, one student turned what was read into a lullaby for siblings; the student boasted:

"I have got little ones, so I tell it to them and it develops into a Lullaby".

The quotes above are able to tell us that the student is able to summarise passages. Further, the eighth question asked whether the students are capable of summarising what they have read in reading-comprehension and most of the students have reacted positively. One of the twenty students stated that when he narrates the story to other friends then he is capable of memorising the content more effectively and as they are expressing the content in their own words, therefore they are capable of using more words to research question 1.

4.3.3.9. What do you do to assist yourself to comprehend better what you read?

The majority of the students had difficulty with this question. For example, one volunteered:

“It is according to the words they have used in a paragraph. You will understand this passage well when they put this word, but I think it is just depending on the type of words that they’ve used”.

Another conceded:

“Words are there it is just that we cannot tell because maybe a paragraph will come with words and you are familiar with those words, but you find that a passage will come maybe with words you do not know, you do not understand”.

One more elucidated:

“...While you are reading a prose passage, there are a number of words that are underlined if they are well known ... words, they will assist you to answer some of the words or they will give you a clue to understanding what they are talking about. Therefore, some main words that are underlined are in some passages.”

Only a few students responded positively to the words that helped them understand better what they read. Among the few, one student commented:

Akin to English there are words that are automatically remembered such as ‘either...or’, neither...nor’, some words you remember automatically. You are required to use them when you are reading. That is what makes me know more about reading.”

Another student concluded:

It helps me maybe there is a sentence which is saying, He managed to pass the exam in spite of being in a road accident, yes, so I will understand to say this person was in a road accident, but he managed to pass the test.

The quotes above are concerned with identifying which approaches the students use to comprehend the passages better. This enables the researcher to understand the third research question regarding the reasons behind poor reading-comprehension and which type of challenges students face while doing reading-comprehension. One of the students stated that he faces difficulties in understanding the content because he does not know the meanings of the words used in it and as a result, he feels that even after reading many times he cannot comprehend the passage unless he finds someone to explain to him. One of the students said that s/he underlines the words that s/he does not understand. Very few students have conformed to the fact that words helped them to understand the passage better. Thus, through this question, the second and third research questions are realised regarding factors contributing towards poor reading skill.

4.3.3.10. Do you utilise previous knowledge to assist you in reading-comprehension?

The majority of these students' responses showed a lack of understanding of what was being talked about. For example, one suggested:

"Yes, it does, sometimes you find that you need to write a prose summary but when writing a prose summary, you do not have to get everything...it is not all the things that are in the passage that you are going to write, but you are going to fit in with your ideas. You already know, they are helping you".

Only two students replied positively, and one admitted:

"A few things for instance in Geography, because I am familiar with something about the surroundings, it assists me to understand' and 'yes it does, for example, HIV/AIDS, what I know about it will help me understand a passage on it better'.

The other student affirmed:

"If I like to know/see what a laptop is, then I know how to operate it and then I'm reading something like a book. It can be easy to understand the book because you know what the thing they are talking about is".

However, there were students who appeared to be fluent in relation to their reading-comprehension during oral FGD discussions; these were some of the students who scored high marks in narrative and expository tests (see Table 4.2: 150 and 4.4: 151). The tenth question is concerned with realising whether previous knowledge helps students in reading comprehension. The significance of this FGD discussion in the

research is that it helps the learner to understand which factors contribute to poor reading-comprehension and what challenges they face from it. The quotes show us the significance of background knowledge and that it cannot be overlooked. It helps the learner to understand passages on the same topic better. While asking this question, most of the students did not even understand what the question means. Thus, from the statement of these students, it is clear that teaching approaches are not very clear in this rural school as teachers do not help students to understand passages explicitly. Only a few students who are capable of fetching good marks stated that background knowledge helped them in deciphering the topic better. As such, teachers should assist students to be good reading-comprehension students by continuously attempting to create sense out of what they read by using their prior knowledge, which was the first of seven strategies that Keene and Zimmermann (1997) (see section.2.5.3) categorise as key for reading-comprehension success. That being the case brainstorming should focus on how the connections helped students to better understand the texts and how the texts helped them to build their foundation of prior knowledge to answer question 1 and 2.

4.4.0. Second FGD for students (Appendix D)

4.4.1. Question A: Why do many students fail the English Language examination at secondary school O-level?

The data presented in this section reflect the main responses from all the research student-participants on what may be possible causes of their failure. Students have different reasons why they fail to do well in their examinations and these were some of their comments during the FGDs. The purposively sampled students who participated in the FGD are in Table 4.8: 169. During group discussions, some themes came out where students alluded their failure to understand English as a lack of interest in schoolwork by teachers and students, large classes, lack of sufficient reading materials, students' impaired ability, lack of parents' support and lack of quality reading-comprehension instructional methods that develop functional reading-comprehension skills.

Table: 4.8. Purposively-sampled Students

Age	Gender	Distance from School	Parents status	English L2, L3, L4
18yrs	Male	3km	Working	L2
17yrs	Male	4km	Peasant farmer	L2
17yrs	Male	5km	Employed in industry	L2
17yrs	Male	6km	Peasant farmer	L2
17yrs	Male	4km	Peasant farmer	L2
16yrs	Male	7km	Peasant farmer	L2
16yrs	Male	5km	Peasant Farmer	L2
16yrs	Male	4km	Employed in industry	L2
16yrs	Male	2km	Peasant farmer	L2
16yrs	Male	6km	Peasant farmer	L2
18yrs	Female	5km	Peasant farmer	L2
17yrs	Female	4km	Employed in industry	L2
17yrs	Female	5km	Peasant farmer	L2
18yrs	Female	6km	Peasant farmer	L2
17yrs	Female	7km	Peasant farmer	L2
16yrs	Female	5km	Employed in industry	L2
16yrs	Female	6km	Peasant farmer	L2
16yrs	Female	4km	Peasant farmer	L2
16yrs	Female	5km	Employed in industry	L2
16yrs	Female	5km	Peasant former	L2

By quality instructional methods, the researcher is referring to the use of teaching strategies like summarizing, predicting, asking questions, answering questions, comprehension monitoring, graphic organisers, and cooperative learning; including improving students' vocabulary and reading strategies that can be seen as effective tools for building their reading-comprehension. Students will develop stronger reading-comprehension skills on their own if the teacher gives them explicit mental tools for unpacking the texts. This is because some student-participants blamed their lack of vocabulary and spelling abilities when they undertake reading-comprehension work to low vocabulary synonym-language. During FGD, individual students stood up in the created public discussion debate and shared their views and so teachers should give students mental tools for unpacking the texts.

Here, students were not identified with their pseudo names as well but just as students when aligning their responses with responses from their interviews as the questions were focused on the approaches teachers used through a debate where three students remarked:

“Our classes are too large that teachers fail to attend to each one of us individually and they just lecture: It is uncommon to have up to forty-five students in each class.”

“Many of our fellow students here cannot do anything in class. Our teachers refer to many of us as having low ability to tackle secondary school work fresh from the primary school.”

“Teachers blame many of our parents for failing to control or discipline us as many of you here friends, watch too much television at the expense of reading, and parents refer your disciplinary issues to the school.”

The quotes above show us that many classes are big, and they are the cause of their failure. Many students apparently said they have failed the English Language because their teachers are apparently unable to give them individual attention to process reading-comprehension because they lecture and do not give practice in high-level questions owing to large classes, which are very important. Some students blame their parents for failing to support them at school by buying books while parents blame teachers for failing to instil discipline on students in the school, saying “that is why students watch television at home”.

This question is significant in order to understand possible reasons that contribute to poor performance of O-level students in English language examination. From findings, it has been realised as poor teaching approaches and deficiency in proper support from parents. These findings are capable of understanding research questions 3 as issues students face while learning the English Language.

4.4.2. Question B: What are the challenges associated with the use of the approaches that teachers use?

The significance of this question is to decipher the factors that contribute towards low reading-comprehension skills which include lack of teachers’ intervention and their lack of acquaintance with the topic. Many students have challenges because the passages are difficult for them or because teachers dwell on testing rather than using process reading-comprehension teaching methods that develop reading-comprehension skills that give students explicit mental tools for unpacking the texts’

challenges. Many pointed out that sometimes their assigned passages are outside of their everyday life-experiences and they would prefer something within their experience and culture. This concept is in line with Gunning (1996), who describes preparational strategies as those that stimulate previous knowledge about a particular topic. Incidentally, Perkins' (2005) mental model theory talks about interventions the teacher can use to assist the student in creating a more accurate picture to understand reading-comprehension topics, which one student confirms:

... "I do not enjoy being given passages I do not understand, and I do not like answering questions at the end...I do not like reading-comprehension; it is difficult for me; I want to be properly taught."

4.4.3. Question C: Are the teachers' approaches to teaching reading-comprehension responsible for your poor reading-comprehension skills in learning?

In this question, students complained that the passages had difficult words in them and sometimes the overall topics were beyond their understanding and experiences. Students also appeared to indicate that teachers test them before they even give teaching at an adequate reading level owing to which, many had poor spellings and grammar. From this question, it is realised that poor teaching approaches of teachers are responsible for poor grammatical skills realising research question 1.

The students in their discussions pointed towards other factors (not including previously mentioned issues) inhibiting their ability to pass the O-level examination.

One student exhibited strong feelings of failure saying:

I sometimes become sick when I think too much about what to write when I do comprehension test. I'm usually unable to understand the sentences and sometimes I get my words wrong and mixed, although I can read but do not understand what I read.

Another further said:

When I write comprehension, I get many ideas and now when I get onto paper, I usually do not have the English expressions I had on ideas I had before, I wouldn't forget so quickly.

Table 4.9. Purposively-sampled teachers

Gender	Level of Education	Years of Teaching English	Years at School	Classes Taught
F	O-level +Diploma in Education	8 yrs.	6 yrs.	O-level
F	O-level+ Diploma in Education	6 yrs.	6 yrs.	O-level
F	A-level	3yrs	2 yrs.	J.C.
F	A-level +Diploma in Education	8 yrs.	3 yrs.	O-level
F	O-level +Diploma in Education	22 yrs.	16 yrs.	O-level
F	O-level + Diploma in Education	13 yrs.	8 yrs.	O-level
F	O-level Diploma in Education	16 yrs.	9yrs	O-level
M	O-level + Diploma in Education	20 yrs.	1yr	O-level

4.4.4. Question D: What makes you not do well in reading-comprehension writing exercises and examinations?

The above quotations highlight that data given during the FGD seemed, to sum up, the responses made by students in the discussion and the observation as well as interview stages. To sum it up the students hate reading-comprehension because they lack vocabulary synonym-language. One participant opined that she is given a passage to read and answer questions, s/he gets puzzled. Most of these responses reflected the individual and collective challenges that students meet. This question

enables the researcher to realise that deficiency in understanding the sentence and words, incompetency over reading-comprehension are the primary factors behind fetching fewer marks in writing exercises and examinations answering question 1-3.

4.5.0. Third FGD was conducted with teachers and this was captured during the discussion.

To further provide a rich source of visual data that places a human face in this section the FGD research method was conducted with teachers and this answered the questions 1-3 about the methods used by teachers as well as the challenges faced by students. There are also themes emerging from this FGD addressing the three research questions cited above that include the strategies and challenges that focus on the CLT approaches and were structured against teachers' methods of teaching. In the same way, teachers had no pseudo names to hide their identity but were just referred as "teachers" and because it was a debate where they only responded to a question and these were aligned to the initial students' FGDs as teachers made their contributions to it and these contributions were recorded. These teachers in their FGD as shown in (Table 4.9). participated in the discussions. The teachers responded in the FGD that in some cases, the students managed to make sense of what they write. The themes were about vocabulary development, comprehension monitoring, summarization, paragraph main ideas identification, and communicative competence. One teacher said:

"In some cases, they read the whole text, but you find in certain cases where they read word by word and they are not able to understand".

4.5.1. What is the students' ability to make sense of the text as opposed to word-by-word reading?

Overall, many teachers confirmed that many students were unable to make sense out of the texts due to various reasons, which included the type of text the students were given to read.

One other teacher conceded:

"Sometimes they manage to make sense of the texts. Anyway, it just depends on the kinds of texts that have been given to them. For some, they capture quickly, others they have problems, especially African literature they like it".

The other problems that emanated from teachers about the students were having an inadequate vocabulary and were consequently unable to understand whatever text they were given and hence, the inability to assimilate what was being put across in these texts.

One teacher admitted:

“The problems usually are those that arise as a result of maybe having an inadequate vocabulary, as a result, they are unable to get whatever text that they are given and assimilate what is being put across resulting in students not having the skills to unlock the central meanings of passages.”

This question is capable of understanding research question 3 regarding the challenges students face in reading comprehension about inadequate vocabulary and types of texts are identified as certain factors behind it.

4.5.2. What is the significance of students’ ability to understand the goal of reading?

The response from all the teachers was that the students simply read passages because they have to answer questions following the texts.

One teacher responded as follows:

“Most of them just read because they want to answer the questions that follow. Not really that they should learn how to read because there are situations where you read a particular type of passage, you *lecture* on a few difficult words and then again you read the same passage, they are asking about the same words. It shows that they do not really know the goal of reading.”

This question has identified students’ approach towards reading as only for the sake of giving answers and as a result, they are often incapable of fetching good grades in reading-comprehension. Thus, this question is effective for understanding research questions 2 and 3.

4.5.3. What is the students’ ability to make use of prior knowledge in reading activities?

The responses to this question were varied. It was established that the students might apply prior knowledge inappropriately. One teacher replied:

“You may...find someone is answering something out of context. Someone is trying to apply his prior knowledge on that subject which is not covered in that passage”.

The participants' responses pointed out that only some of the students did relate previous background knowledge, but most were only able to understand a passage after it had been discussed. For example, one teacher said:

"I think I can say maybe few of them are able to do that while others, no, not until after the passage has been read and you discuss a few things with them that is when they are able to do that."

One other result was that students were only capable of utilising prior knowledge when the teacher activated it at the beginning of the lesson. One teacher confessed:

"Prior knowledge, I have seen it be a motivation especially before reading a text. Before reading, we *lecture* on it and then I tell them to find out more. In that way, they are motivated to read, many of African stories in English."

Through the responses, it has been understood that some students are capable of utilising previous knowledge while most of them are not. This directly points towards the poor analytical capability of students and inadequate teaching approaches from teachers. Thus, it has helped in understanding research questions 1 and 2 of the study.

4.5.4. How do the students' show they are attempting to comprehend texts?

A variety of responses were readily available to this question. Results revealed that some students made an outward show of comprehension by trying to comprehend texts through body language. One teacher conceded:

"It is a little complicated but at times you can tell that an effort is being made to understand a given passage in cases where you expect them to read and do a given task within an expected period of time. Some go over the expected time insisting that they are not yet though...Their facial expressions; some when they are reading they even smile ... again you can tell that someone has difficulties in understanding."

The results also revealed that several students monitored their reading-comprehension as they read. As one teacher participant replied, sometimes you see their seriousness by reading and reverting to the same passage', thereby trying to find out what is required and what is involved in the same passage". It was also found that some students revealed that they were trying to understand by answering the teacher's questions.

One teacher maintained:

“...as you are *lecturing* you are able to ask questions and they are able to answer and that way you see that they understood or not”.

While answering this question the teachers stated that children mostly use facial expressions to show that they are understanding. Their body language is also responsible for understanding what they are going through and how they are trying to comprehend the passage. Showing interest and effort by students is responsible for showing signs of comprehending a passage. Thus, answers to research question 3 are realised through this question.

4.5.5. What is the students' attitude towards reading comprehension?

Findings indicate that some students were eager to read while others were not actually showing that they were eager to read. One teacher reasoned:

“The type of attitude; when it is boring you can be able to see it on students' faces, they do not desire to persist reading some instead of sitting upright they'll be leaning against the desk, signs of boredom, they're just being forced. However, when they are enjoying you can see it by the way they are reading usual African stories in English...you can even tell their faces that they are really enjoying it.”

It was also found that the attitude depended on the kind of text; sometimes the students were reluctant to read but the attitude they adopted varied according to the type of text.

“Another teacher answered:

“It varies on the type of text, the kinds of text if it is *boring* you are able to even see they'll be unwilling to read. So, the attitude anyway varies depending on the text”.

Interest towards comprehending the passage is responsible for improving reading-comprehension skills for students. Whenever a student nurtures interest, he will put more effort towards enhancing their skill for reading-comprehension. From the findings, it became clear that some students are eager while some are not. Eagerness sometimes even depends on the type of text as well. Thus, research question 3 can be realised through this interview question.

4.5.6. Do students persist in reading, if so what makes them do this?

It was found that students' persistence to read depending on the type of text, that is, whether it was interesting or not. It was also found that most of the O-level students

read because there were examinations to be written at the end of the term. One teacher surmised:

“It all depends on the passage. If it is interesting they’ll go for it, but now that they are in Form 4 (O-level) they are just reading because they know that at the end of the term they shall write end of term exams” they do not set goals when they read.”

Findings indicate that the students’ lack of persistence is revealed when they made noises during silent reading sessions. One teacher elaborated:

“Some even if you tell them it is silent reading; they continue making noise because they do not *set goals* for reading. They push their desks here and there, ‘no madam, the books are not enough,’ just like that.”

The quotes tell us more about why the students read. Students’ incapability to persist in reading depends on various factors including the text type and whether it is interesting or not. As from this finding it has been discovered that answering questions in examinations is the only factor that drives them to read thus it can be stated as a reason behind poor reading-comprehension skills of O-level students answering research question 3.

4.5.7. What texts do you prefer to teach in reading-comprehension?

Generally, the findings indicate that teachers preferred texts that were of interest to the students. One teacher reckoned:

“...we select passages that they themselves have interest in or have experienced ...it should be a passage that talks about what they encounter in their daily lives, on something that you cannot share with them, for example, we have passages that talk about AIDS. If you want, your pupils to be enlightened on that subject give them that. Subjects that they have very little knowledge about but which they encounter in life.”

Another teacher explained:

“I think I can go for familiar stories maybe let us say on a sport, HIV AIDS, that information that they really know about. Not passages that have words that are more technical because at the end of the day, you find that when you are doing vocabulary, you have to go through a lot of words and you find that during that time, you wouldn’t do much of the work because it’ll take time for them to understand.”

One more teacher proffered:

“I would prefer love stories because children like them. They enjoy them even those texts that talk about teachers and some African literature.”

Only one teacher preferred a variety of texts. This teacher posited:

“I think in this case I would prefer a variety because as a teacher if there is no variety even the pupils’ vocabulary will be...it will be... what can I say? there will not be diversity because the reason is for them to learn to read, to build their vocabulary. To have diversity you cannot just stick to one kind of comprehension. You can have a story from what goes on in the laboratory and to maybe the Tiger and the woman...a variety of passages.”

The quotes tell us what sort of texts interest students. This FGD question is directly linked to understanding the first research question that is, approaches that the teachers undertake for teaching reading-comprehension to O-level students in Zimbabwe. They try to select interesting passages or having a close connection with daily life. While other stated selection of familiar stories can stimulate students’ interest. Some teachers even prefer love stories or African literature, while some select various types of texts as well.

4.5.8. What strategies do you use to teach reading comprehension to O-level students ?

The first teacher reported introducing the passage, after which the students read silently and individually. The teacher then lets the students discuss vocabulary in groups having provided dictionaries for them. The students thereafter answer the questions following reading the passage individually. The teacher then conducted a class discussion on the responses to these questions and marked the students’ work.

The other teacher maintained:

“I lecture about the passage then individual silent reading. In groups, they do vocabulary search. After doing vocabulary search pupils answer the questions individually as a test then they are requested to hand in their books. This is followed by class discussion then marking of the written work.”

For the procedure of discussion of vocabulary items, the first teacher explained:

“I lecture first and then put the class into two groups, for example, boys/girls, to match vocabulary items, they are provided with dictionaries per group, for example, two. Sometimes, other times, it is just using the textbooks the two groups compete.”

In view of quotes above they are telling us the methods teachers use in teaching. After introducing the passage, the second teacher asked the students to read the passage silently. The discussion of difficult words from the passage supplied by the students and led by the teacher then followed. The teacher let the students construct

sentences using the words discussed to gauge understanding. The teacher taught this once a week to facilitate the students' practice, as many times it was practised, the better they would be able to build up their level of understanding and vocabulary. Another teacher responded:

"I lecture about the passage, pupils go into silent reading, after silent reading, we discuss the passage; difficult words which may not be in the teacher's guide, but pupils may come up with them"

On the process of debate on the passage, the second teacher affirmed:

"Occasionally the students bring up... those words and utilise them in sentences to see if they have understood the meanings. Now and again, I *lecture* to merge the reading lesson where they read one after another-alternating boy and girl...reading-comprehension is to be done weekly. ...since they need to practise as it is very subjective. The more they do it the better they will be able to build up their level of understanding of vocabulary."

Providing a passage, the third teacher asked the students to read it silently. After giving a model on reading, the teacher asked the students to cite any words they come across that were beyond their reading-comprehension level. Along with the students, the teacher provided meanings as well. The teacher also brought out words that she thought the students might not be familiar with. While discussing the meanings of words, reference was made to the passage to gauge how the words were expressed in this context, the students were then asked to attempt the questions individually after which, students work on the same questions in groups. These utterances answered research questions 1 and 2

The teacher who then marked the individual learners' work then followed a class discussion of the group answers. The teacher answered:

"You give a paragraph, then request students to read silently after which you ask them if they come across any words that are beyond their reading-comprehension understanding. Together with the students find new words, then you *lecture* their meanings... not all students have problems; some might have meanings, which I do not accept. I might as well bring out words I think students might not be familiar with. When the students do not comprehend, you go back to the paragraph to see how words are expressed in context. The students may work out the meanings contextually. How long it takes depends on the number of words- even ten minutes. When this is done, you ask them to attempt the questions individually as a *test*. Then they do the group work on the same questions. You then have a class discussion of the group answers where pupils defend their answers. I then mark the students' books."

The next teacher sometimes started with giving general views about a particular topic and then the students read silently. As such, the teacher then asks the students for difficult words in the passage which are discussed. This teacher disclosed:

“Sometimes you start by lecturing the general views about a particular topic. Then you come to the text, which you read silently then, ask for difficult words in the passage and then lecture and ask questions about the difficult words. You put them into groups where they answer in the form of a test and I draw a grid on the board.”

In discussing the passage, the general meaning of a word is identified followed by identifying its contextual meaning. Sometimes the teacher and the students consult the dictionary and some words are given as homework. The teacher revealed:

“We identify the words, and *lecture* about the general meaning of the prose-passage and the contextual meaning. Sometimes we even consult the dictionary. Some words are given as homework where the pupils go and research on their own. This is done on a piece of paper and the answers are shared.”

The quotes are confirming that the teachers favour lecturing as a method of teaching. Research question 1 can be effectively answered by referring to these quotes. Teachers state that they adopt various strategies for teaching reading-comprehension to O-level students including discussions, individual answers to the questions, marking answers. On the other hand, some teachers give lectures on the topic, asking students to read through silently and discuss afterwards, pointing out some difficult words and asking students about their meanings as well. Another teacher stated that she focuses more on practice than reading, as students are capable of understanding better through practising. Through the quotes, all this has been revealed to answer all research questions. Findings from Interviewing and observing the headmaster and the HOD.

4.6.0. What approaches do teachers utilize in the teaching of reading-comprehension? Headmaster/HoD

The responses in all the cases reflected recurring themes such as a dearth of reading-comprehension skills, reading resources and time to teach reading-comprehension. As stated in chapter three, the teacher interviews were conducted after observation of lessons. There were two interview sessions with each of the nine teachers, including

headmaster. The second interview sought to clarify issues that were not elaborated on, but which were felt to be important to the study. The participants' stories, experiences, thoughts, evidence and the contexts within which they acted are represented in research texts as original quotes and are provided to give the extensive description of the contexts to investigate issues in an in-depth interview. Using the actual statements or direct quotations from the participants makes this research more meaningful, valid and significant to the reader since interviews reveal the insights of the actual participants' experiences, feelings, perceptions and opinions and increase the validity and reliability to ensure the credibility of findings to support the research results. As a starting point, the initial interview was held with the headmaster and HoD to get the general tone and culture of learning/teaching in the school. As such, the researcher has tried to present approaches that teachers undertake to use for teaching reading-comprehension. Therefore, the themes emerging from an interview with teachers' teaching methods should focus on the use of the CLT approaches to let students take charge of their learning and also teachers process teach reading-comprehension to help students develop reading-comprehension skills, not the lecturing teachers are engaging in lessons. Thus, through this interview, the researcher is going to realise research question one that is on approaches that teachers are using for teaching reading-comprehension.

4.6.1. Headmaster's and HOD's interviews, (18 -10-2010)

In Zimbabwean schools, there is generally a person responsible for the students, staff, and the day-to-day functioning of the school; and the system recognises him as a headmaster unlike in the UK where he is called a head teacher. The headmasters are accountable for mounting sound academic and interscholastic programmes, seeking and securing funding for those programmes and checking information associated with the success of such programmes. The parents in the form of school fees pay these funds which are administered by SDCs. In order to get first-hand information, I first interviewed the headmaster of the school I would call (Mr S). My general question was:

4.6.2. How do students perform in your school? How do the teachers help them learn? In addition, how are the students motivated to learn in general?

Mr S... had a slightly different view from that of his teachers. He contended:

“The final decider in students’ results’ status is dependent on the students’ various experiences, past and present...this also includes the effects teachers have on the students...also includes the students’ year-to-year teachers, their peers and the neighbourhood”

Mr S. appeared to be a very strict headmaster who had a strong commitment to his work and preferred strict moral behaviour from students. His administrative philosophy was to run the school by the golden rule, that is, as a Christian (he was reading a Bible in his office). Paul the Apostle referred to the golden rule (Galatians 5, V.14). “One should treat others as one would like others to treat them,” (Flew, 2006:141-148). The rule also manifested itself in swift reprisals for bad behaviours, such as when Mr S. applied strict rules to students after they had done something wrong.

“I’m in charge here in this school...I have the right to do whatever it takes to make students behave well, I will not have this in my school...”

To me, Mr S’s belief in school administration appeared to be based on his own self-image and management style—autocratic—about which, he believes that:

“...teachers work hard...trying to make the students do some work in groups and keep them busy...collaboratively because it is not easy for me to stand in front of the school and encourage teachers to teach...be mentally focused. Sometimes these students do my head. I always work in a non-democratic environment...but a benign dictatorship.”

I further probed Mr S. and he said that his students need to be specifically encouraged to learn:

“...because they do not care about education...I even have to suppress some students in order that, may happen...Sometimes I see it in their eyes and behaviour...they feel (that) I hate them...they may have too many walls around them. When they make mistakes...they blame others...they do not feel free or happy...”

Mr S. continued to argue:

“I suppose it all depends on the students...really, I mean the socioeconomic status of the students, previous achievements and home background etc...somehow, these entire correlates.”

On another note, Mr S. diverted from his earlier-stated belief when he said that teachers have the responsibility to guide and encourage their students to learn.

According to Mr S.’s belief and teaching philosophy, teachers ought to:

“...do their best to help students to progress in their learning potentials...to help them discover ways to continue learning by lecturing to them... Teachers ‘should have the right to teach in their own way, from their own personalities and from their own experiences but here many lectures.”

Mr S. said he worked to resist” the disturbing trends of accountability in education” in his later encounter with the researcher, as he thought this might spoil his image as a headmaster. He was now trying to show signs of being liberal with students by being more magnanimous. Further probing Mr S. about teaching and learning prompted him to reveal that:

“...it is amazing how things have become homogenised... packaged. It is like, this is the technique; this is the package; this is the formula, and I think it takes teachers away from really communicating with students.”

. To me, Mr S. saw himself as an appreciator of diversity and later appeared to act as a non-authoritarian who occasionally forgive offenders, as he did to a student who was brought by a teacher when I was present. In the end, I asked Mr S.:

4.6.3. How is reading-comprehension taught in your school at O-level(Form4)

Can you give me a general view of how the subject is taught and he commented?

“In almost all the lessons, students are given an opportunity to listen to the teacher lecturing and are asked questions based on the content covered, for example, in question and answer method, oral reading-comprehension, instructions are given during which students are expected to follow. These are some of the activities taking place to promote students’ listening skills, testing and reading. Teachers here have problems with the shortage of students’ textbooks and depend on lecturing to give information and we do not have a library in the school although UNICEF has promised us some books. In addition, they do not respond fairly well to teachers’ methods of teaching, as they do not show understanding because most of the answers will be wrong and lack motivation and sometimes spellings and grammar are wrong.”

The quotes from the headmaster seem to show that he observed a lot of lecturing, questioning and some listening reading-comprehension as well as lack of resources. In answer to this question, it is realised that the headmaster is quite sincere and nurtures an autocratic attitude. However, students’ negative interest towards education is the sole reason behind their poor reading-comprehension skills. From his answers, the researcher has gathered knowledge of research questions 1 and 3. Generally, according to the headmaster following steps are pursued teaching reading-comprehension including listening to the lectures of teachers, reading books carefully and if they further find any problems then approaching teachers for solving the problems. Lastly, questions are given to the students and they give answers from

which their learning can be evaluated. In all the quotes, it shows us that there is a shortage of books of which UNICEF has promised to buy some.

4.6.4. Head of Department (HOD) Interview

The purpose of the HoD's interview was to let researcher learn some information about the English Language Department to establish a detailed background and a relevant context about the department, the calibre of teachers and the levels of students' performance in the department (Appendix-S). A list of possible topics that include scope, background, history, future goals, and current concerns for the development of the department was considered. The information gathered from the HoD's interview enhanced my understanding of the school learning culture in reading-comprehension and the school's position in the district in relation to the end of year examinations. The HoD appeared genuine in the answers that she provided as head of the department. She sounded knowledgeable on the subject, English, and was supportive and sincere in helping the research to succeed. By referring to the HoD as sincere and genuine, the researcher is portraying that she is able to help the researcher achieve a successful research, in reading-comprehension, as she appeared knowledgeable, sincere and genuine in her answers. Her interview was a forerunner to the teachers' interviews and students, as she runs the department and observes every teacher's work three or four times a term and is knowledgeable about the methods used by the teachers in teaching reading-comprehension.

4.6.5. Do teachers use checklists when they mark their students' work to reflect areas of weakness?

In our department, we use different marking schemes, but all correct grammar, spelling, punctuation as well as the general sense of the sentence/work. In reading-comprehension, we use a marking scheme similar to the one for composition because both must have some sense in the sentence construction. In all this marking should be consistent, regular and informative.

The HoD appeared to say that even though it is not a requirement for teachers to use the lecture method, she pointed out that teachers use this method because of the shortage of textbooks. In Zimbabwe, since the students are English ESL learners, teachers tend to place more emphasis on grammar and spellings to help students polish their English, as they do in composition. However, reading-comprehension only expects students to answer factual questions correctly and test their ability to

understand content and argument of texts to infer meaning. HoD appeared to say that the marking done by teachers should be consistent and be done regularly to be informative for the students, as the marking is directed to correct students' negative transfers and facilitate them with positive transfers.

Through this interview question, the researcher has gathered more distinct and clear knowledge regarding which type of assessments followed by teachers for enhancing teaching reading-comprehension skills to their students. Thus, the researcher is capable of understanding first research question with it. The teacher tries to check only correct spelling, grammar and sentence construction in English language and there is not much difference between teaching composition and reading-comprehension. Only in reading-comprehension, they need to answer questions. For enriching reading-comprehension skills teachers regularly check work and try to identify flaws which enable students the opportunity for rectifying them.

4.6.6. Do teachers evaluate the students' understanding and application of grammar usage in their teaching?

As stated earlier, the evaluation must include the student's understanding of the answer and how the student applies the use of grammar and see whether students are able to answer questions right through all the levels i.e. literal, inferential, applied and critical.

In response to the question on evaluation, the HoD purportedly said that it should address all the levels of understanding that includes literal, inferential, applied and critical thinking. In all this, the application of grammar is observed as the students are English L2 learners and teachers teach in line with this prerequisite as teachers want to polish up the students' English. In order to make students understand reading-comprehension it is important to evaluate their work. Rectifying mistakes is necessary so that students can have enough expertise on reading-comprehension. According to HoD, regular evaluation takes place in school. Thus, the researcher has understood the first research question about the strategies taken by teachers for enhancing reading-comprehension skills of students and one of these approaches include evaluation.

4.6.7. Do teachers develop a series of instructional activities for improving students' understanding and application of syntax and punctuation?

As our students are English L2 learners, we have some sessions when we teach purely grammar tenses to help the students when they write English so that they practise to write correct tenses. But our teachers mainly use the lecture method because they say books are not enough and so they just give the information through lecturing.

The HoD appeared to say that even though it is not a requirement for the teachers to use the lecture method, she pointed out that teachers use this method because of a shortage of textbooks, so they apparently give information through this lecture method as a scapegoat measure. Apparently, the HoD insisted on the practising of correct tenses even though the students are doing reading-comprehension, which indicates how important it is for students to polish up their English as L2 learners.

4.6.8. Do teachers develop inductive /deductive reasoning in their teaching to develop the concept of context, syntax and representation in their teaching?

“As you know teachers have been de-motivated with the economic situation in the country of late, during observation of lessons I have not seen that, what I have always noticed are reading-comprehension tests, where teachers give students some questions on a set passage. This is what we have always discussed in our departmental meetings, that teachers should incorporate this process-teaching of reading-comprehension in their lessons.”

The quotes confirm the poor conditions of teachers as the HoD admits that teachers are not motivated to teach because of the economic condition of the country as they are not paid well, and it has come to notice that during lesson observations, she has not observed any inductive teaching done by teachers, but what she has witnessed are reading-comprehension tests where teachers give students questions on a passage. She appeared to blame the teachers by saying that although they have repeatedly discussed that teachers should try to incorporate inductive/deductive teaching, this has not been forthcoming since they teach using task-based approaches that incorporate process-comprehension teaching to do better in the future.

4.6.9. Do teachers give instructional activities to help students with creative writing skills and strategies?

The instructional methods I have always witnessed include lecturing and testing incorporating: discussions about the passage, discussions on new words in the passage are to be done, brainstorming in groups about new words and questions about

the passage. They usually end up with a written test answering questions about the passage.

The HoD has hinted that the instructional methods she has always witnessed are lecturing, reading and testing, incorporating discussions about the passage and new words, and then the brainstorming in groups on new words and questions. This is a linear view product-oriented teaching characterised by the same steps followed right through the lecturing method and teaching ending up in testing without exposing students to inductive teaching, which looks at methods that develop reading-comprehension skills, for example, mapping, predicting, acting and drawing scenes about paragraphs read and that teachers should involve CLT approaches in teaching.

In order to make students understand reading-comprehension it is important to evaluate their teaching. Rectifying mistakes is necessary so that students can have enough expertise on reading-comprehension. According to HoD, regular evaluation takes place in school. Thus, the researcher has understood the first research question about the strategies taken by teachers for enhancing students' reading-comprehension skills and one of these approaches include evaluation.

4.6.10. Do teachers instruct reading-comprehension by making students talk and use the language and reinforce it through positive feedback and reinforcement?

“Students only talk when they answer reading-comprehension questions and when teachers want to give feedback to students; they lecture to the whole class in the form of revision. They usually write in the individual students' books and use this as feedback. They may talk during group work discussions. “

The HoD pointed out that students only talk when they give reading-comprehension answers, the feedback teachers give is in the form of written comments; they do not give face-to-face feedback contrary to Skinner's (1967) programmed learning which includes feedback as one of his three principles of teaching and should use the CLT approaches. Their lessons are mainly teacher-dominated (instructivism) by lecturing, as they do not have enough textbooks. Individual feedback is better than whole-class feedback because students are different and have individual problems.

This interview question has focussed on discussions as one of the effective approaches for teaching reading-comprehension to students. HoD has confirmed to

the fact that discussion is an important strategy for developing students' reading-comprehension. However, HoD has stated that their teaching procedures are primarily lecturing due to the deficiency in textbooks. However, at the same time, she stated the importance of taking feedback from students through in the current circumstances they are not implementing this strategy. The research has answered research question 1.

4.6.11. What instructional approaches do teachers use to develop learning and listening skills in reading-comprehension?

They do not develop listening skills per se; they just develop answering of reading-comprehension questions and how to look for word meanings. They use the lecturing method to teach reading-comprehension vocabulary. We will try to bring it out in our departmental meetings that teachers should use the CLT approaches to make their students talk.

The HoD reiterated that teachers simply test students without process-teaching reading-comprehension methods that develop reading skills. Reading-comprehension processes-teaching should bring about mental representations to occur at multiple levels across the texts of reading-comprehension, which include word-level, sentence-level, and text-level teachers could aim to achieve. Transversely, with these levels, the HoD maintains that processes of word identification, parsing, referential mapping, and inference should contribute towards interacting with the reader's conceptual knowledge to produce a situational model of text to make inferences that bridge elements in the texts. This question is also directly linked to understanding the first research question. The researcher understood the teachers do not shed light on listening skills rather lecturing method. However, currently, they are thinking about adapting CLT approaches as well.

4.6.12. Do teachers ask students to read many books and assign them book reports/reviews to enhance reading-comprehension?

Teachers tell students to read library books, but the number of library books each teacher keeps is not enough for an entire class; she keeps about 20 copies and so we encourage our students to register with other libraries in the neighbourhood. Few teachers make their students write reports.

The dearth of library reading material was mentioned in the Nziramasanga Commission (1999), as an imperative factor in the provision of a quality education system for each student and so, the HoD cites lack of books as a problem affecting

this school (in 2010) after 11 years of its recommendation. Teachers are not able to encourage extensive reading in their classes due to lack of reading material even though the books can be available if parents buy books for their children. Even though it is imperative for teachers to encourage parents to buy books for their children, most parents are not employed and depend on subsistence farming for existence which is not enough to support their children's education.

There are numerous problems observed on the inspection of library books in the school given to students as reading material; for example, some very old irrelevant books are being counted as library books for students, which are unsuitable for use as library books at this level. This confirms the evidence of poor reading choice, culture, and the lack of supportive purposes for reading the material and a limited number of suitable books in the school. This is also exacerbated by the library reading time limited to one period per week (35 minutes) for the students and also evidenced by students' comments about library report-writing assignments. Students need to be encouraged to read and to learn to apply skills and strategies during their reading time. It is believed that the gap created in the students' reading by this inadequacy can be bridged by registering with other libraries for students to borrow the books. Teachers need to be resourceful enough in acquiring reading material, for example, old magazines, newspapers as they can help to bridge this dearth of library books in the school. Students can as well expose themselves to the model of particular passages in their textbooks, novels, content textbooks, newspapers and magazines to bridge this inadequacy, as they can augment their reading-comprehension inadequate facilities. This would go a long way in making the reading-comprehension work real, purposeful, useful and less stressful to both students and teachers in addition to the books parents can buy for their children if any can afford.

As many students will involve themselves in reading books they will develop their reading-comprehension skills. Therefore, this question of extensive reading is taken to understand whether schools in Zimbabwe undertake it as an effective learning method. However, though they are aware of this strategy, yet they are incapable of implementing it due to the dearth of reading materials in many schools in Zimbabwe. Moreover, though very limited numbers of books are available in the library, yet they cannot contribute towards stimulating interest among the learners due to their

inadequacy and irrelevancy. Thus, it can be stated that this approach cannot be taken due to unavailability of supplementary reading books.

4.6.13. How do you know that your teachers are teaching well? What methods are they using to teach reading-comprehension?

“Every term, I visit teachers’ classrooms and observe them teaching. I will be looking at the preparation of lessons and the apparatus teachers use and the type of instructional methods they implement in their teaching and whether they include CLT. I will also be looking at the other students’ responses and the teachers’ methods of teaching and how students interact with the teachers. I will also be looking at how the teacher organises her lessons and manages the students.”

The HoD makes some lesson observations to assess the students learning and evaluates the approaches teachers use in their teaching, including the CLT approaches and the reaction of students to their approaches (see Appendix-S).

This question mainly addresses whether school authorities take measurable strategies to check if their teachers are following appropriate and fruitful strategies for developing their students’ reading-comprehension. This is also associated with understanding the first research question. The approaches that HoD takes including supervising preparation of lessons, instructional methods, apparatus’ use and responses from students.

4.6.14. Do you carry out a book inspection, where you look at students’ work?

“Oh yes, I also draw a book inspection rotation, where I will be looking at the quality of written work given by teachers after every lesson observed. I will be checking on the regularity of marking, whether there is consistency and how far the teacher’s marking is helping students.”

The HoD makes some book inspection as a follow-up to her lesson observations where she checks the regularity/consistency and quality of written work (see Appendix S). Book inspection is adopted for checking teaching approaches and its effectiveness on reading-comprehension students’ skills (see Appendix S).

4.6.15. How long is a reading-comprehension lesson and how often is it taught in a week?

“It is taught once in a week in a 35-minute period; some teachers choose to use double periods to cover more ground.”

According to the teaching philosophy of the HoD, teachers:

... “should do the best they can to assist students to progress in their learning performance and help students discover ways to continue learning.”

The message from the HoD shows that she believes that teachers should have the right to teach in their own ways, from their own perspectives, and from their own experiences as to what many teachers said about reading-comprehension teaching. The researcher has realised from the response that once in a week for thirty-five minutes reading-comprehension is taught. Thus, the researcher has gathered knowledge regarding first research question.

4.7.0. Interviewing Teachers

I interviewed those teachers who teach the English Language I considered being the most crucial, the most powerful or, perhaps, the least. I might have had little choice but to use an 'opportune sample', that is, the people who happened to be available and those who only teach the subject. Whatever preference of sample I made, I needed to justify it, that is, make a case to the reader that I have good grounds for taking my findings seriously in terms of the teachers' and students' representativeness where I debriefed teachers/students about approaches used. These teachers participated in the interview as shown in Table 4.9: 172.

This section is responsible for understanding approaches teachers undertake for teaching reading-comprehension, their choices of passage, ways of taking feedback of students, how often students write reading-comprehension in a single week, how often students go to the library for increasing their reading-comprehension skills. Thus, it can be stated that this section is important in understanding research questions 1 and 2.

4.7.1. Question: What procedures/approaches do you use in teaching reading-comprehension in your class?

1. The common themes in the teachers' responses suggest the steps they followed in this order: 1) they usually started with a brainstorming discussion on the reading-comprehension passages using book pictures. 2) Teachers give a lecture about the passage and anything that has something to do with the passage. 3) This was followed by a brainstorming introduction of new words and phrases in the passage. 4) The next

stage involved students being assigned to work in groups or pairs on given questions. 5) Then students are given questions to answer in their books and; 6) most often, students did not finish the process in class but submitted it as homework. By brainstorming the researcher is referring to a group or pair holding a discussion to produce ideas in order reach a conclusion for a specific problem (Diehl, 1991). The strategy was quoted by Osborn's (1963) book "Applied Imagination", where he claims that brainstorming is more effective than individuals working alone in generating ideas, although more recent research has questioned this strategy.

Although using group work has appeared not to be beneficial, the teachers still use the technique to give students a feeling of team spirit and group cooperation (*esprit de corps*). Brainstorming is particularly useful as a step-in pre-writing. Another teacher described the procedure he follows in teaching reading-comprehension:

"First, I introduce the topic using book pictures, and let students brainstorm on what to include in the comprehension levels: literal, interpretive, and applied/critical. They read each other's answers to correct mistakes. If there is time, they write the final exercise in class; otherwise, they finish up at home or in their own time and submit books for marking. Most often, because of lack of time, after they have written the work, they proofread and write final work for submission."

However, one teacher was sceptical about reading-comprehension teaching; in her response, she appeared unsure if there was an in-depth understanding of reading-comprehension, as she doubted if the method works considering the number of reading books students have available at their disposal. The other teacher confirmed by commenting that:

"...sometimes in pairs...but due to lack of textbooks, we are forced to take turns reading a passage and pass on the textbook to another student to read... What else can they do? The majority of them do not have books...and that is the only way they can have access to a print... we then look at the questions together as a class."

Then probing further, I asked whether the other teacher who recalled a situation where students ended up debating and revealing problems:

"Sometimes there are disagreements in the answers given by another group...this leads to challenges for one or two students. I see the levels of complexity in a variety of aspects of reading-comprehension that expose that most aspects of reading-comprehension are stuck between the rather a problem and quite a problem. Most problems arise from identifying meanings of words from the context to relating ideas between paragraphs and substituting synonyms". At times, the debates are very healthy as we, together, explore each answer from responses. After this debate, students answer questions in their exercise books."

Teachers frequently cite the reason for testing students in reading-comprehension from the Outer Circle as a model of teaching was that the teachers appeared to think that it is the best method to make students understand reading-comprehension passages. This seemingly suggests that teachers at Apollo use testing as a method of teaching reading-comprehension and think it is the best method of teaching reading-comprehension. Teachers, it appears, are depriving students of the CLT approaches, which encourage talking and interaction, as the following comments suggest:

I demand good reading... "then testing students to see if they understood what they read...then also demand proper answering of questions...then as well do vocabulary lecturing by the teacher and teaching once a week...I give a comprehension test exercise,"

Another teacher emphasized:

"I give the reading, testing, and speaking and writing skills development. I give students a comprehension test weekly and asking them open questions."

Whilst the other teacher involved students by saying:

"I sometimes use group presentations to give them practice and to extend to use book pictures if I can."

The following teacher seemed to believe that lecturing was the only method that can make students learn. She appears to be a teacher who does not believe that students can do better, even if they are not involved in other methods of teaching reading-comprehension; rather, she believed that testing was the best. When I interviewed the teacher, she commented:

"...I use the lecture method because as I lecture, I will be giving students notes they will read later on and I see that students learn and perform better when I use this method... I use it because that is the method that can reach all the students since we do not have enough textbooks for every student and through my talking students become motivated."

Another teacher pointed out that she enjoys teaching reading-comprehension and has specialised experience in the subject. Her teaching methods appeared to be varied but included some traditional ones that develop reading-comprehension skills. Her interview was full of ideas. She tended to make her students go through the passage thoroughly and involved them in some interactions but fell short of CLT approaches which involve other methods. The teacher further commented:

“...I open up my students for the lesson, with reference to a picture as it will be the forerunner of the printed words. They brainstorm questions they are going to answer in their groups in preparation for the written test so that when they answer questions individually, they do not have any problems.”

Through this question the researcher has gained clear view about the types of approaches taken by teachers for teaching reading-comprehension which mostly include brainstorming discussions, lectures on the passage, teaching new words and phrases existing within the passage, dividing students into sections, question-answer procedure and lastly testing. However, group work does not help to secure many advantage and therefore this step is often averted.

4.7.2. Question: What is your choice of reading-comprehension passages for students to answer questions on?

In response to the above, the nine teachers seemed to suggest that they normally pick topic passages from the students’ reading-comprehension cycles in the “English Today” or “Step ahead” books (Book 4 for O-level). They purportedly use their discretion to pick topic passages related to the students’ everyday life. Such topics are those linked to HIV/AIDS, the recent downturn of the economy, and others related to their daily lives in general. One of the teachers suggested that even though they are supposed to pick topic passages from their common pool scheme, they have the freedom to choose topic passages they consider suitable for their students. That is why another teacher chose to give the passages outside the students’ experiences and yet, some students in Zimbabwe do not know anything about the coast as observed in the pupils’ exercise books. Zimbabwe is landlocked and does not have sea for children to see how the sea looks.

“I choose themes from current events such as Consumer Affairs, the recent downturn of the economy in Zimbabwe, and some common interest topic passages...even though we have common scheme topic passages from textbooks, it is not rigidly followed. The teachers can use their own discretion, to come up with student interest and topic passages.”

This teacher appearing motivated by this research emphasised that she does not have any criterion for choosing topic passages, but suggested that she chooses one, which she knows is on the right level for her students and within their experiences. The responses from teachers regarding this question are directly connected with first research question regarding the teachers’ methods of teaching reading-

comprehension. Most of the teachers select passages from reading-comprehension textbooks for students, some try to choose interesting topics related to students' daily life or African Literature. Sometimes, they even choose topics outside the experiences of students for widening students' horizon in general.

4.7.3. Question: How do you give feedback to the students about their work?

All the teachers interviewed said they awarded number marks and comments about the students' work as a form of feedback in their books (Appendix's, Q, and R). Two teachers reiterated that because of the limitations of time and large class sizes, they are unlikely to give verbal face-to-face feedback to students but written comments to students which is most likely motivate students about corrective feedback.

"Positive remarks are given...however, negative remarks are sometimes given; [we] avoid discouraging remarks such as stupid, disappointing.

I always give positive remarks... I try to avoid negative remarks because they create a negative attitude to the student concerned... The students can end up drawing a false conclusion and lose hope on the subject."

It appears that none of the teachers interviewed was conducting face-to-face corrective feedback to understand or correct students' problems, and some pointed out that they are planning to incorporate face-to-face interviews in their future teaching. This question is also associated with teaching approaches for teachers. They mostly reward students with marks and comments. On the other hand, teachers restrict giving students discouraging remarks as that can demotivate learning as this answer research questions 1-3.

4.7.4. Question: How often do your students write reading-comprehension in a week, and why?

The most common answer to this question was that students write reading-comprehension exercises once a week because of a lack of time. The nine teachers seem to caution that owing to inadequate time allocation, large class sizes, and the fact that they also teach other subjects, it is not uncommon to find that they only manage to make students write one reading-comprehension exercise per week. This is contrary to the background that most questions for the final O-level English

Language examinations and other subjects are based on the reading-comprehension related phenomenon. One of the teachers appeared to cherish that owing to the nature of language teaching, they are most likely encouraged doing more reading-comprehension related process teaching that encourages students to monitor comprehension and undertake more hypothesis formation as well as evaluation.

In order to make comprehension-monitoring skills succeed, students need to use clues in the text to make hypotheses about what they are reading and identify failures. There are four basic types of failures. They include failure to understand; 1) particular words; 2) particular sentences; 3) relations between sentences and 4) how these texts fit together. As a whole, in reading-comprehension a literacy initiative facilitates literal, inferential, critical and creative which are important in reading-comprehension skills' development.

These interview questions help the researcher to accumulate knowledge regarding strategies undertaken by teachers for teaching reading-comprehension and the factors that contribute towards poor O-level students' reading-comprehension skills. It is understood lack of practice is one of the elemental reasons behind poor reading-comprehension skills for students.

4.7.5. Question: How often do your students go to the library in your attempt to enhance their reading-comprehension?

This teacher commented:

...students go to the library when they have a free period and should, on average read two books per week, for slow readers and then as many as possible for students who are fast readers. I also encourage students to read a variety of reading materials such as newspapers and magazines... In the school, there is a period set aside for library reading but we do not have a library room.

The quotes from teachers confirm the lack of books, teachers lecture in their lessons and that students lack vocabulary when doing reading-comprehension. Apparently, the consensus was that students have the opportunity of visiting the library at their local council offices or a nearby urban residential suburb, which is about 8 kilometres away, to borrow or read books. Teachers pointed out that in the school, they have a small library kept by each teacher where students borrow books during their library periods or during their own free time, of which each teacher carries about 20 copies

for a class of about 45. This is associated with understanding second and third research questions where it is understood to be a lack of study materials that contribute towards poor reading-comprehension skills. That being the case, students are not regularly visiting the library that suggests negligence from their end. In view of the teachers' comments and the position of the school makes students lose out on 1) ...the fact that extensive reading (ER) develops learner autonomy; 2) ...offers Comprehensible Input;3) ...it enhances general-growth of language competence;4) ... and also it consolidates, extends, and supports vocabulary synonym-language.

4.8.0. Interviewing students

In order to determine the approaches teachers utilised and the challenges students confronted in learning reading-comprehension, students were interviewed to elicit this information. This involved the 20 student-participants chosen by their teachers who were average, above average, and below average, according to Norton's (2003) diagnosed levels of reading ability (see sect.3.6.0.). The students were also interviewed individually, just like the teachers after the lesson observations. The themes that come out of this research were vocabulary synonym-language development, identifying reading themes, inferring and extracting main ideas from texts, monitoring of comprehension, exploration and definition of texts, interactions as well as an approach to texts. The interviewing and observation of students are conducted for finding solutions to various questions like whether they keep records of library books they read, which problems they face while conducting reading-comprehension lessons in their daily life, which approaches they take for writing reading-comprehension, how teachers help them in solving problems and which type of comments they like from their teachers. The first question is responsible for understanding research question 2 and 3. Most of the students are not aware of recording what they are reading from library books that slow down their learning process may be because they do not see the value of it. The second question is gathering knowledge regarding research question two regarding issues faced by students in reading-comprehension as they are due to their lack of competence over the English language as most of them stated that they are not familiar with most of the words they meet. Some, however, have stated lack of time, disinterest in reading,

phobia and hatred as significant challenges. The fourth and fifth questions are essential in understanding first research question regarding the approaches of teachers towards reading-comprehension. The interviewing of these students was conducted during the afternoon study time after normal class lessons and the findings concerning the responses from the students' nine open-ended questions are presented as follows:

4.8.1. Question: Do you have a notebook for doing reports on books you read at the library?

The main themes from the students' responses seemed to indicate that they were unaware about writing book reports and uninformed about the fact that reports enhance the understanding of texts in reading-comprehension, while others seemed unlikely to think that it was important. Others said they only read for fun, and not for study, as they understood the term. Another popular response was that their teachers have not supplied them with notebooks for writing.

One student's verbatim response was:

"No, I do not have a notebook because I do not think it is important to me... we read for fun so there is no sense in doing reports... At school, we do not have a library, so we have to look for places with public libraries in the area. I do not write these reports because I do not think it is important to me.

While the other echoed this sentiment:

"Why should I report on books I read? I read books for fun... not to be tested as teachers do with comprehension. Yes, I do borrow or read books at the library around because our school has no library."

Students are not in favour of writing book reports which appears to radiate a hatred for reading, apparently because of testing in reading-comprehension. Murphy (2009: 27-46) confirms that if "the passive benefits of library reading" have more to do with developing receptive reading-comprehension skills, then the "active benefits of report writing" involves more productive language skills such as using English to promote reading-comprehension work.

4.8.2. Question: What problems do you encounter when you do reading-comprehension in your daily exercises?

In their responses, students include poor spelling, lack of adequate vocabulary to express ideas, lack of ideas in answering questions, and the lack of time to do reading-

comprehension. In some extreme instances, some students expressed outright phobia and hate for reading-comprehension. Samples of common responses included:

“Most often I do not understand the meanings of words to use when answering reading-comprehension questions... and I look for such words from my own language and translate them... I do not like it because most often I do not understand the meanings of words to use when answering reading-comprehension questions.”

The girls in this question appeared more vocal than the boys in giving meaningful responses in relation to their frustrations; for example, one girl student said:

“Mine is difficult words whose meanings I do not know... and I find such words in my own language. The problem is that I do not know how to answer questions with answers that are not found in the passage...my first problem is with the words whose meanings I do not know... I sometimes find such words in my own language and use them.”

When viewing the structures and effects of Shona (L1) on the English (L2), which are completely different languages, students revealed incidences of the use of the L1 to provide a supportive role to the L2 structures. All the students speak Shona at home and only speak English at school during lesson time, thus reducing their exposure to the different syntax and structure of the English about why teachers mark grammar and spelling in reading-comprehension. Conversely, in learning a target language, students may create their own interim rules with the use of their L1 knowledge, but only when they consider will it help them in learning L2, which makes them become more proficient in the L2.

Table 4.10. Other verbatim utterances by L2 students

He was renewing his bicycle.
I decided to foot it.
We had some milk to eat.
He ate all his money because he was a drunkard.

The learner may appear not to know what is really correct while performing the L2 activities because the learner is unable to extricate new rules or vocabulary for the L2;

eventually, these L1 rules may help these students with reading-comprehension learning which

apparently, say that L1 skills help in the learning of the L2. However, Code-switching is rampant among students at Apollo where the researcher picked some of the verbatim utterances of L1 interfering with L2 during his six months, staying at the research site and where some students were heard saying statements in Figure 4.10. (For example, He ate his money). Equally, students make some mistakes associated with whereby the main verb is wrongly used where the vernacular verb is transferred into the English language usage equivalent. Code-switching is rampant among students at the research site where some students had some verbatim utterances quoted above in Fig. 4.10. The students thought in their L1, Shona, and literally translated the sentence into English; in this case, it was the vernacular verb that was transferred into the English equivalent. Examples of code-switching affect levels of proficiency, both linguistically and communicatively, in some students as observed in this research. In most cases, the data revealed the use of the students' mother tongue in English language teaching was viewed as potentially beneficial for certain purposes. Incidentally, there seems to be a general conviction among teachers to keep L1 usage to a minimum, so as not to sacrifice opportunities for the students to feature better in the L2 reading-comprehension. A certain degree of hesitance is expressed due to the unclear differences between use and abuse of mother tongue. The observation of classroom rehearsals confirmed this ambivalent attitude, but it also revealed that Shona featured regularly in the classrooms in varying degrees, but this view's significance is debatable.

4.8.3. Question: Describe what you do when writing reading-comprehension in class

The students' responses corroborated the teachers' responses in terms of the procedures they described when learning reading-comprehension and one student commented:

"We read the passage and then discuss the questions as a class... and then break into groups to look at the new words... and then look at the questions in our books."

This is the main underlying theme for this question of the research, marrying the teachers' responses with the students on procedures followed when doing reading-comprehension work. The students reflected their teachers' procedures of teaching

efficiently; which included the use of repertoire-techniques enhancing the students' reading-comprehension on specific texts, including discussions, writing in response to reading-comprehension questions, and multiple encounters with complex texts. By repertoire-techniques, the researcher is referring to the full supply of strategies teachers can use to make students understand reading-comprehension through teaching, which includes approaches that help them comprehend.

4.8.4. Question: What does your teacher do in class to help you

In response to what the teachers actually do to help students during a reading-comprehension lesson, students responded that their teachers introduced the passage first, give them basic instructions about the lesson, and then the teachers visit them on their desks looking at what they are writing and sometimes helping them correct their work when they face problems in reading-comprehension. One interesting finding from the data is that it seems the students' beliefs are focused on the passive benefits of teacher help during writing rather than the active benefits of reading-comprehension in English. The passive benefits of English reading-comprehension are face-to-face assistance in line with the use of the crawl, walk, and run phase, based on child development. Examples of the passive benefits of English reading-comprehension are in making students read extensively in order to train them to get understanding in reading books generally in order to get information from the books and newspapers as training to meet challenges in learning. This refers to what English teachers can do for students when teaching by conducting face-to-face interviews about the previous work to take cognisance of their student's problems in discussing them during lesson feedback. Thus, it involves the use of reading-comprehension in training students to meet challenges in other subjects by making them understand prose passages in reading-comprehension as training them to meet such challenges in other subjects.

4.8.5. Question: What type of comments do you get from your teachers after your reading-comprehension is marked?

The students' common response was that they were usually allocated marks and written comments about their mistakes, such as spelling, punctuation, grammar and

the sense of the answers given (Appendices P, Q, R and Tables: 4.4: 151;4.7: 164). A few students said their teachers commended (Appendix P1-5) their efforts.

These are some comments two students gave during interviews:

“In addition to giving me marks... she says work hard on your grammar... She writes such comments as “Good, fair, Poor” ... I like comments when they are good, but I do not like bad comments written in my book.”

“Comments like poor, fair, stupid answer, work hard are given... I do not like these comments because I feel very sad... when I get these comments such as ‘poor, fair, stupid, work hard’ and marks like 0/10’ and 2/10 I become discouraged.”

There was no verbal face-to-face feedback with students, but only written comments. Many students refuted any bad comments written in their books, as they did not want to see any bad comments written on them. In line with one student, distance from school, it appears affected her sometimes to gets such bad comments from the teacher for example, “poor, stupid and work hard”.

4.8.6.0. Research Question 2:

4.8.6.1. What are the Challenges or Problems Associated with the use of the Approaches?

This section presents the data used to answer Research Question 2. It reflects the data from the teacher interviews, students’ interviews, lesson observations, FGD, and document reviews discussed to answer Research Question 2. On interviewing teachers, it was observed that all teachers at Apollo are local Zimbabwean teachers whose L1 is Shona and their L2 is English. There may be a possibility for these teachers to transfer their own L2 errors on to their students. Further, in an attempt to establish the teachers’ difficulties/challenges in teaching reading-comprehension effectively, they were asked the following relevant questions.

4.8.6.2. Question: Do your students have problems in reading-comprehension work?

The teachers admitted their students had problems in answering high-level reading-comprehension questions and some pointed out that their students were not widely read. One teacher articulated that:

“Students lack enough vocabulary... The problem is when they have to communicate in writing especially questions beyond the literal level they get stuck.”

While one teacher concurred:

“Students often have problems with verb tenses, spellings, low vocabulary and punctuation when answering reading-comprehension questions and sometimes translate from Shona to English (Table 4.8 169).”

To probe further, the teachers were asked to identify the most common errors that students make in their answering of reading-comprehension questions. Teachers gave these as the major challenges students face: 1) Students lack motivation and have a negative attitude toward reading-comprehension writing. 2) There is a lack of reading-comprehension skills and vocabulary. 3) It is not uncommon to have up to forty-five students in a class. 4) The teachers referred to many students with low ability being admitted to Form one of the primary schools as a result of the government entrance to the secondary school and automatic promotion policies. 5) It takes a lot of time to teach reading-comprehension writing, which they cannot afford because they have to cover the syllabus and other skills in English. 6) Poor reading culture, which was alluded to as a contributory factor in students’ inability to write reading-comprehension effectively. 7) There is Lack of parental support as many parents are accused of failing to control or discipline their children, allowing them to watch too much television at the expense of reading, and referring their discipline problems to the schools. 8) There are problems with spelling, grammar, inadequate writing skills and lack of vocabulary. 9) Students are unable to answer higher level questions (inferential, critical and implied) and lack the use of prior background knowledge

4.9. 0. Research Question 3

4.9.1. What other factors contribute to poor reading-comprehension skills?

In order to answer Research Question 3 and determine if the teachers’ approaches were responsible for students’ poor reading-comprehension skills, students were asked questions that included aspects of reading-comprehension approaches. Students’ preferences ranged from drama, debating and reading books to grammar. The least preferred was reading-comprehension, which showed how many students dislike reading-comprehension in this school. From the responses from the third research question, it has been learnt several factors are responsible for poor reading-comprehension skills among student’s which disinterest is considered a primary factor. Most of the students prefer listening to stories and different forms of reading. However, searching words from a dictionary is often tiresome process for them and often due to

their less expertise in this subject they find it difficult. All these factors contribute towards poor students' reading-comprehension skills. However, other reasons are summarised from the responses from students like disinterest in the content of passages, difficulty in reading and understanding, thinking a lot for understanding smaller portion of the passage, difficulty in thinking of what is appropriate for writing. Difficulty in deciphering words in passages, detesting tests on reading-comprehension, hating some comments from teachers, lower competence in grammar and spellings and due to the less interactive approach of teaching are other approaches for poor students' reading-comprehension skills.

4.9.2. Question: Which aspect of English reading-comprehension do you enjoy learning and why?

Student-participants' preferences showed variations from reading, listening to stories, and word searching from the dictionary; a few chose summaries and some aspects that included grammar as two students commented:

"I enjoy acting stories and characters which I meet in reading and grammar because it teaches me good English."

"I like reading poems and use my dictionary to look for new words I do not know their meanings."

The least liked was reading-comprehension because it seemed likely to be difficult and they apparently disliked continuous testing by the teachers. To prove the result, in this case, a direct question was asked.

4.9.3. Question: Which aspect of English do you least enjoy learning and why?

Nearly all the students felt that they did not like reading-comprehension because it was difficult for them due to lack of vocabulary and understanding. The following are some of the reasons, which the students gave for not enjoying reading-comprehension: 1) sometimes you are given passages on something you do not know about.... how do you answer questions about something you do not know, that is, holiday at the coast? 2) Passages are sometimes difficult to read and understand and I do not know how to use English words. 3) Some of the topics need a lot of thinking, which is difficult to do (inferential). 4) I find it difficult to think of what to write. 5) Sometimes, words in the passage are difficult to understand. 6) I hate the tests on reading-comprehension. 7) I hate some comments teachers give us in our books; 8)- I'm not good at spellings and grammar and so, the teachers mark me down on that; 9) -Teachers just talk to us when we are, just listening to what they will be lecturing.

The researcher, therefore, contends that using literature and CLT approaches in teaching and role play and drama (which students enjoy) within reading-comprehension lessons will improve the element of understanding and enthusiasm. By doing these activities, students develop receptive awareness about different reading-comprehension norms across L2 cultural groupings, while at the same time gaining insight into the nature of the norms of their own L1 culture to promote L2 culture through literature can do good in reading-comprehension teaching. Furthermore, it is further explained that this awareness will not only increase their tolerance of differences but also enable students to accommodate mutual cultures, in small but significant ways, towards accommodating aspects of reading-comprehension they dislike, as they engage in reading-comprehension interactions. An improved marking of students' work in which, teachers write more good comments about the students' work may achieve this goal and less administration of tests but engaging students in more reading-comprehension activities. To this end, students will eventually overcome their hatred of those aspects they do not like. Teachers can also include topic passages, which are in line with students' cultural interests to avoid subject dislike.

4.10.0. Observation of a Lesson

Table 4.11. An example of an observed lesson

Observation:	15
Lesson:	15
Date:	25- 10-2010
Task:	Comprehension Lesson
Topic:	An adventure on Lake Kariba
Time:	70 minutes (2 periods) 0900-1010
Class:	Y-A
No of students:	47 (25 boys 22girls)

Crossing borders can be difficult if one is an outsider. In trying to understand its culture, a researcher obligates to become a student in order to learn, a kind of participant observer and turn to be a novice in the desired institution to understand its culture and

daily life. In research, observation relates to a methodical assessment of real-time processes and operations with the goal of identifying needs/challenges, or improving processes and practices—that is, what can be seen. It typically relates to a prescribed procedure containing specific measures of observable behaviour and the narrative recording of the programme activities as well as their context. There are various types of observational methods that include: checklists, scaled ratings, interval observations, narrative comments, thematic approach to code data (see section 3.11.0 and 3.13.0).

The suggested exploits of observation include: 1) Gaining insight by describing activities or identifying needs or challenges within the contexts. 2) assessing students' changes in practice especially when used as part of a single-group experiment. 3) Direct observation is the way to discover, and 4) Developing ideas for future research by using observational data to help focus on other research methods to create direct hypotheses. Through this research, I witnessed the plight of students who experienced failure in reading-comprehension; to guard against this possibility, I brought to the research study a genuine, open interest in the participants' narratives.

I went into the classroom about ten minutes before Lesson 15, since I was eager to observe how participants would settle in their seats. I was provided with a chair at the back of the classroom between the row near the windows and the middle row, where the teacher found it appropriate for me to sit. Students sat in three rows made up of twin sitter desks behind each other, but in most cases, three students sat on each desk, again evidencing overcrowding in this classroom. There was nothing that could be found in the classroom except two pieces of chalk lying on the teacher's table and one textbook the teacher was using for this lesson. I wrote down the class information and anything connected with my observation, which included the time of observation, the number of students, and the date and topic.

The themes that came out of this research method was to focus on the challenges students faced that included vocabulary synonym-language development, identifying reading themes, inferring, extracting main ideas from texts, monitoring of comprehension, explore and define texts, interaction and approach to texts to make students control their own learning. Therefore, the themes emerging from an interview with teachers' research were focusing on communicative teaching to help students

control their learning and process teaching of reading-comprehension to help them develop reading-comprehension skills.

At the start of the lesson, there were noises, laughter, and a bit of a commotion, even a bit of uproar, and suddenly there was quietness. I looked up and saw the teacher by the corner just glancing at the misbehaving students. After a quick reprimand from the teacher towards the offending students (including some who had come late to the lesson), all other students were ready for the lesson, begrudging those who were disturbing them.

This teacher then introduced her lesson on the topic she wrote on the chalkboard, "We are going to do a reading-comprehension lesson about fishing on Lake Kariba," she said. "How many of us have gone out fishing?" The extrovert student stood up and recited in English, "I caught a big bream from the dam in the river last week when I went out fishing with my brother."

Then she read the assigned passage to the class as a model before the students read the book. After reading, she explained certain words and phrases. The teacher called on another student, "Can you read the passage to the class?" The student read the passage to the class while the teacher interjected from time to time, making corrections on pronunciation. All students were quiet as they were trying to comprehend the passage in readiness for a reading-comprehension test.

This section is conducted for understanding the types of challenges children face towards learning reading-comprehension. Insufficient vocabulary is stated as the crucial factor behind it. Inadequate auditory analysis skills, comments of the teacher, inappropriate spellings and grammar, deficiency in comprehension skills are other forms of challenges that they face while learning reading-comprehension.

4.10.1. Insufficient sight vocabulary, which was observed:

Two more students were asked to read the passage; while they were reading, the following observations were made. 1) -There were phonic errors with words which should be known by sight, and 2) -A tendency of reading word by word. 3) -Students were failing to phrase well in oral reading, and 4) -They tended to make many mistakes on small words as well as polysyllabic words. 5) -There was lack of general reading

ability, and 6) A general lack of producing much of what was read except a few and failing to answer questions.

The teacher asked the class to get into their groups and look at some questions she had prepared for them to answer. One extrovert student was observed leading the group he was in. I overheard him say, "I eat them raw when I am hungry." This group discussion took about 10 minutes of the lesson and the teacher stopped the class group work and asked them to make reports. This same student's group was the first one to report; the group did well, except for the more difficult questions. The second group reported and faced the same problem that the extrovert's group had with questions beyond the literal level. The question they could not answer was, "Why is there no danger in over-fishing Kapenta in Kariba Lake?" The question was beyond the literal level, and the teacher had to help them by saying, "Kapenta fish breed so quickly and hence, there is no danger in overfishing them." There were audible 'Ah's from the students as the answer was explained to them.

The teacher then introduced the exercise she was going to give them on vocabulary development in their groups first. She first gave an example and showed students how they could find meanings using words in the sentence (around/near the word). The teacher then asked, "How do we get the meaning if we are asked to give meanings in our reading-comprehension exercises?" One bright student stood up again and said, "We look at the words in the sentence near the word, in surrounding context, to get our meaning." The teacher remarked, "Good, that is right; we use contextual clues to get the meaning i.e., reading/scanning around the word to get the meaning of the word." The teacher then said, "I want you to get your exercise books and look for these words' meanings as they are used in the passage and then answer questions that follow."

4.10.2. Inadequate reading-comprehension Skills

I then stood up and went around, observing students. They appeared to be struggling as they wrote the group exercise and while observing the groups I found that students were: 1) unable to answer factual questions based on the material; 2) unable to follow directions on print. 3) Students were unable to find main ideas in the passage and unable to produce much of what was read. 4) Students could not answer anything but

the literal type of questions in their groups. 5) They were found lacking in training to use contextual clues, and 6) were limited in vocabulary 7) ...unable to use contextual instruction, and 8) showed signs of lacking in phonic ability.

The teacher asked the students to write in answer to some questions in their books when there were only 5 minutes left before the end of the lesson. The bell rang before the students had finished writing the exercise. When I peeped into another student's work, he had not even written a date when the bell rang. I then asked for the work written by students, which were only handed to the teacher after two days.

4.10.3. Inadequate auditory analysis skills

I found that many students had: 1) Word recognition errors such as letter-by-letter spelling errors. 2) Many grammar mistakes 3) spelling errors, and 4) Limited vocabulary in giving word meanings contextually, 5) Confusion in letter names in some cases, 6) Difficulty in writing out words with "R" and "L", and were 7) slow as had not finished until after about two days.

This lesson extract is an example of many classroom events and practices that were conducted during my stay at this research site. I would comment that this was one of the best lessons I observed at this school and I must admit here that while my core focus was on the participants, I established that my field notes also had more of other students' utterances (Table 4.8: 169).

4.10.4. Comments about one of the teachers whom I observed teaching

This teacher gave her students an opportunity to express themselves by employing the use of contextual clues in explaining new words and giving group reports. The teacher specifically demonstrated how the various strategies derive meaning from the context, the manner in which they can be implemented, and how the ability to use this strategy appeared to enhance performance. The teacher encouraged students to read the words in the sentences to come up with meanings of words in the questions; this was also noted during the interviews with her. At the time of the observation, the teacher used the auditory learning style by explaining the various words' structures. However, the teacher could have asked students to go further by asking them to look for these words in their dictionaries to broaden and consolidate the meanings of these

words and help realise the plight of visual students. To further realise the Kinaesthetic learning style, students could have been made to display the words' meanings through demonstrations in groups and write them on the chalkboard.

4.10.5. Marking of Students' Work and Error Analysis: Documentary Evidence

While I may appear to be critiquing the teachers, there is no way I could analyse the students' work without discussing the possible strengths and weaknesses of the teacher's comments and marking on the students' work. The key themes of this section are for confirming what the teachers and students said in FGD, think-aloud and interview. Key principles of effective assessment of students' work show:

...common weaknesses of assessment systems...primarily concerned with linkages between outcomes, the design of assessment tasks, comments, criteria, marking procedures and feedback (Brown, 2001: 2).

While we are looking at the marking criteria, the aim is not to castigate teachers but to perform a constructive analysis. The researcher is mindful of the conditions these teachers are operating in, for instance, remuneration and political situation in Zimbabwe. There are situations such as teachers frequently engaging in strike action, thus further disadvantaging students. The political situation is not stable in the country as workers are disgruntled over pay and often go on strike to show their anger.

Marking of students' work apparently was not consistent and was marred by uncertainty (see Appendices P, Q, R). The inconsistencies in marking are evidenced by the fact that some students' work was marked showing where the student was ostensibly wrong. In other cases, the teacher indicated what was missing in the sentence and in others, crossings were just used even where the words or sentences were correct. For example, where a sentence was "He turns stones into diamonds" was marked wrong when the sentence was correct (see Appendices P, Q, R). The teacher ignored the marking rubric as she marked the students' work without referring to the rubric requirements. Instead of teachers guarding against bias and being less subjective, they promoted it. Further, in some sentences, the teacher tried of writing in the answers for wrong or missing words; in others, she just crossed out work, even correct ones (see Appendices P, Q, and R). She did not use the scaffolding techniques to help students overcome their problems. The Zone of Proximal Development has become synonymous in literature with the term scaffolding even though Vygotsky

(1978) himself did not use this term in his writing but Wood et al., (1991) introduced it. The term maintains that in using the benefit of scaffolding, once the student masters the task, the scaffolding can be removed, and the student will then be able to complete the task again on his own (Wood et al., 1991). Scaffolding assistance is most successful when the support is matched to the needs of the students by putting them in a position to attain success in an activity that they would previously not have been able to do on their own, which in this case, was reading-comprehension questions and vocabulary (Wood et al., 1991).

4.10.6. Spellings and Grammar

Spelling and grammar in Appendix Q5 numbers 2 and 5 respectively, it appears that the teacher wrote receive for error “recive,” (Appendix Q 5) and remembered in Appendix R 6 for “remembering”, which the teacher indicated as a grammar mistake and still awarded 2 points for the question. Within the same question, there was a spelling error, which went unnoticed. When students’ errors are not marked thoroughly, teachers accepted wrong spellings, for example, “appetites” for “appliances” (see Appendix R8 (“focind for “forced”); most of these spellings went uncorrected and will likely reinforce these spelling errors.

4.10.7. Lack of Comprehension skills

The students showed a lack of understanding of the work they were given because the functional errors in their work were far too many. For example, sometimes students gave one-word answers and at other times, just copied words from the text with the same words as from the text and the words in the question. There seems to be a lack of enough vocabulary; for example, in Appendix Q8 and 7, the student wrote, (“*They were extracting the shop*”) and in (Appendix P4 number 9d), wrote, (“*The doctor is impatiently when he was talking*”). This shows a lack of understanding of the two words, “extracting” and “impatiently. Further Appendix Q7 and 6 number3 and 9b showed some signs of poor comprehension skills when the student wrote, (“*the travellers had disappointed*”) and (“*the occasion take place on Sunday...was so good boring*”). These two sentences showed lack of comprehension skills, understanding

and grammar sense and punctuation marks culminating in failure that can be observed in (Tables 4.10: 199;4.11: 205; 4.12: 212; 4.13: 213, and 4.14: 214).

There appears a disparity between English literature and English Language because there are fewer candidates in Literature and many students who take literature are always sure of passing and because teachers use appropriate methods to teach English Literature than they do reading-comprehension as earlier pointed out. In fact, there is continued visible student poor performance in reading-comprehension, as highlighted by various government documents (see Tables: 4.5-4.9: 161-172). For a candidate to pass O-level, he/she should pass five subjects, including the English Language, as pointed out earlier, but Tables (4.10-4.14:199-214) show each end-of-year results with low English Language pass rates showing no significant improvement.

Table, 4.12. XZ district composite-subjects' results for 2008

Subject	M	F	% pass in 5 subjects including Eng. Lang.	Total	A	B	C	D	E	U
English Language	398	388	23.52	796	6	40	142	146	109	34
History	285	252	16.35	537	4	30	53	52	36	36
Geography	289	293	8.44	582	3	11	33	73	79	38
Shona	379	384	12.05	763	3	41	128	121	147	32
Religious Education	35	57	23.91	92	2	4	16	14	16	40
English Literature	23	38	40.98	61	4	4	17	10	10	16

Further to 3.67 percentage, it apparently shows a questionable performance if students are attending school every day, which was confirmed by the minister of education. However, the 3.67% shows that there are some students who are at least passing the examinations, such as one of the bright students and the extroverts. The question remains: Have the teachers been exposing students to a variety of reading

materials and equipping them with library reading to improve reading-comprehension skills, as the syllabus for O-level English Language has always recommended.

In line with anonymity, the schools above in XZ District (alias) were given pseudo names to protect their identity. Early in the study, it was revealed that students were struggling with reading-comprehension, an issue confirmed by an analysis of O-level end-of-year results for 2010 and overall pass rates for 2009-2012 for both Apollo school and national percentages. The overall pass rates for Apollo School were 3.63%, 3.67%, 9.1% and 11.7%.

Table 4.13. XZ district composite-subjects' results for 2009

SUBJECT	M	F	The %pass rate in 5 subjects including Eng. Lang.	Total	A	B	C	D	E	U
English language	270	230	34.2	500	0	5 8	1 0 6	9 9	59	178
English Literature	9	16	80	25	1	5	1 4	2	0	3
History	150	119	28.9	269	10	2 6	4 3	5 4	28	108
Geography	195	155	20.6	350	15	2 2	4 5	6 6	45	157
Shona	234	207	24.1	441	1	3 2	7 1	8 7	64	186
Religious education	24	31	11.1	55	1	3	3	2	6	40

Its position in the district of 18 schools was 13, and in a province of 282 schools, its position was 199, a little below the halfway mark in 2010. The research results confirmed that the school is not faring well in public examinations, in which reading-comprehension plays a major role in facilitating the understanding of other subjects.

These results show the impact of one teacher observed, and 1, in whose classes a few students managed to pass the English Language. Research pointed out earlier that for a student to pass O-Level in five subjects, they should also have passed the English Language. Therefore, the examination results' analysis of 3.63%, 3.67%, 9.1%, and 11.7% included the English Language for 2009 to 2012. The table above shows that Apollo is steadily improving on its O-level results. The 2011 and 2012 results show 9.1 and 11.7 percentage pass rates, an improvement from the 2009 and 2010 results. During the time, I was conducting my research for this study in 2010, the headmaster hinted to me that they were likely to receive a consignment of books from UNICEF, further impacting on the importance of reading material in a school.

Table 4.14. XZ district results' analysis for 2010.

District	School	Pass Rate in 5 subjects including English Lang.	District	Province
XZ (alias)	Melange (alias)	60	1	16
XZ	Mendoza	37.4	2	28
XZ	Beata	16.3	3	65
XZ	Nyaumbi	15.4	4	67
XZ	Makoporo	15.0	5	70
XZ	Suku	12.7	6	88
XZ	Mururanyenze	10.0	7	113
XZ	Rungano	9.7	8	122
XZ	Jazi	9.5	9	124
XZ	Kandunya	8.9	10	130
XZ	Chikodzi	7.8	11	139
XZ	St Peter	4.8	12	183
XZ	Apollo	3.67	13	199
XZ	Tsungubvu	1.9	14	215
XZ	Chatundu	00	15	220
XZ	Chirimuhenga	00	15	220
XZ	Gelstonia	00	15	220
XZ	Munondo	00	15	220

Table 4.15. Yearly percentage pass rate in 5 subjects including English Language

Year	Percentage pass rate in 5 subjects including Eng. Lang.
2009	3.63
2010	3.67
2011	9.1
2012	11.7

Source: Examination Mark Schedules: (ZIMSEC 2009-2012)

Presumably, this influx of reading material might have made a difference in the results by injecting some resource reading materials in students' learning. Hence, augmenting these results to show some improvement in 2011 and 2012 might have helped in the change of the situation by using different methods from those observed in 2010. The teachers' remuneration might have been improved recently to give them some incentives or adding more teaching time to reading-comprehension.

The years 2009 and 2010 have been fraught with the education crisis of that period, for example, lack of textbooks, migration of qualified teachers, and the political and economic decline the country witnessed over the past decade, as this quotation explains:

“...many of the students who wrote O-levels...2010 at best only had textbooks in Form 4. Not anyone who expects children to do well without textbooks simply understands the basics of a good education system...textbooks for Secondary schools were only distributed at the end of 2010 and... are still in the process of completing that exercise. (Coltart, 2013, online).”

The harm caused to the education sector in Zimbabwe by the crisis of this last decade and the underfunding for the previous two decades is inestimable, in which the ministry has seen the effects of this through these low pass rates (Table 4.10-4.14: 199-214). The examination results for Apollo may seem to be improving, but the national examination results have not made any significant improvements. The best results have come from mission schools that sometimes fund themselves and have

stable/highly trained teaching staff. In addition, the minister of education in Zimbabwe has also raised awareness of the crisis in O-Level results by saying:

“...with only 31,767 pupils having attained passes in five subjects out of 172,698 who sat for the public examinations... results released ... showed 81,6 percent of the 172,698 who sat for the examinations failed to pass at least five subjects with grade C or better...Only 31,767 of that number were successful, translating to a pass rate of 18,4 percent. (Coltart, 2013, online).”

As mentioned before, O-level results in Zimbabwe have been disappointing over the past few years, as the following pass rates demonstrate. The teachers' exodus has been blamed for poor pass-rates in national schools' examinations (Coltart, 2013).

The national percentage pass rate is also the English Language percentage pass rate because, without the English Language, a child has not passed O-level. This has necessitated the establishment of this study to establish reasons behind students' English Language failure, which is the main O-level Subject. The English Language was recorded as one of the bottom three performed subjects, as stated by the ZIMSEC director: “...The bottom three subjects... recorded 20. 19 percent for the English Language, 18 percent for Shona and Mathematics (non-calculator version) had 13, 91 percent” (Nhandara, 2013). However, 2013 shows a slight improvement from 2012 results. This shows how THE English ESL students struggle with the subject in line with the findings of this study. The Director for ZIMSEC further pointed out that the male candidates performed better than their female counterparts. These female candidates had a pass rate of 16, 4 percent as compared to their male counterparts who recorded 20.4 percent.

This represented a figure of 14.198 females in real terms passing at least five subjects while a figure of 17.565 represented male students in real terms that passed at least five subjects with Grade C or better (Nhandara, 2013). Many O-Level students have continued to struggle to pass English Language which had the lowest average passes in June 2014 examination (Nhandara, 2014). The cultural belief in Zimbabwe is that girls should not be as educated as boys because they will get married and move away with their husbands; this might have affected the performance of some girls. This might not be true in some circles but was the belief before among many parents, so it might be still in others. The low percentage pass rate may be attributed to the education crisis from 2005 to 2009, which necessitated this study. The results reflected the political and economic decline the country has witnessed over the past decade (Coltart, 2013). During this time, some students' education suffered when thousands

of teachers left the service and many teaching and learning days were also lost through strikes by teacher's due to low remuneration. There is also a lack:

“...of treasury concurrence as the freeze on posts has also taken a toll on the education system. Sometimes we might have a few qualified people, but it is hard to take them on substantive basis because of the freeze. (Coltart, 2013, online)”

The Minister also related that the lack of incentives has de-motivated qualified teachers aspiring to be headmasters, (who may be effective). “There is a difference of a few dollars between a headmaster and a qualified teacher, but the workload for the headmaster is more” (Coltart, 2013). The lack of incentives for substantive headmasters has affected the quality of education. “This has affected the quality of supervision and obviously examination results for that particular school would be affected” (Coltart, 2013); the minister confirmed his statement through this breakdown:

“...Close to 80 percent of school headmasters countrywide are in an acting capacity, amid reports that those aspiring to fill the posts do not have the requisite qualifications. Most education officials at district and provincial offices are also serving in an acting capacity as the freeze on vacant posts by Treasury ARE affecting the education system. Some teachers have been acting headmasters for over 12 years (Coltart, 2013, online)”

Coltart (2013) has attributed this to the treasury freeze on vacant posts to help the administration of schools, which he said has compromised the administration of most schools countrywide in Zimbabwe, thus resulting in low pass rates. It is believed most of these acting headmasters pay to remain in those posts (corruption), but they are not able to make positive administrative decisions. Some time back, there used to be headmasters' and subject teachers' refresher courses at Domboshawa (main training centre) or any other district centres, but they have stopped since then. It was during such courses that they were taught about administrative issues and new methods of teaching school subjects. The ZIMSEC November 2012 O-level results released in January of 2013 revealed that the pass rate had dropped from 19.5 percent to 18.4 (Coltart, 2013) while the results released in January of 2014 increased to 20.72 percent showing some improvement in some years not in others.

Table 4.16. ZIMSEC yearly national percentage pass rate in 5 subjects including the English Language from 2009 to 2012.

Year	Pass rate. in 5 subjects including Eng. Lang
2009	14.4%
2010	16.5%
2011	19.5%
2012	18.4%
2013	20.72%

There were only 31.767 candidates who passed five O-level subjects including English Language, out of the 172,698 who sat for these examinations (Coltart, 2013). All these poor results may have been caused by the crisis of 2008.

4.10.8. Low Achievers—below average

Some students were not like the extrovert and the bright ones, who liked doing reading-comprehension and did it apparently well. One girl child appeared dreading doing reading-comprehension. During interviews, the girl openly stated in her L1:

“Ini zvangu comprehension inondinetsa, ndinodakunya tsodzidziswa Handidi zvangu comprehension inondi netsa.” Which translates into English as “I do not like comprehension; it is difficult for me. I want to be properly taught. I do not like it, it is difficult for me.”

There appears to be a high level of anxiety among students who are not doing well in reading-comprehension. The practice of teachers hastening to test students before they actually develop students reading-comprehension skills appeared to enhance the dislike of this subject. It has come into view that the interactive activities related to reading-comprehension development are not encouraged by teachers to enable students to benefit from their teaching. As one puts it, she routinely teaches reading-comprehension day in and day out, using lecturing that apparently does not develop

reading-comprehension skills other than reading the passage and then holding brief discussions on the set questions in groups and making students answer questions but didn't use strategies that develop reading-comprehension skills.

The students who are below average appear to revert to their L1 when they are stuck in the use of English vocabulary during reading-comprehension because they have inadequate English proficiency levels in terms of vocabulary synonym language. The students seem to find it difficult to cope with reading-comprehension work. The main problem appears to be the lack of exposure to reading materials in the school.

Appendix R1-22 shows the work of students not doing well in reading-comprehension. These students' work appears to be below average in terms of their vocabulary as the school is lacking in supplementary reading books. Teachers have not found any other way of making these students better in reading-comprehension but rather thought that if they kept on testing them in reading-comprehension, they might improve, which is a product approach.

4.10.9. Top achievers: above average

Even though many students are failing, there appear to be some students with the potential to pass examinations. This study identified two top students who had the potential to do well in reading-comprehension, presumably affecting the examination results of the entire school in 2011 (Appendix P-1-5, and table 4.1: 149). The extrovert was one such student who participated very well in the lesson observation and contributed immensely to lesson discussions and brainstorming sessions. During my observation of lessons for one teacher, the extrovert was quoted as saying:

"I caught a big fish from the dam in... river last week when I went fishing with my brother. It was a big silver bream fish which weighed about two kilograms."

No other student contributed reasonably in this lesson. The extrovert had also quarrelled with another student about a book earlier in the lesson. This appears to show that the extrovert student always wants to take top positions over issues and have a book so that he could do more work. During group discussions, the extrovert was seen apparently, leading a group without the teacher's knowledge and it was his group that turned out to be one of the best groups to give a report.

One of the bright students appeared to be a quiet student who wanted to participate when others had apparently failed to give an answer. All of his answers were usually correct. During observation, there was a time when he was quiet and had not spoken, and when he was called upon to relate a story, he did it apparently better than the extrovert did. He is a student who appears sure of himself and seemingly confident when asked anything. One of the students appeared to be quite brilliant and apparently contributed sensibly during discussions, as was heard during the FGD.

4.11.0. Summary

In summary, this chapter has attempted to reveal the results from the ‘think-aloud’ that were given to the students when reading the two kinds of texts that seek to discover the challenges students face in reading-comprehension, that is the narrative and expository texts respectively. It has furthermore endeavoured to collect, review and present the findings from the nine open-ended questions for students who required discovering strategies they utilised in trying to comprehend texts. It further presented the data arising from FGD, interviews, official documents, newspapers and examination documents. Finally, findings regarding the strategies used by the teachers in teaching reading-comprehension to O-levels in terms of responses to the eight open-ended questions have been presented in this chapter. Discussions of these findings follow in chapter five.

CHAPTER FIVE

5.0. DISCUSSION

This chapter seeks to discuss all results of the research study. The intention of this chapter is to reveal the strategies leveraged by teachers along with the challenges confronted by O-level students in English reading-comprehension while undertaking reading-comprehension and to finally outline feasible and long-lasting measures that catalyse a tangible improvement in the quality of both teaching and learning the subject with all its contours. The research entailed the participation of as many as twenty students who were first purposively sampled and then stratified into strata—average, above average and below average. They were subsequently sampled into those strata by making use of class records. Nine teachers were also purposively sampled. The researcher leveraged the think-aloud protocol for students to gauge the challenges faced by students. Furthermore, methods like interviews, observation, documentary evidence and FGDs were utilised for both teachers and student groups to consolidate the findings in the think-aloud. For teachers and students, interviews and FGD was conducted to ascertain the challenges faced by students and the strategies used by teachers to impart English reading-comprehension that was premised on the following research questions:

5.1. Research questions:

These questions are addressed in the discussion focus below:

- 1) What approaches do teachers utilize in the teaching of English reading-comprehension?
- 2) What are the challenges that rural 'O' Level students facing in reading-comprehension?
- 3) What other factors contribute to poor reading-comprehension skills?

The data is discussed in the following discussion focus basing on the data appropriate for the themes earmarked.

5.2. Discussion focus

- 1) What are the challenges that rural O-level students facing in reading-comprehension classes: discussing data that fall under challenges to students?
- 2) What approaches do teachers use in teaching rural O-level English reading-comprehension classes: discussing data that fall under approaches used by teachers.
- 3) What other factors contribute to poor reading-comprehension skills: discussing data that fall under other factors that contribute to poor reading-comprehension skills.

5.2.1. Discussion focus1: What challenges are faced by rural O-level students in reading-comprehension?

This section will discuss the data from think-aloud analysing the expository and narrative texts, interview with teachers, documentary evidence as well as observation of lessons along with FGD, with students and teachers to answer the above research questions (1-3). The themes arising out of these research questions focus on the challenges faced by students, strategies used by teachers and other factors contributing to poor reading-comprehension during the learning in discussion focus 1-3 (sections:5.2.0,5.3.0,5.4.0) respectively. The students have multiple learning problems mainly because it appears to be triggered by the lack of enough vocabulary synonym-language, exacerbated by insufficient reading materials in the school, thus making it difficult for students to understand reading-comprehension texts. Given the fact that reading-comprehension is the ability to read texts, process it, and understand its meaning, students are unable to interact with these texts. As such, to be able to understand accurately written texts, students need to be able to decide what they read, make meaningful connections with what they read to what they already know, for them to comprehend new knowledge. One of the most important skills in the realm of reading-comprehension is to develop adequate vocabulary synonym-language, which involves knowing the meanings of adequate words in English, as something concurred by many researchers such as (Shoebottom, 2014; Maposa, 1992; and Krashen,2003). This appears to be one of the major challenges faced by students in reading-comprehension.

5.2.2. What challenges are faced by rural O-level students in reading-Comprehension?

Reading-comprehension takes place when a reader interacts with a text. The students in this study were asked to show what they are thinking as they interacted with the texts that they were presented. By inferring from these findings, it appears that these students did not ask themselves questions relating to the text before reading because not one of these twenty student-participants wrote any questions on the pieces of paper. This result is contrary to Wood et al., (1991) who established that creating questions is a way of developing the understanding of texts as readers ask themselves questions throughout the reading-comprehension activity. Asking questions in reading-comprehension helps students monitor their understanding of what they are reading. However, views from students revealed they asked themselves questions before, during as well as after reading. This is correct for both the expository texts and the narrative texts. In view of that, there is no evidence from the pieces of paper to show that this interaction was going on between these students and the texts that they were given to read.

It apparently shows a clear picture of what these students engaged in before reading a text; they did not approach it actively enough to interact with it. This result is not in line with Dole et al., (1991) who maintain that the goal of reading-comprehension is for students to be aware of their own reading process and apply effective reading strategies. Whereas Duffy et al., (1987) also support that the failure to utilize sound reading-comprehension strategies makes it less possible to engage with the text, and the students will not approach reading tasks strategically to achieve effective reading-comprehension understanding. Maybe, teachers need to equip students with certain universal skills, which students can apply in getting to the central meaning of passages - regardless of their content bases as confirmed. From the attainments on both narrative and expository texts, there does not appear to be maximum reading-comprehension understanding if the scores are to go by in Tables 4.2: 150 and 4.4: 151. It appears that students did not ask themselves questions to motivate and stimulate prior knowledge on the topic before, during and after reading the texts. This is not in line with Marzano's (2014) research, which maintains that students reflect and stimulate their prior knowledge background about a theme or topic of the text. While

this study further elaborates that background, knowledge is the raw material that conditions learning as it *acts as* mental hooks for the lodging of new information and is referred to as the basic building blocks of new content and skill knowledge. Even though two students in Table 4.1: 150, appear to be aware of the activation of prior knowledge to help them comprehend texts, the majority of these students did not know about how prior knowledge can help them to comprehend texts. Yet, according to the teachers, they introduced their reading-comprehension passages to the students before asking them to read where this research encourages a bottom-up process as being reliant on teaching reading-comprehension. This view is confirmed by one teacher's FGD contribution where she pointed out about the lack of students' clear defined reading goals in section, 4.5.2 and 4.5.3:

"It shows that they do not really know the goal of reading."

Furthermore, results obtained from other data collecting tools above show that students do not have the skills to unlock the central meanings of passages. One would expect teachers to be relatively competent to develop in this area owing to an abundance of literature on how to teach reading-comprehension. However, this research study has found that students perform well on questions at a literal level of understanding and have problems with higher order reading-comprehension questions, i.e. questions that test evaluative/interpretive and analytical skills. In addition, the students' performance in reading-comprehension is determined by the content of this passage basing this argument on insufficient vocabulary synonym-language lacking. This finding suggests that students tend to perform better on passages in which they have background knowledge of the content. In other words, teachers need to equip students with certain universal skills, which they can apply in getting to the central meaning of passages for them to use contextual clues to get meanings of words.

5.2.3. The Students' knowledge of reading comprehension

This section deals with the understanding of reading-comprehension by students where the bulk of them understood reading-comprehension as being given a prose-passage to read and thereafter, given questions to answer. From what the students articulated, the challenge is that they see reading-comprehension as a kind of a chore that has to be performed because of the questions that they are expected to answer.

It seems that the students do not execute the reading activity as a chance for them to learn from this reading experience, which is confirmed by Adelman (2006), who emphasises strongly that if individuals cannot read and comprehend well enough, much knowledge will be beyond their knowledge as one teacher long-established that:

“Students do not have the skills to unlock the central meanings of passages”

Therefore, the knowledge students need to have are the two significant skills associated with vocabulary development and the automaticity—that is having the ability of start, operate and move independently to recognise synonym-language—which this research has established as the foundation for student vocabulary learning success. The second skill is contextual knowledge composed of word awareness, recognition and analysis, which students need to possess in order to realise vocabulary questions that give: 1) -the root of the word and 2) -the contents of the word where it is talking about the sentence. 3) -Contextual clues that help to find the answer choice; 4) -verbs that help students when they use the root of the word to arrive at the meaning; and 5) -the substitution that helps students to substitute words with their own vocabulary to substitute the word. These five skills can help students as one teacher pointed out that some students have problems for example:

You may...find someone is answering something out of context.

Contextual knowledge guides students to understand whatever they are reading as word recognition refers to the capacity to interpret a particular word out of a group of words which this researcher confirms. This research gives the acknowledgement of word analysis that it defines the process of involving reading-comprehension of letters, sounds, and roots, prefixes and suffixes that comprise a meaningful morphological unit of English, to facilitate students to understand meanings of the words. This research assumed that students effectively analysed words when they articulated their meanings and utilised them correctly in sentences that reveal the understanding of the words' meanings as well as correct syntactic usage. The substantial issue at hand is that once words are recognized, students utilise their pragmatic awareness to hone critical thinking skills on words that are used to communicate and comprehend their purposes of utilisation. Word identification devoid of reading-comprehension meaning and utilisation of words signifies deficiency in vocabulary synonym-language

knowledge on the part of students, which (Chinodya, 1994) concurs. In this case, students need to remember to find a key sentence as well as the keyword in a question and then pick the answer that matches it so as to recognise synonym language.

5.2.4. Students inability to approach texts differently

This section looks at challenges that reveal how students out of the 20 students, 18 responded (see sect.4.4.3) that they varied their reading speed when reading expository texts, for example, one student pointed out:

Biology I do read it in a way that I understand. I do not have to be fast because you can miss out points.

From the views of the students, it appears obvious that many of the students read expository texts more than what they do texts from narrative prose-passages cautiously, for example, one student said:

...technical subject like Biology I read it slowly so that I can understand- and- I read novels ...the method I read subjects like Biology are different when you are reading a novel it is like you are reading a story... Biology I do read it in a way that I understand.

These results are in accordance with the scores of the students from the expository and narrative texts who attested to this (see Table 4.2: 150 and 4.4: 151). More students scored more than ten out of twenty for the expository text than in the narrative. This result sharply disagrees with Santa (2004), who holds that students are more exposed to narrative texts than expository texts. In this view, it could have been expected that students score better in the narrative texts; yet, it was the opposite. This could mean that students paid more attention to expository texts as compared to narrative texts. It could also mean that they did not see reading narratives as a way for them to learn and this could be the reason for the poor vocabulary of the students. Krashen (2003) who posits that exposing students to large quantities of meaningful material will, in the end, produce a beneficial effect on the students. This is because students will experience a lot of literature that creates meaning and exposes them to large quantities of vocabulary. Contrary to this, students in this study who are said to be doing well in expository texts may be merely memorising expository texts in other content subjects. The results also reveal that attention to expository text with the sole purpose to answer correctly leads to rote learning and memorising content material. Students memorise chunks of knowledge without really learning from it and carrying

the knowledge to improve both their lives and those of others which Kameenui et al., (1990) concurred.

The views of most of the students demonstrate that they engaged in reading-comprehension monitoring activities by going back to read through twice or three times. However, although students realised when to go back and re-read what they did not comprehend, they did not remember when and how to utilise the other types of reading-comprehension strategies to help them to comprehend texts. This is in line with Nokes and Dole (2004) who challenge that when reading-comprehension breaks down, good readers are able to use reading-comprehension monitoring or solve other problem-solving tasks through utilisation of reading-comprehension strategies. Moreover, Nokes and Dole (2004) add that many readers use reading-comprehension monitoring strategies inappropriately. Good readers use a diversity of functions for background knowledge strategies right through the reading-comprehension process to prop up the construction of their meaning such as summarising; a few students indicated that they were able to summarise what they had read. Although not many students were able to summarise work orally after reading, as there was no evidence from the results of this think-aloud that the students were competent in using the summarising strategy to help them in attaining reading-comprehension. This result is in line with other research findings that have shown that achievement of intention in reading-comprehension tends to incline towards the capability to summarise, infer and analyse texts or recount them to personal experience as confirmation of active interaction with the texts. Kamil (2004) also posits that précis might give confidence for a deeper engagement with the text and support students to re-read as they create a summary.

With regard to asking and answering questions' strategies, the results concerning the strategies that teachers used did not demonstrate that they taught the students how to create questions and answer questions as a way of activating previous knowledge. Teachers in the study appeared to focus on the strategy concerning students answering either the teachers' oral questions on what the students had read or the set questions on the reading passages, which had a negative effect on the students' reading-comprehension. This result is not in agreement with Nokes and Dole (2004), who maintain that using question-answering instructions to help students develop how

they answer their questions, which in turn, helps them analyse and comprehend what they read. Whilst students were capable of answering the set questions on the two types of texts, the quality of the responses did not show that the teachers had taught the strategy to the students. The calibre of these scores is a testimony to this claim (see Table 4.2: 150 and 4.4: 151). As for creating questions, there was no confirmation in the teachers' responses that they were instructing the students to ask themselves questions as a way of processing texts and monitoring reading-comprehension. In addition, there was no confirmation from the think-aloud that the students created questions of their own before, during and after reading. Even the two students who alleged they asked themselves questions before, during and after reading did not demonstrate any evidence of being able to do so during the think-aloud. Dowhower (1999) established that students who were deficient in the use of these strategies often became like unskilled readers. For the utilization of text construction, the results from this think-aloud did not demonstrate that the students understood the story-structure or the literary techniques, for example, the plot of the story, the characters, setting as well as theme. There was no indication that these students were interrelating with the text by asking themselves questions about the structure of the text. In other words, the scores attained by students from the questions on the narrative text (see Table 4.4: 151) demonstrated that they had challenges engaging with the text. The results are suggestive of the fact that the students were not capable of fully accessing their representation for narrative texts when they began to read the text. Research argues that these students were not capable to make connections with narrative texts that they would have read before and applied the knowledge to the text at hand. For the expository text, results suggest that many students did not understand the common expository text structures such as sequence, summarise, description and comparison.

It is obvious from the responses that the students provided when asked to say what kind of words helped them better understand a text in the English language. Barely two students had any idea as to the common meaning of text structures (Table 4.3: 150). Because of the lack of enough information about the construction of the expository text, these students were incapable of fully engaging with the text using appropriate strategies and representation to help them construct the meaning of what they read as evidenced from the scores obtained by the respondents from both the narrative and expository texts. It is all the way through the employment of these

strategies at various stages that meaning is achieved. The main results from this think-aloud showed that many students hardly used these reading-comprehension strategies to help them comprehend what they read. When students got overwhelmed by reading-comprehension, it is apparent from the students' responses that they monitored their reading-comprehension only by going back to clarify what they had read. The students' responses indicated that more than half of the students monitored their reading-comprehension by reading through the text more than once. The teachers who confirmed that some students 'go back' to the passage to read through again as well complemented this. From the think aloud, however there was no confirmation of the use of the other reading-comprehension monitoring strategies such as identifying where and what the problem is, restating the sentences or entire paragraphs in their own words and looking forward in the text for information that could help determine the problem. From the responses of students, a cry for help appears to be what the students are giving out. Students require being independent to be able to approach texts strategically. This result is not in line with Hopkins (2005) who advocates that students should be availed strategies that help them succeed in reading tasks.

5.2.5. Using words in sentences

This section pursues the students' challenges by looking at how one the teacher let the students construct sentences using words discussed. This means that the students were able to construct sentences using the new vocabulary after they have had some understanding of the new words. This conversely disagrees with what one other teacher said,

Even after explaining the words students still asked about the same words when they encountered them again in the same passage.

It can be deduced from the teacher's view that although asking students to construct sentences after some level of understanding is helpful, it is not entirely effective. This is because the teacher confessed that the strategy has inadequacies, as the students are not actively involved in making connections between the new vocabulary and what they already know; hence, the reason for them to fail to recall the meanings of the words they acquired during a previous reading session. Students even failed to recall the same words that they were taught previously. This could actually be the reason as

to why the students' vocabulary synonym-language appears to be low as attested to by the teachers.

5.2.6. Looking up the words

The teachers utilised dictionaries in their vocabulary teaching while it is important to instruct students to utilise dictionaries, particularly for writing purposes, the exercise is most unlikely to end up in meaningful vocabulary learning. To get a meaningful result from vocabulary words, students need to be trained to find the root of the word, relevant content, substitute words with own words, and use contextual clues to refrain from over-reliance on dictionaries. Furthermore, the operation of looking up the words in the dictionary is time-consuming given that students are not so well versed in the art of looking up words. Besides, the seventy minutes allocated to a double reading-comprehension lesson in schools might be used up in the exercise and therefore, may not be useful enough in aiding reading-comprehension to students. This is worse off if there are extended lists of unrelated words to look up, as was the case with the students in this study.

5.2.7. Using the context

Whilst it is right that the meaning may be found from the context, it appears obvious from the results in this study that the students have a difficult time deducing the meanings of words from the context in the passages that are not explained. If properly taught and practised, contextual clues could have enabled students to find answer choices and substitute vocabulary words in the question with their own words to locate answers. It is a clear sign that students require a wider range of process instructional strategies and extensive reading where they would have widened their synonym language to be actively engaged in constructing meaning. It appears that teachers are concentrating much more on teaching how to use context in vocabulary instruction without laying the foundation and emphasis on teaching the students to interact actively with the text using various reading-comprehension strategies to construct morphological unit of English to facilitate students to comprehend meanings of words by using other methods to enhance students' synonym language.

5.2.8. Students' inability to make use of prior knowledge in reading activities

This section presents findings as challenges that indicate that the students' functioning spoken, and written words are lacking and are applying prior knowledge inappropriately. This finding reveals that students are only able to make use of prior knowledge when the teacher activated it at the beginning of the passage. Some teachers in this study are introducing the reading-comprehension passages to their students utilizing book pictures accompanying the story. Introducing a passage with book pictures is a strategy that helps students connect to their background knowledge with the new knowledge they encounter in the text. According to Anderson and Pearson (1984), the reader's prior knowledge directly affects new learning situations. This finding is in line with the views of Nist and Mealey (1991) which state that when new information enters memory, it must be compatible with that which is already present for meaning to occur. When a reading-comprehension passage is well introduced at the beginning of the reading activity, students' prior knowledge of the subject is activated to affect the new reading experience. From these findings, it appears that students are able to use prior knowledge but were not trained to use it effectively to affect new learning situations. As one teacher puts it, the students are only motivated to read when prior knowledge is activated at the beginning of the reading.

5.2.9. Students' other reading-comprehension problems

In view of the challenges gathered from the data, research reveals that students have major problems with reading-comprehension work in general, such as lack of reading-comprehension skills and the use of grammar in reading-comprehension caused by a lack of extensive reading due to unavailability of reading materials that have impacted on synonym-language to use in reading-comprehension level questions. It is also established from the poor performance of students in reading-comprehension that the teachers' use of a product approach (testing and lecturing) in their classes could not effectively address the reading-comprehension weaknesses. However, lecturing and testing do not elicit high-level vocabulary synonym-language acquisition as students just listen and are being evaluated constantly. Students can get away with passive listening and selectively memorise. Reading-comprehension skill development is a

complex of abilities and includes language skills, cognitive capabilities and world knowledge. As reading-comprehension is a skill of paramount importance, research regards it as a tool skill in the sense that it affects most aspects of school learning and a child's progress in other subjects will depend considerably on reading-comprehension skills. Across these levels, the processes of word identification and analysis, parsing, referential mapping, and a variety of inference processes all contribute in interacting with the reader's conceptual knowledge, to produce a mental model of the texts. The acquisition of reading-comprehension ability opens many doors to understanding, as reading-comprehension failure is, therefore, a major factor in educational failure through the lack of reading-comprehension skills. Torgesen et al., (2001) summarised:

One of the most daunting and clearly defined current challenges for both researchers and practising educators is to develop, disseminate, and implement methods for teaching reading-comprehension that will help all children acquire adequate reading skills (:33)

Research established that the problems students are facing with reading-comprehension work are many, and they cut across all the English classes. This is not surprising because many teachers are using the same approach—lecturing and testing—, which is a product-oriented approach. As a result, most students' problems reflect symptoms associated with a product-oriented instruction such as drilling, testing and lecturing which are based on memory and have a weak foundation. This leads to poor academic outcomes as well as terrible emotional side effects overall.

5.2.10. What students did when reading-comprehension was difficult

In view of reading-comprehension problems, this section reveals the results from most students that showed that they engaged in reading-comprehension using self-monitoring activities involving clarifying strategies whereby they learn to go back to read through two or three times but continue to face challenges. However, although students realise that going back and re-read what they have not comprehended, they are not recalling how and when to utilise other types of reading-comprehension strategies to help them comprehend texts better. This is in line with Nokes and Dole (2004), who challenges that when reading-comprehension becomes difficult, good readers are able to use reading-comprehension monitoring or other problem-solving

strategies to help them understand better. Besides this study add that many learners are using them inappropriately.

Good readers use a diversity of strategies right through the reading-comprehension process to prop up their creation of meaning such as summarising and monitoring; a few of the students indicated that they are able to summarise what they have read. Although not many students appeared able to summarise work orally after reading, there was no evidence that the students were competent of using the summarising strategy to help them comprehend better. This result is in line with this research that has revealed that achievement of intention in reading-comprehension tends to incline to the capability to summarise and repeat texts or relate them to personal experiences as pieces of evidence of active interaction with the texts. However, Kamil (2004) maintains that précis might give confidence for a deeper engagement with the text and support students to re-read and recreate as they build a summary. There appears not to be an encouragement within the texts given that students did not show this action on the think-aloud. It appears that précis was also done in the students' own language.

Regarding the other strategies; on questioning and answering questions, the results concerning the strategies that teachers use did not demonstrate that they teach the students how to create questions and answer questions as a way of activating previous knowledge. Teachers in this study appear to focus on the students' strategies when answering either the teachers' oral questions on what the students have read or the set questions on the reading passages. This result is not in agreement with Nokes and Dole (2004) who propose that using question-answering instruction can help students to develop proper answering of questions, which in turn helps them comprehend what they read. Whilst students were capable of answering the set questions on the two types of texts, the quality of the responses did not demonstrate that the teachers had taught the strategy to the students. The calibre of the scores is a testimony to this claim (see Table 4.2: 150 and 4.4: 151). As for creating questions, there was no confirmation in the teachers' responses that they were instructing the students to ask self-questions as a way of processing texts and monitoring reading-comprehension. In addition, there was no confirmation from the think-aloud that the students created questions of their own before, during and after reading. Even the two students who allegedly asked themselves questions before, during and after reading,

did not demonstrate evidence of being able to do so in the think-aloud (see Tables 4.1-4.4: 149-151).

Dowhower (1999) established that students who were deficient in the use of these strategies when given instruction often pretended to be skilled readers. For the utilisation of text construction, the results from the think-aloud did not demonstrate that the students understand the story structure or the literary techniques, for example, a plot of the story, the characters, setting and theme. In other words, the scores attained by the students from the questions on the narrative text (see Table 4.4: 151) demonstrate that the students have challenges engaging with the text. This is the incident where more than half of the students in the study scored less than ten out of twenty. The results are suggestive of the fact that the students were not capable to access fully their representation for narrative texts when they begin to read the text. It can be argued that the students were not capable to make connections with narrative texts that they read before and apply the knowledge to the text at hand.

For the expository text, results suggest that many students did not understand the common expository text structures such as sequence, description, comparison and cause and effect. This is obvious from the responses that the students provided when asked to say what kind of words help them better understand a text in the English language. Barely two students had any idea relating to common text structures. This is because of a lack of enough information about the construction of expository text that students are incapable of fully engaging with the text using appropriate strategies and the representation to help them construct meaning from what they read as evidenced from the scores obtained by the students from both narrative and expository texts. It is all the way through the employment of these strategies at various stages right through the interaction that meaning is achieved. The main results from think-aloud showed that many students hardly used these reading-comprehension strategies to help them comprehend what they read. When students got overwhelmed with reading-comprehension, it is apparent from the students' responses that they monitored their reading-comprehension only by going back to clarify what they read. The teachers who confirmed that some students 'go back' to the paragraph to read through again further complement this. From the think-aloud however, there was no confirmation on the use of the other reading-comprehension monitoring strategies

such as identifying where and what the problem is, restating sentences or whole paragraphs in their own words and looking forward in the text for information that could help determine the problem. This result is not in line with the results from Hopkins (2005) that students should be availed strategies to help them succeed with reading tasks because they are lacking in vocabulary, which can be enhanced by extensive reading, and also by use of literature teaching methods.

5.3.0. Discussion Focus 2: Discussing data that falls under what approaches teachers utilize in the teaching of English reading-comprehension.

In view of this discussion focus, teachers need the relevant expertise in the subject matter and content in teaching by developing their own models of professional development based on lifelong learning in the students' reading-comprehension. It is assumed that teachers use CLT approaches to process teaching, which is an idea based on teaching reading-comprehension successfully that comes through having to communicate real meaning, but it appears this could not happen. The teaching on the CLT approaches focuses on interaction through activities for students where it is usually characterised by a broad approach to teaching and, rather than a specific teaching method with a clearly defined set of classroom practices that emphasise interaction as both the means and the ultimate goal of the study. This is actually supposed to help teachers refrain from lecturing as a style of delivering information by allowing students to effectively communicate and deduce meaningful messages within precise contexts by listening, speaking, reading, and writing utilising language skills. There appears to be complete dominance on testing and drilling before the process teaches students thereby making students hate the subject and see it as just a routine they need to do.

5.3.1. The Dominance of testing students in reading-comprehension

Views in this section will examine how teachers dominated their lessons with testing before actually process teach students. The study observed that teachers appeared to forget the fact that reading-comprehension questions they create only gauge the students' ability to recall ideas and information directly stated in the given text, although the students need to be taught process reading-comprehension to develop

their reading skills. Contemporary approaches for teaching reading-comprehension are prone to highlight the products of reading-comprehension and disregard the processes of reading-comprehension. As such, teachers were sometimes observed giving an unexplained passage for students to answer questions as though it was like an exam passage, which is why students took reading-comprehension as a kind of test and developed hatred against the subject. Students need to be taught using process reading-comprehension strategies to develop their understanding or use methods used in teaching literature lessons to upgrade its teaching, not simply getting them into answering questions. The students themselves articulated that their challenge is that they see reading-comprehension as a kind of test or a routine to be performed as demanded by their teachers. One student remarked:

“I read books for fun... not to be tested as teachers do with comprehension.

I sometimes become sick when I think too much about what to write when I do comprehension test”

It, therefore, appears that they expect the process teaching of reading-comprehension to prevail in their lessons. Students need to examine the relationship between vocabulary synonym-language and extensive reading, which have a very high correlation for students to succeed. Teachers of reading-comprehension are encouraged to adopt this stance to refrain from a culture of testing and drilling without process-teach reading-comprehension to develop its skills. In light of these O-level classes, teachers should make students open up to various instructions focusing on training them to handle all levels of reading-comprehension texts. Biggs's (2003) maintains reading-comprehension constructive alignment, seeks to align the students' learning activities to assumed learning outcomes. This is achieved by aligning the students' levels of reading-comprehension to their performance levels, which are descriptions of the English Language students' proficiency levels, (SPL) for non-speakers of the English. SPLs' general Language ability is focused on the four language skills wherein level one the student simply finds the answer, level two connects to it, level three as well adds to it, and level four goes beyond what is stated directly or indirectly in the passage. The student can further go beyond where the answer is when supported by information contextually in the text. Teachers cannot develop students through their usual testing and drilling, but success comes after teaching that trains students to target the performance levels guided and assisted by

theories and strategies. Research reference has pointed out that just as elementary teachers provide minimal reading-comprehension instruction, middle and secondary teachers are equally unlikely to utilise their instructional time to explain, model, and coach students through process reading-comprehension approach-strategies, they have been avoiding constructivist methods that help students learn by discovery.

Resourceful teachers have a range of techniques for benefiting the students' reading-comprehension on specific text-activities that include discussions, predicting and locating main ideas as strategies. Teachers need to be clear about the rationale of their teaching to focus on student-led discussions, which include the CLT approaches that focus on effective responses from students.

While question-asking sessions are not discouraged per se, the students' reading-comprehension products may lack useful insights into the processes they use to produce them; hence, the reading-comprehension process cannot be evaluated solely by probing products. Students need exposure to all reading-comprehension levels through effective teaching so that teachers do not exacerbate students but give them practice appropriate to reading-comprehension levels. Teaching apparatus can be used to align prior knowledge with new knowledge, as they are physical tools that can be utilised to communicate knowledge in the classroom to accompany teaching strategies. They are the only strategies that the teacher can use to instruct students to align knowledge background experiences, so that correct concept may be formed, not starting with drilling and testing before the foundation is laid. Using all models of teaching present is paramount to a successful classroom teaching, as even the best teaching apparatus may not make up for poor teaching strategies which present varied experiences because instructional aides supply such vivid experiences to students for teachers to be fully understood through feedback sessions.

5.3.2. Teacher feedback in reading-comprehension

This section focuses on reading-comprehension, highlighting the importance of teacher feedback in reading-comprehension. Teacher feedback in reading-comprehension is closely linked to motivation to learn, as students need a sense of encouragement and approval, which should be maintained. Students can be encouraged to be responsible for making their own improvements, as an effective

approach should be a virtual one-to-one tutoring that is extremely comprehensible in reading-comprehension teaching. Motivation sustains the students' confidence in their quest to learn, in support of what one teacher admitted as prevailing:

“Students should be motivated so that they are eager to learn.”

In line with Skinner's (1967) feedback, which is a two-way process, an interaction between teacher and learner. It has to do with entering into dialogue with the learner in order to find out their current level of performance on any task and sharing with them possible ways in which that performance can be improved on a subsequent assignment. Students should be motivated so that they are eager to learn. This means that feedback should be linked to performance, as one teacher confirmed:

“Most of the answers will be wrong because students lack motivation and sometimes spellings and grammar are wrong.”

While one bright student confidently said:

“She will not write bad comments in my book because I do well.”

Comments such as “poor, very good” and “excellent keep it up” “Put more effort” “Good work” sound vague. They should also indicate where students should have done better to improve the work (Appendix P Q R). Awarding number grades and meaningless comments is a traditional form of assessment that does not help, as students require purposeful reading-comprehension assessments (Appendix P, Q, and R). New and more effective trends dictate that students are respected as unique individuals. Teachers act as facilitators who promote learning and do not act as judges or sole executors through the constructive alignment. From that, Johnson (1987) emphasised that in the product classroom the teacher is not only preoccupied with grammatical accuracy but also acts as a judge of students' work rather than a facilitator.

5.3.3. Lecturing dominating reading-comprehension lessons

The 'simple' view of reading-comprehension reviews lecturing most teachers used in this study. From that perspective, many lessons were delivered through the process of lecturing without using CLT approaches which encourage the use of charts or posters to enliven learning. Even some involvement of students by acting in some activity was ignored by many teacher's contraries to Gunning's (2006) preparational

strategy, which suggests the inclusion of some practice with prefixes through some activities. In particular, Gunning (2006) emphasises teaching phonograms, prefixes and suffixes which he posits can be very helpful. For teachers to help students with different perceptual learning strategies, they need to consider students' perceptual strengths and employ different methods of teaching in order to facilitate constructive aligned concepts. At some point, it was established that constructivist teaching was lacking at the school that should target core construction and interpretation of vocabulary synonym-language in reading-comprehension learning. It came into view that such prerequisite skills are based on constructivist and interpretive learning and teaching using contexts that can be made meaningful by whole pieces of literature using prior knowledge. Integration of literacy and inter-language skills enhance student motivation via an individual choice in learning activities and functional learning events that involve students. This aspect was minimal or missing completely in most observed lessons; hence, the scanty understanding of the texts which could be averted through the adaption of CLT approaches to enable students to interact.

5.3.4. Comprehension taught as an isolated event

Reading-comprehension is a highly interactive process, therefore it is predicted that CLT approaches should be used as reading-comprehension demands to be taught by integrating the skills to stimulate students to read and speak, to appreciate, and enjoy a wide range of subject-books and increase their general knowledge and form a lifelong reading habit to avoid lecturing. Thus, while teaching any specific language skill such as reading, writing, listening or speaking; one must try to integrate all four skills. Reading-comprehension was a limited and infrequent activity done once or twice in a week; not much integration was being done with other subjects to avoid the isolation of reading-comprehension teaching. This gave the impression that reading-comprehension was taught out of context and that was not an aspect of language skill development that should be taught in a much more integrated manner. Teachers were largely pre-occupied with reading-comprehension testing so that they could just go through the motions to attain the result quickly through the product approach, ignoring the process approach, as one teacher is quoted saying:

“After this debate, rather a discussion, students answer questions in their exercise books.”

The interactive and integrated activities associated with reading-comprehension were not encouraged long enough for students to benefit from the process approach and could be achieved through the establishment of goals for the students.

5.3.5. Setting goals for reading-comprehension

According to views of reading-comprehension this section analyses the importance of setting goals to motivate students in reading-comprehension learning. Incidentally, one teacher used the strategy to set a weekly reading goal to motivate her students to read widely by setting targets. A broad range of reading experiences improves the students' abilities to comprehend a wider spectrum of texts of different levels by setting goals. The experiences, attitudes and perspectives the students have will mostly determine how they regard the purpose of reading as well as the benefits of reading widely. The findings of this study show that most O-level students read because there are examinations to be written at the end of the term. The levels of motivation on the part of students to read were very low. One teacher reported how students continuously made noise even though they were told that a passage was to be read silently and how others would drag their desks from one point to another to show dislike. Some give numerous excuses for the insufficient number of books to use. In this study, each teacher had a different notion of what types of texts they would provide to their students' given free rein to do so. From these findings, it seems clear that the bias of the teacher reflects on the kind of reading exposure the students receive in terms of the texts provided by the teacher, which, however, would be made clearer by pictures and other apparatus.

5.3.6. The absence of teaching aids

In view of the above discussion, the use of teaching aids such as pictures, posters and other aids that would facilitate students' reading-comprehension learning was not observed in most lessons. The assumption that the reader's prior knowledge is directly retrieved with learning aids to affect new learning situations is supported in this study. Again, the only exception was by two teachers who used other students' work and book pictures to support their teaching of reading-comprehension work, otherwise referred to as modeling. Unfortunately, this effort was not sustained due to the lack of proper direction. For instance, for the teacher to ensure that students drew meaningful

and useful experiences to set goals for students to follow, they could have used the monitoring mind mapping activity that could have followed their group activities closely enough. Instead, teachers dwell on lecturing, testing and drilling for most of their lessons, which are unaccompanied by any pictures or charts for proper illustration. One teacher confirmed:

“I use lecturing to teach reading-comprehension, drilling and testing after choosing passages for them to answer reading-comprehension questions. I use it because that is the method that can reach all the students since we do not have enough books for every student and through my talking students become motivated.”

However, this teacher can turn her lecturing into constructivist remediation, which is, fundamentally, teacher-controlled and skill-directed. In this, she can utilise equally constructivist assumptions successfully which are recognised and combined to provide the foundation upon which specific skills’ deficits are identified and corrected in meaningful contexts. The teacher generates learning opportunities, presents scaffolding, focuses attention, and manages the learning environment tactfully to avoid meaningless lectures.

Students’ interest and motivation cannot be sacrificed; such sacrifice ultimately sabotages learning. With the right instructional conditions, it is possible to produce great effects on the reading skills of even children who have experienced several years of reading-comprehension failure because of constructivism and interpretivism. Rather than absorbing information and ideas presented by teachers or internalising skills through rote memorization, constructivism posits that students construct or create their own knowledge. Students assimilate new information into pre-existing mental structures and modify their personal interpretation in light of new information and experience to reading-comprehension through use of English Literature methods that create a meaningful morphological unit of English, to facilitate students to understand meanings of new words.

5.3.7. The use of literature in teaching reading-comprehension

As discussed elsewhere, teachers are confident that English literature methods can be used in teaching all aspects of reading-comprehension. Research presumes that by the time learners study English Literature, they will have been introduced to most aspects of the structures used in the subject. In view of that, then the teaching of structures of grammar could be based on literature if this is not the case, as

performance at High School suggests. Basing on discussions in this study, meaning in a typical literature lesson possibly will lead to the study of reading-comprehension structures of grammar and characters that may be taught inductively, and some original literary analysis of texts. The teacher may ask the learners to locate instances of the use of a particular structure, discuss its significance in conveying meaning and then state the rule/s that govern the use of that structure. As Maposa (1992) put it the teaching of structures based on literature should not be a spontaneous activity, as the teacher should go through the episode to be discussed, plan for teaching it as literary criticism first, and then isolate the relevant structures to be taught in the grammar lesson and plan for them. As has been mentioned already, Ndovorwi (1989), has already argued and demonstrated that it is possible, to base grammar lessons on English Literature teaching methods.

5.3.8. Reading Comprehension

Generally, reading-comprehension is portrayed as comparatively the least difficult of all the major components of English Language but as this research has discovered students experience problems with all aspects of reading-comprehension. The think-aloud and FGD have sought students' and teachers' perceptions about the level of difficulty of various aspects of reading-comprehension which revealed that all the aspects of reading-comprehension are between the "somewhat a problem" and "quite a problem" levels. "Distinguishing meanings of words from the context", "Recounting ideas connecting paragraphs" and "substituting synonyms" all characterised as quite problematic for students. Furthermore, students discover "distinguishing the most imperative words in a passage", and "distinguishing the most vital point in a passage", to be difficult. To put it shortly, learners lack those important skills and strategies of getting to the meaning of a passage and they just lack ideas on how to identify and unlock the central messages in passages which teachers need to install through invoking Literature teaching methods. Further, research has also revealed that teachers have the strongest belief in utilising literature to teach creative and narrative writing and the least in utilising it to teach written grammar. Teachers also consider that students' inspiration to read African Literature is in itself an advantage in their learning of reading-comprehension. They also think that literature can be utilised to teach descriptive - writing, summary writing and reading-comprehension, which are

central parts to O-level exams. This utilisation of literature to teach "written vocabulary synonym-language" and "argumentative writing" incline heavily towards the positive and "slightly negative aspects of including the subject in the teaching of reading-comprehension.

5.4.0. Discussion Focus 3: Discussing data that falls under other factors that contribute to poor reading-comprehension

5.4.1. Students' inability to answer reading-comprehension questions

This section will view other things that contribute to some challenges faced by students and those that affected teachers in their teaching of reading-comprehension. In view of that, this study has found some factors that contribute to poor reading-comprehension as evidenced by students' written work, records and exam results, students' and teachers' interviews, FGD and observation of lessons, which revealed that students have serious problems with answering reading-comprehension questions. The type of work students do is physical, not cognitive. Students appear to 'transcribe' as opposed to really thinking and answering questions, which is observed in their work, for example, (Appendix R1-22 answers 2 and 8) read:

2. He boked at the boss and smiled broadly and starts to speaking to the boss.

8. Everybody in the work are unhappy because of management of our boss Mr Block.

This was also evident when the students revealed in their work that they have difficulties with surface level errors such as spelling, and grammar:

Researcher: "Where do they get really stuck?"

One teacher replied that:

"They get stuck when they communicate in writing especially questions beyond the literal level." The students perform well on questions on the literal level of understanding and have problems with higher order comprehension questions"

This teacher revealed that students perform well on questions at the literal level of understanding and have problems with higher order reading-comprehension questions, i.e. questions that test evaluative/interpretive and analytical skills. This confirms the statement that students failed to communicate in any effective way in reading-comprehension. Many students lacked understanding of the passages or

ideas to express themselves beyond the literal level. Besides, students were limited in their usage of vocabulary and sometimes substituted with their L1. For instance, in talking about reckless spending of money by a drunk, a student said, “He always ate his money. “On the other hand, ‘We had some milk to eat (see Table 4.10: 199).’

The teachers’ views indicate that the students did not always make sense of what they read. Furthermore, many teachers attested that many students are not able to make sense out of reading-comprehension texts due to various reasons, which include the type of text the students are given to read. The other complexity emanated from the students having no books to read as library and textbooks to support their synonym-language and consequently being incapable to understand whatever text they are given. The information from think-aloud manifestly revealed that the group of students in this study had long unknown lists of vocabulary from both the narrative as well as the expository texts. It can be said that many students spend a substantial amount of time figuring out the meanings of difficult vocabulary items and are unable to understand the meanings of these passages wholly as a result. This is manifested in the narrative paragraphs where more than half of the students scored less than ten out of twenty marks and half of these students had long lists of vocabulary items to grapple with (see Table 4.4: 151 and 4.1: 149).

From the expository text, during reading, seven students had long lists of words whose meaning they did not comprehend (see Table 4.3: 150), whilst ten had long lists of difficult vocabulary items from the narrative texts. It seems that the students who had extended lists of vocabulary items they could not understand need strategies to use to overcome these challenges from difficult words in a bid to achieve reading-comprehension success. The teachers also confirmed the fact that students had the insufficient vocabulary and subsequently were unable to understand whatever text they read and so the inability to assimilate what was being put across in the texts. This result agrees with Adams (1990) who states that too much attention to word meanings results in students not comprehending texts- a debatable idea. Whereas the observations of the teachers relating to the students are true, the texts favoured by the teachers to instruct the students are a contributing factor to the challenges from vocabulary lists the students face. If the responses from the teachers regarding the type of texts chosen are anything to go by, then the students are being ‘directed’ into

encountering the vocabulary that is dependent on O-level passages without considering the needs of the students to acquire meaningful and working vocabulary. That vocabulary will help the students in their day-to-day life as well as to continue learning. The strategies that the teachers are using so often also contribute towards the inadequate vocabulary of the students. This may be overcome by extensive reading complemented by direct vocabulary teaching which may enhance reading-comprehension. Studies suggest that wide reading and direct vocabulary instruction do lead to some gains in reading-comprehension. Binder and Watkins (1990) concur by accepting that direct instruction is meant to accelerate the students' progress with the teacher's assistance, which is to bring them towards the mastery of the vocabulary taught as quickly as possible through some interaction and discovery in a bid to motivate students.

5.4.2. Lack of motivation to write and read

Most teachers in this study taught vocabulary to the students differently and at different levels of reading-comprehension instruction without motivating them. The teachers utilised one or more of the following strategies for vocabulary teaching, for example, looking up words in the dictionary, utilising words in sentences and using the context in which the words have been used. This researcher believes that students' motivation to read African Literature can play the game and increase their motivation to read to enhance their synonym-language, as it is an asset in itself on student learning of English language when students derive interest from reading them as three teachers said:

“...especially African literature they like it”. In addition, another said, “They enjoy them even those texts that talk about teachers and some African literature”.

Anyway, it just depends on the kinds of texts that have been given to them. For some, they capture quickly, others they have problems, especially African literature they like it”.

In addition, teachers believe that English Literature methods of teaching may be utilised to teach descriptive writing and summary writing to catalyse the process of reading-comprehension. The utilisation of English Literature to expand vocabulary synonym-language and confrontational writing inclines very much in developing students' reading-comprehension. It is also believed that if students take English literature as a subject, they can be exposed to many of the structures used in reading-

comprehension passages, whereby their synonym-language is augmented through various new words they meet under the teacher's guidance. Further, a discussion on the contextual meaning in a typical English literature lesson might give additional practice to students on passage patterns they meet in reading-comprehension structures as three students pointed out:

- a) ...especially reading African literature we read about people we have heard, or we heard in our region".
- b) "I understand something, and it gets to be so interesting when it involves some African literature".
- c) "...I develop an interest if it is something interesting; I read it again especially when I read African literature".

English literature methods of teaching can be used in teaching all aspects of vocabulary development where the students' background knowledge on the issues in this literature can help them to learn English vocabulary, and that there is a possibility of students identifying with characters in African literature to facilitate their morphological learning of the reading-comprehension.

Constructivism argues that humans generate knowledge and meaning from an interaction between their experiences and their new knowledge which this study maintains that it arises through an active process of creating ideas. According to this study's findings accommodation reframes one's mental representation of the external world to fit new experiences to promote interest to learn. Sustaining motivation to learn is strongly dependent on the learner's confidence in his or her potential for learning. These feelings of competence and belief have a potential in solving new problems derived from the first-hand experience of the mastery of problems in the past and are much more meaningful than experienced in the past. Teachers did not link up with Vygotsky's (1978) zone of proximal development (ZPD) that augments the motivation where students are enhanced within close proximity to render experience that is within their zone of proximal development, thereby encouraging interactive learning. The ZPD is the level at which learning takes place, which comprises of cognitive structures that are still in the process of maturing, but which can only mature under the guidance of or in collaboration with others who are more capable.

By experiencing successful completion of challenging tasks, students gain confidence and motivation to embark on the challenges that are more complex. Such factors as the building of confidence, unique needs and background-knowledge to overcome the problems of students, were largely ignored in this study pertaining to the drilling of reading-comprehension through over testing, drilling and lecturing. The researcher encourages the adoption of work through the accommodation of more process teaching to align CLT approaches to reading-comprehension. This oversight on the part of teachers seemed likely to have contributed to the apathy and lack of motivation shown by the students in learning reading-comprehension, as the teachers referred to reading-comprehension as “boring” (see section: 4.5.5; 4.10.7):

“When it is boring you can be able to see it on students ‘faces,”

“It varies on the type of text, the kinds of text if it is *boring* you are able to even see they’ll be unwilling to read”

The teachers expressed this verbally and, in their reading, -comprehension teaching. In response to interview questions on the problems, which students had on reading-comprehension work, students highlighted their frustrations by saying:

“Thinking too much about what to write makes me not feel well. I’m not able to understand the passage I read and sometimes get my spellings wrong.”

“Writing about things that you haven’t seen or done is too abstract for me and unrealistic.”

The above statements suggest feelings of frustration and helplessness, which are brought on by the inability of the students (referring to it as boring) to achieve success in their reading-comprehension attempts and the teachers’ approaches that prevent students from articulating their needs and peculiar difficulties. This study found that reading-comprehension is quite a problem to students because they have problems in detecting the meanings of words from the context and substitution of synonyms to relate ideas between paragraphs which are in line with the students’ comments above.

Somehow, reading-comprehension is presented to some extent, as the least complex of all the major workings of English Language but as tables (4.1-4.7: 149-164) show, students have difficulties with many features of reading-comprehension. Interview questions (4.6.0-4.8.0) which sought teachers’ perception of the problems on features of reading-comprehension for students revealed all the features of reading-comprehension that are in the range of somewhat a problem to...quite a problem.

These included perceiving meanings of vocabulary from the background knowledge, relating information between paragraphs, and substitution by referring to synonym-language, which all featured as challenges for students as one pointed out. Furthermore, learners find the distinguishing of vocabulary in a passage to detect the central idea in a passage as difficult. In short, students lack those vital techniques and methods of getting to the meaning of a passage as one teacher pointed out, “students do not know how to classify and disengage the core messages in passages due to lack of individual attention to large classes.”

5.4.3. Large class size

In line with the above point, the ministry of education needs to pay particular attention to reduce class sizes in the teaching of reading-comprehension limitations into the learning of L2 which in a way have brought a decline in the standard of education in the country. This means that some of the problems students have may have emanated from the lack of attention due to large classes. This research has revealed that some classes were found with students as many as 48 and sometimes 50, which teachers cannot manage with a one on one attention. It is suggested that a decrease in class size may aid effective reading-comprehension teaching and supervision as teachers will be left with manageable numbers of students.

5.4.4. Subject Matter

In view of scant reading material discussed above the problem identified in the teaching of English Language in Zimbabwe is the fact that students naturally find the English Language difficult since it is the L2. Since English is not their first language, the subject matter per se may be a problem to the students and would need enough reading material to back it up. Other researchers have written about the Zimbabwean society’s dissatisfaction with pupils’ competence and performance insofar as the English Language is concerned in which Nyawaranda (1989) and Ndovorwi (1989) who are all prominent educationists have concurred on the matter. In view of that, research results of this study suggest that students have grave problems with reading-comprehension as ESL. In light of such findings, it would be useful for teachers to start incorporating other methods and suggestions on teaching reading-comprehension that allows the use of CLT approaches. They can take a leaf from the ideas of Maposa

(1992) Biggs (2007) and Spack (1985) and start finding ways of using the English Literature methods to teach reading-comprehension. Teachers can also put into practice some of the suggestions on the teaching of reading-comprehension presented in this study to upgrade the teaching of reading-comprehension to that of the English literature.

5.4.5. Shortage of Reading Materials

Sufficient library facilities and adequate resources will result in the development of reading-comprehension skills, which will aid students' acquisition of vocabulary and improve their synonym language in English per se. Furthermore, research findings suggest that exposure to reading matter is a determining factor in the students' success in general and reading-comprehension tasks in particular. Many students come from homes in which the printed word is a luxury. Pretorious (1995) suggests a strategy where students are flooded with books in an effort to improve their reading-comprehension abilities. Consequently, school libraries should be well equipped to offer an effective service to learners. The business of equipping libraries should not be left to school organizations alone but should also involve government and councils since school communities and their SDCs appear to be unable to operate alone effectively.

Further to prominent educationists' dissatisfaction with pupils' competence and performance in Zimbabwe above, Morrison et al. (2011) identified as a problem in the teaching of English Language in Zimbabwe as being hampered by the shortage of supplementary reading materials linking with this study's findings. This study has defined supplementary reading materials as novels, short stories, poems, plays, newspapers and magazines that may enhance acquisition of language and vocabulary as enhancing vocabulary acquisition.

However, most secondary schools in Zimbabwe that offer the English literature as a curricula subject have novels, short stories and anthologies of poetry. This study argues for the use of novels, short stories, and poems in teaching the English Language. As a step towards testing the ideas of the above scholars, the researcher tries to find out the Zimbabwean teachers' perceptions about the use of Literature in teaching reading-comprehension in *today's* books of Language. This consultation with

Zimbabwe teachers about the use of English Literature Methods in teaching reading-comprehension was overwhelming in support of the English literature Methods because the literature available in the schools is Literature in English, written by non-native speakers of the English, rather than the English Literature written by native speakers as pointed out earlier.

5.4.6. Other resources for teaching reading-comprehension

The prescribed English course books, *English today* books 1-4 by the Ministry of Education (mentioned above) Machingaidze, (2010), at Junior Certificate and O-level should be reviewed to incorporate alternative, detailed reading-comprehension instructions and considering the peculiar problems of ESL reading-comprehension. In addition, other publishers should be included to provide a wider choice of books to students. Moreover, teachers should be made aware of the availability online and in libraries and bookshops of such facilities. Furthermore, there is abundant material in the areas of research in reading-comprehension skills' instructions that teachers can use to improve their reading-comprehension teaching. Teachers should be involved in the selection of textbooks for students' use, unlike at present where officials from the administration play a major role appear to have changed a little.

5.4.7. Place of oral work in reading-comprehension

This paragraph finally views the importance of oral reading missing in reading-comprehension lessons at Apollo shows that oral language skill is imperative in this study's findings where teachers are not promoting talk among students and therefore need to create oral language talk among students themselves concerning reading-comprehension as a way of enhancing talk in reading-comprehension lessons dominated by lecturing. That being the case, reading-comprehension is referred to as the creator of word recognition skills and listening comprehension because listening comprehension depends on vocabulary knowledge that builds on reading-comprehension skills. As such, identifying the vocabulary in prose-passages is vital for reading-comprehension; if a learner is unable to read the texts, at this point, learners are unable to retrieve the meaning from the written texts. When written texts are known they ought to be comprehended as long as they are in the learner's oral synonym-language domain. The new vocabulary that has not been already found in

the learner's oral synonym-language domain begins to gain language features presumably from the implication from the delivered background knowledge where it has been found; as such, reading slowly develops into being a major source of synonym-language development. This being the case, as soon as the words are remembered, they are delivered into the language domain of reading-comprehension system to enable understanding of what the author is conveying. It is well recognised that children vary in the way with which they can interpret texts as much as they diverge from their listening comprehension, and thereafter their reading-comprehension to miss the target.

5.5.0. Conclusion

The results from this research reveal that students have severe problems with reading-comprehension vocabulary synonym-language. In view of such findings, it would be helpful for teachers to begin trials with other methods used in teaching English Literature to upgrade reading-comprehension teaching. They can take a leaf from the ideas from (Maposa,1992; Dole and Nokes, 2004; Krashen,2003; Marzano, 2014) and start implementing the methods of teaching reading-comprehension based on English Literature teaching methods. They can also employ a number of the ideas on the various aspects of reading-comprehension presented in this study, particularly in literature review and discussions such as on synonym language and specific reading and reading-comprehension skills development. What this research makes comprehensible is that it is the time that teaching reading-comprehension on an ESL practitioners' note started thinking of a more consistent process of teaching found on sound theory, a method, which would facilitate the teaching of language structures to catalyse reading-comprehension in view of CLT approaches. It is also suggested that ZIMSEC should review the syllabus for English Language teaching by incorporating these suggestions cited above to improve the teaching of reading-comprehension as a process and also teachers start to lessen the heavy dependence on lecturing and testing as teaching methods of reading-comprehension. This study suggests that teachers who teach English Literature should be given the option to teach reading-comprehension as well so that they lay a foundation for the teaching of the subject. Teachers also should conduct the formative assessment to improve teaching and draw

up detailed schemes and organise school training days and also acquire old magazines and newspapers for extra reading materials and give timely feedback to inform and monitor student progress in reading-comprehension.

To link up with the conceptual framework the main findings of this research resonate with Krashen (2003) who propound in his reading hypothesis that the more students read in the L2 the greater their vocabulary will grow in learning, which involves reading in the L2 classroom in order to increase the knowledge students use in real-life contexts. Also, Krashen's (2003) acquisition-learning hypothesis links up to support this hypothesis with this study in which the natural communication is the ideal situation where language is used to fulfil authentic purposes which will in turn help students through the use of CLT.

Findings of this study resonate with Hymes's (1989) communicative competence in a language user's knowledge of syntax, morphology, phonology as well as the social knowledge in which he reformulated the speakers to have mastery over the structures of a language, while Canale (1983) defined communicative competence by adding discourse competence with concepts of cohesion and coherence, Chomsky's (1965) insights into the nature of language gives the study more relevance, while Wilkins (1983) rejuvenates it with notions and functions of a language and Krashen (2003) refreshes it with the acquisition of L2 which he says uses interaction and comprehensible input as it is very crucial to findings of this study.

CHAPTER SIX

6.0. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

In the previous chapter, the findings of this study were viewed where the major goal was to discover factors that contribute to poor reading-comprehension and to identify challenges students face to effectively teach O-level reading-comprehension. That, identified, along with the strategies teachers use in teaching reading-comprehension were all acknowledged. In addition, other factors that contribute to poor reading-comprehension were pointed out. The major rationale of this chapter is to present a summary of the study, conclusions, recommendations, suggestions for further studies and the dissemination of these findings to appropriate professionals.

6.2. Summary of findings

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of the approaches used by teachers and challenges faced by rural O-level students in English reading-comprehension classes. Research established that O-level students faced challenges in reading-comprehension. Students are not able to approach texts actively to be able to read it, process it, and understand its meaning to be able to comprehend it, as it influences one's ability and skill development, that reflects one's capacity to make inferences. Lecturing and testing dominated the teachers' lessons without exposing students to CLT approaches and process approaches, which emphasise interaction and monitoring steps that lead towards the final product through relevant alignment strategies in the context of work-based learning concurred by (Biggs, 2007). In the monitoring process, the first step is monitoring of one's ongoing processing for possible reading-comprehension failures and taking remedial action when the failure occurs. Comprehension process is a two-way process that integrates information from the text-based model with information from prior knowledge using inferential processing. The goal here is for the teachers to consider the CLT approaches and constructive aligned models and explore the extent to which they can be applied in a work-based learning context. Biggs (2007) maintains 'that learning takes place through the active behaviour of the student: it is what *the student* does that he learns, not what

the teacher does' asserts Biggs's (2007) model that learning is student-centred and outcomes focused through CLT approaches. This suggests meaning is not something transmitted from teacher to student as in the case of lecturing, but rather something, which is for the students to create themselves, as teaching is only a catalyst for learning. This research found teachers lecturing for the entire period and their students' incapable of interacting, generating and monitoring their own questions to stimulate their representation on the topic before them, during and after reading. They were not capable of setting precise goals for reading-comprehension texts provided to them, suggesting that they have been spoiled by "spoon feeding" lecturing. Furthermore, the students experienced challenges of word meanings and were unable to connect new vocabulary synonym-language to prior knowledge. It appears that students in this study did not utilise an assortment of reading-comprehension process monitoring. What they were competent to utilise is the clarification of strategies, which is only one of the monitoring strategies used when reading-comprehension breaks down.

Furthermore, students did not adequately utilise text structures to assist them to draw on the appropriate strategies and representation that would help them process their meaning. Lastly, teachers utilised strategies to instruct reading-comprehension students through less effective methods—lecturing and testing—and in that, they lacked the active engagement in connecting new knowledge to prior knowledge in order to construct meaning. Teachers were also inconsistent in their use of strategies that really work such as the activation of prior knowledge before students actually read a text. Therefore, the findings of this study revealed that students faced challenges in reading-comprehension and methods used by teachers, lecturing and testing exacerbated by a weak curriculum academically which even projected far less for less gifted students. This analysis of the findings shows the situation of supplementary reading material in comparison to large classes discussed above. An assessment of the library facilities at Apollo indicated scant resources for the teachers and students. There were a few books on reading-comprehension for teachers, neither were there enough library books for the students' use.

The crisis in the education division exposed the inadequacy of the present national curriculum in schools. Zimbabwean school curriculum is fundamentally inherently and

projected for a pass rate of not more than 25 percent for Africans who would proceed to secondary school in the colonial era (Coltart, 2013). The curriculum hardly ever spotlighted on vocational education hitherto, as one of the foremost recommendations of the 1999 Nziramasanga Commission, a Presidential Inquiry into Education and Training, was to vocationalise the schools' curricula to take care of many students failing academically. Parents are losing patience with the present curriculum, particularly at secondary school. Unemployment is rampant, therefore; education needs to be modified to local circumstances. A move away from demeaning vocational education as substandard to academic education is needed. Students who are not academically gifted do not see the importance of education and parents would favour passing on practical skills onto their children at home as an alternative to sending them to school where they come without any skills. Nevertheless, curriculum restructuring is imperative on a demanding exercise that needs a significant investment of capital for infrastructural improvement, teaching and learning material and improved teacher training.

6.3. Conclusion

It can be concluded that students were unable to use the language skills needed to answer O-level reading-comprehension questions due to the lack of models and learning materials. Teachers used strategies to teach reading-comprehension that were less effective in which they lacked the active engagement of the students in connecting new knowledge to prior knowledge, maybe through involving talk in reading-comprehension lessons. They were unable to construct meaning, which inhibited the students' performance, as lessons were dominated by lecturing, testing and lack of commitment on the part of teachers. The researcher states the conclusions on O-level students in this study that they lacked most reading-comprehension process approach strategies that good readers utilise in comprehending texts. Teachers of English Language obliged to have the knowledge and skills of effectively process-teach reading-comprehension to help students who are capable of passing O-level exams through processed texts. Moreover, research established that the strategies teachers utilise are unable to help students address reading tasks actively using previous aligned knowledge and strategies representative of meaning to occur. Teachers often used testing and lecturing as the predominant methods of teaching

reading-comprehension. The results found that the students in this study also lack determination when it comes to reading-comprehension. The reason could be that teachers choose texts that are not motivational for students or that they mostly exclude the students' experience. Nevertheless, the students need to keep on reading to enhance their vocabulary synonym-language domain and understand what they read. A variety of texts are required if students are to improve their vocabulary so that when they read reading-comprehension prose-passages, they are not obstructed by long lists of unknown vocabulary words.

6.4. Recommendations

In view of the findings of this study, English remains the most important subject on the Zimbabwe National Curriculum despite the fact that some people might want to look at it as just the L2 or even a colonial language. Implementing it for just that purpose discourages students from developing language skills that are needed to help them pass O-level English exams. To that end:

- Teachers of English Language should plan for what their students do during reading-comprehension lessons by involving think-aloud protocols to make their thinking visible to enable teachers in order to put into practice strategies that will work for their students as think-aloud captures preference and performance.
- Lessons are dominated by lecturing and testing in reading-comprehension without developing comprehension skills through some seven strategies suggested by Keene and Zimmermann, (1997) that need to be adapted to enhance students' reading-comprehension understanding to include lessons that have a variety of teaching methods that encourage students' activity.
- Teachers should also draw up detailed Schemes of Work and developing resources that can be more effective to enhance performance and draw clear guidelines and have a clear schedule of what to teach with parents support about the appropriate resources students need and also be knowledgeable about the reading-comprehension strategies through sharing ideas and this

study suggests some teacher training days in the school where all the teachers spend time together sharing best practice to improve their teaching.

- The Ministry of Education should seriously look at the enrolment of students in classes at the secondary school level and enforce the pupil-teacher ratio between 25 and 35 as well as increase teaching time for reading-comprehension. Such numbers that exist in the classes are a big obstruction to successful reading-comprehension teaching.
- In-service workshops and seminars need to be periodically organized to update teachers on current developments in process reading-comprehension teaching. The researcher observed that there were teachers who had taught for up to ten years (Table 4.9: 172) and had not attended in-service workshops since they started teaching. On the same note, teachers should be encouraged to be reflective practitioners who are able to critically reflect on their teaching and come up with better methods of teaching. They also need to be encouraged to be long-life learners who are always in search of latest developments in the teaching of their subjects.
- Teachers and Educationalists should be encouraged to carry out more studies on how effective reading in the secondary schools should be taught. By so doing, the government would realise the significance of teaching and learning of reading across the curriculum.
- Supplementary reading materials and textbooks should be supplied to rural secondary schools after the teachers have suggested the lists they want for their children in those affected rural secondary schools, as they are the mainstay of learning. On another note, teachers need to be resourceful in acquiring reading material, for example, old magazines, newspapers as they are excellent resources for increasing reading to augment reading-comprehension.
- This research credibly endorses group work for its contribution in the learning of reading-comprehension and other lessons concurring with Krashen (2003)

and Pica (1994) who have revealed that group work is more appropriate to large classes in ESL situations as a compensatory method to present students with opportunities to negotiate meaning in the L2 comprehensible input/output. As such, group work can be utilised to lessen the limiting effects of large classes at Apollo, which is vital for maximising ESL results in line with the CLT approaches teaching in reading-comprehension at Apollo.

6.5. Further Research

There were many findings and questions provoked by this research whose impact could not fully be investigated within the project's scope. Three areas that are recommended for further exploration are:

- 1) Does lack of reading materials in Zimbabwean rural schools' impact on the pass rates in schools?
- 2) How much influence would the Communicative Language Teaching methods (CLT) particularly TBLT have on the teaching/learning in reading-comprehension in rural Zimbabwe?
- 3) Does learners' background knowledge add meaning and understanding in the teaching/learning in reading-comprehension?

Some of these were suggested by the literature review, whilst others were generated during the research process. For instance, the researcher wondered whether book-sharing would aid deep learning (through scaffolding) or hinder progress to brighter pupils since there is a lot of discussion during reading and sharing the scarce resources. The literature reviews suggested acceptance of CLT as a viable alternative to the teaching methods currently used in other parts of the world such Asian countries. The researcher hypothesised that CLT methods would be welcomed in Zimbabwe schools. The researcher also envisaged that TLBT would aid understating of reading comprehension especially if it were used to impart background information/knowledge about the subject under study.

6.6. Contribution to knowledge

This research contributes to the body of knowledge currently available about teaching/learning culture in Zimbabwe. The prevailing political situation at the time of

conducting this research was not conducive to meaningful student learning, particularly in rural Zimbabwe. The impact of the political situation is inclined toward an educational generation gap due to the quality of education imparted because of a system that was mediocre, volatile, underfunded and politically manipulated. High teacher turnover, underpayment, job security and pupil forced movements due to insecurity especially violence, add up to poor quality and adequacy of education received. Politics should help education to thrive rather than become an obstacle to learning.

However, this study has identified vocabulary as a major problem facing learners since it is a major component in reading-comprehension. Students are lacking this major component in reading-comprehension, making it the most important original contribution to knowledge. As students are lacking vocabulary synonym-language they need reading materials to augment their storehouses of vocabulary synonym-language knowledge so that they can do well in the subject. Vocabulary is very important in reading-comprehension because readers cannot understand what they read without meaningful comprehension of what many words mean. For example, for students to learn to read more advanced texts, they need to learn the meanings of the new words that are not part of their vocabulary and this is assisted by their background knowledge as it helps students to promote their understanding of information and vocabulary.

6.7. Dissemination of findings to appropriate professionals

This chapter links to chapter four and five for findings and recommendations in this study. It is of no value doing an exploratory case study research unless I let people concerned know about it by disseminating my research study findings and recommendations so that my written research findings are as widely communicated as possible to colleagues, peers and others interested in my subject (Knowl et al., 2002). The findings of this study will be disseminated to the relevant Zimbabwe personnel in education in groups through:

- The teachers' meetings organised by the Ministry of Education officials;
- The teachers' meetings organised by the teachers' associations and unions;
- The teachers' meetings organised by the book publishers.

- The teachers' meetings organised by the District Councils; and
- Meetings with them individually to discuss my results and recommendations, possibly implementation and,
- Speaking at the relevant teacher's colleges.
- Talking to them over the telephone about these findings' impact (Owen et al., 2006; Wilson et al., 2010).

These findings will be disseminated to education personnel who participated in the research including:

- The Permanent Secretary of Education at head office and his staff.
- The Provincial Director of Education and his staff;
- The Ministry of Education library service;
- The District Education Officer and his headmasters and other staff;
- Apollo school headmaster and his staff; and
- Apollo school English Department HoD's office (Fieldstein and Glasgow, 2008; Knowl et al., 2002).

Lastly, the results will be disseminated through some media papers or journals, which include:

- The main newspaper in the country-The Herald.
- The teachers' magazine called Teachers' Forum and Teacher in Zimbabwe;
- Some district newspapers- for example, the Zimbabwe Standard; and
- Some private newspapers- for example, Newsday, for publication (Bauman et al., 2006).
- These findings can also be communicated to the UK via conference papers and journal articles.

It is the researcher's anticipation that the recommended suggestions would help in closing down the gap that exists between the expectations of this study, the actual strategies being used by teachers and challenges faced by students in the classrooms at this rural secondary school in Zimbabwe. These dissemination channels suggested here would reach the policy implementers. Should the teachers effect these potentially revolutionary changes in the teaching of reading-comprehension in schools through

both the top-down and bottom-up strategies (Feldstein and Glasgow, 2008), it would do these schools as well as the students, in general, a world of good.

7.0. REFERENCES

- AbuSeileek, A. F. (2009). The effect of using an online-based course on the learning of grammar inductively and deductively. *ReCALL*, 21(03), 319-336.
- Adams, M. J. (1990). *Beginning to read Thinking and learning about print*. Cambridge MA: MIT press.
- Adelman, C. (2006) *The Toolbox revisited: paths to Degree completion from High School through college*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education.
- Aden Yinka, T. and Samson, A. (2007). *Children reading habits and availability of books In Botswana Primary Schools: Implications for achieving quality education. The Reading Matrix*. 7(2):91-97.
- Adeyemi A.D. (2008) *Approaches to teaching English Composition writing at Junior Secondary Schools in Botswana*. UNISA. Pretoria.
- Adler, P. A., and Adler, P. (1994). *Observational techniques*. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 377–392). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Aguiler, J. L. (1981). *Insider research: An ethnography of a debate*. In D. A. Messerschmitt (Ed.), *Anthropologists at home in North America* :15-26. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Aktas C.M.B. (2017) *Listening to Young Learners. Applying the Montessori Method to English as an Additional Language (EAL) Education*. Department of Educational Research Lancaster University.
- Allan, G. (2003) "A critique of using theory as a research method," *Electronic Journal of Business Research Methods*, 2(1):1-10. George.Allan@port.ac.uk
- Allen, B., and Reser, D. (1990). *Content analysis in library and information science research*. *Library and Information Science Research*, 12(3):251-260.
- Allwright, D. and Bailey, K. M. (1994). *Focusing on the language classroom: An introduction to classroom research for language teacher*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: 119-138.
- AL-Magid, Mohammed A.L-Mamun Abd (2005) *The Effect of Teachers' Attitudes on the effective implementation*. University of South Africa (UNISA) Pretoria.
- Altheide, D. L. (1996). *Qualitative media analysis*. *Qualitative research methods* Vol. 38. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Anderson, C. (2006) *Presenting and evaluating qualitative research*. University of Nottingham. Nottingham. *American Journal of Pharmaceutical Education*.

Anderson, R. C. and Pearson, P. D. (1984). *A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in reading comprehension*. In P. D. Pearson (Ed.), *Handbook of reading research* (Vol. 1: 255–291). New York: Longman.

Anderson N.J. and Nunan D. (2008) Reading horizon as bottom-up strategy in practical English Language teaching – *Teaching Reading* :28-29.

Andrew D.K.W. (2005) *Cross-section regression with common shocks economical on JSTOR* Vol 73No 5 <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1468-0262.2005.00629.x/abstract> Retrieved 11-02-18.

Antonacopoulou, E., Jarvis, P., Andersen, V., Elkjaer, B. and Høyrup, S. (2005) *Learning, Working and Living: Mapping the Terrain of Working Life Learning*. London: Palgrave.

Aronson E. Wilson TD Akert R.M. and Fehr B. (2007) *Social psychology*. (4ed) Toronto ON: Pearson Education.

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. London: Oxford University Press.

Babbie, E. (2007). *Conducting qualitative field research*. In *The practice of social research* (11th ed.). U.S.A.: Thomson Wadsworth.

Babbie, E. (2001). *The practice of social research* (9th ed.). Belmont: Wadsworth

Bauman A, Phongsavan P, Schoeppe S, Owen N (.2006) *Physical activity measurement--a primer for health promotion*. *Promote Educ.* 2006;13(2):92-103.

Baxter, P., and Jack, S. (2008). *Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers*. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), 544-559. <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR13-4/baxter.pdf> Accessed Retrieved September 2009.

Bell, J. (2010) *Doing Your Research Project: A Guide for First Time Researchers in Education, Health and Social Science*, Fifth Edition. Buckingham: Oxford University Press

Bell, J. (2005). *Doing your research project* (4th ed.). Maidenhead, England: Open University Press.

Bell J. (1993) *Doing your research Project*. Buckingham: Oxford University Press.

Bell, J. (1999). *Doing your research project: A guide for first-time researchers in education and science* (3rd edition). Buckingham: Open University Press.

Bennett, A. and Elman, C. (2006a) 'Qualitative Research: Recent Developments in Case Study Methods', *Annual Review of Political Science*, 9, 455-476.

Bennett A. and Elman C. (2010) *Qualitative Research: Recent Developments in Case Study Methods* Vol. 9: 455-476 (Volume publication Department of Government, Georgetown University, Washington, DC 20057.

BERA (2012) *Ethical guidelines for educational research*. www.bera.ac.uk/.../ethical-guidelines-for-educational-research-2012 (accessed 29/04/14).

Berg B. (2001) *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon Beutner (Eds.) Languages, Continuity, Opportunity. London: CILT.

Berg, B. and Lune, H. (2012) *Qualitative Research Methods for the Social Sciences*. Pearson and Allyn & Bacon. London.

Berglar, D. and Hunt A. (2002) *Implementing Task-based language teaching*. In C. J. Richards, and A.W. Renandya (2002) *Methodology in language teaching. An anthropology of current practice*. Cambridge. Cambridge Press.

Bernard, H. R. (1994). *Research methods in anthropology: qualitative and quantitative approaches* (second edition). Walnut Creek, CA. AltaMira Press.

Bernard H.R. (2011) *Research methods in anthropology: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches* (5th edition) Walnut Creek Alt Mira Press P7 UK.

Berwick R. and Weinberg A. (1984). *The role of grammars as components of models of language use*. Cognition. London: MIT Press 13. 1–61.

Biggs, J.B. (2003). *Teaching for quality learning at university*. Buckingham: Open University Press/Society for Research into Higher Education. (Second edition).

Biggs J.B. (2007) *An exploration of Biggs' constructive alignment in the context of work-based learning*. Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education Special Issue Work-based learning: assessment and evaluation in higher education Volume 32, Issue 1.

Binder, C., and Watkins, C. L. (1990). *Precision Teaching and Direct Instruction: Measurably superior instructional technology in schools*. *Performance Improvement Quarterly*, 3(4), :74-96.

Blachowicz, C. (1999). Vocabulary in dynamic assessment: *Two case studies* *Journal of Reading Psychology*, 20 :213-236.'

Black, K. (2010) "*Business Statistics: Contemporary Decision Making*" 6th edition, John Wiley and Sons. University of North Texas.

Black K. (2004). *Business Statistics for Contemporary Decision Making* (Fourth (Wiley Student Edition for India) ed.). Wiley-India.

Blaxter L., Hughes C., and Tight M. (2001) 2nd edition. *How to research*. Chapter 6: 153-191. Buckingham: Open University Press.

Block D. (2003) "The Social Turn in Second Language Acquisition" *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* Volume 7, Issue 1,3-25. Georgetown University Press.

Boersma P. And Weenink D. (2014) *Phonetic Science*. University of Amsterdam 1012VT Amsterdam The Netherlands.

Boersma P. (2014) *Phonetic Science*. University of Amsterdam 1012VT Amsterdam The Netherlands.

Bonner, A. J., and Tolhurst, G. (2002). *Insider-outsider perspectives of participant observation*. Nurse Researcher. Retrieved November 2009.

<http://ezproxy.uws.edu.au/login?url=http://proquest.umi.com/pqdweb?did=135393041and sid=1&Fmt=4&clientId=8429&RQT=309&VName=PQD>.

Boyatzis, R. E. and Richards J.C. (1998). *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Brady H. E. and Johnson R. (2008) *The rolling cross-section and causal distribution*. Michigan. University of Michigan.

Brans, C., Willnat, L, Manheim, J., Rich, R. (2011). *Empirical Political Analysis* 8th edition. Boston, MA: Longman. p.76.

Braun, V. and Clarke, V. (2006) *Using thematic analysis in psychology*. Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3 (2). pp. 77-101. ISSN1478-0887 Available from: <http://eprints.uwe.ac.uk/11735>.

Breen, L. J. (2007). The researcher 'in the middle': Negotiating the insider/outsider dichotomy. *The Australian Community Psychologist*, 19(1), 163-174.

Breuer, F. and Wolff-Michael Roth. (2003). Subjectivity and reflexivity in the social sciences: epistemic windows and methodical consequences [30 paragraphs]. Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: *Qualitative Social Research* [On-line Journal], 4(2), Art.25. Available at <http://www.qualitative-research.net/fqs-texte/2-03/2-03intro-3-e.htm> Accessed 24-01-2013.

Brown R.B., (2006) *Doing Your Dissertation in Business and Management: The Reality of Research and Writing*, Sage Publications, London.

Brown, H.D. (2006) *Principles of language learning and teaching*. 5th edn. New York: Longman.

Brown, M. W. (2002). *Teaching by design: Understanding the intersection between teacher practice and the design of curricular innovations*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). North-western University, Evanston, IL.

Brown, D. (2001). *Teaching by principle—an interactive approach to language pedagogy*. Addison Wesley Longman: New York.

Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. 4th edition. Englewood.

Brown, H. (1994). *Teaching by Principles – An Interactive Approach to language Pedagogy*. Prentice Hall.

- Brown, J. D. (1996). *Testing in language programs*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Bruffee, K. A. (1984). *Collaborative Learning and the "Conversation of Mankind"*. *College English*, 46(7), 635-652.
- Brumfit, C. and K. Johnson K. (1991). *The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brumfit, Christopher (1984). *Communicative Methodology in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bruton, C., and Samuda, C. (1980). Learner and teacher roles in the treatment of oral error in group work. *PLELC Journal*, 11(3), :49-63.
- Bryman, A. (2004). *Social Research Methods*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social Research Methods*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Bryman, A (1988) *Quantity and Quality in Social Research*, London, Routledge.
- Bulger, R.E. (2002). *Research with Human Beings*. In Bulger, R.E., Heitman, I., and Reiser, J. (Ed.), *The Ethical Dimensions of the Biological and Health Sciences* (pp. 117-125). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Burden, R. L. and Williams, M. (1998) *Thinking through the Curriculum*. London: Routledge.
- Burns, A. (2010) *Doing action research in English language teaching: A guide for practitioners*. London. Routledge.
- Buzan, T. (1993). *The mind map book*. London: Tony Buzan Paperback. BBC Books.
- Campbell L. and Campbell B. (2009) *Beginning with what students know*. The role of prior knowledge in learning. Thousand Oaks, CA Carwin.
- Çağrı T. M. (2013) *Teaching Grammar in Context: Why and How?* Department of Languages, Ishik University, Erbil, Iraq
- Campbell, D. T., and D. W. Fiske (1987) "Convergent and discriminant validation by the multi trait multi method matrix." *Psychological. Bulletin*, 56: 81-105.
- Canale, M.; Swain, M. (1983). "Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing". *Applied Linguistics* (1):1-47.
- Canale, M.; and Swain, M. (1995). "Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing". *Applied Linguistics* (1) :1-47.

Canale, M.; and Swain, M. (1998). "Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing". *Applied Linguistics* (1):1–47.

Carey, M.A. (1995). Comment: Concerns in the analysis of focus group data. *Qualitative Health Research*, 5 (400), :487-495.

Carlisle, J. F., and Rice, M. S. (2002). *Improving reading comprehension: Research-based principles and practices*. Timonium, MD: York Press.

Carnine, D., Silbert, J., and Kameenui, E. J. (1990). *Direct instruction reading*. Columbus, OH: Merrill Publishing Company.

Carrell P.L., Pharis B.G.and Liberto J.C. (1989) Metacognitive strategy training for ESL reading. *TESOL Quarterly* 17 (4):647-678.

Carrell, P.L. and Eisterhold, J.C. (1983). Schema theory and ESL reading pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 17(4), 553-573.

Carter S.M. and Little M. (2007) *Justifying knowledge, justifying method and acting: epistemologies, methodologies and methods in qualitative research*. *Qualitative Health Research* 17(10): 1316-1328. doi: 10.1177/1049732307306927.

Cavalcanti, M. C. (1987). *Investigating Foreign Language reading performance through pause protocols*. In C. Faerch and G. Kaspers (Eds), *Introspection in Second language research* (:230-250). Clevedon: Multilingual matters.

Celce-Murcia, M., Dornyei, Z., and Thurrell, S. (1991). *A pedagogical framework for communicative competence: A pedagogically motivated model with content specifications*. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 6, 5–35.

Celce-Murcia, M., and Olshtain, E. (2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Charmaz, K. (2009). *Shifting the grounds: Constructivist theory methods*. In J.M. Morse, J.M., P.N. Stern, Smith 1995; J. Corbin, B. Bowers, K. Charmaz, and A.E. Clarke (Eds.), *Developing theory: The second generation* :127–154. Walnut Creek: Left Coast Press.

Charmaz, K. (2006a). *Grounded theory*. In G. Ritzer (Ed.), *Encyclopaedia of sociology*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell.

Charters E. (2003) *The Use of Think-aloud Methods in Qualitative Research* An Introduction to Think-aloud Methods. Seneca College of Applied Arts and Technology.

Chaudron, C. (1998) *Second Language Classrooms*. Research on Teaching and Learning. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Chen, Y.Y., Shek, D.T. and Bu, F.F. (2011) 'Applications of interpretive and constructionist research methods in adolescent research: Philosophy, principles and examples', *International Journal of Adolescent Medicine and Health*, 23(2): 129–139.

Chia, H (2001), *Reading Activities for Effective top-down Processing*. English Teaching Forum, Vol 39 No 1.

Chief Examiner's Report (1999) *O'level Comments on Individual questions*. Harare. Government Printers.

Chief Examiner's Report (1998) *O'level Comments on Individual questions*. Harare. Government Printers Chiesa, Mecca (1994). *Radical Behaviourism: The Philosophy and the Science*. Authors Cooperative, Inc. pp. 1–241.

Chikalanga, I.W. (1983). *Teaching Primary English in Zambia: A Preliminary Enquiry*. *Zambian Educational Review* 4 (1): 1 -18.

Chinodya, S. (1994). *Step Ahead New Secondary English: Students' Book 4*. Longman.

Chinodya, S. (1996). *Step Ahead New Secondary English: Students' Book 1*. Longman.

Chinodya, S. (1997). *Step Ahead New Secondary English: Teachers' Book 2*. Longman.

Chinodya, S. (1992). *Step Ahead New Secondary English: Teachers' Book 4*. Longman.

Chireshe, R. and A. Shumba (2011), 'Teaching as a Profession in Zimbabwe: Are Teachers Facing a Motivation Crisis?' *Journal of Social Sciences* 28(2), 113-118 Accessed 4 October 2014 <http://www.krepublishers.com/02-Journals/JSS/JSS-28-0-000-11-Web/JSS-28-2-000-2011-Abst-Pdf/JSS-28-2-113-11-1184-Chireshe-R/JSS-Accessed:28-2-2013-11-1184-Chireshe-R-Tt.pdf>.

Chomsky, N. (1996). *Class Warfare: Interviews with David Bersanian*. London: Pluto Press: 28–29.

Chomsky, N. (1980). *Rules and representations*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Chomsky, N. (1970). *BBC interviews with Stuart Hampshire*. Noam Chomsky's view of language. In M. Lester (Ed.), *Readings in applied transformational grammar* (pp. 96–113). New York: Holt & Rinehart.

Chomsky, N. (1965), *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, Cambridge, Massachusetts: MIT Press.

Clarke M. and Silberstein, S. (1994), *Strategies for Reading Comprehension*. Ontario: Dominie press, 291.

- Clark, C. (2010). *Linking School Libraries and Literacy*: Young people's reading habits and attitudes to their school library, and an exploration of the relationship between school library use and school attainment. National Literacy Trust.
- Clark, C. and Foster, A. (2005). *Children's and Young People's Reading Habits and Preferences*: The who, what, why where and when. National Literacy Trust. London.
- Cohen L. Manion L. And Morrison K. (2000) *Research methods in education* (4th Edition) New York. Routledge Falmer.
- Cohen L. Manion L. And Morrison K. (2011) *Research methods in education* (4th Edition) New York. Routledge Falmer.
- Cohen L. Manion L. And Morrison K. (2005) *Research methods in education* [5th Edition].
- Cohen, A. D. (2005). *Strategies for Learning and Performing L2 Speech Acts*. Intercultural Pragmatics, 2-3, 275-301.
- Cohen, A.D. (2006). *Improving Language Learning Through Pragmatics*. CARLA Summer Institute. Minneapolis, MI: University of Minnesota.
- Cohen, A. (1987). *Using verbal reports in research on language learning*. In: C. Færch and G. Kasper (Eds.), *Introspection in second language research* (pp. 82-95). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Coleman M. and Briggs A.R.J. (2003) *Research Methods in Educational leadership and management*. University of Leicester. Sage. London.
- Coleman M. and Briggs A.R.J. (2002) *Research Methods in Educational leadership and management*. University of Leicester. Sage. London.
- Collins, H. (2010) "Creative Research: The Theory and Practice of Research for the Creative Industries" AVA Publications.
- Collins A. And Smith E. (1980) *Teaching the process of reading-comprehension*. (Tech. Rep. No 182) Urbana: University of Illinois, Centre for the study of reading.
- Collins, J. W., 3rd, and O'Brien, N. P. (Eds.). (2003). *Greenwood Dictionary of Education*. Westport, CT: Greenwood.
- Coltart D. (2013) *Acting heads man 80% of Zimbabwe schools*. Herald Online. Harare.
- Coltart D. (2013) *Minority groups push for language use*. Harare. Financial Gazette.
- Coltart D. (2013) *Coltart admits O'level results crisis*. (www.newzimbabwe.com) Accessed 05 02 2013.
- Conner J. and Farr R. (2004) *Using think aloud to improve reading comprehension*. www.readingrockets.org ACCESSED 28-:11-14.

- Conner, J. (2004). *Using Think-Aloud to Improve Reading Comprehension*. www.readingrockets.org Accessed 30-06-2005.
- Corder, S. P. (2009). "The significance of student's' errors". *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 5: :11-23.
- Cox C. (2002) *Teaching Language Arts*. Boston MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Crabtree, B (1999). *Doing Qualitative Research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Crabtree B. and Miller W. (Eds.) (1999). *Doing Qualitative Research* (2nd edition). London. Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative and mixed methods approaches*. London: SAGE.
- Creswell J.W. (2003) *Research design*. Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approach. Thousand Auks, Sage.
- Creswell J.W. (1998) *Qualitative inquiry and research Design: Choosing among Five traditions*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Creswell, J. W. (1994). *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Dash, N.K. (1993). Research Paradigms in Education: Towards a Resolution. *Journal of Indian Education* 19(2), pp1-6.
- Davey, B. (1983). Think-aloud: Modeling the cognitive processes of reading comprehension. *Journal of Reading*, 27(1), :44-47.
- de Laine M. (2000). *Fieldwork, Participation and Practice: Ethics and Dilemmas in Qualitative Research*. London. Sage Publications.
- deMunck, V. C. and Sobo, E. J. (Eds) (1998). *Using methods in the field: a practical introduction and casebook*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.
- Denscombe, M. (1998) *The Good Research Guide*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Denzin, N.K., and Y. S. Lincoln Y.S. (1990) (Eds.) (1994). *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp.377–392). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Denzin, N. K. and. Lincoln Y.S. (1994). *Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research*. In N. K. Denzin and Y. S. Lincoln (eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd edn.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage :1–28.
- Denzin, N. and Y. Lincoln (1998) '*Introduction: entering the field of qualitative research*', in N. Denzin and Y. Lincoln (eds), *The Landscape of Qualitative Research: Theories and Issues*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Dewalt K.M. and Dewalt B.R. (2011) *Participant Observer: A guide for field workers*, New York: Rowman and Littlefield Publishers.

DeWalt, K. M. and DeWalt, Billie R. (2002). *Participant observation: a guide for fieldworkers*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.

DeWalt, K. M., DeWalt, B. R., and Wayland, C. B. (1998). "Participant observation." In H. R. Bernard (Ed.), *Handbook of methods in cultural anthropology*. Pp: 259-299. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira Press.

Diamond, M., Sigmundson, K. (1997). *Sex Reassignment at Birth: Long-term Review and Clinical Implications*. Archives of Pediatrics and Adolescent Medicine, 151(3), 298-304.

Diamond, Jared (1996) 'The Roots of Radicalism', The New York Review of Books, 14 November, pp.4-6.

Diehl P.F. (1991) "Geography and War: A Review and Assessment of the Empirical Literature." *International Interactions* 17, 1: 11-27.

Dole., J.A., Duffy, G. G., Roehler, L.R., and Pearson, P.D. (1991). *Moving from the old to the new: Research on reading comprehension instruction*. Review of Educational Research, 61,239-264.

Dowhower, S.L. (1999). Supporting a strategic stance in the classroom: A comprehension framework for helping teachers help students to be strategic. *The Reading Teacher*, 52: 672-688.

Duffy, G.G., Roehler, L. R., Sivan, E., Rackliffe, G., Book, C., and Meloth, M.S. et al. (1987). Effects of explaining reasoning associated with using reading strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly* 22(3):347- 368.

Dougill, J. (1987) *Drama Activities for Language Learning*, London: Macmillan.

Duffy, S Olson, G., and Mack, R. (1984). Thinking-out-loud as a method for studying real-time comprehension processes. In: D. E. Kieras & M. A. Just (Eds.), *New methods in reading comprehension research* (pp. 253-286).

Elekes, K. (1998). The role of background knowledge in second language reading comprehension. Unpublished MA dissertation. The University of Reading. elements. *Journal of Developmental Education*, 10(3), pp.25-25, 35.

Ellis, R. (2003) *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ericsson, K. A., and Simon, H. A. (1993). *Protocol analysis*. Verbal reports as data (Rev.ed). Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

Ewers, C. A., and Brownson, S. M. (1999). Kindergarteners' vocabulary acquisition as a function of active vs. passive storybook reading, prior vocabulary, and working memory. *Journal of Reading Psychology*, 20,11-20.

Farrell T.S. (2001) *Teaching reading strategies: It takes Time*. NIE, Nanyanga Technological University. Singapore.

Feldstein A.C, Glasgow RE (2008) *A practical, robust implementation and sustainability model (PRISM) for integrating research findings into practice*. [Jt Comm J Qual Patient Saf. Jt Comm J Qual Patient Saf. 34(4):228-43.

Fereday, J., and Muir-Cochrane, E. (2006). *The role of performance feedback in the self-assessment of competence: A research study with nursing clinicians*. *Collegian*, 13(1), 10-15.

Finocchiaro, M., and Brunnfit. (1983). *The Functional Notional Approach: From Theory to Practice*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Flew A. (2006) Sincerity, criticism and monitoring. *Journal of Philosophy of Education*.Vol.13 Issues1 :141-148.

Flyvbjerg B. (2006) *Five Misunderstandings About Case-Study Research*, vol. 12, no. 2, :219-245.

Foddy, W. (1993) *Constructing Questions for Interviews*, Cambridge University Press.

Gabriel D. (2013) *Inductive and deductive approaches* PhD Pingbacks Research University of Salford.

Galatians' 5:14 *New Testament Bible*. New English Bible.

Gee, J. P. (1992). *The social mind: Language, ideology, and social practice*. Series in language and ideology. New York: Bergin and Garvey.

George, A. L. and Bennett, A. (2005). *Case studies and theory development*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

George S.M. (2010) *The Effectiveness of teaching indigenous languages under the team teaching arrangement in primary school (basic) colleges of Education in Zambia*. University of Zambia. Lusaka.

Gerlach, J. M. (1994). "Is this collaboration?" In Bosworth, K. and Hamilton, S. J. (Eds.), *Collaborative Learning: Underlying Processes and Effective Techniques*, New Directions for Teaching and Learning No. 59. 31 pp491-495.

Gerring, J. (2004) What is a Case Study and What Is It Good for?', *American Political Science Review*, 98, 2, 341-354.

Gerrish, K. (1997). Being a 'marginal native': Dilemmas of the participant observer. *Nurse Researcher*, 5(1), 25-34.

- Glaser, B. G., and Strauss A. (2006). *The discovery of theory: Strategies for qualitative research*. New Brunswick (U.S.A.) and London (U.K.) New York: Aldine.
- Gleitman L. (1984) *Biological predisposition to learn language*. In P. Marler and H. Terrace Ed. Dahlem Konferenzem New York Springer-Verlag.
- Goddard W. and Melville S. (2004) *Research Methodology: An introduction* 2nd edition. Blackwell Publishing.
- Greene M. J. (2014) *On the Inside Looking In: Methodological Insights and Challenges in Conducting Qualitative Insider Research*. Memorial University of Newfoundland, St. John's, NL, Canada. Volume 19, How to Article 15:1-13. <http://www.nova.edu/ssss/QR/QR19/greene15.pdf> Accessed 12-12-2014.
- Gregg, K. R. (1984). 'Krashen's monitor and Occam's razor', *Applied Linguistics*, 5: 79-100.
- Gronlund N.E. (1981) *Measurement and evaluation in teaching*. New York. Collier. Macmillan.
- Grix, J. (2004). *The foundations of research*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Guba, E. G., and Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). *Competing paradigms in qualitative research*. In N. K. Deniz on and Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.) *Handbook of Qualitative Research*. Sage: Thousand Oaks.
- Guba, E. G. (Ed.). (1990). *The paradigm dialogs*. Newbury. Park, CA: Sage.
- Gubrium J. and Holstein J. (1995) *The new language of Qualitative Method*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Gulati P.M. (2009) *Research management: Fundamental and applied Research*. Global India Publication :42.
- Guest, G. (2005). *Applied thematic analysis*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage. :11.
- Guest, G. (2012). *Applied thematic analysis*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications. p. 17.
- Gunning, T. G. (2006). *Creating Reading Instruction for All Children*. Chapter 6 :192-236.
- Gunning. T.G. (1996) *Creating reading instruction for all children*. Chapter 6 :192-236.
- Haight, C., Herron, C., and Cole, S. (2007). *The effects of deductive and guided inductive instructional approaches on the learning of grammar in the elementary language college classroom*. *Foreign Language Annuals*, 40: 288-309.
- Hafiz, F. M. and Tudor, Ian. (1989). "Extensive reading and the development of language skills." *English Language Teaching Journal*, 43(1): 4-13.
- Halliday M. A. K., Matthiessen C. M. I. M, (2014), *Halliday's introduction to functional grammar*, Milton Park. Routledge.

Halliday M. A.K. (2013) *Meaning as Choice, in Systemic Functional Linguistics: Exploring choice*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

Halliday, M.A.K., and J.R. Martin. 1993. *Writing science: Literacy and discourse power*. London: Falmer Press.

Hammersley M. (2005) 'Ethnography: potential, practice, and problems', Qualitative Research Methodology Seminar Series, sponsored by the ESRC National Centre for Research Methods, Southampton. University of Southampton.

Hammersley, M. (2000) *Taking sides in social research*, London, Routledge.

Hammersley, M. (1999). What's wrong with ethnography? The myth of theoretical description. In Bryman and Burgess, [Eds] *Qualitative Research*. [Vol.3] Sage Publications.

Hammersley, M. Gomm, R. and Foster, P. (Eds.) (2000). *Case study method, key issues, key texts*. London: Sage.

Hammersley, M. Gomm, R. and Foster, P. (Eds.) (1983). *Case study method, key issues, key texts*. London: Sage.

Harmer, J (2007). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. London: Longman.

Harmer, J (2002). *The Practice of English Language Teaching*. London. Longman.

Harre M.A.(1998c) When the Knower is also the Known. In May T. and Malcolm W. (Ed), *Knowing the social World* (:37-49) Buckingham and Philadelphia: Open University Press.

Harvey, S. and Goudvis, A. (2000). *Strategies that work: Teaching comprehension to enhance understanding*. Portland, ME: Stenhouse.

Hedge, T. (2003). *Teaching and learning in the language classroom*. UK: OUP.

Herald (2016) *O-Level pass rate goes up*. Harare. Herald Zimbabwe.

Herman, P.A., Anderson, R.C., Pearson, P.D., and Nagy, W.E. (1987). Incidental acquisition of word meaning from expositions with varied text features. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 22 (3), :263-284.

Herrmann, A. W. (1989), *The participant observer as "insider": Researching your own classroom*. Paper presented at Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication, Seattle, WA.

Hewitt-Taylor, J. (2002). Insider knowledge: Issues in insider research. *Nursing Standard*, 16(46), 33-35.

Hitchcock G. and Hughes D. (1992) *Research and the teacher: A qualitative introduction to school-based Research*, London and New York. Routledge.

Hitchcock, G. and Hughes, D. (1995) (2nd edition) *Research and the Teacher*. London. Routledge.

Holloway, I., Wheeler, S. (2002) *Qualitative Research in Nursing* (2nd ed). Oxford: Blackwell.

Holstein J.A. and Gubrium, J.F. (1995) *The active interview*. Thousand Oaks, Calif Oaks: Sage Publications.

Homan R (1991) *Ethics in Social Research*. Harlow: Longman.

Hoover W. (1996) *The Practice Implications of Constructivism SEDL Letter* Volume IX, Number 3, Constructivism.

Hopkins G. (2005) *How can teachers develop students' motivation and success*. www.educationworld.com. Accessed 20-04-2005.

Hudson, L., and Ozanne, J. (1988). Alternative Ways of Seeking Knowledge in Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 14(4), 508–521.

Hughes, C (1997) Mystifying through coalescence: The underlying politics of methodological choices, in K Watson, C Modgil and S Modgil (Eds) *Educational Dilemmas: Debate and Diversity, Quality in Education*, London, Cassell, pp 413-420.

Hunt, N. and Tyrrell, S. (2001). *Stratified Sampling*. Webpage at Coventry University. Retrieved 12 -7- 2012.

Hymes, D. (1992). *The concept of communicative competence revisited. Thirty years of linguistic evolution*. Studies in honour of René Dirven on the occasion of his sixtieth birthday, pp. 40-41. Harmondsworth. Penguin.

Hymes, D.H. (1972). *Toward ethnographies of communication*. In P.P. Giglioli (Ed.), *Language and social context* (: 21-44). Harmondsworth. Penguin.

Hymes, D.H. (1966). *Two types of linguistic relativity*. In Bright, W. *Sociolinguistics*. The Hague: Mouton. pp. 114–158.

Hymes D.H. (1974) Foundations in sociolinguistics: An ethnographic approach. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Hymes, D. H. (1989) '*Ways of speaking*', in R. Bauman and J. Scherzer (eds) *Explorations in the ethnography of speaking*. 2nd ed. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.: 433-451.

Jablonski J. (2013) *Research Design-Campus guide. Resources and Service*: <http://apus.campusguides.com> Accessed 15 -05-2014.

Joseph, J. E., Love, N., and Taylor, T. J. (2001). *Landmarks in linguistic thought II*. London: Routledge.

Jonassen, D. H., Davidson, M., Collins, M., Campbell, J. and Haag, B. B. (1999). Constructivism and computer-mediated communication in distance education. *American Journal of Distance Education*, 9(2),7-26.

Johnson, K. (1982). *Communicative Syllabus Design and Methodology*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Johnson, K. and Morrow. (1981). *Communication in the classroom*. Essex: Longman.

Johnson, M. (1987). *The body in the mind: The bodily basis of meaning, imagination, and reason*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press. 233 pages.

Johnson, D.W., and Johnson, R.T. (1987). *Learning together and alone: Cooperative, competitive, and individualistic*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Johnson. M.G. (2004) Constructivist Remediation: *Correction in Context Journal of Special Education*. Vol 19 No 1.

Kamil, M. L. (2004). *Vocabulary and comprehension instruction: Summary and implications of the National Reading Panel findings*. In P. McCardle and V. Chhabra (Eds.), *The Voice of evidence in reading research* (:213-234). Baltimore: Brookes.

Kanyongo, G.Y. (2005), Zimbabwe's Public Education System Reforms: Successes and Challenges, *International Educational Journal* [6\(1\),65-74](http://files.eric.ed.gov/full_text/EJ854955.pdf)http://files.eric.ed.gov/full_text/EJ854955.pdf. Accessed 6 April 2014.

Kapingidza S. (2014) *The Social impact of the Zimbabwe Crisis on access and Quality of Education: Examining teacher's unruly practices in rural Secondary Schools*. Master of Arts Development S. Public policy management. Hague Netherlands.

Keene, E.K., and Zimmermann, S. (1997). *Mosaic of thought: Teaching comprehension in a reading workshop*, Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Kawulich B.B. (2011) Gatekeeping: on going adventure in research, *Field Methods Journal*, 23,1 57-76.

Kawulich, B. B. (2005). *Participant Observation as a Data Collection Method in Qualitative Social Research*. Volume 6, No. 2, Art. 43.

Kieffer, M.J. and Lesaux, N.K., 2012. Direct and indirect roles of morphological awareness in the English reading comprehension of native English, Spanish, Filipino, and Vietnamese speakers. *Language Learning*, 62(4), pp.1170-1204.

Kelley, M.J. and Clausen G. N. (2008). *R⁵ in Your classroom: A Guide to Differentiating Independent reading and developing avid readers*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association. Curriculum Development Centre.

Ketch, A. (2005). Conversation: The comprehension connection. *The Reading Teacher*, 59(1), 8-13.

King, G., Keohane, R. O. and Verba, S. (1994) *Designing Social Inquiry: Scientific Inference in Qualitative Research*. Princeton University Press: Chichester.

Kispal A. (2008) Effective Teaching of Inference Skills for Reading. National Foundation for Educational Research. Department for Children, Schools and Families. www.dcsf.gov.uk/research

Klapper, J. (2006) *Understanding and developing good practice: Language teaching in higher education*. CILT.UK: Hobbs the printers.

Klaus J. (2013) *A definition of teaching aids*. <http://www.ehow.com/about-6317487-definition-teaching-aids.html>-Accessed: 23/10/13.

Knowl J, Dobbins M, Ciliska D, Cockerill R, Barnsley J, DiCenso A (2002) *Review A framework for the dissemination and utilization of research for health-care policy and practice*. [Online J Online Nurs.; 9():7.

Kohlbacher F. (2006) *The use of qualitative content analysis in case study*. 17 (1).

Krashen, S. (1984). *Writing: Research, theory, and applications*. New York: Pergamon.

Krashen, S. (2004) *The Power of Reading: insights from the research*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Krashen, S. (2002). The great phonemic awareness debate. *WSRA Journal*, 44(2), 51–55.

Krashen, S. (2003). *Explorations in Language Acquisition and Use*. Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Krashen, S. (1989) We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *Modern Language Journal*, 73:440-464.

Krashen, S.D. (1985) *The Input Hypothesis*. Harlow: Longman.

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell.D.T. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. Hayward, CA: Alemany Press.

Kreuger R.A. (1988) *Focus groups: a practical guide for applied research*. London: Sage.

Kuhn, T.S. (2011) *The Structure of Scientific Revolution*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Kuhn D. (2000): Current Directions in Psychological Science, Vol. 9, No. 5, pp. 178-181. Sage Publications, Inc. *Association for Psychological Science* Stable URL: <http://www.jstor.org/stable/> Retrieved 30-05-12.

Kumar S. (2012) *What is the importance of teaching aids in learning?* [Sliderobes.com-Mgmt 50](http://Sliderobes.com-Mgmt50) :10597-10605 Accessed: 23/10/13.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1999a). Critical classroom discourse analysis. *TESOL Quarterly*, 33:453–484.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006) *Understanding language teaching. From method to post method*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc., Publishers.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001) Toward a post method pedagogy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35, 537-560.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994) The post method condition. (E)merging strategies for second/foreign language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28, 27-48.

Kurasha, K. and C. Chiome (2013) 'Personal Accounts of Teachers on Factors Affecting Quality in Zimbabwean Schools.' *European Social Sciences Research Journal* 1(1), 83-94.

http://www.marynsam.co.uk/uploads/1/4/0/7/14075053/personal_accounts_of_teachers_on_factors_affecting_quality_in_zimbabwean_schools.pdf Accessed September 2014.

Kuusela, H., and Paul, P. (2000). "A comparison of concurrent and retrospective verbal protocol analysis". *American Journal of Psychology*. University of Illinois Press. 113 (3): 387–404.

Kvale S. (1996) *Interviews: An introduction to Qualitative Research Interviewing*. Thousand s Oaks: Sage.

Lambin, JJ, (2000) *Market-Driven Management*. Strategic and Operational Marketing, Palgrave. www.arden.ac.uk/Marketing/Masters-Degree

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2003). *Teaching language: From grammar to grammarian*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). *Techniques and principles in second language teaching*. 2nd edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Larsen-Freeman, D. (1986). "Issues in the Teaching of Grammar" in M. Celce-Murcia and L. McIntosh (Eds.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language* Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 217 - 228.

Lather, P. (1992). *Critical frames in educational research: Feminist and post-structural perspectives*. *Theory into Practice*, 31(2), 87-99.

Laufer, B. (1988). *What percentage of text-lexis is essential for comprehension?* In C. Lauren and M. Nordman (Eds.) *Special language: From humans thinking to thinking machines*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Le Compte, M.D., and Schensul, J.J. (1999). *Designing and conducting ethnographic research*. Walnut Creek, CA: AltaMira.

Lee J.F. (2008) When to use the odds ratio or the relative risk. *International Journal of Epistemology* 23 (1) 201-3.

Lee, J. F. (1986). *On the use of the recall task to measure L2 reading-comprehension*. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 8, 201-212.

Leech, B. (2002). *Asking questions: Techniques for semi-structured interviews*. *Political Science and Politics*. 35(4):665-668.

Leedy, P.D., and Ormrod, J.E. (2005). *Practical Research: Planning and Design* (8th Ed.), New Jersey: Pearson Education Inc. Upper Saddle River. Longman.

Lincoln, Y. S., and Guba, E. G. (1994). *Naturalistic inquiry*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Lincoln, Y. S., and Guba, E. G. (2004) *Competing paradigms in qualitative research: Theory issues*. In Hesse-Biber and Leavy P. (Eds) *Approaches to qualitative research: A reader on theory and practice* (pp 17-39) New York Oxford University Press.

Littlewoods W. (1981). *Communicative Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Littlewoods, W. (2007) Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 40, 243–249.

Liu, F., dan and Maitlis, S. (2010). *Nonparticipant Observation*. In Albert J. Mills, G. Durepos, and E. Wiebe (Eds.), *Encyclopaedia of Case Study Research*. (pp. 610-612). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.

<http://srmo.sagepub.com/view/encyc-of-case-study-research/n229.xml>.

Long, M. (1983). "Input and Second Language Acquisition Theory". In Gass, Susan; Madden, Carolyn. *Input in second language acquisition*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury.

Long, M. (1996). *The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition*. In Ritchie, William; Bhatia, Tej. *Handbook of second language acquisition*. San Diego: Academic Press. pp. 413–468.

Long, M. H., and Crookes, G. (1992). Three approaches to task-based syllabus design. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(1), 27-56.

Long, M. and Robson, P. (1998). *Focus on form: Theory, research and practice*. In C. Doughty and J. Williams (eds.), *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 15-41). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Lopez, G. E. (1993). *The effect of group contacts and curriculum on white, Asian American, and African American students' attitudes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan. University of Michigan-Ann Arbor.

Lyster, R., and Ranta, L. (1997). *Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms*. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19:37- 66.

Machingaidze E.C. (2010) *English Today: Comprehensive English Language Course Book 1-4* Harare. Zimbabwe Publishing House.

MacQueen, N. And Guest N. (2012). "*Introduction to Thematic Analysis*". *Applied Thematic Analysis*: <http://dx.doi.org/10.4135/9781483384436.n1>

Maley, A. (2008) '*Extensive Reading: Maid in Waiting*' in B. Tomlinson (ed) *English Language Learning Materials: a critical review*. London/New York: Continuum :133-156.

Maoz, Z. (2002) *Case study methodology in international studies: from storytelling to hypothesis testing*. In F. P. Harvey and M. Brecher (eds) *Evaluating Methodology in International Studies*. Michigan. University of Michigan Press.

Maposa F. (1992) *Teachers' Perceptions of The Levels of Difficulty of Aspects of English Language For O-level Students: in Zimbabwe And Their Perceptions of The Use of English literature In Teaching English Language*. *Department1 Of Teacher Education University. Zimbabwe*.

Marshall, C. and Rossman, G. B. (1997). *Designing qualitative research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Marzano, R. J. (2004) *The-Importance-of-Background-Knowledge.aspx* <http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/104017/> Reprieved 13-06-2005.

Marzano, R. J. (2014) *The-Importance-of-Background-Knowledge.aspx* <http://www.ascd.org/publications/books/104017/> Reprieved, 30-12-2015.

Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design: An interactive approach*, 2nd edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

May, T. (2011) *Social Research: Issues, Methods and Process*. Open University Press: Maidenhead.

May, T. (2002). *Qualitative Research in Action*: London. Sage Publications.

McCarthy, M., and Carter, R. (1994). *Language as discourse: Perspectives for language teaching*. London: Longman.

McCarthy, M. J. and Carter, R. (1997). *Written and spoken vocabulary*, in Schmitt, N. and McCarthy, M. (eds.). Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

McCarthy, M. (1994). *Vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

McDonough, J. and McDonough, S., (1997). *Research Methods for English Language Teachers*. London.

- McGinley K. (1985) *First-year Reading levels at the University of Zimbabwe communication skills Centre*, Harare. University of Zimbabwe.
- McLaughlin B (1987) *Theories of second-language learning*. London: Edward Arnold, Pp. viii+184.
- McLaughlin, B. (1990). "Conscious" versus "unconscious" learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24(4), 617–638.
- McLaughlin, M., 2012. Reading comprehension: What every teacher needs to know. *The Reading Teacher*, 65(7), pp.432-440.
- McLeod, S. A. (2008). *Social Identity Theory*. Retrieved from www.simplypsychology.org/social-identity-theory.html. in 10-2010
- McLeod, S. A. (2013). *Case Study Method*. Retrieved from www.simplypsychology.org/case-study.html/Sigmund-Freud.html.
- McMillan L. H. and Schumacher S. (2002) *Research in Education: A Conceptual Introduction*. 3rd edition: New York: Harper Collins College Publishers.
- Meier J. (2014) *Can teaching grammar benefit reading-comprehension*. www.readingrocket.org. Accessed 30-04-2015.
- Merriam, S. (2009). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Merriam, S. A., Johnson-Bailey, J., Lee, M.-Y., Kee, Y., Ntseane, G., and Muhamad, M. (2001). Power and positionality: Negotiating insider/outsider status within and across cultures. *International Journal of Lifelong Education*, 20(5), 405-416.
- Miles M.B. and Huberman A.M. (1994) *Qualitative data analysis: A source book of New Methods*. Thousand Oaks: Sage.
- Miles, M.B., and A.M. Huberman (1984) *Qualitative Data Analysis: A Sourcebook of New Methods*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Mitchell, M. and Jolley, J. (2001). *Research Design Explained (4th Ed)* New York: Harcourt.
- Miti M. (1995). The Problem of establishing initial literacy in an L2: The case of Zambia. *Education for Africa*. 1(1) p3.
- Mlambo, A.S. (2013) 'From Education and Health for All by 2000 to the Collapse of the Social Services Sector in Zimbabwe, 1980-2008' *Journal of Developing Societies* 29:355-379 <http://jds.sagepub.com/content/29/4/355.full.pdf+html>. Retrieved 20 April 2014.

Molyneux C.S. Peshu N, and Marsh K. (2004) *Understanding of informed 2004 consent in a low-income setting: three cases studies from the Kenyan coast*. Soc Sci Med; 59:2547–60.

Morgan, D. L., and Spanish, M. T. (1985). *Social interaction and the cognitive organisation of health-relevant knowledge*. Sociology of Health and Illness, 7(3), pp.401-422.

Morris, T., and Wood, S. (1991) *Testing the survey method: continuity and change in British industrial relations*, *Work Employment and Society*, vol.5, no.2, pp.259-82.

Morrison, J. W. (1988). *Consultancy to advice on Program to enhance Communication Skills in Teacher Education*. Edinburgh: Scottish Centre for Education Overseas, Moray House College.

Moss B. (2004) Teaching expository text structures through information trade book retellings. *The Reading Teacher*, pp.10-18.

Morse, J. M. (1991). *Approaches to qualitative-quantitative methodological triangulation*. *Nursing Research*, 40,120–123.

Moyana, R. (1991). Evidence of Acquisition of the Reading Skill Related to Comprehension of the Narrative Passages: Data from the International Literacy Study Pilot Testing in Zimbabwe. *Zimbabwe Journal of Educational Research* .3 (2):125 - 143.

Murphy S. (2009) *Teaching tips: How to teach students to write with active passive verbs*. www.helium.com. Accessed 18-12-10.

Murray, J. and Smith, F. (1988) *Language Arts and the Learner*. Melbourne, Macmillan Press.

Mwamwenda, T.S. (1996) *Educational Psychology: An African Perspective*. Durban, Butterworths.

Myers, M.D. (2008) *Qualitative Research in Business and Management*. London, SAGE Publications.

Nagy, W., Anderson, R. C., and Herman, P. A. (1987). Learning word meanings from context during normal reading. *American Educational Research Journal*, 24:237-270.

Nargundkar, R. (2003): *Marketing Research: Text and Cases, 2nd Ed. Tata McGraw Hill*.

National Reading Panel. (2000). *Report of the National Reading Panel: Teaching children to read*. Washington, D. C.: National Institute of Child Health and Human Development Clearing house.

www1.nichd.nih.gov/publications/pubs/nrp/Documents/report.pdf

Ndebele K. (2009) *An investigation of the impact of formal and informal assessment on the self-esteem of pupils with Borderline learning difficulties learning in mixed ability English Language classes*. University of Nottingham. Published PhD Thesis.

Ndovorwi, T. (1989). Literature should be the Base of Language Learning at Secondary School. *Zimbabwe Teachers' Forum* 17 (9):35.

Neuendorf, K.A. (2002). *The Content Analysis Guidebook*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Neuman, W.L. (2011), "Social Research Methods: Qualitative and Quantitative Approaches" (5th ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Neuman W.L. (1997) *Social Research methods: Quantitative*: Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Newell, A., and Simon, H. A. (1972). *Human Problem Solving*. Englewood Cliff: NJ Prentice Hall.

Newsday (2014) *Stop this scandal of neglect*, <https://www.newsday.co.zw/2014/07/31/stop-scandal-neglect/> Retrieved 30-06-2015.

Newsday (2014) *How we turned the education sector around*. Accessed 10 July 2014, <https://www.newsday.co.zw/2013/10/07/turned-education-sector-around>.

Ngugi wa Thiong'o (1986) *Decolonising the Mind*. The Politics of Language in African Literature. Harare, Zimbabwe Publishing House.

Nhandara I. (2013) *Manicaland schools shine in 2012 O' level results*. Manica Post. Mutare.

Nhandara I. (2014) "O" Level students have continued to struggle passing English Language which had the lowest average passes. Manica Post Mutare.

Nhundu, T.J. (1992) 'A Decade of Educational Expansion in Zimbabwe: Causes, Consequences, and Policy Contradictions', *Journal of Negro Education* 61(1), 78-98 Accessed 29 April 2014 <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2295630>.

Nist, S.L., and Mealey, D.L. (1991). *Teacher-directed comprehension strategies*. In R. Flippo and D. Caverly (Eds.), *Teaching reading and study strategies at the college level*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Nokes, J.D., and Dole, J.A. (2004). *Helping adolescent readers through explicit strategy instruction*. In T.L. Jetton and J.A. Dole (Eds.), *Adolescent literacy research and practice* (pp. 162-182). New York: The Guilford Press (:162-182). New York: The Guilford Press.

Nondo, S. J. (1996) *The main problems faced by students whose mother tongue are other Zimbabwean African languages in learning Ndebele*. University of Zimbabwe, Unpublished.

Norton E. (2003) *The effective teaching of language arts*. Columbus. Ohio Bell & Howell Company.

Nunan, D. (2004) *Task-based language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Nunan, D. (1999). *Language Teaching Methodology: a textbook for teachers*. New York. Prentice Hall.

Nunan, D. (1991) *Language teaching methodology: A textbook for teachers*. NEW York: Prentice Hall.

Nyawaranda, V. (1998). *Teachers' beliefs about teaching English as a second language (ESL): Two case studies of ESL instruction in Zimbabwe*. Unpublished D/Phil thesis, McGill University, Montreal.

Nyawaranda, V. (1989). On Languages and Learning. *Zimbabwe Teachers' Forum*, 17(9) Harare.

Nziramasanga Commissioner, C.T. (1999) *Zimbabwe Report of the Presidential Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training*. Harare: Government Printers.

O'Grady, W. (2005). *How children learn language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

O'Leary, Z. (2014) *The Essential Guide to Doing Your Research Project*. London: SAGE Publications.

Olson, G., Duffy, S., and Mack, R. (1984). *Thinking-out-loud as a method for studying real-time comprehension processes*. In: D. E. Kieras and M. A. Just (Eds.), *New methods in reading comprehension research* pp. 253-286.

Osborn, A.F. (1963) *Applied imagination: Principles and procedures of creative problem solving* (Third Revised Edition). New York, NY: Charles Scribner's Sons.

Otto, D. (1997) *First Language Maintenance in a Second Language Context*. Paper presented at the Regional Conference on Early Childhood Education in Higher Education: The way forward. Kadoma, Zimbabwe.

Owen N, Glanz K, Sallis JF, Kelder SH (2006) *Review Evidence-based approaches to dissemination and diffusion of physical activity interventions*. [American Journal of Prev. Medicine Am J Prev Med. 31(4 Suppl): S35-44.

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: what every teacher should know*. United States of America. Heinle and Heinle Publishers.

Oxford Dictionary (2017) "Reality Definition of reality in English by Oxford Dictionaries". Oxford Dictionaries | English. Retrieved 2017-10-28.

Palincsar, A. S., and Brown, A. L. (1984). *Reciprocal teaching of comprehension-fostering and comprehension-monitoring strategies*. *Cognition and Instruction*, 2, pp.117-175.

Paris, S. G., Lipson, M. Y., and Wixson, K. K. (1983). *Becoming a strategic reader*. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 8,293-316.

Patton M.Q. (2002) *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park: Sage.

Patton M.Q. (1990) *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park: Sage.

Paul, J. (2004) *Introduction to the Philosophies of Research and Criticism in Education and the Social Sciences*. London: Prentice Hall.

Pearce, L. D. (2002). *Integrating survey and ethnographic methods for systematic anomalous case analysis*. *Sociological Methodology*, 32 (1), :103-132.

Perfetti C.A, Landi N., and Oakhill J. (2004) *The Acquisition of Reading comprehension Skills*. A Handbook Oxford Blackwell.
<http://www.pitt.edu/~perfetti/PDF> Accessed 10-12-2009.

Perkins, D.N. (2005). *Educating for Insight*. *Educational Leadership*. Issue 2: 4-9.

Piaget, J. (1967.) *The Language and Thought of the Child* [translated by M. Gabain]. Cleveland, OH: Meridian. (Original work published 1923).

Piaget J. (1953) *The Psychology of intelligence*, New York. Routledge.

Pica, T. (1993). Questions from the language classroom: research perspectives. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28 (1):49-79.

Pica, T. (1994). *Tradition and transition in English language teaching methodology*. *System*, 28:1-18.

Pica, T. (2000). *Tradition and transition in English language teaching methodology*. *System*, 28:1-18.

Pinker, S. And Chomsky N. (1994). *The language instinct*. New York: HarperCollins.

Pretorius E.J. (1995) Reading as interactive process implications for studying through the medium of the L2. *Communication* 21, (2) (pp.33-43). Primary School. *TOSEL Quarterly*. 22 pp. 303-319.

Pöschhacker F. (2004) *Introducing Interpreting Studies*. Psychology Press-Language Arts and Disciplines. London and New York. Routledge.

Porteli, J. (2008). *Researching a secondary school in Malta*. In P. Sikes & A. Potts (Eds.), *Researching education from the inside* (pp. 80–94). New York, NY: Routledge.

Prawat, R. S., and Floden, R. E. (1994). *Philosophical Perspectives on Constructivist Views of Learning*. Educational Psychologist, 29(1), :37-48.

Pressley, M. (2000). What should comprehension instruction be made of? In M. Kamil, P. Mosenthal, P. Pearson, R. Barr (Eds.), *Handbook of reading research* (vol 3. :545-562). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Pressley, M., and Afflerbach, P. (1995). *Verbal protocols of reading: the nature of constructively responsive reading*. Hillside NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum associates.

Pswarayi, L. and T. Reeler (2012) '*Fragility*' and education in Zimbabwe: *Assessing the impact of violence on education*', Harare: Research and Advocacy Unit (RAU).

PTUZ (2011) '*Every School has a story to Tell: A Study into Teacher's Experiences with Elections in Zimbabwe*' Harare: Progressive Teachers Union of Zimbabwe.

<http://www.protectingeducation.org/sites/default/files/documents/ptuzteachers-experience-110930.pdf> Accessed: 27 August 2014.

Raeburn T, Halcomb E, Walter G, Cleary M. (2013) *An overview of the clubhouse model of psychiatric rehabilitation*. Australas Psychiatr. 21(4):376–378.

Rahimpour, M. (2008). *Implementation of task- based approaches to language teaching*. Research on Foreign Languages Journal of Faculty of Letters and Humanities, 41, 45-61.

Ramlila, J.P. (1996) "*Indigenous Languages: An Answer towards economic independence- A Simpler case for Zimbabwe*. Towards Capacity Building in Science and Technology." Paper presented to the 5th Symposium of the Research Council of Zimbabwe. :24-26 Harare.

Rankin, J.M. (1988). *Designing thinking- aloud Studies in ESL reading*. Reading in a Redbridge Language Support Service. Foreign Language, 4,119-132.

Ratner C. (2002). *Subjectivity and objectivity in qualitative methodology* Forum Qualitative Sozial forschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research [On-line Journal], 3(3), Art.16. Available at: <http://www.qualitative-research.net/fqs-texte/3-02/3-02ratner-e.htm> Retrieved_24-7-09.

Reed, J. and Procter, S. (eds) (1995) *Practitioner Research in Health Care: The Inside Story*, London: Chapman and Hall.

Rekrut, D. M. (1996). *Effective vocabulary instruction*. High School Journal, 80(1),66-75.

Research and Advocacy Unit (2012) '*Political Violence and Intimidation against Teachers in Zimbabwe*', Harare: Progressive Teachers Union of

Zimbabwe.

[http://www.protectingeducation.org/sites/default/files/documents/rau_violence_intimidation_teachers_120525\(RAU\).pdf](http://www.protectingeducation.org/sites/default/files/documents/rau_violence_intimidation_teachers_120525(RAU).pdf) Accessed-15October2014.

Richards, L. (2005). *Handling Qualitative Data; A practical guide*. London: Sage Publications.

Richards, J.C. and Renandya W.A. (2002) *Methodology in language teaching. An anthropology of current practice*. Cambridge. Cambridge Press.

Richards, J. C. (2006). *Communicative language teaching today*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J.C. and Renandya W.A. (2002) *Methodology in language teaching. An anthropology of current practice*. Cambridge. Cambridge Press.

Richards, J. C., and Rodgers, T. S. (2001). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (2nd ed.). New York. Cambridge University Press.

Richards, J., Platt, J, and Platt, H. (1992). *Dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. London: Longman.

Roach, P. (1998). *English phonetics and phonology. A practical course* Reading. University of Cambridge Press.

Robinson, C.D.E. (1996) *Language use in Rural Development. An African Perspective*. New York. Mouton de Gruyer.

Robson C. (1993) *Real world research*, Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Robson, C. (2002). *Real World Research. A Resource for Social Scientists and Practitioner Researches*, 2nd edition. Blackwell: Oxford.

Robson, C. (2011). *Real world research*. Chichester, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Rodriguez-Bonces M. (2010) *Profile issues in the teachers Professional Development*. Task-based language learning: Old approach, New style. A new lesson to learn. Universidad Central and Unitec, Colombia. www.revistas.unal.edu.co
> [Home](#).

Rouney, P. (2005). *Researching from the inside - does it compromise validity?* Retrieved from <http://level3.dit.ie/html/issue3/rooney/rooney.pdf> Retrieved 6-7-2010.

Roy-Campbell, Z.M. (1998) "A Neglected Pillar of African Education: The Language of Schooling." Paper presented at the First Annual Conference of the Zimbabwe Languages.

Roy-Campbell, Z.M. (1996) *A Neglected Pillar of African Education: The Language of Schooling*. Paper presented at the First Annual Conference of the Zimbabwe Languages.

- Rothbauer P. (2008). "Triangulation" Thousand Oaks, CA *the SAGE Encyclopaedia of Qualitative Research Methods* (2008) p. 893 - 894 Available at: http://works.bepress.com/paulette_rothbauer/14/ Retrieved 30-12-2009.
- Rupley, W., Logan, J., and Nichols, W. D. (1999). Vocabulary instruction in a balanced reading program. *Reading Teacher*, 52, 336-347.
- Rwambiwa, J.P. (1996). *Indigenous Languages: An Answer towards economic independence- A Simpler case for Zimbabwe*. Towards Capacity Building in Science and Technology. Paper presented to the 5th Symposium of the Research Council of Zimbabwe. 24-26 September. Harare, Unpublished.
- Sadita J. (2015) *Sustained silent reading*. Adolescent Literacy. Adlit.org. Accessed 20-06-2009.
- Saldana, J. (2009). *The Coding Manual for Qualitative Researchers*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications. p. 36.
- Sampson, G.R. (2005) *The Language Instinct Debate*. (An enlarged and updated edition of a book first published in 1997 as *Educating Eve: The "Language Instinct" Debate*.) Continuum.
- Santa, C.M. (2004). Project CRISS: *Reading, writing, and learning in the content subjects*, In D.S. Strickland and D.E. (Eds.), *Bridging the literacy achievement gap, grades 4- 12* (pp. 183-199). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Sarig, G. (1987). *High-level reading in the first and in the foreign language: Some comparative process data*. In: J. Devine, P. Carrel, & D. E. Eskey (Eds.), *Research in reading in English as a second language* (pp. 105-120). Washington D.C.: TESOL.
- Saunders, M, Lewis, P, Thornhill, A, (2007), *Research Methods for Business Students*, 4th edition Edinburgh Gate, Harlow., Prentice Hall.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2012) "Research Methods for Business Students" 6th edition, Pearson Education Limited Harlow.
- Savignon, S. (2001). *Communicative language teaching: context and concerns in teacher education*. New Haven, CT: Yale University press.
- Savignon, S.J. (2002) "Communicative Language Teaching: State of Art" *TESOL Quarterly*. Volume 25 No.2 267-275.
- Savignon, S., and M.S. Berns, (eds.) (1984) *Initiatives in Communicative Language Teaching Reading*, Pennsylvania: Addison-Wesley.
- Savignon, S.J. (1983) *Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice*. Reading, M.A.: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.

Scapens, R. W. (2004). *Doing case study research*. In C. Humphrey and B. Lee. (eds.), *The Real-Life Guide to Accounting Research: a behind-the-scenes view of using qualitative research methods*. Elsevier, Ltd, 257-279.

Scapens R.W. (1990) *Researching Management Accounting Practice: The Role of Case Study Methods*. The British Accounting System University of Manchester no 22, 259-281.

Schamber, L. (2000). Time-line interviews and inductive content analysis: Their effectiveness for exploring cognitive behaviours. *Journal of the American Society for Information Science*, 51(8),734-744.

Schell, C. (1992). The value of the case study as a research strategy. *Manchester Business School*, [online] pp.1-15. Available at: <http://www.finance-mba.com/Case%20Method.pdf> (Accessed 30 Mar. 2016).

Schmuck, R. (1997). *Practical action research for change*. Arlington Heights, IL: IRI/Skylight Training and Publishing.

Schurink, W., Fouché, C. B., and De Vos, A. S. (2011). *Qualitative data analysis and Interpretation*. In A. S. de Vos, H. Strydom, C. B. Fouché and C. S. L. Delpont, *Research at grass roots: For the social sciences and human service professions* (4th ed.), (:397-423). Pretoria: Van Schaik.

Schwandt, T. (2006). Opposition redefined. *International Journal of Qualitative Studies in Education*, 19, 803-810.

Schwandt, T. (2001) *Dictionary of Qualitative Inquiry*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Schmidt-Co-Kohlmann T. (2008) When to use the odds ratio or the relative risk? *International Journal of Public health* 53 (3) 165-167.

Scotland J. (2013) Exploring the Philosophical Underpinnings of Research: Relating Ontology and Epistemology to the Methodology and Methods of the Scientific, Interpretive, and Critical Research Paradigms. *English Language Teaching*. Vol 5 No9. Qatar University.

Scrivener, J. (2011) *Learning Teaching: The essential guide to English language teaching*. 3rd edn. Oxford: Macmillan Publishers.

Shahrokh E. M.; Dougherty, E. R. (2014). *Effect of separate sampling on classification accuracy*. *Bioinformatics* 30 (2):242–250.

Sharp, A. (2003). *Reading comprehension and text organization*. The Edwin Millen Press: Canada.

Shields, P. and Rangarjan, N. (2013) *A Playbook for Research Methods: Integrating Conceptual Frameworks and Project Management*. Stillwater, OK: New Forums Press.

Shields, P. and Tajalli.H (2006). Intermediate Theory: The Missing Link in Successful Student Scholarship. *Journal of Public Affairs Education*, Vol. 12, No. 3. pp. 313-334.

Shoebottom P. (2014) *Helping ESL students understand written texts*.
<http://esl.fis.edu> Accessed 12-08-2014.

Shuttleworth M. (2008). *Case Study Research Design*. From Explorable.com:
<https://explorable.com/case-study-research-design> Retrieved Feb 20, 2015.

Silverman D. (1993) *Interpreting Qualitative Data: Methods for Analysing Talk, Text and Interaction*. London: Sage.

Silverman, S. (2006). Relationship of engagement and practice trials to student achievement. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 5, 13-21.

Silverman, S. (2006). *Interpreting qualitative data*.3rd ed. London. Sage.

Simons D. (2009) *Case study research in practice*, University of Southampton: London and Los Angeles, Sage, 189 pp., paperback.

Simpson A. (2006) *A process approach to writing*.
<http://www.developingteacher.com/articles/tchtraining/pwl.adam.html> Accessed 10-11-06.

Singh, K, (2007), *Quantitative Social Research Methods*, London. SAGE Publications.

Skehan, P. (2003). *Task-based instruction*. *Language Teaching*, 36, 1-14.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S026144480200188X>. Accessed 30-7-09.

Skinner B.F. (1976) *The science of learning and the art of teaching*. Harvard Educational Review, 24: 86-97.

Skinner B.F. (1957) *Verbal behaviour*. New York. Appleton-Century-Crofts.

Skinner B.F. (1967) In, For Example, Boring and G. Lindzey (eds), *A History of psychology in autobiography*. New York. Knopf.

Smith J.A. 2004 Reflecting on the development of interpretative phenomenological analysis and its contribution to qualitative research in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology* 1:39-54.

Smyth, A., and Holian, R. (2008). *Credibility Issues in Research from within Organisations*. In P. Sikes and A. Potts (Eds.), *Researching education from the inside* (pp. 33–47). New York, NY: Taylor and Francis.

Snow, C. and Biancarosa, G. (2003) *Adolescent literacy and the achievement gap: What do we know and where do we go from here?* Carnegie Corporation of New York. New York.

Snow, C., and Biancarosa, G. (2004). *Reading next: A vision for action and research in middle and high school literacy*. New York: Carnegie Corporation of New York. Sociolinguistics. :269-293. Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.

Spack R. (1985) Literature, Reading, Writing and ESL: Bridging the Gaps *TESOL Quartely*.Vol19, Issue4 703 pp703-725.

Spada, N., and Lightbown, P. M. (1993). *Instruction and the development of questions in the L2 classrooms*. Studies in Second Language acquisition,15:205-224.

Spencer, L., Ritchie J. and O'Connor W. (2003) 'Analysis: Practices, Principles and Processes' in J. Ritchie and J. Lewis (eds) *Qualitative Research Practice: A Guide for Social Science Students and Researchers*, 199-209, London/New Delhi: Sage Publications http://ruconnected.ru.ac.za/pluginfile.php/260018/mod_resource/content/1/Qualitative%20Research.pdf Accessed 6 November 2014.

Spencer, R., and Hay, I. (1998). Initial reading schemes and their high frequency words. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy*. Retrieved on Nov 12, 2004, from <http://www.questia.com> accessed 30-06-12.

Spradley J.P. (2003) *The ethnographic interview*. Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.

Spradley, J. P. (1980). *Participant Observation*. Orlando, Florida: Harcourt College Publishers.: 58–62.

Sprosty, L. (1995) *Teaching the Language Arts in the Primary School*. Gweru, Mambo Press.

Stake R.E. (2005). Qualitative Case Studies in Denzin, N.K. and Lincoln, Y.S. (eds.) *The Sage Handbook of Qualitative Research* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks/London/New Delhi. Sage Publications.

Stake, R.E. (1995). *The Art of Case Study Research: Perspective in Practice*. London: Sage.

Strauss A. L. and Corbin, J. (1990). *Basics of Qualitative Research: Theory Procedures and Techniques*; Newbury Park, Sage.

Supon V. (2004). Implementing strategies to assist test anxious students. *Journal of Instructional psychology*,31[4], (:292–296).

Swain M. (1983). "Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing". *Applied Linguistics* (1):1–47. Retrieved September 29, 2013.

Swain, M. (1985). *Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development*. Input in Second Language Acquisition:235-253.

Swan. M. "(1998) A critical look at the Communicative Approach (1)" in *ELT J* 39 (1): 2-12. *ELT Journal*.

Swan. M. "(1985) A critical look at the Communicative Approach (1)" in *ELT J* 39 (1): 2-12. *ELT Journal*.

Taylor S.J. and Bogman R. (1987) *Introduction to qualitative methods of research*. Barcelona: Paidos.

Tedlock, B. (2000). Ethnography and ethnographic representation. In N. K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed., pp. 455-486). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Tembo, B. (2011). *An investigation into the thinking skills of grade 12 pupils in selected high schools of central Zambia*, unpublished master's thesis, University of Zambia. University of Zambia.

Tesch, R. (1990). *Qualitative Research: Analysis Types and Software Tools*. Bristol, PA: Falmer Press.

Tewksbury R. (2009) *University of Louisville Journal of Theoretical and Philosophical Criminology*, Vol 1 (1).

Tewksbury, R. 2006. *Graduating from the field*. In J. Mitchell Miller and Richard Tewksbury (: 129-143) *Research Methods: A Qualitative Reader*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Texas Educational Agency. (2002). *Comprehension Instruction*, 9-12. Retrieved from http://www.netxv.net/pm_attach/67/TRI-Comprehension_Instr.pdf. Accessed 12-01-2009.

The Bible, *Galatians* 5. v14 Quoting one of letters to Galatians by Apostle Paul.

The Standard (2013) 'Government must restore teachers' dignity'. Accessed 25 July 2014. <http://www.thestandard.co.zw/2013/10/06/govt-must-restore-teachers-dignity>.

Thomas, R. M. (2003). *Blending Qualitative and Quantitative Research Methods*, in Theses and Dissertations. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Thompson, G. (1996) Some misconceptions about communicative language teaching. *ELT Journal*, Volume 50 Number 1, 1996.

Tonini, D.C. (2005) 'The Breadbasket Goes Empty: Zimbabwe – a Country in Crisis in D. Burde (ed.), *Education in Emergencies and Post-Conflict Situations: Problems, Responses and Possibilities*, Vol. 2, New York: Society for International Education. <http://www.ineesite.org/uploads/files/resources/doc>-Accessed 20 October 2014.

Torgesen, J. K., Alexander, A. W., Wagner, R. K., Rashotte, C. A., Voeller, K. K. S., and Conway, T. (2001). Intensive remedial instruction for children with severe reading

disabilities: Immediate and long-term outcomes from two instructional approaches. *Journal of Learning Disabilities*, 34(1), :33-58, 78.

Travers, M. (2001). *Qualitative research through case studies*. London: Sage.

Taylor, D. (1988). The meaning and use of the term 'competence' in linguistics and applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, 148–168.

UNDP (2003) *Zimbabwe Human Development Report*, Harare: United Nations Development Programme Accessed 23 October 2014.
[http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/librarypage/hiv-aids/2003-zimbabwe-national-human-development-report-united-nations-literacy-decade-\(unld\)-\(2003-2012\)-launched-at-new-york-headquarters-literacy-decade](http://www.undp.org/content/undp/en/home/librarypage/hiv-aids/2003-zimbabwe-national-human-development-report-united-nations-literacy-decade-(unld)-(2003-2012)-launched-at-new-york-headquarters-literacy-decade).

UNESCO (2004) *EFA Global Monitoring Report: The Qualitative Imperative*, Paris: United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation- Accessed 18 May 2014 <http://www.unesco.org/new/en/unesco/resources/publications>.

UNESCO (2008) *EFA Global Monitoring Report 2009 Overcoming Inequality: Why Governance Matters*. Oxford and Paris: United Nations Education, Scientific and Cultural Organisation /Oxford University Press.

UNESCO (1953) *The use of vernacular language in education*. Monographs on Fundamental Education. Zimbabwe Faculty of Education's International Conference on Education and Development.

UNESCO (2008) *National Report on the status of Education by Zimbabwe: 48th session of UNESCO International Conference on Education*. Geneva.

UNICEF Zimbabwe (2008) '*Progress Report for UNICEF'S Education in Emergencies and Post-Crisis Transition Programme*' prepared for the Government of The Netherlands, <http://www.educationandtransition.org/wp-content/uploads/2007/04/zimbabwe-progress-report-2008.pdf> Accessed 20 October 2014.

Van Evera, S. (1997) *Guide to Methods for Students of Political Science*. Cornell University Press. Ithaca.

Van Heugten, K. (2004). *Managing insider research: Learning from experience*. *Qualitative Social Work*, 3(2), :203-219.

Verma, V. (1991), *Sampling Methods*. Training Handbook, Statistical Institute for Asia and the Pacific, Tokyo.

Verschuren, P. J. M. (2003) 'Case study as a research strategy: some ambiguities and opportunities', *International Journal of Social Research Methodology*, 6, 2, 121-139.

Vulliamy, G., Lewin, K. and Stephens, D. [eds]. (1990). *Doing educational research in Developing Countries*, Basingstoke: Falmer Press.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher mental processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Wakefield, A. (2008). *Private policing: a view from the mall*. *Public Administration*, 86(3), pp. 659-678.

Wallwork, J. F. (1985) *Language and Linguistics*. An Introduction to the Study of Language. Oxford, Heinemann.

Watson, S.M., Gable, R.A., Gear, S.B. and Hughes, K.C., (2012). *Evidence-Based Strategies for Improving the Reading Comprehension of Secondary Students: Implications for Students with Learning Disabilities*. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice*, 27(2), pp.79-89.

Weaver, A. and Atkinson, P. (1994) *Microcomputing and Qualitative Data Analysis*. Aldershot, Hants: Avebury.

Weber, R.P. (1990). *Basic Content Analysis*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Weddle A.B. (2013) *In Participants' Own Voices: Using Quotations from User Research Ethically* Insights and inspiration for the user experience community. <http://www.uxmatters.com/mt/archives> Accessed 20-10-2014.

Weiser B. (2013) *Effective Vocabulary Instruction for Kindergarten to 12th Grade Students Experiencing Learning Disabilities*. Southern Methodist University. Council for Learning Disabilities. (<http://www.council-for-learning-disabilities.org/publications/infosheets>) accessed 30-10-2014.

White, D. (1983). *Teaching Skills: An Introduction to the Professional Skills of Teaching for Student Teachers*. Pretoria: Academic. Gage.

White, L. (1987). Against comprehensible input: The input hypothesis and the development of second language competence. *Applied Linguistics*, 8: 95-110.

Wijgh, I. F. (1995). *A communicative test in analysis: Strategies in reading authentic texts*. In: A. Cumming and R. Berwick (Eds.), *Validation in language testing*. (pp. 154-170). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Wilkins, D. (1983). 'Some issues in communicative language teaching and their relevance to the teaching of languages in secondary schools' in *Perspectives in Communicative Language Teaching*. London: Academic Press.

Williams, A. and Thompson, B. (2004). 'Vigilance or Vigilantes: The Pauls grove Riots and Policing Paedophiles in the Community. Part 1: The Long Slow Fuse'. *The Police Journal*, 77(2), 99-119.

Williamson, P., Carnahan, C.R. and Jacobs, J.A., 2012. *Reading comprehension profiles of high-functioning students on the autism spectrum: A theory*. *Exceptional children*, 78(4), pp.449-469.

Wilson P.M, Pettigrew M, Calnan MW, Nazareth (2010) *Does dissemination extend beyond publication: a survey of a cross section of public funded research in the UK.* [Implement Sci61. <https://researchonline.lshtm.ac.uk/1844/1/1748-5908-5-37.pdf> Accessed 30-10-2011

Wilson, J. (2010) "*Essentials of Business Research: A Guide to Doing Your Research Project*" SAGE Publications.

Wood, D., Bruner, J., and Ross, G. (1991). The role of tutoring in problem solving. *Journal of Child Psychology and Child Psychiatry*, 17,89–100.

Xhaferi B. and Xhaferi G. (2008) *Vocabulary learning strategies used by students at SEEU in terms of gender and teachers' attitudes toward teaching vocabulary.* In *Research project*, pp. 119. SEEU, Tetovo, Macedonia, 11.

Yin, R. K. (2009) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods.* SAGE Publications Ltd: London.

Yin, R. K. (2005) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods.* SAGE Publications Ltd: London.

Yin, R. K. (2003) *Case Study Research: Design and Methods.* SAGE Publications Ltd: London.

Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case study research: Design and methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Yin, R.K., (1984). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods.* Beverly Hills, Calif: Sage Publications.

Yin, R., (1989). *Case study research: Design and methods* (2nd ed.). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publishing.

Zhang, Y., and Wildemuth, B. M. (2009). Qualitative analysis of content. In B. Wildemuth (Ed.), *Applications of Social Research Methods to Questions in Information and Library Science* (pp.308-319). Westport, CT: Libraries Unlimited.

Zimbabwe Government, (ZG) (2013) *Constitution of Zimbabwe*, Harare: Government of Zimbabwe Accessed on 03 April 2014.
<http://www.parlzim.gov.zw/attachments/article/56/constitution.pdf>

Zimbabwe Government, (2010) *Medium Term Plan (MTP) 2010-2015*, Harare: Government of Zimbabwe Accessed on 29 July 2014.
http://archive.kubatana.net/docs/econ/goz_medium_term_plan_100706.pdf.

Zimbabwe Government (1984) *Primary English Syllabus for Grade One.* Harare. Government Printers.

Zimbabwe Government (1986) *Secretary of Education's Annual Report*, Harare. Government Printers.

Zimbabwe Government (1987) *Education Act*. Harare. Government Printers. Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe Government (1993) *Education Act, Statutory Instrument 87 of 1993*. Harare.

Zimbabwe Government (1984) *Grade one Primary English Syllabus*. Harare Government Printers. Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe Government (2004) *Education Act*. Harare. Government Printers. Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe Government (2006) *Education Act*. Harare. Government Printers. Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe Government (2006). *The Education Act*. Government of Zimbabwe 1993. *Statutory Instrument 87: Education (School Development Committees) (Non-Government Schools) Regulations*. Harare: Government Printers.

Zimbabwe Languages Association (1997) (ZLA) *Position paper on the Proposed National Language Policy for Zimbabwe*. Harare, Unpublished.

Zimbabwe Government. Chief Examiner's report (ZIMSEC). (1999). *General certificate of education. Ordinary level: English language 1122, past papers and expected answers*. Harare. Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe Government (2014:) *Ministry of Education, Sport, Arts and Culture* Accessed 29 May 2014.

<http://planipolis.iiep.unesco.org/upload/Zimbabwe/Zimbabwe-education-medium-term-plan.pdf>.

Zimbabwe Government (1991) *Economic Structural Adjustment Programme*. Government Printers. Harare.

Zimbabwe Government. (1999) Chief Examiner's report (ZIMSEC). (1998). *General certificate of education, Ordinary level: English language 1122, past papers and expected answers*. Harare. Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe Government. (1998) *Chief Examiner's report (ZIMSEC)*. (1998). *General certificate of education, Ordinary level: English language 1122, past papers and expected answers*. Harare. Zimbabwe.

Zimbabwe Government (1992) *Statutory Instrument 87: Education (School Development Committees) (Non-Government Schools) Regulations*. Harare: Government Printers.

Zimbabwe Government (1993) *Statutory Instrument 70: Education (School Development Associations) (Government Schools) Regulations*. Harare: Government Printers.

Zimbabwe Government (1984) *Primary English Syllabus for Grade One*. Harare: Government Printers.

ZIMSEC (2006) *Zimbabwe Junior Certificate English Language Syllabus*. Harare: Government Printers.

ZIMSEC (2008) *ZGCE English Language O'level Syllabus*. Harare: Government Printers.

ZIMSEC (2013) *ZGCE English Language O'level Syllabus*. Harare: Government Printers.

Zhang, Z. (1993). *Literature review on reading strategy research*, 1-18. Retrieved 01-11-2004 from EDRS database (ED356643).

Zhang, Y.H. (2002). *On the feasibility of offering an extensive reading course in senior middle school English classes*. Unpublished MEd thesis, Shanxi Normal University, Xi'an, China.

Zhao Y. (1997) *Applied linguistics* Vol 18. No1 Oxford University Press.

8.0. Appendices for the thesis

APPENDIX. A: Observation guide for teachers/students

Task-

Topic-

Time-

Class-

No of students-

Teacher-

Objectives/Expectations-

1: Introduction: What do I see? How is the lesson introduced?

2: Development:

Comprehension writing procedure notes:

Being motivated to write: pre-writing stage.

While writing /comprehending stage. Planning and outlining.

Post writing stage: revising, re-planning reading, redrafting and editing.

Feedback-----

Publishing-----

Learner centred activities: -----

Use of writing checklist/Teaching Aids, -----

Classroom organization. -----

APPENDIX. B: Interview questions for teachers

- 1) What approaches/procedures do you use in teaching reading –comprehension in your class?
- 2) What is your choice of reading-comprehension passages for students answer questions on?
- 3) How do you give feedback to the students about their work?
- 4) How often do your students go to the library in your attempt to enhance their work?
- 5) How do you assess your students' understanding of reading-comprehension work?
- 6) How often do your students write reading-comprehension in a week, and why?
- 7) What are the challenges or problems associated with the use of the approaches?
- 8) Do your students have problems in reading-comprehension work?

APPENDIX .C: Interview questions for students

- 1) Do you have a notebook for doing reports on books you read at the library?
- 2) What problems do you encounter when you do reading-comprehension in your daily exercises?
- 3) Describe what you do when writing reading-comprehension in class?
- 4) What does your teacher do in class to help you when you do reading-comprehension?
- 5) What type of comments do you get from your teacher after your reading-comprehension is marked?
- 6) What aspect of English reading-comprehension do you enjoy learning and why?
- 7) Which aspect of English do you least enjoy learning and why?

APPENDIX. D-1: Questions for pupils ‘second focused group discussion (FGD)

Why do many students fail English Language examination at secondary school O-level?

What are the challenges associated with the use of the approaches that teachers use?

Are the teachers’ approaches to teaching reading-comprehension responsible for your poor reading-comprehension skills in learning?

What makes you not do well in reading-comprehension writing exercises and examinations?

Appendix D-2. Questions for First FGD for students.

What is your reason for reading?

What do you understand about reading comprehension?

What do you do when approaching different texts? (Expository/narrative)

What do you do when approaching different texts? (Expository/narrative)

What do you do when reading-comprehension is not successful?

What do you do when you get a pass mark in reading-comprehension?

Are you able to summarise what you read in reading-comprehension?

What do you do to assist yourself to comprehend better what you read?

Do you use previous knowledge to assist you in reading-comprehension?

Appendix-D.3-Third FGD Questions For teachers.

What is the students' ability to make sense of text as opposed to word-by-word reading?

What is the students' ability to understand the goal for reading?

What is the students' ability to make use of prior knowledge in reading activities?

How do students' show they are attempting to comprehend texts?

What is the students' attitude towards reading comprehension?

Do students persist in reading, if so what makes them do this?

What texts do you prefer to teach in reading comprehension?

What strategies do you use to teach reading comprehension to O'level students?

APPENDIX. E: Marking rubric for written reading-comprehension work

	Symbol	Max marks	Very good	Above average	Average	Below average	Poor
Communication: overall impression, relevance/on detail, appropriate use of vocabulary.	C	14	14-12	11-9	8-7	6-5	4-0
Grammar: knowledge of using parts of speech /tense consistence; subject /verb/agreement.	G	14	14-12	11-9	8-7	6-5	4-0
Mechanics: spelling/punctuation.	M	6	6-5	4	3	2	1-
Organization: sequencing of ideas and information, questions beyond literal level.	O	6	6-5	4	3	2	1-0
TOTALS		40	40-34	30-26	22-20	16-14	10-0
Totals	Female	29 yrs.	O' level	22 yrs.	16 years	Form: 4	D/Head of school

APPENDIX. F 1: Consent forms for students to participate

Introduction

I-----have been invited to participate in this research study, which has been explained to me by -----, ----- . This research is being conducted to fulfil the requirements for a doctoral thesis at The University of Derby, UK.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose the study will be to explore the failure of students at Apollo Secondary School in the Areas of reading-Comprehension and Essay writing in English Language from the Education Officer, Headmaster, Deputy Headmaster, Head of Department, Teacher and students' points of view.

Description of the study

I understand that this study will be ethnographic [Descriptive not experimental] and that I will be asked to participate in several activities. I will be observed during lessons, maybe tape-recorded [audio] and interviewed. In the interviews, I will answer questions about teaching and learning, my experience with learning, and schooling and feelings about reading-comprehension and essay writing teaching and learning.

Risks and Discomforts

There are no known or expected discomforts or risks from participating in this study. However, should I feel or experience any discomfort, I'm at liberty to inform my teacher, headmaster, or researcher at any time during the research.

Benefits

The students in the study may benefit from the one to one tutorials as well as assistance during lesson times plus one to one interviews with the researcher. For more information about this research, I can contact ----- on ----- -----. For more information regarding my rights as a research participant, I may contact the BERA [explained to me], Zimbabwe Ministry of Education or The Schools Psychological services [SPS] in the Ministry of Education.

Confidentiality

I understand that any information about me obtained as a result of my participation in this research will be kept confidential, as legally possible. I understand also that in any publication that results from this research, neither my name, nor any information from which I may be identified, will be published without my consent. Audiotapes [if used] will be handled only by the researcher and his research advisor. Audiotapes [if used] and transcripts will be stored in a locked filing cabinet or any secure place and then destroyed at the conclusion of the research.

Voluntary Participation

Participation in this study is voluntary. I understand that I'm free to withdraw my consent to participate in this study or any specific activities at any time if I feel uncomfortable. That is, I do not have to respond to every item. Refusal to participate or withdrawal will involve no penalty or loss of benefits and will not affect my grades or class standing or prejudice me in any way. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about this research and I have received answers concerning areas I did not understand. By signing this form, I signify that I understand the terms associated with this study. Upon signing this form, I will receive a copy. By signing this form, I therefore declare that I willingly consent to participate in this study.

Signature of participant-----Date-----

Signature of researcher-----Date-----

APPENDIX. F 2: Consent form for Parents to give their children permission to participate in this research.

Introduction

I -----have allowed my child-----to participate in this research study, which has been explained to me by ----- . ----- ----. This research is being conducted to fulfil the requirements for a doctoral thesis at The University of Derby, UK by Maxwell Obadiah Kanyoka.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose the study will be to explore the failure of students at Apollo Secondary School in the Areas of Reading-Comprehension in English Language from the Education Officer, Headmaster, Head of Department, Teacher and students' points of view.

Description of the study

I understand that this study will be ethnographic [Descriptive not experimental] and that my child will be asked to participate in several activities. The child will be observed during lessons, maybe tape-recorded [audio] and interviewed. In the interviews, I will answer questions about teaching and learning, his/her experience with learning, and schooling and feelings about reading-comprehension teaching and learning.

Risks and Discomforts

There are no known or expected discomforts or risks from participating in this study. However, should my child feel or experience any discomfort, she/he is at liberty to inform his/her teacher, headmaster, or researcher at any time during the research.

Benefits

The students in the study may benefit from the one to one tutorials as well as assistance during lesson times plus one to one interviews with the researcher. For more information about this research, I can contact ----- on ----- ----. For more information regarding the child's rights as a research participant, I may contact the BERA [explained to me], Zimbabwe Ministry of Education or The Schools Psychological services [SPS] in the Ministry of Education.

Confidentiality

I understand that any information about me obtained as a result of my participation in this research will be kept confidential, as legal as possible. I understand also that in any publication that results from this research, neither my name, nor any information from which I may be identified, will be published without my consent. Audiotapes will be handled only by the research and his research advisor. Audiotapes and transcripts will be stored in a locked filing cabinet or any secure place and then destroyed at the conclusion of the research.

Voluntary Participation

Participation in this study is voluntary. I understand that my child is free to withdraw his/her consent to participate in this study or any specific activities at any time if he/she feels uncomfortable. That is, I do not have to respond to every item. Refusal to participate or withdrawal will involve no penalty or loss of benefits and will not affect my grades or class standing or prejudice me in any way. I have been given the opportunity to ask questions about this research and I have received answers concerning areas I did not understand. By signing this form, I signify that I understand the terms associated with this study. Upon signing this form, I will receive a copy. By signing this form, I therefore declare that I willingly consent my child to participate in this study.

Signature of parent-----Date-----

Signature of researcher-----Date-----

APPENDIX-F3-CONSENT FORM -ALL PATICIPANTS

I.....of.....

Hereby agree to participate in this study to undertaken by.....

And I understand that the purpose of the study: Approaches to Teaching English Comprehension Writing at Junior Certificate [Form 2] and Ordinary Level [Form 4] at Apollo Secondary School in Zimbabwe: An Ethnographic Case Study, is only for research purposes.

I understand that:

- 1) After interview, the information collected will be kept private and confidential, and stored in a secure location.
- 2) Any information that I provide will not be made public in any form that could reveal my identity to any outside party i.e. that I will remain fully anonymous.
- 3) Aggregated results will be used for research purposes and may be in academic journals.
- 4) Individual results will not be released to any person except at my request and on my authorization.
- 5) That I'm free to withdraw my consent at any time during the study in which event my participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained from me will not be used.

Signature.....Date.....
.....

APPENDIX G: Invitation letter for teachers and students to participate

I am researching at your school on: Approaches to Reading-Comprehension Teaching at Junior Certificate [Form2] and Ordinary Level [Form 4] at Apollo Secondary School in Zimbabwe: An Ethnographic Case Study.

The research outcomes, forming my doctoral thesis, will be presented as a case study of the interface [crossing point] encountered between me and the Ministry, teachers, students and the administration on what think about the teaching of English Language in our schools.

I am writing to invite you to take part in a short interview as part of this investigation, as I should value your comments. The interview will take approximately 45 minutes and can be held at a time and place to suit you. Questions will focus on the learning needs of English at your school and how the learning needs can be improved. Any information provided will not be public in any form that could reveal your identity, and will be kept private and confidential, and stored in a secure location.

You are free to withdraw from this process at any time should you wish to do so and any information already proffered will be destroyed.

If you are willing to participate in this research process, please complete the consent form enclosed and return it to me as soon as convenient. On receipt of this form I will contact or tell you to arrange a mutually convenient appointment.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any queries and may I take this opportunity to thank you sincerely for your time in considering this invitation.

Maxwell O. Kanyoka

202 Churchill Drive

Marlborough

Harare

Appendix. H.HOD's Interview Questions

- 1) Do teachers use checklists when they mark their students' work to reflect areas of weakness?
- 2) Do teachers evaluate the students' understanding and application of grammar usage in their teaching?
- 3) Do teachers develop a series of instructional activities for improving students' understanding and application of syntax and punctuation?
- 4) Do teachers develop inductive /deductive reasoning in their teaching to develop the concept of context, syntax and representation in their teaching?
- 5) Do teachers give instructional activities to help students with creative writing skills and strategies?
- 6) Do teachers instruct in reading-comprehension by making students talk and use the language and reinforce it through positive feedback and reinforcement?
- 7) What instructional approaches do teachers use to develop learning and listening skills in reading-comprehension?
- 8) Do teachers tell students to read many books and assign them to write book reports/reviews to enhance reading-comprehension?
- 9) How do you know that your teachers are teaching well? What methods are they using to teach reading-comprehension?
- 10) Do you carry out a book inspection, where you look at students' work?
- 11) How long is a reading-comprehension lesson and how often is it taught in a week?

Appendix: I -Headmaster's Interview

- 1) . How do students perform their studies in your school? How do the teachers help them learn? In addition, how are the students motivated to learn in general?
- 2) How do teachers teach to improve student' work?
- 3) Do teachers encourage students to work hard and how do you discipline the students?
- 4) What do you think the teachers should do for students?
- 5) Have things changed from the way you used to do previously?
- 6) How is reading-comprehension taught in your school in Form 4? Can you give me a general view of how the subject is taught?

Appendix. J1: Author's image of 1998 Exam Paper

ZIMBABWE SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL

In collaboration with

UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS SYNDICATE

General Certificate of Education Ordinary level

ENGLISH LANGUAGE 1122/2

PAPER 2

Wednesday

Additional materials:

Answer paper

3 JUNE 1998 Morning 2 hours

qui,

TIME 2 hours

INSTRUCTIONS TO CANDIDATES

Write your name, Centre number and candidate number in the spaces provided on the answer paper/

answer booklet.

Answer all questions.

leave a space of one line between your answers to each part of a question, e.g. between I(a) and

I(b). Leave a space of at least three lines after your completed answers to each whole question.

Write your answers on the separate answer paper provided.

If you use more than one sheet of paper. fasten the sheets together.

INFORMATION FOR CANDIDATES

The number of marks is given in brackets [] at the end of each question or part question.

You are advised to spend 1 hour 30 minutes on Section A and 30 minutes on Section B.

Mistakes in spelling, punctuation and grammar may be penalised in any part of the Paper.

32. This question paper consists of 7 printed pages and 1 blank page.

SJF683 QF8562713 [Turn over

Read the following passage carefully before you attempt any questions.

Answer **all** the questions. You are recommended to answer them in the order set.

Mistakes in spelling. punctuation and grammar may be penalised in any part of the paper.

Section A

It was my love for Africa, above all. that led me to make another expedition to that great continent. By the spring. of 1946. I had assembled the equipment and personnel I needed to make another film of its wildlife. At the same time, I was anxious to discover what had happened to the Africa I had last seen at the beginning of the Second World War. I planned my route carefully because I could 5 not afford any errors leading to disappointments.

2 We had an uneventful time travelling through the Congo to Leopoldville. and then travelled north to the Huri forest, where we aimed to film some gorillas. Here we would bid farewell to the Congo and set off on the approximately 1,600 kilometres drive to Kenya, for I had saved the plains of East Africa - and they're most exciting 10 game - for the climax of my film.

3 It was an impressive journey: the landscape constantly changed as we wound up through the Huri forest and then gradually made our way down to the plains of Rwanda. Up we climbed again through the hilly country to Uganda, and finally reached the shores of Lake *Victoria*. It was here that the sad truth began to dawn 15 upon me. What had happened to the game which previously had been so abundant, and which I had come all this way to film?

4 We skirted the shores of Lake Victoria and headed east, to the great depression of the Rift *Valley*. This had always boasted the richest wildlife of all, yet there was nothing to see save a few lonely zebra or Thomson's gazelle, an occasional giraffe 20 and, now and then, half a dozen ostriches. I had no idea what could have happened. We drove slowly down the valley, searching for animals that had been here only a few years before. We searched in vain. There was nothing but emptiness and silence. The few animals we saw were, surely, the survivors of some massive disaster. 25

The final lap of our journey lay towards Nairobi. I halted our trucks as we climbed up out of the Rift *Valley* to take one last look at the extremely depressing lifeless floor of the plain below. Nearby, an elderly man was attending to his van. Suddenly he looked up. I went over to him and, after the usual exchange of greetings, tried to find an explanation to the present state of affairs. 30

6 He told me that during the Second World War, detention camps were set up in Kenya for Italian prisoners of war from Ethiopia and Somalia. Some official had argued that since the prisoners had to be fed, it made good economic sense to supply them with meat from slaughtered game. For anyone with the instinct for really large-scale butchery, this offered the chance of a lifetime. Furthermore, the 35 game wardens were away at the war, and thus the troops stationed in the area shot the wild animals at will, as a pastime. Consequently, buck, zebra, giraffe and ostrich, all fell to the gunfire of machine guns and army rifles. I was so depressed that I thought there was no point in going on with my filming activities. What I had viewed as the climax of my journey seemed to have turned into its epitaph. 40

|
, | 1122'2 (Zyl S9(!

However, I later began to realise that the precarious position of the wildlife made work by people like myself more important than ever. If there was any hope in preserving the wildlife left, people outside Africa had to be told what was happening there. Attempts to reduce further threats to the animals could be set in motion urgently. But how could this be done? After some hard thinking, I accepted that zoos 45

provided part of the answer. Yet I was hurt by the cruelty and senseless destruction that often goes on when wild animals are brought into captivity. For instance, virtually the only method of capturing a young rhino was to shoot the mother and hope that her offspring would be hardy enough to make the journey to a distant sanctuary. Roughly four rhinos would be sacrificed to get one to its destination. 50

8 I therefore thought of a way of capturing a mother rhino without this steady toll. I would follow it in a truck, and then, using a stout rope, throw a lasso over its head. The chief problem was the sheer strength of the creature. It was alarming. Also, her maternal instincts made her highly aggressive. As I had absolutely no experience in handling such an animal, I sought advice from some local professional big-game 55 trappers.

9 "Have you ever tried lassoing a mother rhino?" I asked one of them. He looked at me, shook his head and gazed into the distance.

"If you used a strong rope, you could surely stop her breaking away," I suggested. I saw his eyes sparkle a little and in his guttural voice mixed with mirth he replied: 60 "You could stop her breaking away all right, but if you lassoed her from a truck, she would just smash it into pieces."

He glanced at me quickly and walked away, unwilling to discuss the subject any further. The message to me was clear: I was not going to get any help from professional hunters. Clearly, the dangers to myself and those with me were very 65 real. But I was far from being discouraged: the challenge spurred me on. The more I thought about the matter, the more convinced I became that there must be some practical way of lassoing a rhino.

,1:) Finally, I had an idea. We would still use our truck, but inside would be a heavy log

tied to the end of our rope. Once the noose of the lasso was over the head of the 70 rhino, the log would come tumbling down from the truck and slow the rhino immediately. In the event of an attack by the rhino, the truck would accelerate away safely. I also realised that we would need two trucks. The first would carry the team that would charge and lasso the rhino, and the second would carry our film crew and some helpers. 75

11 After some experiments, I discovered that it would be best to charge the rhino upon sight. This would frighten her into headlong flight, reduce her powers of manoeuvrability, and allow us to carry on pursuing her until we got the noose over the rhino's head. Once we had done so, we could drive away to a safe distance and wait until the rhino became exhausted from struggling with the log. We could then 80 repeat the lassoing, with another log attached to the second rope. Once we had two nooses over her head, her capture should be almost complete. Our helpers from the film truck would then be called. About half a dozen of them would move in and grab at the two ropes and tie the rhino down. But there would be no room for any errors throughout the whole of our operations. 85

Adapted from *On Safin* by Armand Oenus pushed by Reader's Doges.

34

112212 III 598 **[Turn over**

Answer the questions. You are recommended to answer them in the order set.

From paragraph 1:

1 (a) Give the chief reason why the writer undertook his expedition to Africa in 1946.

[1]

From paragraph 2:

(b) (I) 'uneventful' (line 7). What does this word tell you about the journey to Leopoldville? [1]

(if) The writer mentions two projects for his film on wildlife in Africa. What were they?

[2]

(d) (I) Why was the writer surprised to see only a few *animals* in the Rift Valley?

(II) What did he imagine had reduced their numbers so drastically?

{1J

(1]

From 'paragraph 3,

(c) The writer describes how they journeyed through the Huri forest and then moved on to

Uganda. What two details of his description tell us it was a *slow* journey? [2]

From paragraph 4:

From paragraph 6:

2 (8) The writer later learns the truth about the large-scale destruction of the wild animals. What

two reasons do he give in this paragraph for this destruction? [2J

(b) The writer says that 'the *climax* of my journey seemed to have turned into its *epitaph*'. Explain

what he is saying here, paying particular attention to the words in italics. [2J

From paragraph 7:

(c) The writer realised that the work he was doing in making his film was 'more important than

ever'. In what two ways was it 'more important'? [2]

(d) The writer feels that the zoos can involve 'senseless destruction' in the capture of young

rhinos. Write down one word that he uses later in the paragraph which echoes 'senseless

destruction'. [1]

From the passage as a whole:

(e) Choose five of the following words or phrases. For each of them, give one word or short

phrase (of not more than seven words) which has the same meaning that the word or phrase

has in ~he passages.

1 dawn upon (lines 15-16)

2 abundant (line 16)

3 skirted (line 18)

4 in vain (line 23)

5 precarious (line 41)

6 virtually (line 48)

7 sanctuaries (line 50)

8 discouraged (line 66) [5]

-,

Part of the passage describes how the author tried to devise a better method of capturing wildlife.

Write a summary of his plans for the capture of a rhino, pointing out the problems he would face

and how he planned to overcome them.

USE ONLY THE MATERIAL FROM LINE 51 TO THE END OF THE PASSAGE,

Your summary, which should be in continuous writing (not note form), must not be longer than **160**

words, including the 10 words given below. Begin your summary as follows:

My idea of how to capture a rhino was to ...

112212 III see [1\mover

[20]

36

Section B

Answer all the questions.

You should not spend more than 30 minutes on this section.

4 listed below are five situations which are described briefly. Read the description of each situation

carefully and then answer the questions which follow, briefly.

(a) You do very well in your mid-year examinations. Two different teachers write the following

comments on your report:

(I) "A surprising performance, I feel."

(iwi) "Well done! Keep it up!"

What is the teacher's attitude in each case to your efforts?

Number your answers separately, (I) and (Ii). [2]

(b) Your class is making a noise. A prefect walks in and orders you to keep quiet, but trips and

knocks her forehead against the wall as she goes out. You say:

(I) "You haven't hurt yourself, have you?"

(II) "Who is going to be punished for that, then?"

In each case, say how the prefect would feel. Number your answers separately, (I) and (ii). [2]

(c) One day you ask your parents' permission to go and study with your friend in the evenings.

Your father remarks:

(I) "What a good idea! You ought to get a lot of work done together."

(Ii) "All right, but I hope you get a lot of work done."

In each case, say what your father's reaction is to your request. Number your answers separately, (I) and (II). [2]

(d) You are walking in the school grounds when you meet the school Head, accompanied by one

of your classmates.

You greet the Head with:

You greet your classmate with:

'Good afternoon, Sir.'

'Hi, James.'

What makes you greet each of them in this way? Number your answers separately, (I) and (iwi). [2]

Appendix. J-2: Author's image of 1999 Exam Paper

ZIMBABWE SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL
in collaboration with
UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE LOCAL EXAMINATIONS SYNDICATE
General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level
ENGLISH LANGUAGE
PAPER 2
1122/2

Wednesday 9 JUNE 1999 Afternoon 2 hours

Additional materials:

Answer paper

TIME 2 hours

INSTRUCTIONS TO CANDIDATES

Write your name, Centre number and candidate number in the spaces provided on the answer paper/
answer booklet.

Answer all questions;

Leave a space of one line between your answers to each part of a question, e.g. between 1(a) and

1(b). Leave a space of at least three lines after your completed answer to each whole question.

Write your answers on the separate answer paper provided.

If you use more than one sheet of paper, fasten the sheets together.

INFORMATION FOR CANDIDATES

The number of marks is given in brackets [] at the end of each question.

You are advised to spend 1 hour 30 minutes on Section A and 30 minutes on Section B.

Mistakes in spelling, punctuation and grammar may be penalised in any part of the Paper.

9007

S8 (SM) QF91765/3

©ZSEC 1999

This question paper consists of 7 printed pages and 1 blank page.

[Turn over

2

Section A

Read the following passage very carefully before you attempt any questions. Answer **all** the

questions. You are advised to answer them in the order set. Mistakes in spelling, punctuation and grammar may be penalised in any part of the paper.

1 The green banks of the river Torrens, which meanders through Adelaide, the South Australian capital, are a favourite place for Sunday walkers and cyclists. Surrounded by landscaped gardens, the Torrens looks placid but is actually quite dangerous. The river is up to 1! i. metres wide ND nearly five metres deep in places. The water from nearby storm drains and thick, black sediment deposited on the river bed have made the river's water murky. The Torrens is also surprising d, especially at the bottom. Several lives have already been lost in its waters, in spite of frequent signs forbidding swimming there.

2 Tony and his children walked down this river bank one Sunday afternoon. "There's a good spot for a picnic," Tony shouted, pointing towards a shady tree on 10 a narrow stretch of the bank.

Father and children walked to the tree on the grassy bank sloping steeply down towards the river. Tony surveyed the place and nodded with silent action as he strapped baby Anthony into his push-chair. A faint crackling sound made him glance up and he saw his son Dominic and three-year-old sister Isabel running 15 towards ducks at the foot of the grassy bank.

3 "Hey, children, get back!" he yelled.

Hastily propping the push-chair behind the tree and setting the brake, he dashed after the children and pulled them back from the river's edge. "Not so close," he warned. 20

4 Unseen behind him, Anthony began bouncing up and down in his push-chair, jiggling it forward centimetre by centimetre. Gleeful at his progress, he pumped his sturdy legs harder; the push-chair slewed round and faced downhill. Though the brakes had been set on, the plastic wheels began sliding down the smooth grassy bank. 25

5 "Daddy, look at Anthony!" Isabel screamed.

Tony swung round and saw his son sailing over the edge of the river bank. "No!" Tony shouted frantically, and dived into the water just as Anthony's head sank. The cold water slapped at Tony like a physical blow and he screamed out militarily. "Someone help me! My son is drowning." 30

At the back of his mind he remembered seeing a family camped a short distance away. He desperately hoped that they had heard his scream.

6 They had. Tony's piercing cry had cut through the family chatter. One of the men, Thai Le, yelled "Something's wrong!" and, as if on cue, all the men in the group sprinted towards Tony. When he drew closer, Thai Le saw Tony still in the water, 35 clutching at the river bank, his eyes wide with panic. Thai Le leapt into the water, followed by three of the other men. One stayed on the bank.

"Spread out!" called the man on the bank. He was going to direct the rescue operation.

7 Still clutching the bank, Tony suddenly realised that someone should call for a 40 ambulance.

"Does anyone have a phone?" he blurted out, more to himself than to the men around him.

9007 112212 S99

3

The man on the bank tossed him a mobile phone. Attached to his belt, it had been forgotten in the rush to rescue the child. Now Tony, with fumbling fingers, dialled 45 the emergency number, praying the device would work. It did. Immediately, emergency help was on its way.

Meanwhile, Thai Le was swimming around in search of the child. He had never seen such murky water before. He could not see his own hand in front of his face. After some minutes and several exhausting dives, it seemed as if the river had swallowed the child. "Time's running out," thought Thai Le. He and his friends had been brought up as children by the sea and all were expert divers. They had often dived for mud crabs and had saved three children on different occasions from a watery grave. They all knew that a child without oxygen for five minutes would probably not survive. Anthony must have been under water longer than that. "It's 55 hopeless. It's easy to miss a child in this inky blackness," Thai Le thought.

Just then, one of the men in the water pointed to a patch that had already been searched.

"I thought I felt something hard there. Perhaps it was the push-chair. Dive again over there," he urged, his weak voice brimming (fitting) exhaustion. He and his friends had been diving continually for some time; Tunes now, and the chill waters at the bottom of the river had taken their toll. It seemed that only Thai Le had enough strength left for another dive, but he, too, was near the limit of endurance.

"I have only one dive left in me," he warned. As he swam to the spot, Thai Le looked towards the bank. Tony had hauled himself out of the river, and half-mad with grief was clutching his tear-stained daughter Isabel. Nearby, Thai Le's own son and daughter clung together, their faces pale with anxiety. "What if it were one of my own family?" he thought. Then he vanished under water. He spiralled to the bottom and ended blind, his failing to

locate anything, he could feel panic welling up inside him. He began to feel that the child was indeed lost and grew even more desperate: Finally, almost out of air, he returned to the surface. As he did so, his leg brushed against something.

"What was that?" he cried out and found himself holding a soft tiny fin.

"The boy! I heard!" he cried out and touched the frame of a pushchair.

The boy reached out and held him. The child was strapped in.

12 Seizing the handles, he heaved the push-chair free of the mud and pulled it upwards. With his chest almost bursting, Thai Le shouldered the push-chair over his head and struggled to surface. At the surface, Thai Le felt his oxygen-starved muscles go slack. Never had he been submerged for so long. He began to sink backwards slowly, his blacking out, his grip on the push-chair loosening. One more last thrust, he told himself. 13 At the river's edge, Tony was mumbling incoherently. No one spoke. All eyes were

on the water. Everyone began to fret for Thai Le's life. He'd been down all too long. Suddenly, a commotion on the surface of the river snapped their heads round. The push-chair, held aloft by two brown arms, surged almost entirely from the water.

"Anthony!" Tony yelled and lunged forward to grab the push-chair.

The men on the bank reached out to Thai Le who had slumped back into the river.

As he was lifted from the water, he saw Tony releasing little Anthony from the push-chair. Thai Le smiled, and with a sigh of relief collapsed into his helpers' arms. {;J 7

9

11

-I

85

Adapted from *Beneath the Cold, Cold River* by Jim Hutchison, published by Reader's Digest 1996

9007 112212 S99 [Turn over

4

Answer all the questions. You are recommended to answer them in the order set.

From paragraph 1:

1 (a) (i) How can you tell that the banks of the river Torrens were popular? [1]

(ii) The river is actually quite dangerous. Give the two main reasons that make it dangerous. . . • '> [2]

(iii) Why is it *particularly* surprising that people have been drowned in its waters? [1]

From paragraph 2:

1 (b) What unforeseen danger lay in the spot Tony had chosen? [1]

From paragraph 3:

1 (c) From the evidence in this paragraph, what made Tony hastily prop the push-chair behind the tree? [1]

From paragraph 4:

1 (d) Anthony started the push-chair moving forward. Explain fully why the brakes failed to hold it after that. [2]

From paragraph 5:

1 (e) Tony cried out "No!" frantically when he saw the push-chair disappear. What happened next that would have made him even more frantic? [1]

[Total: 9 marks]

From paragraph 6:

2 (a) (i) From this paragraph quote phrase of four consecutive words which shows that all the men ran towards any at the same time. - [1]

~

(ii) What evidence in this paragraph shows that Tony

1. feared for his life
2. feared for his son's life?

Number your answers 1 and 2. [2]

From paragraph 9:

2 (b) One of the men in the water suggests to Thai Le that he should dive down again for one last look. Using your own words, give two reasons why this man was unable to dive again himself. [2]

From paragraph 10:

2 (e) Thai Le catches sight of his own son and daughter watching from the bank. Explain in your own words how this might have prompted him to make one final dive. 1]

9007 112212 599

5

From the whole passage:

2 (d) Choose five of the following words or phrases. For each of them give one word or short

phrase (of not more than seven words) which has the same meaning that the word or phrase

has in the passage.

1. placid (line 3)
2. surveyed (line 13)
3. involuntarily (line 29)
4. expert (line 52)
5. betraying (line 60)
6. limit (line 63)
7. welling up (line 70)
8. commotion (line 84)

[Total: 11 marks]

1/3 Part of the passage describes how Thai Le rescued a drowning child.

~ ...=.

Write a summary of the difficulties he faced in carrying out the rescue, the fears he had for the child and how he eventually rescued the boy.

USE ONLY THE MATERIAL FROM LINE 48 TO THE END OF THE PASSAGE.

Your summary, which must be in continuous writing (not note form), must not be longer than 160

words, including the 10 words given below.

Begin your summary as follows:

The water was so murky that Thai Le could not ... [Total: 20 marks]

r

9007 112212 S99 [Turn over

[5]

6

Section B

Answer all the questions. You should not spend more than 30 minutes on this section.

4 Listed below are FIVE situations which are described briefly. Read each carefully and then

answer the questions which follow, BRIEFLY.

(a) You arrive home suddenly from school, complaining of stomach pains.

(i) Your father says: "What is it this time?"

(ii) Your brother says: "It must have been something you had for lunch. You'll feel better

soon."

What is the attitude of each of them?

(W <... \

I I..., I c. • i-...

(i) your father

(ii) your brother?

Number your answers separately, (i) and (ii). [2]

(b) Your school soccer team loses a match against another local school. As editor of the school

magazine, you receive the following comments from two contributors:

(i) "We were unlucky."

(ii) "We were demolished."

What does each comment reveal about the performance of your team? Number your answers

separately, (i) and (ii). [2]

(c) One of your friends is finding Mathematics very difficult. He tells you about it. You say:

(i) "Why don't you drop it?"

(ii) "Why don't you ask your teacher for help? I've heard he's very understanding."

In each case say what your friend's reaction will be to your reply. Number your answers separately, (i) and (ii). [2]

(d) Your uncle asks his employer for a pay rise. The employer says: "What makes you think you

deserve a pay rise?"

Give two different reasons for the employer to say this. Number your answers separately, (i)

Appendix-J-3. Author's general comments about the 1998 English Language Paper

APPENDIX-J-3—

MONTH AND YEAR OF EXAMINATION : JUNE 1998
SUBJECT CODE NUMBER : 1122/02
SUBJECT NAME : ENGLISH LANGUAGE

GENERAL COMMENTS

The subject of this year's passage, an expedition to Africa for the love of Africa and for the purpose of making a film on its wildlife was quite accessible. Although not a very exciting passage, it made easy reading as both the content and vocabulary were within the candidates' home and learning experience.

The questions on the passage were varied and carefully graded from those demanding simple recall to the more challenging inferential ones. Candidates just needed to read, analyse and understand the demands of each question.

COMMENTS ON INDIVIDUAL QUESTIONS

- 1a(i) As an opening question it successfully functioned as a morale booster. Almost all candidates got it correct. The few who failed to get it could not isolate "the chief reason" which was his love for Africa, from the other reasons given.
- b(i) "Uneventful". This was a lexical item and the majority of candidates failed it because the word was inaccessible to them. The common answer here was "boring" or "tedious" instead of the correct, "uninteresting" or any of its synonyms.
- (ii) Most candidates did not mention the two projects in full. Some candidates even gave the answer as "the gorillas were playing exciting games" which was unacceptable and the rest just said gorillas or game without the word "filming".
- c. Since the question did not demand "own words", the candidates simply lifted lines 12-14 which had the "two details" required and got away with it.
- d(i) The time reference, "used to boast of" was not effected in some candidates' answers and as a result they ended up getting the answer wrong by saying: The valley boasted the richest wildlife", instead of: "The valley had boasted the richest wildlife before".

Q3. SUMMARY

The candidates found the summary quite easy since most of them especially those with a rural background, are familiar with lassoing animals. It was not a selective summary and the sequence of events was not insisted on. Besides, the "agent" presented no particular problems this time. However, none of the candidates scored point 10 as it needed candidates to infer that "they would leave the back of the truck open" for the log to come tumbling down from the truck. Candidates who performed poorly in the summary, and they were very few such, are those who wrote as if the plans were actions already done by the narrator. In other words, they used the "past tense" instead of the conditional. There was a general improvement in mechanical accuracy especially in spelling. Even the spelling of "lassoing" presented no problems. Teachers ought to be congratulated on the effort they seem to have been putting in this area. However, the following few misspellings occurred frequently: "advise" for "advice"; "professional" for "profession"; "accelarate" for "accelerate".

The commonest grammatical errors were: wrong use of the apostrophe, fusion of words, omission of a comma after an initial adverb or adverbial phrase/clause and before a participial phrase, faulty sequence of tenses in the same sentence, use of a small letter for a capital letter or vice versa. Cohesive devices are still restricted to "and" and "then". All these errors or shortcomings point to the need to make it standard practice in language lessons to teach grammar formally so that candidates are fully aware of the rules of the language.

Q4 SECTION B:

The June paper's section B was very similar to the 1997 June one in that it demanded the candidate's ability to discriminate between "attitude", "feelings" and "reactions".

4a(ii) candidates who lost the mark here gave weak answers like "happy" "glad" instead of strong adjectives like "delighted, encouraged, pleased".

4b(i) and (ii) were easy except that some candidates gave in (i) "comfortable" instead of "comforted" and in (ii) "ashamed" for "embarrassed".

4c(i) and (ii) The idea of the father being "supportive" and "doubtful" respectively was got right by most candidates.

4d(i)(ii) Both scored by the majority.

- 4(e) Most candidates found this item very difficult. They seemed not to have grasped what they were supposed to do with the words. As a result some simply gave back any of the four words in the list without pairing them with those that naturally go together correctly, the words should have been paired thus:

- | | | | |
|-------|------------|---|------------|
| (i) | profession | - | colleague |
| (ii) | associate | - | company |
| (iii) | accomplice | - | crime |
| (iv) | journey | - | companion. |

RECOMMENDATIONS

The following suggestions are intended to improve the teachers' performance in the classroom with the ultimate aim of improving the performance of the candidate.

- Lay- (x)out of work as given in the instructions on the very first page of the question paper makes the candidate's work easy to follow as it ensures each part of a question is answered separately from the other. A situation where answers run into each other is most confusing to the marker and may result in errors being made which can disadvantage the candidates.
- Teachers need to establish an ongoing vocabulary development program to help students prepare for vocabulary questions as found in question number 2 of their English paper. Most crucial is the use of context clues to determine the meaning of an unfamiliar word. For teachers particularly interested in extending the work in word analysis, their attention is drawn to "Word Clues: Textbook - Workbook in Word Study and Vocabulary Building", by Amsel Greene (Harper & Row Publishers inc).
- Another area of concern for teachers to pay attention to, is use of "connectives" or linking words. As it is now, the only connectives the candidates have recourse to are: "and" and "then", yet most textbooks in use in the schools have a whole section or sections on connectives. It would be a good idea for a teacher to list connectives for his or her students according to function.

For examples those implying (i) addition (ii) comparison, (iii) concession, (iv) conclusion (v) contrast, (vi) emphasis .etc. "English for Communication Book 2" by Burford Hurry (College Press) has a very good section on connectives or linking words. Use of these will greatly enhance the continuous flow of the summary in question number 3.

If teachers continue with the war against spelling errors and frequently give spelling tests the battle can be won.

A concerted effort to ensure correct punctuation is needed. The most commonly misused punctuation mark is a comma. It is often incorrectly used for a full stop. Another common error of punctuation is omission of a comma after an initial adverb, or before participial phrases. All these are dealt with in the textbooks used in the schools.

Teachers also need to emphasise to students that it is a serious error to mix up two different tenses in the same sentence.

Subject and verb agreement is also another problem area. Practice and testing exercises given frequently will improve performance in this regard.

In short, to you all teachers out there, the grammar lesson whether formally or informally taught must have a slot on the weekly English timetable to deal with these common errors and improve performance in the English Language examination at this level.

IMC.WP51/DATE/1122-02.J98

APPENDIX-J-4

Level of Examination : 'O' Level *International*
 Month and Year of Examination : June 1999 *of Speech & Language Pathology and Au*
 Subject Code : 1122/02 *(1) AP 52-62*
 Subject Name : English Language

GENERAL COMMENTS

Examiners expressed the opinion that the passage was interesting and within the experience of a wide range of candidates. The language, though often subtle, was accessible. The questions asked covered a wide range of demand, resulting in a fair spread of marks but with very few in the extreme ranges of the scale. This was probably due more to the candidature rather than to any particular elements within the questions.

COMMENTS ON INDIVIDUAL QUESTIONSQuestion 1

- (a)(i) A straightforward question generally well answered. There are some areas where weaker candidates create problems for themselves e.g including information that is not specific to the answer required. Other candidates attempted to find synonyms for "~~Sunday walkers and cyclists~~". Where an unsuitable substitute is used in place of the original term, the candidate cannot be credited as having answered satisfactorily. Candidates should be trained to use the words of the passage where appropriate, unless expressly forbidden to do so.
- (ii) A testing item that required candidates to sift carefully through the available information. The mere width of a river is not in itself a danger. When other factors such as the "surprising cold" and the "murky" nature of the water are added, then the river becomes a potential death trap. Most candidates were able to score at least one mark. A large number of candidates opted to offer all four possible answers in different formats and hoped for the best. In most cases, unfortunately, such candidates end up not scoring any mark.
- (iii) The word "surprisingly" in the question was in italics and was intended as a pointer to the focus of the test item. It would be helpful if teachers could spend time on the wording of questions and how these questions have been influenced by the vocabulary in the passage. In this instance-" in spite of frequent signs"- would have created the surprise that people still drown in the waters of the river. The key word is "frequent", as a mere one or two signs would not have been deterrent enough.

- (b) A difficult item requiring inference in the section asking for two reasons and then use of own words. Since the answer was not offered, the candidates then had to ascertain key words not to be repeated in the answer. The very cold water in the river had affected the diver who had been searching under water without a break and was tired. A high-order question, appropriate at this part of the paper, which nicely separated the different abilities.
- (c) This would have been a give away if not for the 'in your own words' requirement. Thai Le's consideration that Anthony could have been one of his own children prompted him to make one final dive. Again, the inability to substitute key words, resulted in loss of marks even where candidates were on the right track.
- (d) A wide range of abilities were exhibited in this section. The key to obtaining marks in this section begins with candidates making correct choices of the items on offer. Secondly, it is the contextual meaning rather than the literal that is required. Markers in the passage can often give clues to the subtle nuances of vocabulary items e.g. " ... the Torrens looks placid but is actually quite dangerous," suggests that the word 'placid' is juxtaposed to 'dangerous'. Rather than 'still', 'harmless' or 'safe' are more effective in this regard. In the context of the story the word 'surveyed,' definitely does not relate to 'careful scrutiny' but more to a quick 'look around'. The term 'betrayed' was mostly understood in the very narrow context of spy thrillers or biblical reference. A quick reading of the sentence in which it occurs or line 60 would have shown that the usual "sell out" connotation was inappropriate. As mentioned earlier, the choice of items is important. 'Limit' was an option with, yes, a very limited number of synonyms. It is worthwhile to point out that some centres, often with a medium range of candidates perform extremely well in this section. The passage is a useful teaching aid with good examples of creative writing and a wide, advanced vocabulary. Spending some time on these aspects where words are used and studied contextually can only benefit all the prospective candidates.

Question 3

The summary question was very fair to all candidates. Although there were three demands i.e. difficulties during the rescue, fears he had for the child and how he eventually rescued the boy-most candidates appear to have been well coached and managed to isolate relevant details from the 6 paragraphs containing the information. Only in rare cases did the agent become confused with other characters in the story. However, it was quite common to have the sequence mixed up with the child first being rescued, then the divers organising themselves to attempt the rescue. This layout is wildly out of sequence and as such cannot be credited for the mere presentation of a point where it is irrelevant. This type of error can be eliminated by careful removal of the passage and identification of

Those candidates who prepared their drafts well were richly rewarded and there is evidence that this aspect of the examination is being taught thoroughly. Notwithstanding, there are areas that require improvement. Candidates tended to take the words directly from the passage rather than attempt to tackle the demands in the rubric e.g instead of "he/Thai le located the child", virtually every candidate quoted, "He reached out and found himself holding a soft tiny finger". The use of the former expression has obvious advantages in the light of rubric requirements and shows that a candidate opting to explain the incident that way has made a careful analysis of the said action and interpreted it satisfactorily. Illegible handwriting, inconsistent script, mis-spelling and grammatical inaccuracy are the other areas raising concern.

Question 4

This area of the paper has become more varied and innovative. Examiners felt that many candidates tend to regurgitate responses they have used while training for the examination. A disappointing number of candidates failed to address themselves to the situations and questions. Evidence would suggest that some candidates did not read the situations at all. This is surprising as all situations tend to be true to life and any reader would be able to relate to them.

- (a) Extreme responses suggesting cruelty by the father or sensitivity by the brother are far fetched. A realistic explanation would have the father being unsympathetic or sceptical while the sibling would be concerned and sympathetic.
- (b) A question that was answered satisfactorily by most candidates. It was suggested that the concepts of bias and propaganda which are analyzed in empathetic history syllabi may have helped in this area.
- (c) In many cases the focus of the answer was directed to the wrong person. The friend's reaction is being sought, not the speaker's intentions and/or reaction. Another case of candidates not spending sufficient time in reading and analyzing the specific requirement. Furthermore, the responses to item (i) do not have to be direct opposites of item (ii).
- (d) The two reasons given must be different. The different emphasis and tone used in reading would also help to portray the employer's slant in asking the question. He could be asking your uncle to justify his request for a pay rise while, on the other hand, a change in tone would imply that your uncle was undeserving of a pay rise. This is an area that would improve if more time and analysis was spent on it.
- (e) A good question to test appropriate register. While the weakest candidates had no idea of what was required, most candidates were able to gain marks on the more obvious items.

In conclusion, the paper was fair and wide ranging in its demands; the sort of paper that can be used as a useful training tool. It was evident that adequate and relevant teaching and training is taking place and now attention to the finer detail needs to be emphasized. The discussion in this paper is intended to reinforce the teaching and training already taking place. If it hoped that some useful hints can be gleaned from the report, especially to help the candidates who have shown great effort and direction in their responses and only need fine tuning to achieve success.

TM/C:/WP51/DATA1/1122-2-J.RPT

APPENDIX J 5-A-An author's example of line by line coding

An example of line by line coding analysis, Charmaz (2009) called a heuristic device to understand data a way of getting into data was used. This was a laborious exercise that needed time. It was process used to break down and examine the data. Each transcript was analysed line by line by isolating the focus of the sentence and noting it in the allocated margin of the transcript page on the computer. The core ideas embedded in the sentences were copied and transferred to a new page and closely examined. Line-by-line coding facilitated the asking of salient questions such as *what is going on. What is the meaning of this?* etc. Line-by-line coding made me think more about the participants' responses; thus painting a rough picture of what was happening in the data rest during intervals. Markers and highlighters of varying colours were adopted for the coding process. The researcher adapted in-vivo coding and this term refers to categories named by words people themselves used.

Data analysis

4.8.1. Question: Do you have a notebook for doing reports on books you read at the library?

"No, I don't have a notebook because I don't think it is important to me... we read for fun so there is no sense in doing reports

At school, we do not have a library so we have to look for places with public libraries in the area

I don't write these reports because I don't think it's important to me.

I read books my father brings me home because we don't have one at school.

I don't see any good in reading library books I just read biology because I want pass.

Why should I report on books I read?

I read books for fun... not to be tested as teachers do with comprehension.

Yes, I do borrow or read books at the library around because our school has no library."

4.8.2. Question: What problems do you encounter when you do reading-comprehension in your daily exercises?

Most often I don't understand the meanings of words to use when answering reading-comprehension questions.

I look for such words from my own language and translate them.

I don't like it because most often I don't understand the meanings of words to use when answering reading-comprehension questions.”

“I don't enjoy being given passages I don't understand and I don't like answering questions at the end.

I don't like reading-comprehension; it's difficult for me; I want to be properly taught.”

I sometimes become sick when I think too much about what to write when I do comprehension test

I'm usually unable to understand the sentences and sometimes I get my words wrong and mixed, although I can read but don't understand what I read.

I look for such words from my language and translate them

When I write comprehension I get many ideas and now when I get onto paper, I usually do not have the English expressions I had on ideas I had before, I wouldn't forget so quickly.

I don't like it because most often I don't understand the meanings of words to use when answering reading-comprehension questions.”

“Mine is difficult words whose meanings... I don't know I find such words in my own language.

The problem is that I don't know how to answer questions with answers that are not found in the passage...my first problem is with the words whose meanings I don't know... I sometimes find such words in my own language and use them.”

4.8.3. Question: Describe what you do when writing reading-comprehension in class

We read the passage before we answer any questions about the passage and then align some questions to answers from the passage.

“We read the passage and then discuss the questions as a class.

We break into groups to look at the new words... and then look at the questions in our books."

We read the passage in turns on after another.

We are given questions we answer as a test in our books.

We read a passage silently before we answer questions.

We discuss questions in class so that we get the idea of the answers we should give when we do the comprehension.

Sometimes our teacher asks us to work in groups about the passage.

4.8.4. Question: What does your teacher do in class to help you when you do reading-comprehension?

Teachers introduce the passage first; give us basic instructions about the lesson and passage for us to answer questions

The teachers visit us on our desks looking at what we will be writing and sometimes help us correct our work

Teachers tell students to read library books but the number of library books each teacher keeps is not enough for an entire class

First, they introduce the topic using book pictures, and let us brainstorm on comprehension questions that include comprehension levels: literal, interpretive, and applied/critical

We write the exercise in class; if don't finish we do that at home or in our own time and submit books for marking.

We sometimes work in pairs ...but due to lack of text books, we are forced to take turns reading a passage and pass on the text book to another student to read

They lecture to us about the passage we are going to answer questions on

4.8.5. Question: What type of comments do you get from your teachers after your reading-comprehension is marked?

"In addition to giving me marks... she says work hard on your grammar... She writes such comments as "Good, fair, Poor"..."

I like comments when they are good but I don't like bad comments written in my book."

"Comments like poor, fair, stupid answer, work hard are given... I don't like these comments because I feel very sad... when I get these comments such as 'poor, fair, stupid, work hard' and marks like 0/10' and 2/10 I become discouraged."

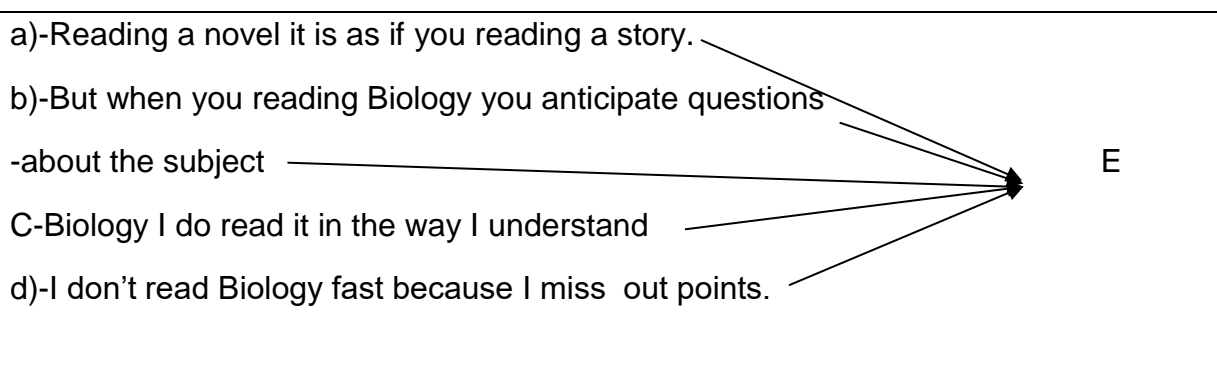
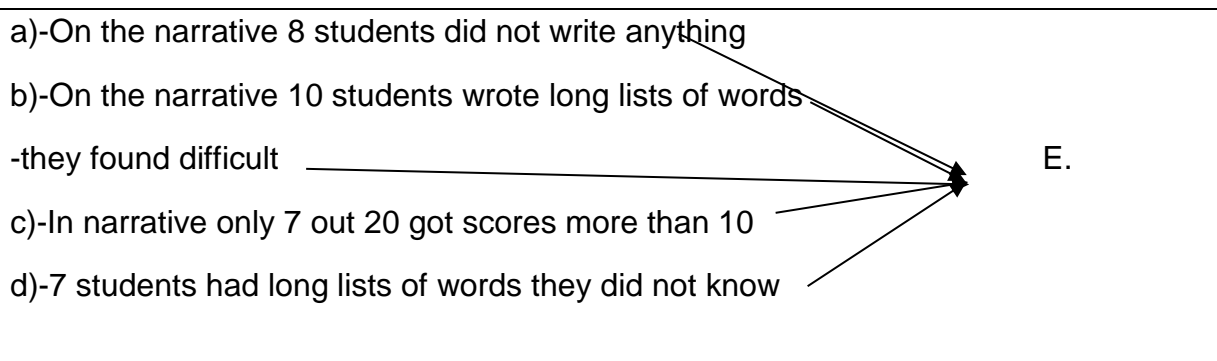
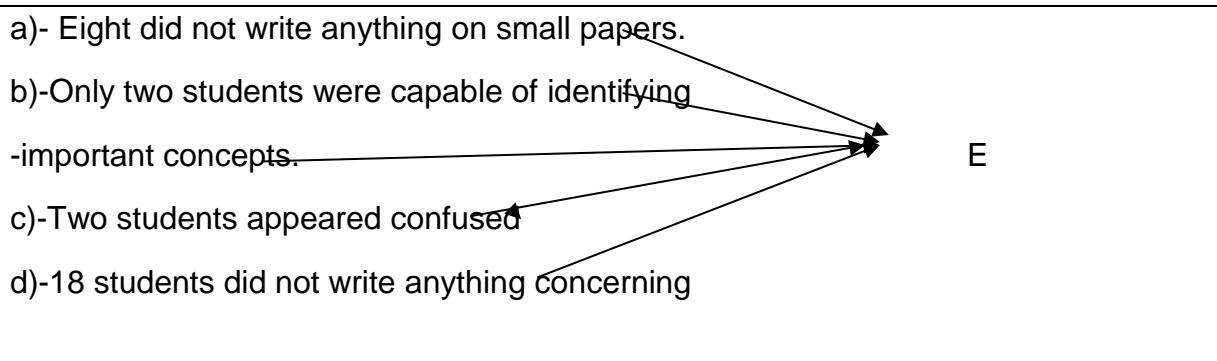
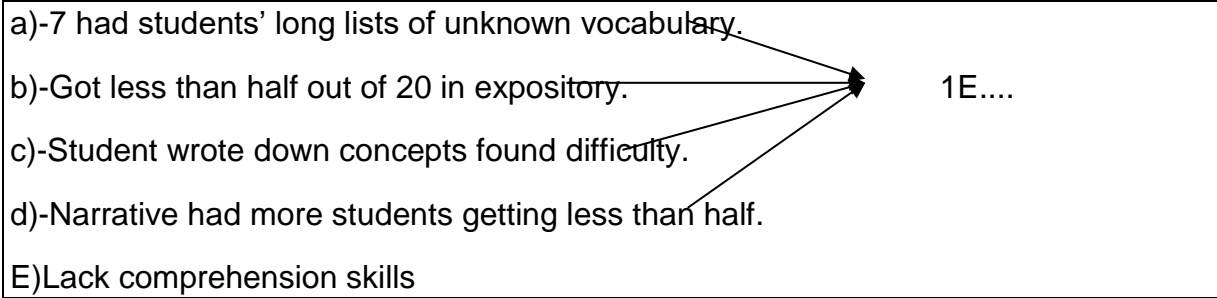
"She will not write bad comments in my book because I do well very excellent

I sometimes get comments such as 'poor, fair, stupid, work hard' and marks like 0/10' and 2/10 I become discouraged."

Our teachers sometimes refer to many of us as having low ability to tackle secondary school work as we are fresh from the primary school."

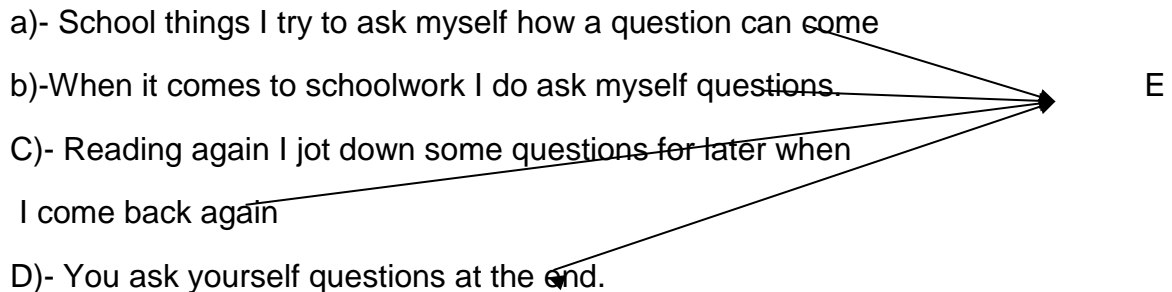
"Teachers blame many of our parents for failing to control or discipline us as many of you here friends, watch too much television at the expense of reading, and parents refer your disciplinary issues to the school."

APPENDIX J-5-B-Author's image showing line by line coding

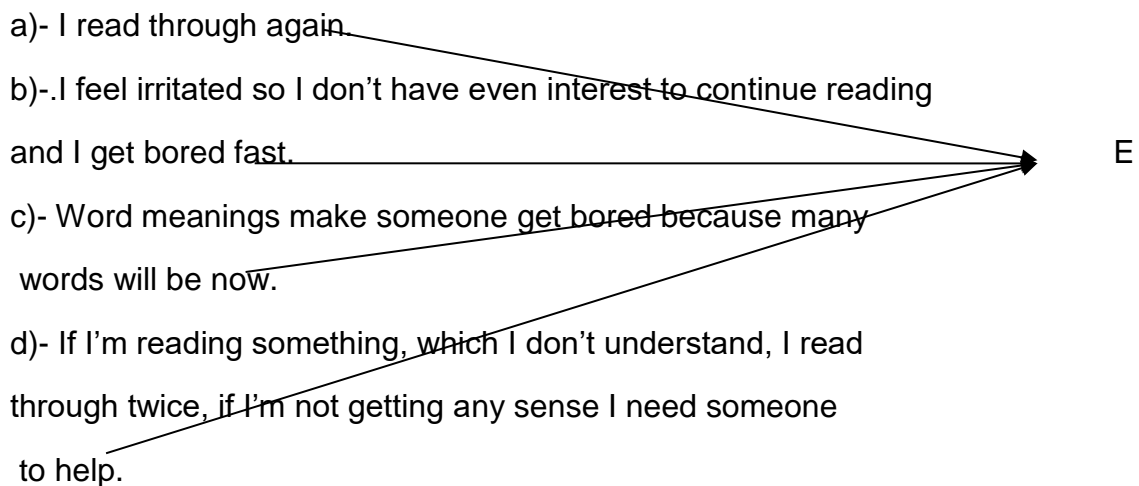


Appendix –J-6- Author’s image showing line by line coding

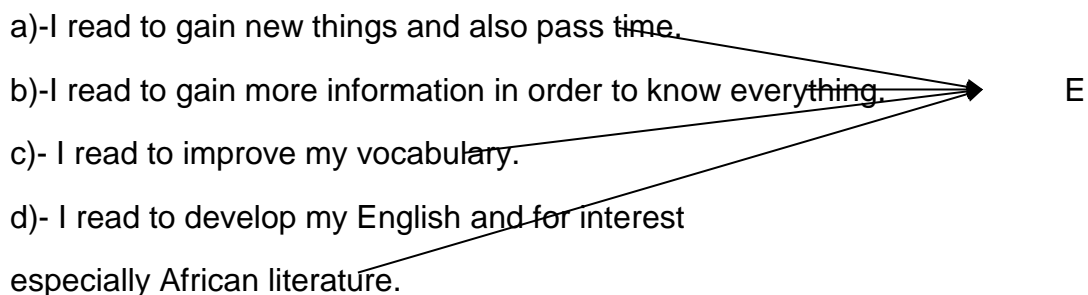
Do you ask yourself questions during reading?

- a)- School things I try to ask myself how a question can come
 - b)-When it comes to schoolwork I do ask myself questions.
 - C)- Reading again I jot down some questions for later when I come back again
 - D)- You ask yourself questions at the end.
- 
- The diagram shows four lines of text, each with an arrow pointing to a central 'E'. The arrows originate from the end of each line and converge on the 'E'.

What do you do when reading-comprehension is not successful:

- a)- I read through again
 - b)-.I feel irritated so I don't have even interest to continue reading and I get bored fast.
 - c)- Word meanings make someone get bored because many words will be now.
 - d)- If I'm reading something, which I don't understand, I read through twice, if I'm not getting any sense I need someone to help.
- 
- The diagram shows four lines of text, each with an arrow pointing to a central 'E'. The arrows originate from the end of each line and converge on the 'E'.

What is your reason for reading:

- a)-I read to gain new things and also pass time.
 - b)-I read to gain more information in order to know everything.
 - c)- I read to improve my vocabulary.
 - d)- I read to develop my English and for interest especially African literature.
- 
- The diagram shows four lines of text, each with an arrow pointing to a central 'E'. The arrows originate from the end of each line and converge on the 'E'.

Appendix J-7. FGD: Author's image showing line by line coding

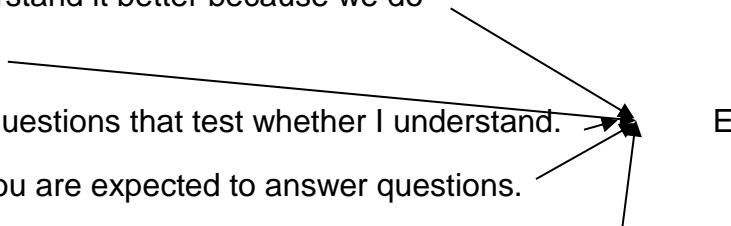
What do you understand about reading-comprehension:

a)-I read through it and understand it better because we do expect questions at the end.

b)-I read through and given questions that test whether I understand.

c)-After reading a passage you are expected to answer questions.

d)-Reading-comprehension is reading a passage then answer questions.



E

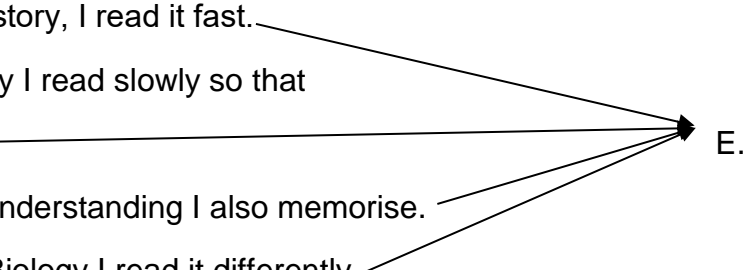
What do you do when approaching different texts.

a)-I change when I'm reading a story, I read it fast.

b)-Technical subjects like Biology I read slowly so that I can understand

c)-I can understand apart from understanding I also memorise.

d)-I read a novel differently but Biology I read it differently.



E.

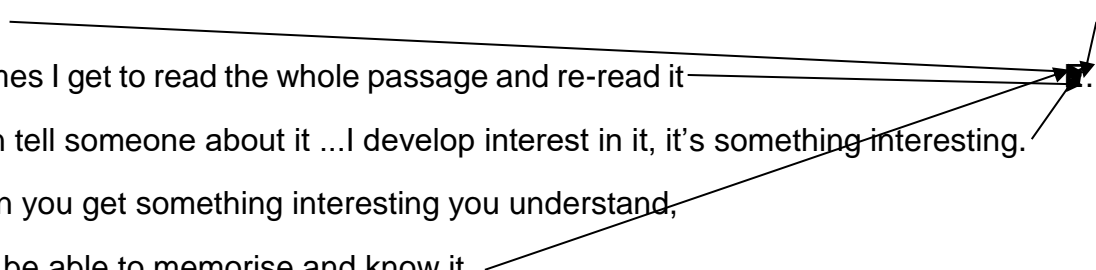
What do you do when you get a pass mark in reading-comprehension? :

a)-Well and good I answer the question and I know everything but I have to go through again.

b)-At times I get to read the whole passage and re-read it

c)- I can tell someone about it ...I develop interest in it, it's something interesting.

d)-When you get something interesting you understand, you will be able to memorise and know it.



Are you able to summarise what you read in reading-comprehension?

a)-You cannot be getting the words in the way they were used and so

-you use your own words using your own language.

b)-You explain to them what is written in your own words on the same topic.

c)- I ask myself questions to confirm and recall information.

d)- I have got little ones to it to them and it develops into lullaby.

E

What do you do to assist yourself to comprehend better what you read?

a)-I think about it and it depends on the type of words I know, and if you

-you do not understand you do not get it correct.

b)-If you are given a passage that will come maybe with words you don't know, you will not understand.

c)-I underline words if they are not known.

d)- I use common words e.g. either and neither, these make me remember automatically.

E

Appendix J-8- Interview data

a) "The inability of students to be imaginative and creative, in their comprehension writing coupled with poor writing ability, is real problems..."

b) Other challenges are lack of student exposure to extensive reading at home and at school and their reference to L1." [02-11-10]

c) "Because we do not have enough time although we would need more. I think more time should be added so that we are to do comprehension twice per week." [03-11-10]

d) "I have problems with comprehension writing because of the spelling and because I mix up the ideas in the passage." [08-11-10]

a) "Ini zvangu comprehension ino ndinetsa, ndinoda kunyatso dzidziswa. Handiide zvangu comprehension ino ndinetsa." I do not like comprehension it's difficult for me, I want to be properly taught. I don't like it, it's difficult for me [15-11-10].

b) "My main problem is spelling and I wish to be intelligent and get answers correct but I fail and make me hate it". [11-11-10]

c)Teacher 6: "I write comments about the children to write what they need to or where they have gone wrong.

d)Oh yes! Mr... I know children don't like negative comments but I have to because some of them begin to neglect their work as they learn.

e) No I have never given face to face feedback]that may be with your advice I'm going to start doing that because I think that will help me out of those lazy students." [03-11-10]

f) "If we are given one as a group, we first brainstorm; put down main points about the passages, and come up with answers to the passage. After that we write the answers in our books."

g) "Thinking too much about what to write makes me not feel well.

I'm not able to understand the passage I read and sometimes get my spellings wrong."

h) "Sometimes when I'm given a passage to read and answer questions, I panic I'm unable to write anything or write wrong answers."

Appendix-J-9- Interview Data

- a) "First of all I introduce the passage by referring to pictures if there is any
- b) let students brainstorm in class on how to answer the questions...then they work in groups or pairs to come up with some answers...
- c) then they read each other's answers to correct mistakes...
- d) if there is time, they write final answers in class in their exercise books as a test... otherwise, they finish up in their own time or at home."
- e) "I often give number grades and positive remarks are given however negative remarks are sometimes given
- f) ... but avoiding comments which leave children with low self-esteem e.g. comments such as poor, stupid etc...."
- g) "We use two double English periods once a week...
- h) Oh time is a problem when it comes to wanting students to do the right thing, we don't have time...
- i) I think more time should be added on this to improve the situation."
- jh) BC: "Sometimes when I'm given a passage to read and answer questions, I panic... and unable to write anything
- k) and I go back to my own language for translation
- ... and I'm told it's wrong
- l)... I don't like it because when I'm given passages to read and answer questions, I panic."
- m)GP: "Ini zvangu comprehension ino ndinetsa, ndinoda kunyatso dzidziswa. Handid zvangu comprehension inondinesta." Which translates in English as I don't like comprehension, it's difficult for me, I want to be properly taught. I don't like it, it's difficult for me.

a) "Reading the passage as a class teacher first... and this is followed by a discussion of the questions given in groups/pair discussions... then written work." [03-11-10]

b) The teachers' low remuneration also contributes to this. ;

c) the teacher referred to many students with low ability being admitted to secondary school from the primary as a result of the government's expansion in secondary school and automatic promotion in the system.

d) Lack of parental support: The teacher felt that many parents do not support their children towards their learning efforts and that they do not take enough interest. Students lack of motivation, and negative attitude to learning."

e) "Our parents fail to support us when we learn and also taking a general interest in our work:

f) Some of the teachers have always felt that many parents do not support us towards our learning efforts and that they do not take enough interest in our learning."

APPENDIX K1: Expository Comprehension

INSTRUCTIONS

Write your full name, gender and age in the spaces provided.

Name.....

Gender.....

Age.....

Read the passage carefully and answer the questions which follow

1 Sometime back, there was (and rightly so) a major public outcry over the growing incidences of child sexual abuse. Organised by the labour movement, people from different walks of life marched against the scourge. I remember people (men and women) dancing in indignation along with her song ‘*vitendeni*’ meaning “castrate them”. I did not join in for am against corporal punishment. It has not been proven anywhere that it is the solution or deterrent to violent crime. The public outcry is no longer that loud, but one has continued to try and follow what is happening in this matter.

2 Clearly, the scourge is not reducing, but subjectively one gets the sense that the police and our courts seem more alive to the matter as we see more and more arrests and some convictions in the courts of law. The sentences being meted out are longer and hence some stiffening of the penalty. This is good.

3 This problem may not be peculiar to Zambia but that does not seem to make it right and we must do all we can to stop it. A lot of effort is being put into this, but perhaps it is time to ask if all our efforts are enough.

4 In attempting to give some sort of guidance in answering this question, I begun by asking whether we have adequate understanding of what is causing this problem. The received wisdom of this matter is that it is largely about the HIV/AIDS “virgin sex cure myth. But when one hears of very young boys, almost children themselves, raping younger children, one wonders.

5 To what extent is the break down in the social fabric of society playing an important role in this sorry matter? I think the breakdown is largely a result of failed Neo-liberal economic policies that have devastated our families and communities and we have begun to prey on each other. It is a very well-known phenomenon that when people are “down and out”, when they have no jobs, no hope, they often take out their despair on those closest to them because they are the easiest targets. It is of course the weakest in our families and communities and in this case, the young children.

6 One hears arguments about the role of the media in fuelling this scourge. I have even heard it said that the very act of constantly reporting in the Public Media may itself be contributing to this problem because it gives “ideas” to these no doubt, very sick people who carry out these acts. This is a very difficult argument because the alternative appears to be silence. But, the “culture of silence” has been said to be a major cause of these problems.

7 There are no simple answers, which is why we urgently need our universities and research institutions to help us understand better what is going on. This will help us put in place better strategies to prevent the sexual abuse of young children happening in the first place. In addition, of course, we need to urgently deal with the deep rooted economic problems of this country.

8 As stated earlier, much is being done, but after a child has been abused his or her future is often ruined permanently. The physical wounds may heal, but the psychological ones are more enduring. More often than not, abused children themselves also become abusers. I wonder too, whether there isn't more that can be done at an activist level. We have at community level, a number of groups organised for support purposes. The Catholic Church for instance has the small Christian Communities, the Neighbourhood Health Committees and so on.

9 Would it not be possible to infuse into these, child watch groups? As the name suggests, these would play the role of keeping an eye on the children, watching out for any suspicious behaviour and rooting out unacceptable practices in our communities such as excessive alcohol consumption. This would act as a preventive measure.

10 In short people would make sure that those who should be carrying out their functions such as the police, Local Councillors and RDC's do their work. This is clearly a major problem for which there are no simple answers.

(Adapted from Zimbabwe School Examinations Council ZIMSEC English Language Past paper of 2008)

In each of the questions 1-9, select the best of the four choices given. Show the letter of your choice by putting a ring around it on the question paper, as in the example below. If you change your mind, cross out the ring very neatly.

1 Paragraph 1. "There was a major public outcry over the growing incidence of child sexual abuse." What do you understand by this?

- A. People were crying over the scourge.
- B. People spoke against the scourge.
- C. Children cried over the scourge.
- D. People became aware of the scourge.

2. According to paragraph 1, people danced...

- A. Happily
- B. fiercely
- C. angrily
- D. sadly

3. According to paragraph 1. Why didn't the author join in the dancing?

- A. She was only a child.
- B. she didn't like the song
- C. she didn't agree with the message in the song.
- D. she was only an observer

4. According to the author in paragraph 1, the fact that there isn't as much public outcry means that...

- A. the scourge is reducing.
- B. the law enforcement agencies are punishing the culprits.
- C. longer Sentences are being meted out.
- D. people are not just talking about it.

5. According to the author, why is there sexual abuse?

- A. It is believed that it will cure HIV/AIDS.
- B. It is a sign of social moral decay.
- C. It is a result of the poor economy.
- D. Broken family ties.

6. After a child has been abused...

- A. physical wounds don't heal.
- B. the victim's mind is affected forever.
- C. he or she will have no future.
- D. a few of them become abusers themselves.

7. One of the ways suggested in paragraphs 8 and 9 of stopping child abuse by...

- A. the Catholic Church stopping the act.
- B. the formation of the neighbourhood Health committees.
- C. stopping children taking excessive alcohol.
- D. the activist groups and awareness campaigners doing their duties.

8 What should be role of universities and research institutions according to the author in paragraph 7?

- A. Finding better solutions.
- B. Dealing with deep economic problems of the country.
- C. Researching into ways of stopping the child abuse.
- D. Helping us understand what is happening.

9 What is the major problem referred to in paragraph 1?

- A. Infusing child watch groups into other organisations.
- B. Arresting child sexual abuse.
- C. Improving the economy for all.
- D. Arresting child sexual abusers.

Answer question 10 according to instructions.

11 Choose the underlined words in the passage that mean the same or nearly the same as the ones below. Write the words against each word or phrase.

- (i) Discouragement.....
- (ii) Strange.....
- (iii) Victimise.....
- (iv) Proved guilty

APPENDIX K.2: Narrative Comprehension

INSTRUCTIONS

Write your full name and gender in the spaces provided.

Name _____

Gender _____

Age _____

Read the passage carefully and answer the questions which follow

1. The street had been widened and the mango trees sacrificed. The Njekwa's place, the neighbours, had been shorn of its gardens. Flanked by new smaller houses, it had acquired a shabby look and was too big for its site. No lovely, long-haired young girl in a white summer dress weaving in and out of the green shade. John closed his eyes seeing Emily, remembering why he had gone away for so many years.

2. Then he looked at his own house. The house was freshly painted in white. Flowers and potted plants still crowded the veranda, the sanctuary of his over-literate boyhood, and John knew the front rooms would be bathed in watery dimness. As he knocked he could scarcely breathe. Maria opened the door, an ancient brown woman with a wrinkled face that showed no surprise. Her toothless mouth stretched into a smile and she opened her arms, clasping him down into an olive-scented embrace. John then started to make introductions saying that Maria was their maid, but before he could finish, he stopped.

3. Mrs Phiri, his mother, was descending the stairs, the coloured light from the stained glass window falling so that John couldn't properly see her face. Even so, the missing years burst at him. The hair smoothed under high tortoise-shell comb was totally white. The slow, gracious walk had become laboured. Halting, she stared down, one hand on the banister, the other clutching the black ruffle at her throat.

4. "John" she whispered. "Mum," he said softly and took the steps three at a time. On the landing she clasped him with her full soft arms, holding him away, hugging him again. She thought John had grown to be so much like his father, "Ah" she sighed. The slow quiet voice, the sharpness of lavender in his nostrils brought back his childhood. Tears were threatening to pour out of his eyes, but he controlled himself when he remembered he was now a man.

5. "Mum, how sweet it is to see you." His arm around her shoulders, they moved awkwardly down the narrow steps. At the bottom of the stairway Jane waited, her hands clenched over her shiny skirt. Mrs Phiri glanced questioningly at her son. John introduced Jane as his wife.

6. "Wife?" Mrs Phiri whispered, her fingers biting into John's cotton sleeve.

7. "We were married on Saturday".

8. "Uh, Mrs Phiri, if it isn't right for you now, I'll come back in a while."

9. Mrs Phiri's fingers remained clamped to John, yet her voice was welcoming, serene. "This is your home", she said. "And Jane child call me mum. My other daughter calls me mum".

10. Later they sat around the supper table. John and his mother reminisced about the mango trees and the flowers in the veranda. Jane peeled a piece of fruit with a knife, her round upper arms tensing with effort-she who so easily carried water buckets and chopped loads of firewood. Mr. Phiri cut a generous piece of roasted beef. He distrusted surprises. However, since his first shock at hearing John's voice, flattened and distorted by the telephone he had been overjoyed. Mr. Phiri was talking to Jane explaining that his cousin who owned a big butchery had supplied them with the same meat they were eating. Jane could only give an impressed murmur, and then went back to peeling her apple. Jane had spoken little today. She had stared with round eyes at the magnificence of the house.

11. She's not bad at that, Mr. Phiri thought. Big, a good full body and a round cat face. The dress though! Here his well-known eye for quality rebelled. It fitted so tightly in the bodice that the seams were stretched. A small slit showed under her tensed right arm, and a spray of paint did not properly hide a mis-matched button at her throat. Mr. Phiri looked away thinking of Emily. Light colours floated around her small, graceful figure, and her sparkle came not from the jewellery that bud kept giving her but from her eyes and laughter. How could the two brothers choose such different women? Mr. Phiri stifled the question. He was a rigidly decent man. This Jane, too, was his daughter-in-law. He carved a big piece of the roast beef and with a fork pushed it on her plate.

(Adapted from Zimbabwe School Examinations Council English language past exam paper, 2000)

In each of the questions 1-9 select the best of the four choices given. Show the letter of your choice by putting a ring around it on the question paper. If you change your mind, cross out the ring very neatly.

1. In paragraph 1, "the mango trees sacrificed," means they ...
 - A. sacrificed some mangoes to God before widening the street.
 - B. Prayed for the mango trees before widening the street.
 - C. Cut down the mango trees before widening the street.
 - D. Cut down the mango trees after praying before widening the streets.

2. "Over-literate boyhood," in paragraph 2 implies that John had ...
 - A. read too many books as a boy.
 - B. read few books as a boy.
 - C. read too many difficult books as a boy.
 - D. never read any books as boy.

3. We can tell that Maria was happy to see John because she ...
 - A. smiled with her toothless mouth.
 - B. smiled and opened the door for John.
 - C. embraced John and opened the door for him.

D. smiled and embraced John.

4. John realised his mother had grown old because ...

A. the missing years burst at him.

B. her hair had become totally white and her hand was on the banister.

C. her hair had become totally white and her other hand was clutching the ruffle at her throat.

D. her hair had become totally white and her walk had become laboured.

5. Was Mrs. Phiri happy to receive Jane?

A. No, she wasn't because she was holding onto her son.

B. Yes, she was because she told Jane to call her mum.

C. Yes, she was because she told Jane that it was her home and she should call her mum.

D. No she wasn't because she shouted "Wife?"

6. Which statement is true?

A. Jane was confident about herself and ready to meet her mother in-law.

B. Jane was nervous about meeting her mother in-law.

C. Jane was looking forward to meeting her mother in-law.

D. Jane seemed indifferent about meeting her mother in-law.

7. We can infer from the passage that Jane was ...

A. lazy and badly dressed.

B. strong and badly dressed.

C. weak and badly dressed.

D. delicate and well dressed.

8. Why did Mr. Phiri's eye rebel in paragraph 9?

A. Because the dress was too light and had a slit.

B. Because of the dress being too tight.

C. Because of the colour, the mismatched button, the slit and the dress being too tight.

D. Because of the mismatched button, the slit and the colour though it fitted well.

9. John had left home because he differed with ...

A. his father.

B. his mother.

C. his brother.

D. Emily.

10. From the underlined words in the passage find one word for each space which is similar in meaning to what is given below.

A.....marked by utter calm and unruffled.

B.....a place of refuge and protection.

C.....indulged in remembering

D..... twisted out of the natural original condition.

71

Appendix K3: Think-aloud

When using “think-aloud,” display the text either on pieces of paper or overhead projector if you have one screen. Then read aloud several paragraphs from the class text. As you read, stop now and then to voice what you are thinking about as you read. The following five strategies for monitoring comprehension can be demonstrated using teacher think-aloud.

- Identify the occurrence of a comprehension problem

“I don’t know what this second sentence means.”

- Identify the comprehension problem

“I don’t know what the author means by “the matter was not completely digested.”

- Restate the difficult sentence or passage.

“I think ‘matter’ means the issue or problem. Now if the problem was not digested, that could mean that it wasn’t through or over.”

- Look back through the text to find information that may provide a clue to the meaning of the difficult sentence or passage.

“When I look back at the previous paragraph, it talks about the argument between the parents on whether Bonnie should visit her grandmother for the summer, so the “matter” was whether Bonnie should visit her grandmother. That sounds like the best possibility.”

- Look forward in the text for information that might help solve the comprehension problem.

“After reading the next couple of paragraphs, I’ve learned that the parents aren’t talking to each other, and so I know that my guess about the matter not being digested was correct.”

Student think-aloud are another way that teachers can question and observe students’ reading skills and strategies. When students think aloud as they read, they describe the reading strategies that they use to make sense of a text. Asking students to think aloud as they read allows the teacher to uncover the details of students’ reading strengths and weaknesses within the context of content-area reading.

Appendix K.4: Reciprocal Teaching

Description and Purpose

Reciprocal teaching is a “strategy package” that students can use when reading science, social studies, language arts, mathematics, or any other content-area texts. With reciprocal teaching, students learn to use the following four interrelated strategies.

- *Questioning*: Generating questions about the text;
- *Clarifying*: Clearing up confusion about words, phrases, or concepts by using the text as much as possible;
- *Summarizing*: Describing the “gist” of what has been read and discussed; and
- *Predicting*: Suggesting what might be learned from the next part of the text or what will happen next.

Reciprocal teaching is designed to improve students’ ability to monitor their comprehension and to learn from their reading. The goal of reciprocal teaching is to help students apply the strategies on their own. Research indicates that with extensive practice, students will master reciprocal teaching strategies and will use them independently for other reading assignments.

Teaching Contexts

Reciprocal teaching can be used with content-area reading material that is extended text.

Target Students

Reciprocal teaching assists all students to become better, more strategic readers.

Teaching Tips

When you first introduce your students to reciprocal teaching, use explicit strategy instruction (instructions are included in this appendix):

- Explain the four strategies,
- Model the strategies,
- Monitor students’ learning and understanding,

- Support their efforts to use the strategies, and
- Provide feedback.

As soon as possible, have individual students take turns as the class leader. As you gradually turn over responsibility to the students, continue to monitor individuals as they read, keep small groups focused on strategy use, and facilitate use of the strategies.

Appendix K. 5: Procedures for think aloud

Teacher-directed phase

As the leader, begin by reading aloud a short passage from classroom text or other material that students are currently reading. Then follow steps one through four below.

1. *Question the Text:* After reading the short passage aloud, generate several questions prompted by the text. Questions should focus on main ideas, not discrete facts. Encourage students to answer the questions.
2. *Clarify the Text:* If there are any problems with or misunderstandings of the text, clarify them. Encourage students to help you clarify these problems and misunderstandings.
3. *Summarize the Text:* When all questions and clarifications have been addressed, summarize the passage. Encourage students to help you summarize the passage.
4. *Predict the Text:* Based on the passage just read, previously read passages, and the discussion generated in steps 1-3, make predictions about the content of the next passages. Encourage students to help you make predictions.

Repeat this sequence of reading, questioning, clarifying, summarizing, and predicting with several more passages.

Student-directed phase

Ask for volunteers from the class to take on the role of the leader. Guide them through the four steps outlined above. When students are ready, divide the class into small groups. Students who have assumed the role of the leader can be assigned to each small group to lead that group through the four steps. Monitor the groups closely to ensure that all students take turns using each strategy. Eventually all students will lead their group and use all four strategies.

Appendix K.6 -Summarization Strategy

Use direct instruction to teach students a rule-based strategy to summarize paragraph-length material [103] and carefully guide students through each step with the use of teacher modeling. Instructors should apply this with the whole group and with small groups and provide feedback. Then, have students practice these skills and follow-up with individual application.

There are two summarization strategies that have been found to be effective. One is the rule-governed approach and the other is the GIST approach.

Strategy One – Rule-governed Approach

The rule-governed approach

- Delete unnecessary or trivial material
- Delete material that is important, but redundant
- Substitute a superordinate term for a list of items
- Substitute a superordinate term for components of an action
- Select a topic sentence
- When there is no topic sentence, invent one

Strategy Two – GIST (Generating Interaction between Schemata and Text) Approach

The GIST approaches

- Student is given an article to summarize
- The length of the student's summary is limited to 15 words.
- As the student reads subsequent paragraphs of an article, the student must intuitively delete trivial propositions and select the macro level idea. Thinking about *who*, *what*, *when*, *where*, and *how* may help with this.
- Student must select topic statements to fit the 15 – blank word limit

Appendix K.7 -Summarization Strategy

FRONTLOADING: ASSISTING THE READER BEFORE READING

[Jeffrey Wilhelm](#)

Monitoring and Assessment

Frontloading is an assessment; *Frontloading* activity can be used before reading to assess student conceptual, procedural or genre knowledge that may be necessary for success on subsequent reading tasks. Instructional activities and texts can then be monitored or revised to respond to student needs.

[Four Resources Guideposts](#)

[First Steps Reading Developmental Continuum](#)

[Classroom Organisation](#)

Engagement: Empowering Teachers with Successful Strategies

The *Frontloading* strategy can take many forms. *Frontloading* is a way to assess, motivate, set purposes, prepare, protect, and support students into:

- the understanding of new content or concepts
- the use of new procedures, strategies and ways of doing things
- generic knowledge about how particular text types are structured and make particular kinds of demands on readers

Frontloading activities can be devised to address any of these issues by assisting students to take on conceptual, procedural or genre knowledge necessary to reading and comprehending texts that make unfamiliar demands on them in any of these areas.

Frontloading, in any of the many forms it can take, involves creating activities that will either activate knowledge students possess and will need to use in reading a text, or will build knowledge they do not have but need to possess to be successful with it. Good *Frontloading* activities, as will be seen, are a framework to support and organise student use of new concepts and strategies throughout their reading of the text or through the unit in question.

Engagement: Engaging Students in Purposeful Social Practices

<p style="text-align: center;">Strategy</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Frontloading</i></p>	<p style="text-align: center;">Text</p> <p style="text-align: center;"><i>Tangerine</i> by Edward Bloor, a popular young adult novel, Scholastic Inc, 2000</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • may be used with any genre, strategy or set of concepts that are challenging for students • scaffolds and assists students to deal with the demands of new text structures, codes and conventions, reading and learning strategies, or conceptual material in any curriculum area • builds motivation and interest in the new text or topic • activates or builds necessary knowledge for dealing with a new text or topic • serves as a template and thereby assists students throughout their reading of the new text or topic • can be designed to emphasise any or all of the <i>Four Roles/Resources of the Reader</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • is an exciting sports story with suspense, surprising plot twists, family issues, moral dilemmas, multicultural issues, and a consideration of the importance of sports, and of the emphasis put on so-called 'major' versus 'minor' sports • engages students through the plot, focus on relationships and moral dilemmas, and the focus on exciting sports scenes; engages sometimes resistant male readers • makes use of sophisticated textual codes and conventions such as foreshadowing and symbolism, requiring students to make predictions and construct implied authorial meanings • makes use of a diary format and a narrator who has lost (repressed) certain powerful memories, requiring students to connect and understand both simple and complex implied relationships and to make high level inferences based on these • connects to English through a study of personal writing and the

	<p>demands of reading or writing diaries</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • connects to SOSE through a study of personal, familial and cultural relationships, through an examination of sport and its place in Western culture, both positive and negative
--	--

Four Roles/Resources of the Reader

Based on the Four Roles/Resources of the Reader developed by Freebody and Luke (1990), *Frontloading* involves students in the following repertoire of purposeful social practices:

<p>Code breaker</p> <p>Decoding the codes and conventions of written, spoken and visual texts, eg:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • recognises the conventions of diaries and the strategies necessary to decode and make meaning, eg the coding of symbolism and how to recognise them • identifies the codes and conventions of particular texts which helps them to more explicitly reflect on their own reading strategies 	<p>Text user</p> <p>Understanding the purposes of different written, spoken and visual texts for different cultural and social functions, e.g.:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • identifies the various features of particular text structures or genres, and how to meet the interpretive demands of these text types, eg the various personal purposes of a diary, and the various social purposes of publishing a private diary, or writing a novel in diary form • analyses text features of diaries or personal writing to scaffold the creation of other texts in diary form, or by electronic means • transforms or trans mediates such texts into different forms • recognises that inferences must be made, or 'ghost' chapters written, about the time between dates in diaries
<p>Text participant</p>	<p>Text analyst</p>

<p>Comprehending written, spoken and visual texts, eg:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • uses prior knowledge to make meaning throughout reading, bringing meaning forward to make predictions and monitor predictions • sets purposes for reading, making reading a powerful act of inquiry that can do 'work' • makes simple and complex inferences based on simple and complex implied relationships • constructs sub textual, symbolic and implied meanings • constructs a framework for meaning so that text becomes more coherent and predictable • constructs and understands characters and their evolving relationships • builds background understanding on the concepts of family, relationships, multiculturalism, cultural critique, the role of sport in culture, etc • builds interest in inquiry around the topics raised by the reading and discussion of the reading 	<p>Understanding how texts position readers, viewers and listeners, eg:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • interprets characters and how readers are aligned for and against certain characters • considers whose perspective is presented and whose is not, and with what effect • considers how presentation and silencing of voices in a text contributes to textual meaning • understands the authorial vision/theme/central focus being expressed by the author through the textual construction, ie the diary, thereby allowing the student to embrace, adapt or resist this vision • understands and critiques how diaries present particular times, and particular cultural and social understandings and situations
---	---

APPENDIX. L: Timeline

1- January and February 2010 –Writing and submission of introduction- chapter one and chapter two, literature review 1-Zimbabwe Subsequent Language policies.

2-March and April 2010 – literature review on comprehension writing.

3-May and June 2010 – literature review - Approaches to the teaching of Comprehension and Essay Writing- visiting libraries and conferences to gather information for literature review.

4- June and July 2010– Methodology Considerations Writing and submissions.

5- September, 2010 to February 2011 – Data Collection writing of data presentation, analysis of findings, conclusion and recommendations at the research site.

6- March 2011– Finalising the project and presentation.

7- February, March, April, May, June, July August 2010 – More work on the research and some suggestions from supervisor will be accommodated here.

8-2011 Continue working on the thesis.

9-2012- Continue working on the thesis.

10-2013-Final work on the thesis and all other corrections to be made in consultation with the new supervisor and submission.

11-2013-2016- Viva and amendments to Thesis.

12-2016-2017 –Working on amendments after my VIVA.

13-2017-August-September Submission of amended document.

APPENDIX-M: Researcher's letter to the Secretary of Education

2

The Secretary
Ministry of Education and Culture
P.O. Box CY 121
Causeway
Harare

Re: Seeking Permission to Carry out An Academic Research

I 'm seeking permission to carry out research in Mashonaland East Region. I'm a Zimbabwean currently studying for a Doctor in Education at the University of Derby. My study focuses on:

Approaches to comprehension teaching at Junior Certificate [Form 2] and Ordinary level [Form 4] in one secondary school in Seke District: An Ethnographic case study.

My experience as a teacher, remedial tutor, and headmaster and lastly, education officer accorded me the opportunity to engage systematically in the challenges teachers and students face in the teaching and learning of comprehension work, hence the idea to carry out this study.

My data collection will involve collecting data for a period of six months in one school. The research Questions are:

- ❖ What approaches do teachers utilize in the teaching of English comprehension;
- ❖ What are the challenges or problems associated with the use of the approaches;
- ❖ Are the teachers' approaches to teaching comprehension responsible for the poor comprehension work by students at Form 2 and Form 4 levels?
- ❖ What possible models would improve the teaching and learning of comprehension writing by students at Form 2 and Form4 levels;

I hope this study will make a significant contribution to the teaching and learning of English comprehension in secondary schools. I will be very grateful for your support.

Yours sincerely,



Maxwell Obediah Kanyoka.

APPENDIX- N: Letter from the Provincial Education Director

Reference: C/440/1 ME

*All communications should be addressed to
"The Provincial Education Director
Mashonaland East Province"*
Telephone: 079-24811/4 and 24792
Telex : 81023
Fax: 079-24791



Ministry of Education, Sport, Arts & Culture
Mashonaland East Province
P.O. Box 752
Marondera
Zimbabwe

05 October, 2010

Mr Kanyoka M.O.
202 Churchill Drive
Marlborough
HARARE

Dear Sir

**RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT AN ACADEMIC RESEARCH IN ONE OF OUR
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN SEKE DISTRICT : MASHONALAND EAST PROVINCE**

Reference is made to your minute dated 30th of September 2010 on the above subject.

Please be advised that permission has been granted that you carry out your academic research in one of our secondary schools in Seke District, Mashonaland East Province. You are accordingly being asked to furnish the Ministry with Information about your findings so that we share the knowledge for the benefit of the system as well as our nation at large.

We wish you all the best and hope to hear from you after completing your project work.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'M.P. Nyahwa'.

M.P. NYAHWA
ACTING PROVINCIAL EDUCATION DIRECTOR
MASHONALAND EAST PROVINCE
MPN/cc

APPENDIX- O: Letter from Secretary for Education, Sport, Arts and Culture

All communications should be addressed to
"The Secretary for Education Sport and Culture"
Telephone: 734051/59 and 734071
Telegraphic address : "EDUCATION"
Fax: 794505



Ref: C/426/3

Ministry of Education Sport, Arts and
Culture
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
Zimbabwe

- Maxwell Obediah Kanyoka
 - (University of Derby)
 - 202 Churchill Drive
 - Malborough
-

Re: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH

Reference is made to your application to carry out research in the Ministry of Education, Sport, Arts and Culture institutions on:

Approaches to Comprehension Teaching at Junior Certificate (Form 2) and Ordinary Level (Form 4) at a Secondary School in Zimbabwe: An Ethnographic Case Study-----

Permission is hereby granted. However you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director responsible for the schools from which you want to research.

You are also required to provide the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture with the final copy of your research since it is instrumental in the development of Education in Zimbabwe.

C. Mazonde

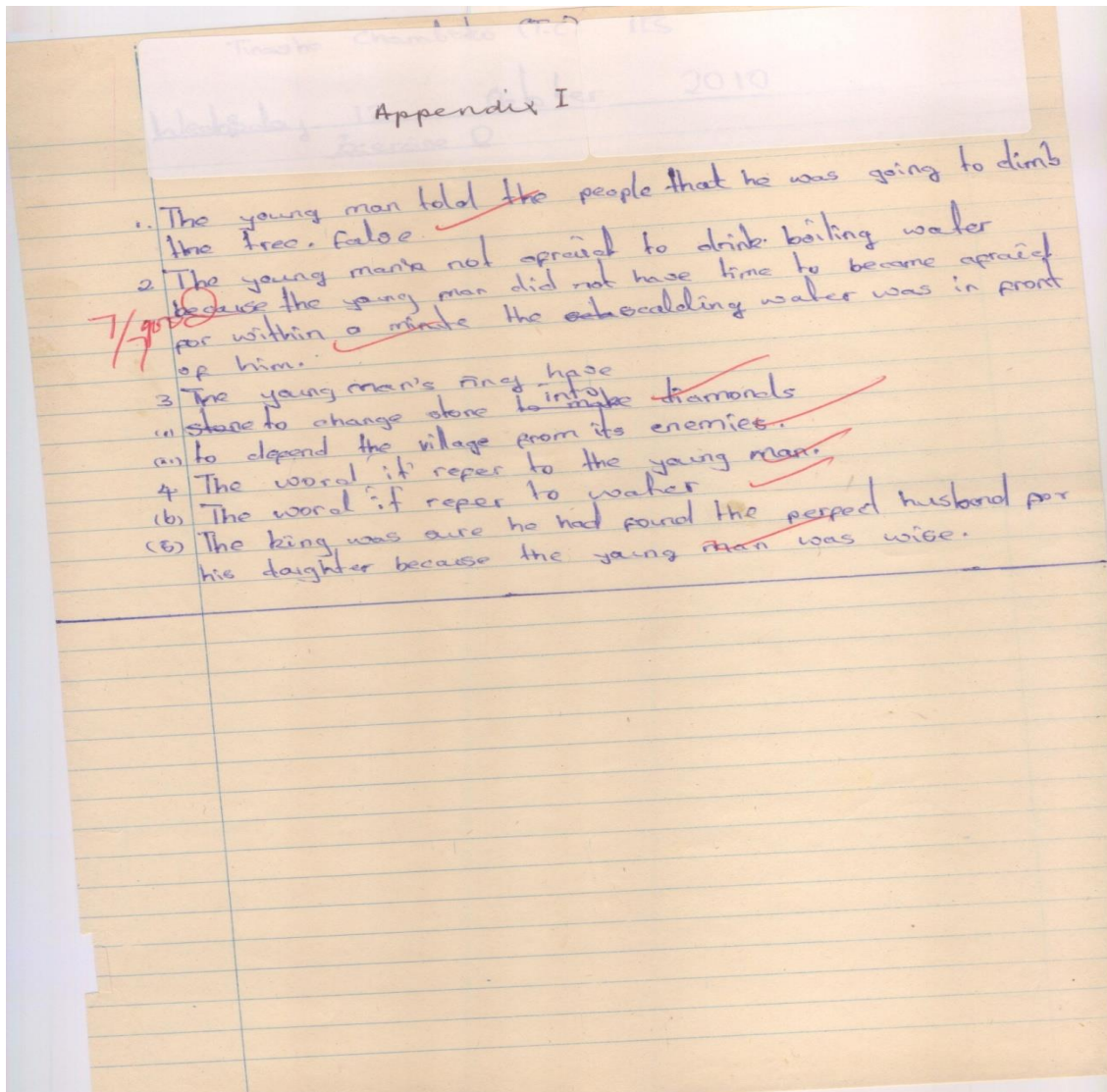
For: SECRETARY FOR EDUCATION, SPORT, ARTS AND CULTURE

APPENDIX- P.1: Work sample for an above average pupil

Appendix I

1. The young man told the people that he was going to climb the tree, false.
2. The young man is not afraid to drink boiling water because the young man did not have time to become afraid for within a minute the scalding water was in front of him.
3. The young man's ring has
(a) stone to change stone to ^{into} diamonds
g(a) to defend the village from its enemies.
4. The word 'it' refer to the young man.
(b) The word 'if' refer to water
(c) The king was sure he had found the perfect husband for his daughter because the young man was wise.

APPENDIX- P.2: Work sample for an above average pupil



APPENDIX- P.3: Work sample for an above average pupil

Appendix-P-4

HU
fairly done!

1 anxious

2 greet because the traveller greets the boss with his name ✓

3 because he remembered Mr Bloch ✓

4 he mean that the business was going on steadily or ✓

5 the beggar had both hands cupped ready to receive ✓

6 greet he was complaining that there is too many dealing in business everywhere ✓

7 the expression mean that the African boys were bad ✓

8 The proverb meant that the appetites also seemed to withered by the boss's absence

9 (b) Home appliances like stoves are very expensive. ✓

(c) Everyone is complaining that the toilets are dirty. ✓

(d) The doctor was very impatiently when he was talking to patient.

Appendix-P-4

40
fairly done!

1 anxious

g) because the traveller greets the boss with his name ✓

3 because he remembered Mr Bloch ✓

4 he means that the business was going on steadily or ✓

5 the beggar had both hands cupped ready to receive ✓

g) he was complaining that there is too many dealing in business everywhere ✓

7 the expression means that the African boys were bad ✓

8 The proverbs meant that the appetites also seemed to withered by the boss's absence

9 b) Home appliances like stoves are very expensive. ✓

c) Everyone is complaining that the toilets are dirty. ✓

d) The doctor was very impatiently when ^{he was} talking to patient.

Appendix-P-5

(HU)

21. Well tried!

- 1) He was feeling happy ✓
- 2) The traveller greeted the boss mentioning his name. ✓ 2
- 3) Mr Bloch had promised him to come and see him when he had time.
- 4) He meant that the business was not doing good. ✓ 1
- 5) He was facing them and both his hands were cupped ready to receive ✓ 2
- 6) He was complaining about too many shops dealing in the same business everywhere. ✓ 2
- 7) Mr Bloch was not trusting the African American boys.
- 8) When the boss had finally gone both white and black member staff relaxed ✓ and appetites also seemed to be whetted by the absence.
- 9) She stood beside the building leaning her head on the wall.
- 10) Grandmother had gone to the market to buy electrical appliances.
- 11) The two women were complaining about the decreasing of their business.
- 12) She waited impatiently for them to come. ✓ 5
- 13) The unexpected occasion made him feel bad.

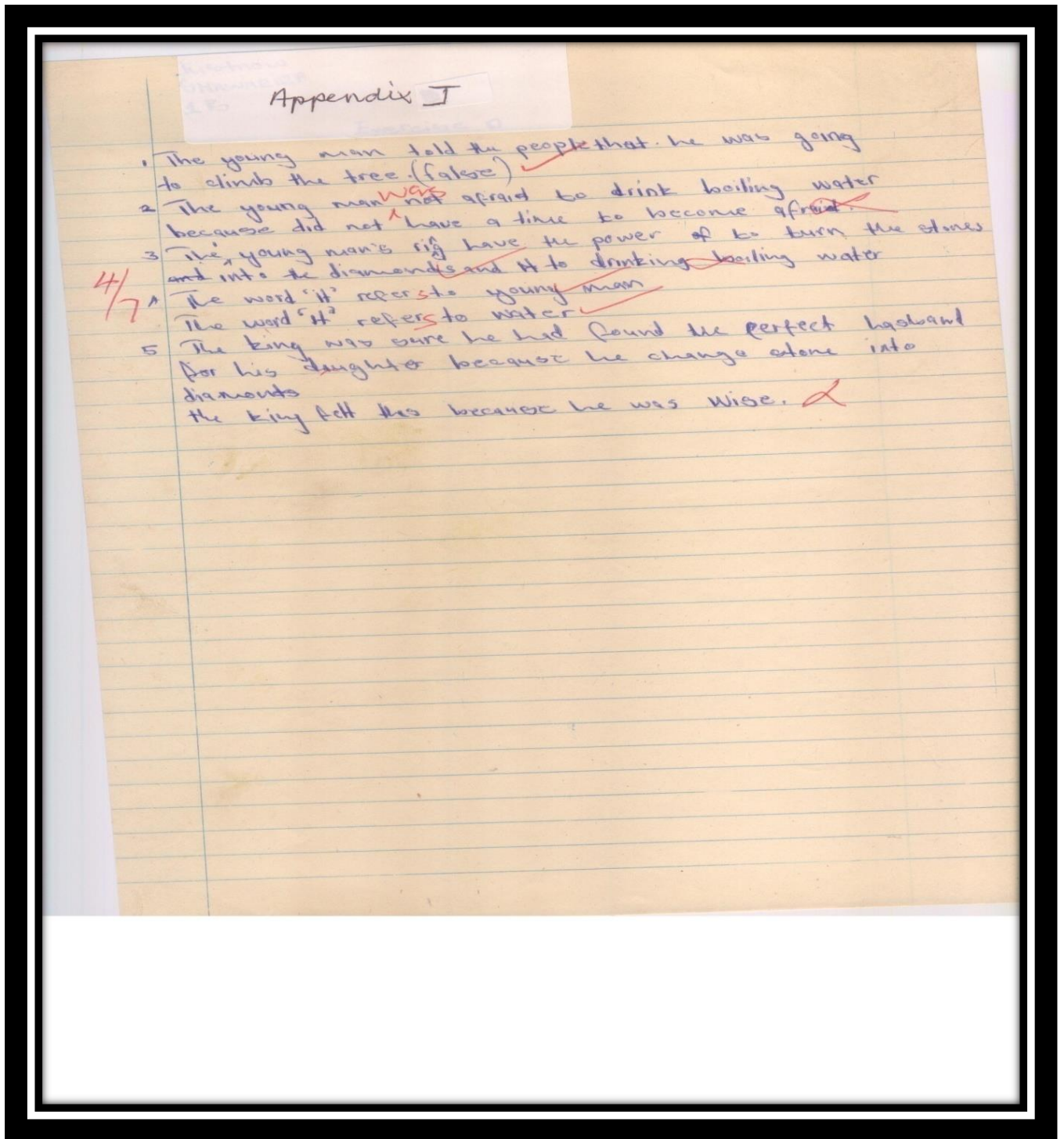
Head

After Mr Bloch left the workplace his workers both white and black members of staff relaxed. On the white side of the line there was usual talk a lot of talk with voices pitched a little louder than usual. Appetites also seemed to be whetted by the boss's absence workers were ordering food to Johannes, one of them asked to get a cold drink and a cream cake, whilst the other one ordered toasted cheese. When he was about to leave the one

APPENDIX P 6

The other worker ~~said~~ was under strict c/wet. I/c the
 need to eat for your pounds lost. The workers said that
 too slow and then one still to suffer. When Johannes
 to leave to get the stuffs required he was called back. I
 a packet out of a bag Johannes was sent back to the che
 he had bought the wrong lipstick to get the right one. Joha
 heard that he wondered the reasons of their husbands not pay
 Others workers smiled back at Johannes ✓
 (b) Good Work
 (c) Good Use.

APPENDIX-Q-1.



APPENDIX-Q: 2 Work sample for an average pupil

Appendix-Q-2

40

Put more eff

- 2 ~~The~~ The boss greeted the traveller by his name, meaning ^{✓②} they had seen each other. ~~before~~ before
- 3 He had remembered the boss. ✓①
- 4 The business was not running properly. ✓②
- 5(i) He was begging
- (ii) ~~He had~~ The boss felt for the beggar. ✓①
- 6 Pony did not give the beggar what he was suppose to
- 7 The two boys were dirty. ✓①
- 8 ~~of~~ If some of you fear is away, you feel free or happy.
- 9(a) ~~I like learning~~ I do not like leaning [✓] on my own under
- g(b) ~~An iron is an appliance~~ A stove and iron are ^{electrical} appliances.
- (c) "Stop complaining" my mother shouted. ✓
- (d) At this occasion we will eat foreign food. ✓
- (h) Most students are reluctant to follow school rules. ✓

4

11/20

Summary Points

Appendix-Q-3

$$\frac{12}{40}$$

Put more effort

vision
School.

- ① ~~Spoken~~ broadly.
- ② Because the traveller greet Mr Bloch and ~~speaks~~ ^{by} name.
- ③ Because Mr Bloch had said that "come and see me some other time when you don't have the time."
- ④ The business was ~~not~~ ^{very} good.
- ⑤ Two possible reasons why boss ask Pony to give the beggar something ~~less~~ is that
- ⑥ the beggar facing them with hands cupped ready to receive.
- ⑦ The too quiet like a cemetery.
- ⑧ They give the beggar an ugly face.
- ⑨ When the boss is out the workers will play
- ⑩ He ~~was~~ was crying leaning his head on the window.
- ⑪ Appliances are thing that all use in home.
- ⑫ Complaining because he break his clay pots.
- ⑬ Impatiently => He impatiently say good bye.
- ⑭ Occasion = ~~The. We. enjoy the occasion at your~~ home.

Be neat Bunny! Avoid unnecessary cancelling.

Appendix-Q-4

1. Anxious

2. _____

2. The boss smiled and he greeted Mr Bloch
 gm. ^{by} kiith his name. ✓ (1)

3. Because there was nothing he wanted.

4. The business was not going well the way
 he wanted ✓ (1)

5i. Because the beggar had stood in front of
 him ✓ (1)

ii. Because he had felt messi upon the beggar.

6. The African boys were smelling the shop out

7. The boys were ^{producing} smelling a bad smell so
 he wanted them to be saved quickly ✓ (2)

8. When the boss is away the workers do
 whatever they want. ✓ (2)

- 9i. leaning - being supported by something
- ii. appliances - things which are used at home for electricity
- iii. impatient - being impolite
- iv. irritated - caused
- v. _____

Appendix-Q-5.

Appendix Q5- (H.C.)
Put more effort.

100

1) morning

2) He said "good morning" to Mr. Bloch instead of saying how are you.

3) The traveller ~~frantically~~ hurried to him.

4) He meant that the business was boring & not running well. ✓ (2)

5) He stood up facing them and cupped his hands showing readiness to receive something. (2)

6) Mr. Bloch was complaining about the unhappy running of business and the beggar whom everyone ignored. not clear

7) The expression meant that the boys were not giving the good inside of the shop. The boys were not smart.

8) When the boss is away, the workers will be free and relaxing. ✓ (2)

9) ...

Appendix-Q-6-

40

Put more effort

1. happy ✓
2. by smiling to each other
3. because he remember Mr Bloch ✓
4. business was not running in the good condition. ✓
5. beggar ~~was~~ ^{had} both hands cupped to them. ✓

6. Mr Bloch was complaining about what Boss did to him by take Ackim.

7. they take the shop for granted

8. When the boss is not at work the workers will not do the work. ✓

9. My mother ^{is} always complaining about Tanka's behaviour ✓

10. The occasion ^{took} place on ~~Saturday~~ Sunday and it was so good boring.

c) He walked impatiently to the church. ✓

d) Electricity appliances must be switched off

4) when there's lightning. ✓

e) I was reluctant to ask him for homework. ✓

Summary

By the time Mr. Bloch left ^{at} the work place both Black and white members of the staff relaxed. There was as usual a lot of talk with voices pitched a little louder than usual. Appetites also seemed to be whetted. I've been on strict diet for thirteen ^{met} only one and half pounds. There are still five

Appendix-Q-7.

Appendix-Q-7-

40

CLASS : HC
Subject : ENGLISH LANGUAGE PAPER 2
~~Sh~~ : ~~school~~ school

Put more eff

1) Quiet.

2) They smile to each other and at first they ^{traveller} only say Good
buss.

3) The traveller had disappointed.

4) The ~~traveller~~ was disappointed Business is not running

5) The beggar was facing them

6) Both hands cupped ready to receive.

7) He was complaining about the quiet of the bus.

Appendix-Q-8-

Summary Points

- Both white and black members of the staff relaxed
- So and get me a cold drink and a cream cake
- Order me a toasted cheese too
- there was as usual, a lot of talk with voices pitched a little louder than usual
- Appetites also seemed to be whetted by the boss's absence
- I am so hungry, I could eat a horse cried another
- I have been on a strict diet for thirteen ~~years~~ days and I only lost one and half pounds.
- Life is ^{so} short and then one still has to suffer
- go back to chemist where you bought this lipstick yesterday and tell them the madam want a shocking pink and not a rose colour like they gave you.

Summary

When Mr Bloch was out, his workers remained relaxed, ~~at~~ both white and Black members. They started asking for Johannes to go and get cold ~~drink~~ drinks and a cream cake. Some ordered for toasted cheese and some were saying there that I so hungry, I could eat a horse whilst some were saying that I have been on a strict diet for thirteen days and I lost only one and half pounds. Some say life is ^{so} short and then one still has to suffer. These workers were talking with voices pitched a little louder than usual.

Johannes was sent back to the chemist by one of the workers to where he ~~had~~ bought the lipstick for the worker to tell them the worker wanted a shocking pink and not a rose colour like they had ~~given~~ ^{given} him. The workers

Appendix-Q-9

14

Name

Class

Subject

~~XXXXXXXXXX~~

Appendix Q 9

English Comprehension

~~XXXXXXXXXX~~

(HCL)
put more effort

1) happy ✓ (1)

2) The boss and traveller had been met before because the traveller greets the boss mentioning his name so that she knew him. ✓ (1)

3) remembering → Mr Bloch makes ~~him to~~ ^{to} smile him to. ✓ (1)

4) means that the business had ~~will~~ not have been boosting. ✓ (1)

5) She was feeling pity for the beggar. ✓
6) ~~the~~ both hands were cupped to receive. ✓ (2)

6) Complaining that too many shops were dealing in the same business and the business remain quiet. ✓ (1)

Appendix-Q-10-

18
/40

Put more effort
pellagical

Class: HC

Subject: English Comprehension.

~~_____ School.~~

- 1) Disappointed.
- 2) They really ~~loves~~ each other.
- 3) He remembered Mr Blocker smiled.
- 4) People were not coming to buy in the shop.
- 5) i) He feels pity for the beggar.
- ii) He wants his business to be blessed.
- 6) He was complaining about the business which was too quiet like a cemetery.
- ~~7) They were outside looking at what was going on inside the shop.~~
- 8) They were outside looking what was inside and what was being done by people who were inside.
- 9) When the boss was not around, employees were doing what they want and they were not doing the job seriously.
- 10) Lisa was leaning against the table listening to the radio.
- 11) Electrical appliances are expensive to buy.
- 12) The headmaster was complaining about Jenny's behaviour.
- 13) I lost my shoes at the occasion.
- 14) My mother was reluctant to give me water to drink when I came back from school on Saturday.

15) Conclusion

When the boss was not around, the rare occasion deserved to be celebrated. Both members white and black members of staff

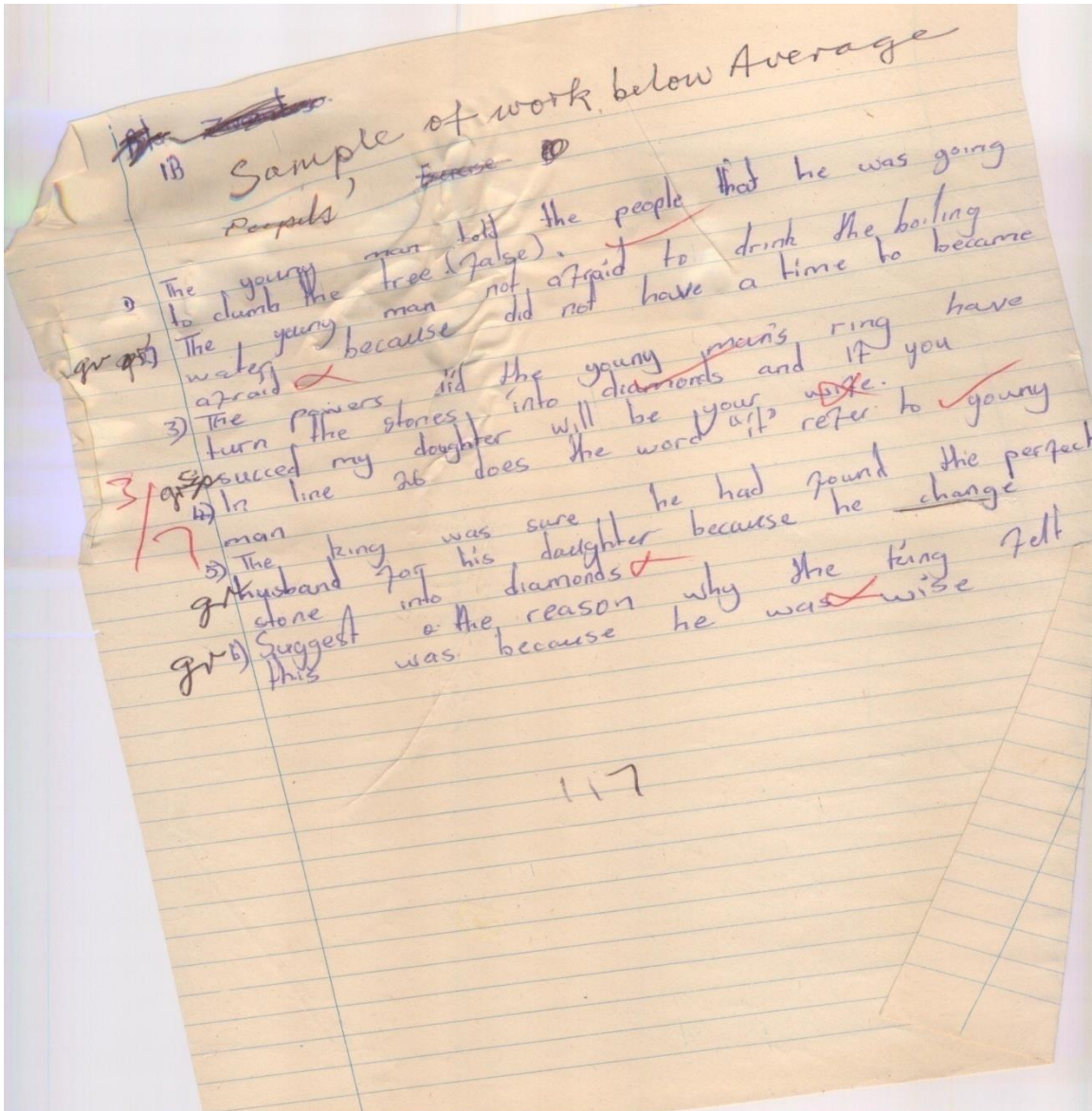
APPENDIX-R.-1. Work sample for a below average pupil

~~IB~~ ~~Sample of work~~ below Average
People's ~~future~~

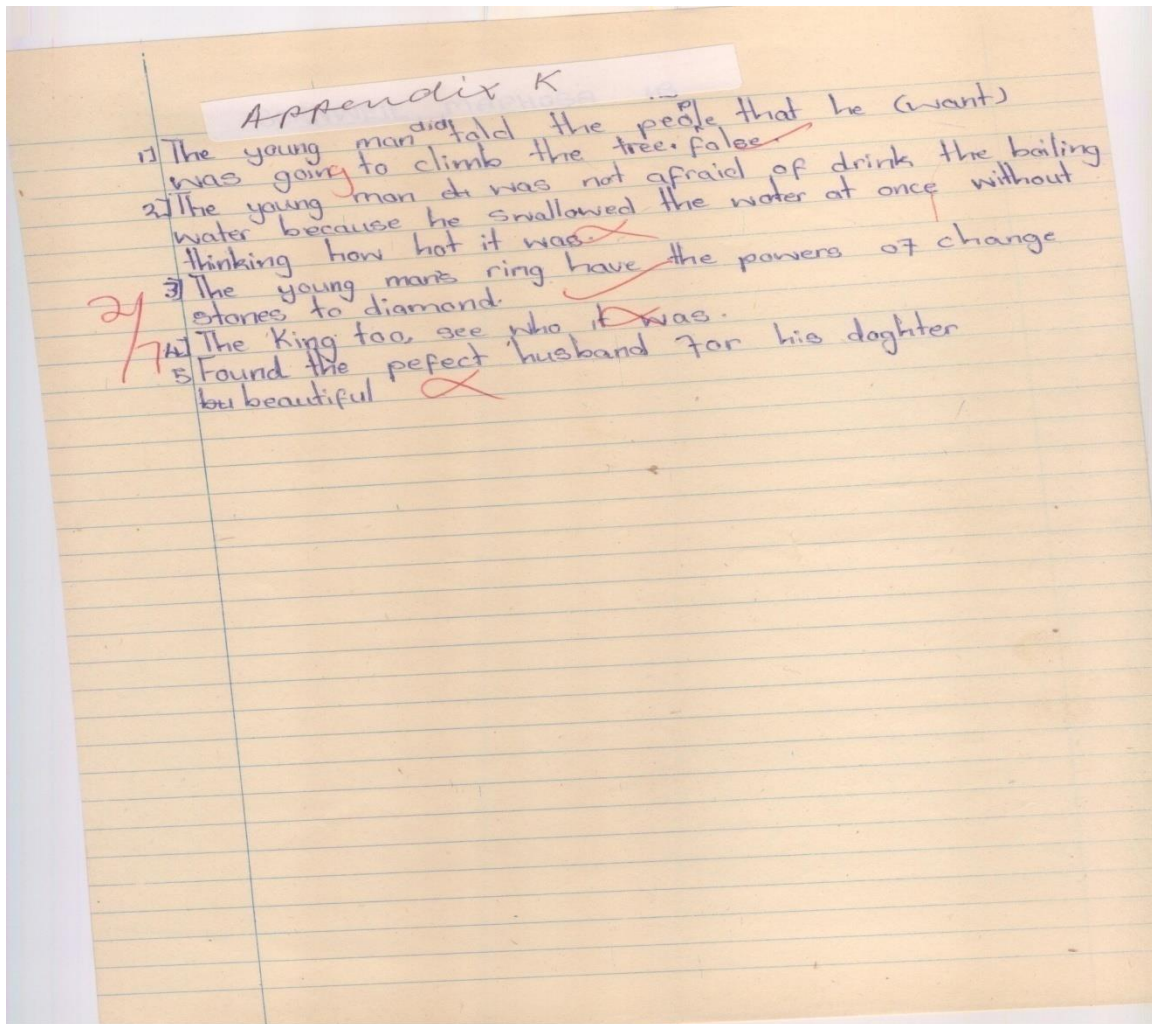
1) The young man told the people that he was going to climb the tree (false).
2) The young man not afraid to drink the boiling water because did not have a time to become afraid.
3) The king did the young man's ring have turn the stones into diamonds and if you succeed my daughter will be your wife.
4) In line 26 does the word refer to young man.
5) The king was sure he had found the perfect husband for his daughter because he change stone into diamonds.
6) Suggest a the reason why the king felt this was because he was wise.

117

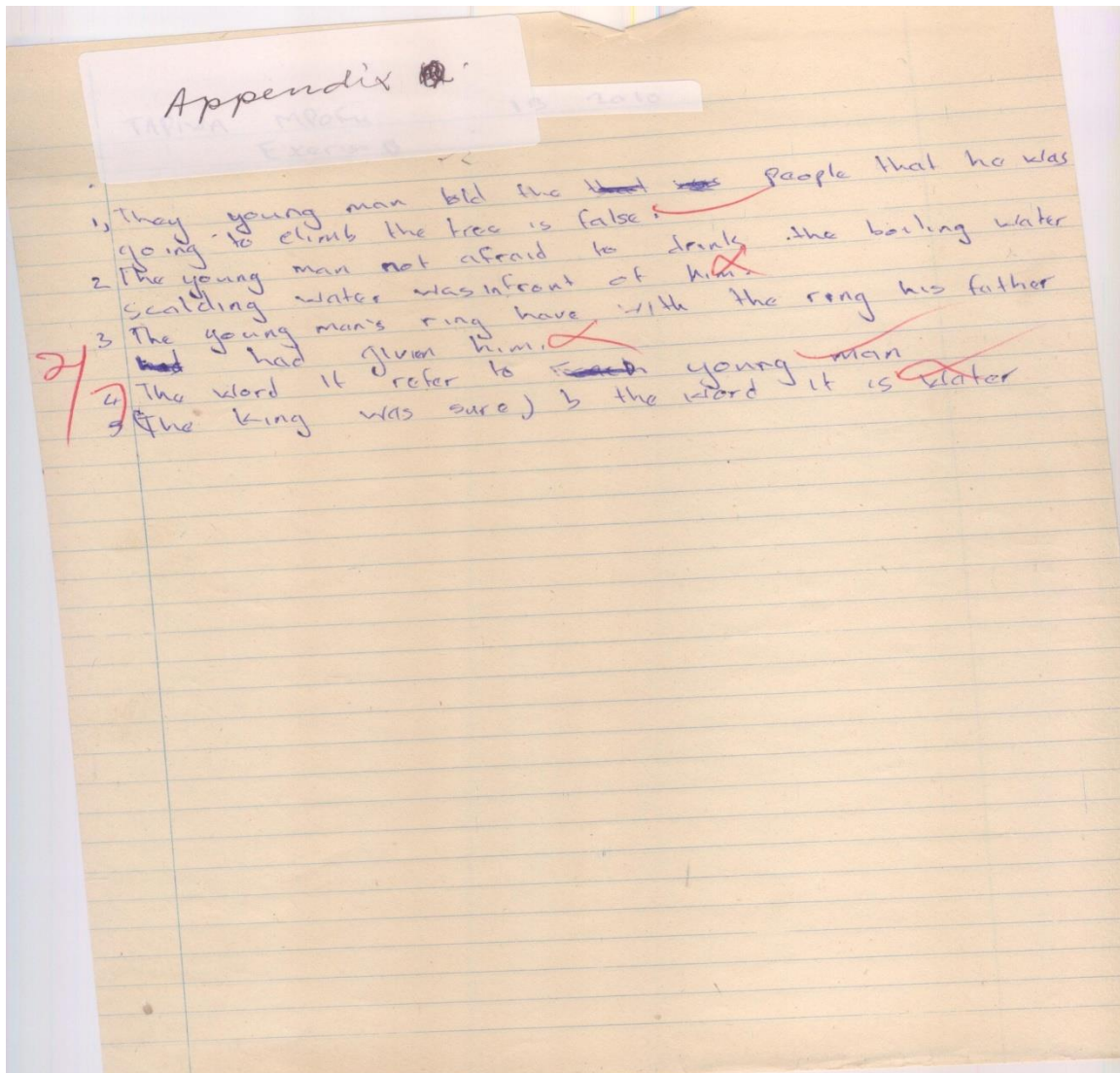
APPENDIX-R-2. Work sample for a below average pupil



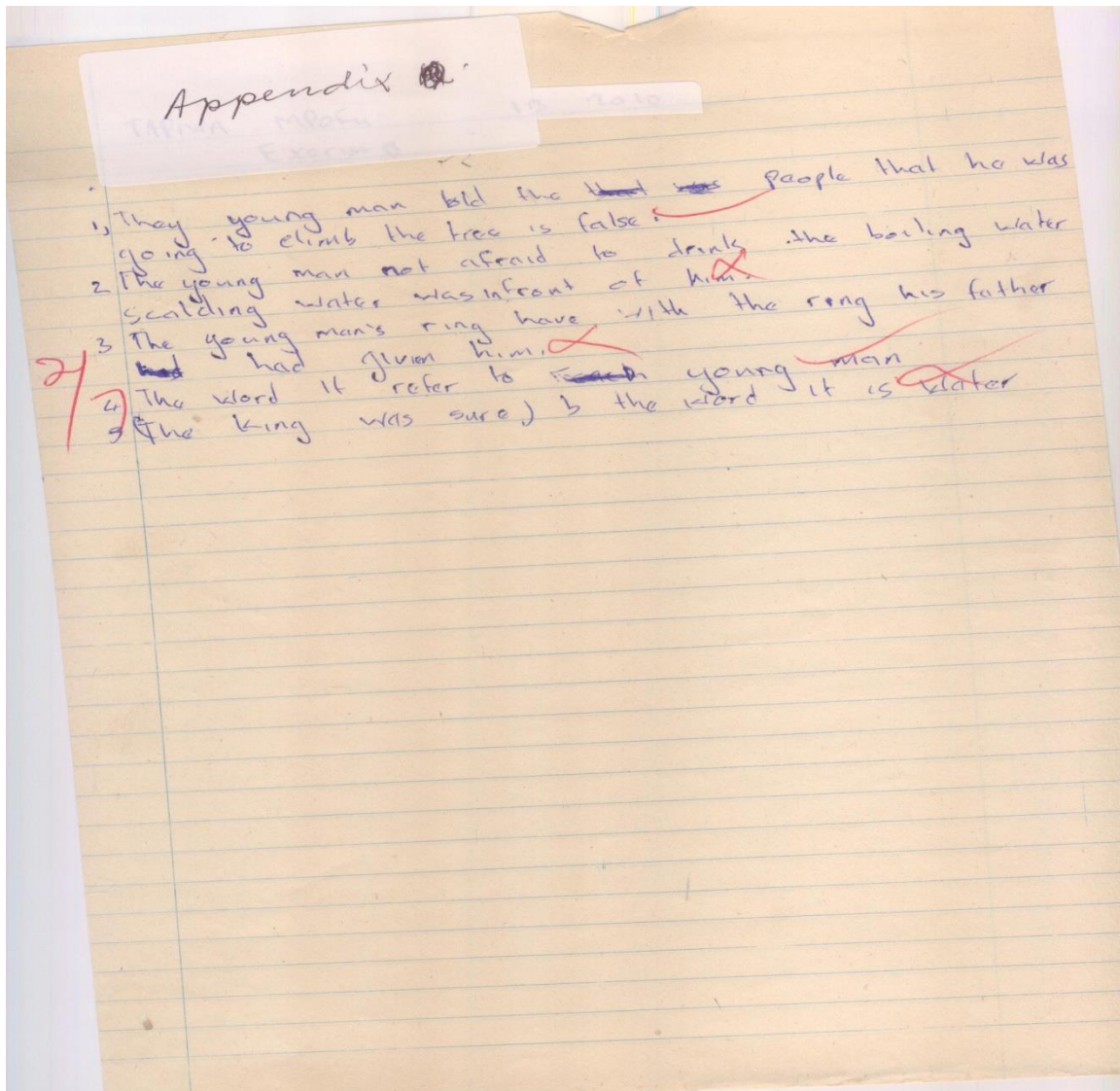
APPENDIX-R-3. Work sample for a below average pupil



APPENDIX-R-4. Work sample for a below average pupil



APPENDIX -R-5. Work sample for a below average pupil



Appendix-R-6

idea

$\frac{1}{40}$

Section A

- 1) Speckled
- 2) By saying a good afternoon. *MM*
- 3) ~~Business is quiet Everybody is complaining the boss added~~
- 4) He remembered Mr Bloch *VO*
- 4) Everybody is complaining
- 5) Because beggar stood facing them *2* with both hands cupped ready to receive.
- 6) Too many shops dealing in the same business everywhere. *1*
- 7) It means they ~~is~~ a smell inside the shop.
- 8) When the boss is out of the shop the workers are so free to do what they want *VO*
- 9) Complaining \Rightarrow to accuse
- 10) impatiently \Rightarrow to take thing not seriously / Rough.
- 11) occasion \Rightarrow journey
- 12) reverting \Rightarrow go back
- 13) reluctant \Rightarrow willing

Use the words in sentences as instructed. Summary

The boss go while while all workers was us

Appendix-R-7-

$$\frac{8}{40}$$

both were friends.

traveller change from frowning to smiling because he knew that the business was hard for Mr Bloch.

"Business is quite" because he mean that the business was running well.

the reason why boss said pony to give the beggar ~~for~~ something because he was kind and helpful.

boss was complaining about many furniture shops all around.

they were going to destroy the shop out.

the boss was away pony do the things in his order.

bulgery work.

boss was complaining about the working hard of his servant.

impatently beat her child with a hook stick.

wanted an appliances form in order to enter the Bank.

was sported at the occasion.

loaned money to the beggar.

Summary writing:

they are engaged. This seems as you get through tell them I will be about minutes late. The boss had finally gone. The rare occasion deserved to be celebrated. Both white and Black members of staff relaxed. I lost only one halpounds. I sometimes wonder and whether it's really worth it. Life is so short and then one still has to suffer!". No wonder their husbands not pay lobola for them. They are worth nothing lazy!". We reserve a place, an elevated place for our men.

you did not adequately answer

Appendix R 8

Disappointed

Change from frowning to smiling when he remembered
Mr. Bloch.

It means that the business is hard.

The African beggar facing them
both hands cupped ready to receive.

He complaining about beggar that they facing them
with both hands cupped ready to receive. So he

and Peaty to give him something.

It means that they cleaning out of the shop ^{put} putting

our politeness

then boss go to town or everywhere ^{all} members of staff

happy and relaxed.

words meaning

learning — to know how something is

Complaining — Say in badly way things that you feel.

Impatiently — having no care about someone or something

Occasion — Doing something



reverting — Use the words in sentence
as instructed by the teacher

Summary

As Mr Bloch wared impatiently at them with one hand
the other still holding the receiver the rare occasion
deserved to be celebrated. Appetites also seemed to be

whetted by the boss's absence. I lost only one and
I could eat a horse! I saw

Appendix-R-9

1. leaning.
2. He looked at the boss and smiled broadly and starts to speaking to the boss.
3. ~~It~~ remembering Mr Bloch. 
4. he mean that everybody ^{are} is complaining.
5. i) Two men met an African beggar.
ii) who stood facing them with both hands cupped ~~to~~  to receive.
6. it return and ~~see her jacket in the one place~~.
7. ~~Pantry get out in the shop~~.
8. Everybody in the work are ~~happy~~ ^{un} happy because of poor management of our boss Mr Bloch.

9. a) leaning \leftrightarrow he watch ~~at~~ in shining steel-bars.

c) complaining \leftrightarrow unhappy


d) impatiently \rightarrow starts to dial ~~a~~ numbers.

e) occasion \rightarrow agreement.

~~g) revering~~ \rightarrow

h) reluctant \rightarrow faithful.

Use the words in sentences as instructed.

 20

APPENDIX-R-10

$\frac{1}{40}$

Quiet

Rough greeting and disappoint a traveller

3. Puzzled makes the traveller change from 'greeting' to 'smiling' on picking his case to go.

He mean that the business is working properly and in good conditions

Ponty is poor

He is not dressed in nice clothes

The complaining of Mr Black is

The expression mean they is a dirty around them and they is something tripped

When the Boss in array, The African boys will play ^{workers}

Appendix R11

(4/14)

1. By greeting each other ^{with} their names ✓ ①

2. It means that the business ~~was~~ in good way.

3. Two reasons (i)

(ii)

4. Just give him something, party, please.

5. When the boss is away the worker is free. ✓ ①

9. Vocabulary words

(C) Complaining → When the police spotted the case, they said the case must be a very complaining.

(D) Impatient → Some people said my grandmother is very impatient. ✓ ①

(E) Occasion → During every occasion I like to wear trousers.

(F) leaning → My father always leaning a black suit.

(H) Relucant → My mother said to me I am so relucant to other people.

Summary writing.

It was Thursday morning when ^{the traveller} ~~proverbly~~ walked into his boss office and they just smiled at each other. The boss looked towards the door and said too many shops dealing in the same business everywhere talking to Adam who had just arrived. Mr Bloch left and Mrs Stein said the boss had finally gone. ✓ the rare occasion deserved to be celebrated. Sometimes I wonder and whether it's really worth it life is so short and then one still has to suffer. Shocking pink the things are all so spoilt. They sit the whole day no wonder their husbands don't pay any lobola for them? Lazy do you like me to bring the shoes. "No thanks, Johannes I was relucant"

Appendix-R-12-

Class : HC

Subject : English comprehension

School : Murpe Secondary/40
Put more effort.1, He was feeling so happy ~~so~~ give me word.

2,

3, Because he was told to come and see him again when he has time.

4

4, He mean that business can done anytime.

5, Because the ~~was~~ complaining beggar was ready to receive and the beggar was very hungry.

6, he was complaining about how his workers were working so he say there is so many shops dealing in the same business.

7, That they need to go out.

8, When the boss is out all members of the staff relaxed a lot of talk with voices pitched and a little louder than usual.

9, When he worked harder while the other staff where relaxed he went on complaining to his boss.

d, When the boss was going out he waved impatiently to his staff with one hand while the other was holding a receiver.

e. They have a special occasion they need to celebrate after their ~~had~~ last day workplace. *encompass*

Appendix-R-13-

When the boss left they were all free and relaxed. They started to make noise and were now finding something to eat because they were so hungry. The Jo was sended to the shop in time to buy food for Missus Johansen was not respected by any woman at the shop. He is treated like a woman or any child. This was all because the boss had left. They were all lazy and could sent to shops for a little thing reason. He was not happy with the way he treated ~~with~~ ^{by} women because he knew that woman must not send men because men are a top of women according to the custom. (12)

You left out important points!

R14

24

Appendix-R-14-

While the boss was absence all staff release and there was as usual a lot of talk with voices pitched a little louder than usual. Johannes one yelled go and get me a cold drink and a cream cake. Order me a toasted cheese Johannes am so hungry. I've been on strict diet for thirteen days and wonder and whether it's really worth it. Life is so short and the one still has to suffer. Oh Johannes go back to the chemist where you bought this lipstick yesterday and tell them the madam wants a shocking purple and not a rose colour like they give you. Johannes said things are all so spoilt. No wonder their husbands don't pay an lobola for them. They are worth nothing lazy

Do not use direct speech 130 words
but use reported speech to bring out
what the workers did and said

Appendix-R-15.

Appendix-R-15-

R15

The whites were talking loudly than usual. Mrs Stein sent Johannes to the chemist with the ~~lipstick~~ lipstick he had bought to change it with shocking pink. Women workers were sitting ^{only} saying Johannes, ~~Johanness~~ Johannes said the women workers were lazy.

(158 words)

Jan missed your summary by including a lot of irrelevant information - Jan was supposed to start from the time the boss left the work place.

Appendix-R-16-

10

The traveller asking to Mr Bloch how is your life. After that Mr Bloch questioned a traveller. And the traveller answered but traveller became frightened. ~~Traveller remember~~ Mr Bloch smiled and pick up his case to go. He joined together they moved towards the door. The bussiness was quite, and every worker complaining about you're boss. The two men met an African beggar who stood facing them with both hands ~~rest~~ ready to receive. The boss says its too quite man. The boss signalled to Adam to sit on his chair. Adam get out everybody thought he had gone. When the boss finally gone. There is a rare occasion deserved to be celebrate the both members whites and blacks. Its also seemed to be whittled by the boss's obseuse. The boss sent food to Johannes because boss has become ~~h~~ hungry. After that he posted Johannes to buy a shocking pink. The boss call Johannes and start to discourage her.

~~Food~~ included a lot of irrelevant material.

Appendix-R-17

What the workers remained doing and saying after Mr Bloch had left the workplace.

- The boss went out of the workplace
- The boss came back again
- The boss lastly went away
- Both white and black staff member relaxed
- The whites were talking loudly than usual
- Mrs Stein sent Johannes to the chemist with the lipstick he had bought to change it with pink shocking. Women workers were sitting only saying Johannes, ~~Johannes~~.
- Johannes said the women workers were lazy.
- Johannes said a woman according to their custom must not send a man.
- The boss waved impatiently at the two african boys with one hand, the other still holding the receiver.
- The boss phoned someone.

Summary.

After Mr Bloch had left the workplace, the boss went out of the workplace actually before leaving the workplace he looked towards the door and said, "It's too quiet, man. like a cemetery! Too many shops dealing in the same business everywhere. At every corner there is a furniture shop. I must go to town. Adam, come!" The boss signalled to Adam to sit on his chair, then he went. He came back and hurriedly to

Appendix-R-18-

R18

10. Summary

Both white and black members of staff rejoiced. On the white side of the line there was as usual a lot of talk with voices pitched a little louder than usual. "Johannes," one yelled, "Go and get me a cold drink and a cream cake." "Order me a toasted cheese too, Johannes, I am so hungry, I could eat a horse!" cried another, "I've been on strict diet for thirteen days and I lost only one and half pounds. I sometimes wonder and whether it's really worth it. Life is so short and then one still has to suffer!" "Oh, Johannes," she said, "go back to the chemist where you bought this lipstick yesterday and tell them the madam wants a shocking pink and not a rose colour like they gave you." "Shocking pink, yes missus, shocking pink," Johannes recited as he came towards me.

Words [148]

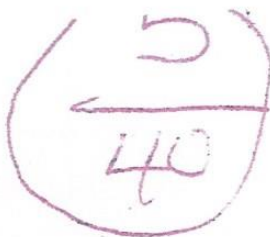
Do not use direct speech when writing a summary. Just tell us what the workers said in reported speech as one person asked Johannes to go and get him a cold drink and a cream cake.

Appendix-R-19-

Appliances: Property ~~is~~ used in homes.
 Complaining: Everybody was ~~showing~~ ~~dis~~ about the shop.
 Impatiently: He was irritated.
 Complaining: Everyone was dissatisfied with the sh
 Occasion: free time given/opportunity.
 Use the words in sentences as instructed. (6/20)

SUMMARY:

After the boss had left. The workers relaxed. They started making noise. They were also hungry and ~~started~~ to send Johannes to the shops to find them something to eat. They also make funnies to each other. The ~~send~~ Johannes to the shops many times. He was now their kitchen boy. They even send him many times with some silly thing like tip stick. Missus was one of the women who ~~send~~ Johannes to the shops many times. It was now boring him. He started complaining to himself. When he was explaining he also said that they were disrespecting him because they were women and he was a man. (106)



Appendix-R-20-

Class: 4b

Subject: English Comprehension

School: Murape Secondary

- 1 Smiled
- 2 He ~~looked at boss and smiled broadly.~~
- 3 The traveller ~~disappointed nodded and signed~~
- 3 The traveller frowned, puzzled, then perhaps remembering Mr Bloch, smiled and picked up his case to go.
- 4 "Everybody is complaining," the boss added.
- 5 "Just give him something, Pony"
- 6 i. ~~Removed his jacket from the rack and said put it on~~
6. He looked towards the door and said, "It's too quiet, man."
- 7 He waved impatiently
- 8 The appetites also seemed to be whetted by the boss's absence

- a leaning → understanding
 - b Appliances → wishes / his head slowly
 - c Complaining → wishes / his head slowly problem faced.
 - d Impatiently → the other still holding the receiver
 - f whetted → it's seemed
- Use the words in selected as instructed

K 21

Appendix-R-21-

- Appliances: Property ~~is~~ used in homes.
 Complaining: ~~Everybody was showing~~ about the shop.
 Impatiently: He was irritated.
 Complaining: Everyone was dissatisfied with the sh
 Occasion: free time given/opportunity.
 Use the words in sentences as instructed. (6/20)

SUMMARY

After the boss had left. The workers relaxed. They started making noise. They were also hungry and started to send Johannes to the shops to find them something to eat. They also make funnies to each other. The send Johannes to the shops many times. He was now their kitchen boy. They even send him many times with some silly thing like tip stick. Missus was one of the women who send Johannes to the shops many times. It was now boring him. He started complaining to himself. When he was complaining he also said that they were disrespecting him because they were women and he was a man. (106)

Appendix-R-22-

suffer Johannes go back to the chemist where you bought this lipstick and tell them madam wants a shocking pink. The things are all so spilt. They sit the whole day and call Johannes, Johannes, they are worth nothing but Lazy.

Summary

By the time Mr Bolch left ~~at~~ the workplace both white and Black members of staff relaxed. On the white side of the line there was as usual a lot of talk with voices pitched a little louder than usual. Appetites seemed to be whetted ~~by~~ the boss's absence.

Order me a toasted cheese and the other card go and get me a cold drink and a cream cake. I've on strict diet for thirteen days and I lost only one and half pounds. Life is short and then one still has to suffer Johannes go back to the chemist where you bought this lipstick and tell them madam wants a shocking pink. The things are all so spilt. They sit the whole day and call Johannes, Johannes they are worth nothing but Lazy.

[134 words]

Use reported speech rather than direct words that were said by the speaker.

APPENDIX-S - LESSON OBSERVATION NOTES HoD

TITLE : .. Comprehension Work - "School Under Trees"

PROFICIENCY

.. WAS very cheerful and eagerly picked off her lesson by probing pp/ls to say situations when people learn under trees. This was a relevant pre-reading activity aimed at sensitizing pp/ls to the passage. For example, pp/ls came up with such responses as "people learn under trees due to shortage of classes." This was from known to unknown approach which aroused curiosity.

The lesson then transformed to loud reading while pp/ls took turns and then the teacher picked up and finished the passage. During this stage, she paused to discuss issues likely to inhibit understanding eg. "What's a refugee camp?" among other issues. As post-reading activity, she puzzled the text through question and answer on characters and pp/ls responded very well. Transition was gradual and activities were really lesson directed. Mrs. Mutazi had full control as she kept on silencing those who disturbed.

CONCLUSION

After thorough text discussion, pupils answered comprehension questions in the book.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The lesson was well sequenced and methods were pupil centred which was good. Also, the teacher displayed thorough planning as seen in the extensive discussion of the passage. However, while loud reading is a good approach for a change, turn-taking reading aloud greatly affects progress as the reader will be pre-occupied with discussion and the rest tend to focus on errors made instead of

APPENDIX-S-2 - LESSON OBSERVATION NOTES HoD

TOPIC: Comprehension Remedial

INTRODUCTION

Ms. Ntambura looked very confident before her class and introduced her lesson by indicating that it was a remedial of the previous comprehension test.

DISCUSSION

The teacher picked a volunteer and the lesson transformed into loud reading of the passage by a pupil. During the whole reading stage, the teacher occasionally corrected the reader whenever she read/pronounced wrongly. In addition, in some cases, the teacher passed to discuss phrases likely to inhibit overall understanding among other issues. As the post-reading activity, through question and answer pupils gave brief highlight of the entire text and a handful responded. The lesson shifted to text-question discussions with the teacher explaining answers beyond what was asked. It was interesting to note that the teacher probed until pupils came up with correct answers.

CONCLUSION

Question and answer dominated but there was a hive of activity as the teacher threw questions across the class.

After thorough discussion and highlighting pupils weaknesses, pupils wrote corrections.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Though the Socratic method tended to dominate the lesson, the teacher established an interactive-atmosphere by trying to throw questions across the class throughout. Ms. Ntambura displayed preparedness as observed in the extensive discussion of the passage. However, it was necessary for the teacher to write answers on chalkboard.

APPENDIX-T- 2009 EXAMINATION RESULTS

2009

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SPORT, ARTS AND CULTURE																								
ORDINARY LEVEL RESULTS ANALYSIS: 2009																								
SCHOOL_SEKE					DISTRICT															MASHONLAND EAST PROVINCE				
O'LEVEL 2009 SUBJECT	CANDIDATES			male (indicate number)							Female (indicate number)							% PASS RATE						
	Male	Female	Total	A	B	C	D	E	U	A	B	C	D	E	U	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%			
English Language	270	218	488	1	20	58	42	33	116	2	38	48	37	28	82	79	29.3	88	40.4	167	34.2			
English Literature	9	16	25	0	0	7	1	0	1	1	5	7	1	0	2	7	77.8	13	81.3	20	80.0			
Shona	233	227	460	1	8	27	43	35	120	0	24	46	44	29	84	36	15.5	70	33.8	106	24.1			
Technical Graphics	5	0	5	0	0	0	3	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0			
History	147	119	266	6	14	27	19	18	65	4	10	16	11	10	68	47	32.0	30	25.2	77	28.9			
Geography	195	155	350	3	13	30	42	27	80	2	9	15	24	18	87	46	23.6	26	16.8	72	20.6			
Religious studies	24	30	54	0	2	2	1	4	15	0	1	1	1	1	21	25	4	16.7	2	6.7	6	11.1		
Mathematics 4008	135	127	262	3	8	7	6	7	104	2	1	7	5	5	107	18	13.3	10	7.9	28	10.7			
Integrated Science	241	196	437	7	19	23	40	34	118	3	11	14	34	30	104	49	20.3	26	14.3	77	17.6			
Biology	12	14	26	0	2	3	2	3	2	1	0	3	3	2	5	5	41.7	4	28.6	9	34.8			
Physics																								
Chemistry	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	100.0	0	0.0	1	100.0			
Building	25	3	28	0	2	7	7	1	8	1	0	0	1	1	0	9	36.0	1	33.3	10	35.7			
Woodwork	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0			
Accounts	30	84	114	1	0	3	2	1	21	4	4	11	11	8	28	4	13.3	19	29.7	23	24.5			
Commerce	185	152	337	0	5	22	20	13	125	0	2	7	9	19	115	27	14.6	9	5.9	36	10.7			
Computers																								
Agriculture	59	36	95	0	14	18	11	5	11	2	8	10	8	1	32	32	54.2	20	55.8	52	54.7			
HIS Biology																								
Fashion and Fabrics	3	37	40	0	0	0	1	1	1	2	2	10	10	5	0	0	0.0	14	37.8	14	35.0			
Food and Nutrition	5	10	15	0	0	0	3	0	2	0	0	3	3	2	0	0	0.0	3	30.0	3	20.0			
Economics	0																							
Art																								
Physical Science	6	1	7	1	2	2	1	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	5	83.3	1	100.0	6	85.7			
Metal Work																								
Neteole																								
FRENCH																								
BUSINESS STUDIES																								
MUSIC																								
DESIGN & TECH																								
TOTAL NUMBER OF CANDIDATES																CANDIDATE BY CATEGORY								
																MALE	MALE	MALE	MALE	MALE	MALE			
																NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO			
																%	%	%	%	%	%			
																NO	NO	NO	NO	NO	NO			
																%	%	%	%	%	%			
WRITING 5 OR MORE SUBJECTS																243	202	445	243	100	202	100	445	100
PASSING 5 OR MORE SUBJECTS																27	25	52	27	11.1	25	12.4	52	11.7
PASSING 4 SUBJECTS																12	8	20	12	4.8	8	4.0	20	4.5
PASSING 3 SUBJECTS																22	16	38	22	9.1	16	7.9	38	8.5
PASSING 2 SUBJECTS																28	25	53	28	10.7	25	12.4	53	11.5
PASSING 1 SUBJECT																31	34	65	31	12.8	34	16.8	65	14.6
PASSING 0 SUBJECT																146	104	250	146	60.1	104	51.5	250	56.2
PASSING 5 OR MORE SUBJECTS INCLUDING ENGLISH LANGUAGE																25	25	50	25	10.3	25	12.4	50	11.2
PASSING 5 OR MORE SUBJECT INCLUDING ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND MATHEMATICS																13	8	21	13	5.3	8	4.0	21	4.7
PASSING 5 OR MORE SUBJECTS INCLUDING MATHEMATICS AND SCIENCE																13	8	21	13	5.3	8	4.0	21	4.7
DISTRICT PASS RATE																11.2%								
THE INFORMATION GIVEN IS CERTIFIED AS CORRECT																								
NAME OF DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER																								

Clarified in Table 4.13

APPENDIX-U-1. Sigmund Freud's Theories

Sigmund Freud (May 6, 1856–September 23, 1939) was a physiologist, medical doctor, and father of psychoanalysis, and is generally recognized as one of the most influential and authoritative thinkers of the twentieth century. He was an Austrian neurologist and the co-founder of the psychoanalytic school of psychology.

These conflicts are mostly unconscious. According to Freud, personality develops during childhood and is critically shaped through a series of five psychosexual stages, which he called his psychosexual theory of development.

Sigmund Freud emphasized the importance of the unconscious mind, and a primary assumption of Freudian theory is that the unconscious mind governs behaviour to a greater degree than people suspect. Indeed, the goal of psychoanalysis is to make the unconscious conscious

Sigmund Freud was the first to use the term psychoanalysis in 1896. From that point his theories blossomed. Freud did not invent the terms unconscious, conscious, or conscience; however, he was pivotal in making them popular. Freud accomplished this through his theory of psychological reality: id, ego, and superego

Freudian Psychology is based on the work of Sigmund Freud (1856-1939). ... Originally trained as a neurologist, Freud is best known for his theories of the unconscious mind, dreams, infantile sexuality, libido, repression, and transference—all of which continue to influence the field of psychology to varying degrees.

Although in everyday language, ego means the extent to which one thinks highly of one's self, in psychology it means something different. It is an old term, being most popularly coined by Sigmund Freud in his tripartite model of the mind (id, ego, superego, as "it", "I" and "above I").²⁷ Jun 2013

Appendix-U-2. John William Money

John William Money (8 July 1921 – 7 July 2006) was a psychologist, sexologist and author, specializing in research into sexual identity and biology of gender. He was one of the first scientists to study the psychology of sexual fluidity and how the societal constructs of "gender" affect an individual. His work has been both celebrated for its innovation and criticized, particularly in regard to his involvement with the sex-reassignment of David Reimer (Diamond AND Sigmundson HK (1997) and his eventual suicide. Money published around 2,000 articles, books, chapters and reviews. His writing has been translated into many languages. Money has received around 65 world-wide honours, awards, and degrees, but has been discredited by, most notably, David Reimer, prior to his suicide (Ehrhardt,2007).

Born in Morrinsville, New Zealand, to a family of English and Welsh descent,^[3] Money initially studied psychology at Victoria University of Wellington,^[4] graduating with a double master's degree in psychology and education in 1944.^[5] Money was a junior member of the psychology faculty at the University of Otago in Dunedin, but in 1947, at the age of 26, he emigrated to the United States to study at the Psychiatric Institute of the University of Pittsburgh. He left Pittsburgh and earned his PhD from Harvard University in 1952. He was married briefly in the 1950s but had no children.

Money proposed and developed several theories and related terminology, including gender identity, gender role,^[6] gender-identity/role, and lovemap. He also changed the word "perversions" to "paraphilias" and the word "sexual preference" to "sexual orientation", striving towards less judgmental descriptions and arguing that attraction is not necessarily a matter of free will.^[2] Money was a professor of paediatrics and medical psychology at Johns Hopkins University from 1951 until his death. He also established the Johns Hopkins Gender Identity Clinic in 1965 along with Claude Migeon who was the head of plastic surgery at Johns Hopkins. The hospital began performing sexual reassignment surgery in 1966.^[7] At Johns Hopkins, Money was also involved with the Sexual Behaviours Unit, which ran studies on sex-reassignment surgery. He received the Magnus Hirschfeld Medal in 2002 from the German Society for Social-Scientific Sexuality Research.

Money was an early supporter of New Zealand's arts, both literary and visual. He was a noted friend and supporter of author Janet Frame. In 2002, as his Parkinson's disease worsened, Money donated a substantial portion of his art collection to the Eastern Southland Art Gallery in Gore, New Zealand.^[8] In 2003, the New Zealand Prime Minister, Helen Clark, opened the John Money wing at the Eastern Southland Gallery. Money died 7 July 2006, one day before his 85th birthday, in Towson, Maryland,^[10] of complications from Parkinson's disease.

Appendix- V. Teacher -3. Observation

Observed lesson:	10 Teacher 3
Date:	[Monday] 18/10/2110
Time:	09.30– 10.40 hours [Day 6 of participant observation]
Class:	Form Y-A No. of students 46 [30 boys and 16 girls]
Task:	Comprehension writing
Topic:	Androcles the lion. [pp 106]
Time;	70 minutes [2 periods]
Objective:	At the end of the lesson students will be able to discuss answers to comprehension questions and be able to answer questions beyond the literal level.

As this was my tenth day to do the research observation, I got to the classroom about 6 minutes early since students were coming in from break and I wanted to observe how participants would settle and the preparations the teacher made before the lesson. I sat at the back, on the right side between the middle and right row of the desks where I had been authorised to sit by the class teacher. Pupils sat in three rows made up of twin sitters, although they sat three at a desk due to the shortage of furniture: one behind another facing the chalkboard. There was no fixed seating arrangement in this classroom. In the front, directly opposite me, were the teacher's chair and table. On the table were a few pieces of chalk and a textbook that the teacher was going to use for the lesson. I looked up from my chair and saw Teacher 3 talking to a few boys who had come from break a few minutes late after she had started the lesson. Apprehensively, I scribbled down the class information and anything to go with the observations that I intended to carry out which included: the topic, time of observation, the number of pupils and the date.

Immediately there was some laughter coming from the left far end of the classroom and suddenly all was quiet. When I stopped what I was doing I looked up and saw Teacher 3 looking sternly at the far end at BH, GT, and GK who, during interviews, said: "Comprehension is difficult, it needs proper English, I don't pass it, some questions need a lot of thinking, and I find it difficult to think of what to write". All this showed that these students had no interest in the lesson because it's difficult for them

and they were sharing the same dilemma on their desk. Teacher 3 said to them “You did not submit your comprehension books for marking last week and you are starting to make noise at the start of this lesson, now keep quiet”. That was Teacher 3 talking to BH,GT and GK. All the pupils were attentive after the teacher’s stern language.

Teacher 3 then started to distribute the few text books she had. There was some confusion again when one girl was causing some noise with another girl. It was GQ who was asking about a previous comprehension question she didn’t get correct while the teacher was still speaking. Teacher 3 did not take it calmly. She ordered GQ to shut up and told her to stand up until she finished distributing books. In the meantime the whole class was all eyes towards GQ and her friend because the teacher had shouted at her out of her mind; she said sorry to her later. After her apology she then gave them a small talk about the need to be attentive by mentioning some consequences of not being attentive, one of them being that you will be stranded again when doing the work on your own.

Talking in my lessons cannot be tolerated and asking about previous lessons from a friend will not help either; not asking the teacher will further worsen the situation. Subsequently, she turned to the standing GQ and warned her before letting her sit down. BH, GT and GK were told to remain behind after the lesson so that she could try to give them extra coaching in their problems with the previous work. The whole explanation lasted about 10 minutes. There are about ten pupils in this class whose comprehension work is so backward that they would need remedial teaching to help them catch up. I would contend that the class timetable be restructured in order to give these students some remedial teaching in order to make them catch up.

Before she wrote the title of the new passage on the chalkboard, Teacher 3 thanked the rest of the class for being attentive and doing their work and sending it for marking in time. Another child, BF, raised his hand about some work he did not understand, but Teacher 3 told him to remain behind with the other three students already told to remain behind so that she could move forward with a new lesson. Teacher 3 drew students’ attention to the new lesson by referring students to the picture so that they could understand what the story was about. Many got interested as they all knew about rural life. A student raised his hand and narrated what was happening in the picture. Teacher 3 then asked how many people were in the picture and GO said two; there

were many who had raised their hands to be nominated to give the answer but GO gave it before she was nominated. Teacher 3 asked students why they thought it was a jungle. BJ said he thought it was a jungle because there are trees and an animal, possibly a lion. GO further said that she knows that lions in Zimbabwe live in the forest. Teacher 3 said, "Good GO that is a very good answer, well done!" Then Teacher 3 introduced the story of Androcles and the lion.

Teacher 3 read the passage to the class while all students were listening attentively as their interest was captured by the introduction of the picture. She then asked another pupil to read the passage and GQ volunteered to read and she read the passage very well. Teacher 3 corrected on word pronunciations while a pupil read. She called another pupil, BE, to start reading again from where GQ had finished and she followed the same method of correcting and giving models of reading certain mispronounced words as pupils read the passage. A third pupil read when BE had finished reading the passage, and this time GN seemed to have read with fewer mispronunciations and Teacher 3 did not interject as she did with GQ and BE.

After those three pupils finished reading the passage, Teacher 3 then introduced the students to the questions she wanted them to do in their books. She only read two questions to the class; "What feelings do you get from reading the first paragraph about the lion? How does the playwright make you feel like that?" After reading those questions to the class there was no response from the class. This gave the observer the impression that students do not understand questions beyond the literal level. I hoped students could have been given time to read the passage silently to make them get the schema of the passage. The students could not answer the first question because the teacher started with a difficult one; she could have started with a literal question then go to implied or critical level type of questions. I suppose that's why students could not answer the first question. Teacher 3 tried to explain again in her own words, paragraph by paragraph, but still students could not get the answer from the passage because it was an implied question.

Teacher 3 went on to ask students again, "What words don't you understand in the passage?" BF raised his hand and said, "I'm not even able to read the word." This puzzled the teacher who did not know how to solve the situation and this was worsened by the fact that I was there, a visitor. Another pupil raised her hand again

and said she had a problem in comprehending the passage, even though many had said they were quite familiar with jungle life. Teacher 3 said, "Ok, let us start from the beginning". Teacher 3 was left with no other option but to start the lesson all over again, then she said, "Look in the passage, pick words you don't understand and let us write them on the chalkboard. For example, do you see the words contemplates and melancholy" and she wrote them on the chalkboard. There were no answers and so Teacher 3 had to ask students to look for the words in their dictionaries.

Unfortunately there were only three dictionaries in the classroom. At the end one pupil who had a dictionary raised his hand to say that he had seen the word "contemplates": "It means have something as a possible intention". Then Teacher 3 further elaborated that "It is just to consider something". This eased the situation and another pupil raised his hand and was called to give his answer for the word "melancholy", "it is sad or depressed". Afterwards there were Ahs! And Ehs! Then, for the benefit of the rest of the class, Teacher 3 went on to say that it is when you are not happy, maybe because you are ill, you get miserable and downhearted. This whole process took more than 15 minutes. Before the children answered the questions, Teacher 3 used the two words she had made children find the meaning for and said, "The lion was depressed because it was feeling pains from its foot and moving on three legs". The feeling you can get from the passage is a feeling of depression and misery and the playwright make you feel miserable and desperate by describing how the lion was moving because of pain.

Then Teacher 3 said, "I want you to take your books and answer questions 2 to 8 in your books". I then stood up and went around observing especially those pupils who appeared to be struggling with their comprehension work. I took a peep at BF and BE's work. They were not writing and had not even written the date and title of the passage. I got interested and moved closer because I wanted to see when BE and BF would get serious with the work when other students had long finished writing the date and title and were now reading the questions before they could start reading the passage. Instead both of them were in a bit of a mess, accusing each other about the whereabouts of the English textbook. BF said BE carried the book home with him but BE strongly refuted this and cried and they remained sitting while everybody else was now engaged in doing the comprehension work, and so they tried to use their

neighbours' books. When the bell rang these two were among the first ones to pack their bags to go for lunch.

Teacher 3 called for order and told those she had told to remain to come to the front desks; the rest of the class was told to finish off their work during their own time or do the work as homework. Only those I did not ask to remain behind with me can go. There was complete silence as the children were going out of the classroom and Teacher 3 went to meet those she asked to remain behind. I don't think the students who remained behind were benefitting because they were remaining behind when everybody was going out for lunch. It's not an ideal time to give remedial teaching to struggling students.

I thanked Teacher 3 and went to the staffroom to wait for my next observation lesson. Taylor and Bogdan [1998] argue ...qualitative data analysis is a dynamic and creative process [p.141]. The research design for my thesis though provided for a triangulation of data compilation methods that included participant observation ... and document evidence. ...Observation contributed to a set of theoretical and realistic tools for inward bound theoretical conclusions [May, 2002p.216]. Then I sat down analysing and coding my data in the staffroom.

This lesson pull out is an example of numerous classroom proceedings and activities that were conducted during my stay at Apollo School. This was one of the lessons I observed that had a lot of problems during my stay at this school. I will also stand to compromise here that, whereas my major focus was on the participants, I realised that my observation notes had more of other pupils than research participants. It is important to note any relevant information that I found helpful to include in my study[see para: 4.2.1 Research Q1 p.102].

4.2.7 Sample of work

Observed selected children's work. Some mistakes are underlined.

Topic: Androcles the lion

1. a. Feeling of fear and resentment.
- b. Writer used words like melancholy to make me feel like that.

2. Wife was rather handsome pampered and lazy while Androcles was hard working and brave.

3. She said she could hardly drag one foot after another it means tired.

4. Walk

5. She accused him of being cruel because she was feeling tired he was urging her to walk faster.

6. She is not a good person because she her husband who was telling her to do something good.

7. This was the feeling of frustration being shown by Androcles.

8. The was for them to be married when they had different characters.

9. Repeated—again and again

-Piteously—kindly

-Ridiculously—surprisingly

-Prime of life --first of life

-Threatening—frightening

-Occasionally—time to time

-Glory in it—happy in it

-Making yourself a laughing stock –embarrassing

-Atheists—earth

-Addicted—added

Topic: Angels of mercy

Sophia poor because leave in clay house and thatched.

Water feared village Limpopo.

Sophia served by tree and pepol.

Water feared them and carrying away.

Sophia suffered hungry and not sleep.

Sophia puerno money boat go away.

Succumbed raising flood water.

Succumped to the raising water. Carlisto Mabuiango deserve described brave because help pupol.

Meanigs of words as they are used in the passage:

Impending –pending

Waded- wed _____ Cheered – in running

Coaxing- out Precarious-dangerous_ Overshadowed- dark Scrambled-climbed

Strapped- stripped Soared- saw pupol

Appendix W-1.

O-level English Language Syllabus: Subject 1122

1.0 RATIONALE 1.1 The changes in O-Level syllabus are intended to make the teaching and learning of English Language conforms to the changes taking place in the educational system of Zimbabwe and to: 1.1.1 Streamline the O-Level language syllabus such that it reflects, and is consistent with, educational objectives from primary to lower secondary; 1.1.2 Provide Zimbabwean pupils with functional communication skills which they will need in their working situations; 1.1.3 Stimulate pupils to read, appreciate and enjoy a wide range of books, so as to develop their language abilities, increase their general knowledge and form a lifelong reading habit.

2.0 APPROACH 2.1 This syllabus is intended to provide pupils with communication skills necessary for the different roles and situations in which they are likely to find themselves after leaving school. It is hoped to make the learning of the English Language more functional and purposeful by drawing language structures and examples from, and relating them to, such roles and situations. It is also intended that Language learning should incorporate Zimbabwean and similar social, economic, political, scientific and technological experiences and reflect national needs in these areas.

3.0 AIMS The aims of the syllabus are to: 3.1 promote in pupils an awareness of 3.1.1 The usefulness of the English Language as a medium of national and international communication; 3.1.2 The value of effective language command and use for personal and national development. 3 3.2 develop reading abilities and skills that 3.2.1 are useful for everyday life such as reading instructions, newspapers, reports; 3.2.2 are essential for reading books on various subjects across the curriculum, including appropriate techniques for intensive and extensive reading such as skimming and scanning; 3.2.3 will motivate pupils to develop a lifelong reading habit for enjoyment and knowledge. 3.3 provide the opportunity for pupils to obtain sufficient understanding and knowledge of the English Language in order to 3.3.1 become effective users of English in a place of work; 3.3.2 communicate effectively in both spoken and written English in different situations 4 4.1.3 interpret speech acts such as apologies and compliments in a variety of social situations; 4.1.4 respond appropriately to utterances in a variety of social situations; 4.1.5 initiate speech acts

such as complaints and requests appropriately in a variety of social situations; 4.1.6 identify and use correct forms of address taking into account the addressee and the situation; 4.1.7 recognise appropriate use of register in a variety of social situations. 4.1.8 identify and use register appropriately depending on the topic, participants, settings, occasion and purpose; 4.1.9 recognise and identify appropriateness of meaning in an utterance in a given social situation in terms of manner, mood, attitude and atmosphere; 4.1.10 identify the intention of an utterance such as to persuade, ridicule, motivate, mock, cheer and discourage; 4.1.11 derive different meanings from an utterance according to the situation.

4.2 Writing skills At the Ordinary Level examination, candidates should be able to:

4.2.1 write a continuous narrative, an argument and a piece of descriptive or informative writing such as that of a process, of a character, a scene or of an event;

4.2.2 write letters, both formal and informal, and a report from notes, diagrams, statistical data, pictures;

4.2.3 write in a style and register appropriate to the subject matter, displaying a range of vocabulary and idiom appropriate to that subject matter;

5 4.2.4 make general points and exemplify them; 4.2.5 organize their work satisfactorily into paragraphs and show a sense of cohesion /coherence within paragraphs;

4.2.6 show an awareness of discourse markers that include 'however', 'moreover', 'on the other hand', 'first', 'thus'; 4.2.7 write with grammatical accuracy, spell accurately and punctuate their work correctly. In particular, in punctuation, they should be able to mark sentence boundaries and direct speech.

4.3 English Comprehension and Communication Comprehension materials 4.3.1 At the Ordinary Level examination, candidates should be able to read and respond appropriately to various authentic texts that may be; - extracts from novels and essays - extracts from newspapers and magazines - advertising material

4.3.2 Candidates should also be able to interpret information displayed in graphs and charts. Comprehension skills Candidates should be able to:

4.3.3 Follow the sequence of events in a text and recognise how language is used to indicate these; 4.3.4 Follow the development of an argument;

4.3.5 Recognise main propositions and exemplifying or qualifying details; 4.3.6 Identify the writer's attitude(s) towards his or her subject;

6 4.3.7 Understand explicitly stated information; 4.3.8 Infer information that is indirectly stated; 4.3.9 Summarise aspects of the text relevant to answering specific questions;

4.3.10 Understand or work out meanings of words and phrases.

5.0 SCHEME OF ASSESSMENT The ability of candidates to express themselves clearly and to present their answers neatly and accurately will be considered in the assessment of their work. Two compulsory papers: Paper 1: (One and half hours) (50 marks) Candidates will be required to express themselves in English and to demonstrate their ability to write English in a variety of ways: a) a composition (30 marks), for which topics considered suitable for Zimbabwe will be set. They will be on different subjects, including scientific ones, and will try to cater for as wide a range of writing styles, registers and interests as possible. The topics set may be descriptive, informative, argumentative or narrative; b) communication in writing which may be situational (20 marks) such as reporting for a newspaper, a letter, or memorandum, or information transfer involving interpretation of such materials as diagrams, statistical data, pictures and graphs. There will be a choice of topics in part (a) and one question in part (b) as described above. Marks will be allocated according to the desired length of each answer. Candidates will be awarded marks for appropriateness and clarity of expression and accuracy of idiom, grammar, vocabulary, spelling and punctuation. 7 Paper 2: (Two hours) (50 marks) a) (40 marks) A passage or passages of prose will be set upon which candidates will be expected to answer questions; (i) to test their ability to understand the content and argument of the given text and to infer meaning from it and the writer's attitude(s) towards his or her subject; (ii) on vocabulary derived from the passage; (iii) to test their ability to summarise. b) (10 marks) A test of the candidates' ability to recognise appropriate use of variety and register in a range of situations.

TEACHING OBJECTIVES FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE – APPENDIX INTRODUCTION The following supplement to the English Language O-Level Syllabus has been prepared by the Curriculum Development Unit. The assessment objectives (Section 4) in the syllabus sum up those objectives of the syllabus which can and will be tested. However, these are necessarily just a partial selection of the wider range of skills pupils are expected to acquire during the two-year course. The supplement supplies the teacher with a fuller list of skills which must be taught over the two-year period. This is intended to help the teacher plan a fuller, broader, and more effective course which will better achieve the broader aims of the syllabus.

NOTE ON APPROACH The teaching of English Language, particularly at the upper secondary level, often has more testing than teaching. The teachers assign a complete

comprehension or composition exercise, mark the answers right or wrong, then assign another similar exercise, threatening the pupils that they must do better or else! The teachers do not explain the reasons for the answers, nor teach pupils strategies to use to try to do better in the future. How difficult it must be for pupils to learn and improve when they only spend their time in making yet more mistakes! One alternative to constant testing is the skills approach; this is the approach recommended by the Zimbabwe School Examinations Council. The skills approach tries to give pupils practice in doing small, simple things correctly before they attempt more difficult things. Pupils learn step by step, progressing from the simple to the complex, mastering each step along the way. 8 The skills approach is of course the natural way to learn. Think of the following example: before a child can run, he or she must first learn to sit, crawl, stand and then walk. In the same way, before a pupil can write a coherent, competent and persuasive argumentative essay, he or she must be able to write grammatically correct sentences, form cohesive paragraphs, use discourse markers (see 4.2 (c), and all other skills enumerated in points 3.1 (a) to (i) and 3.2(b) of the teaching objectives below. These skills must be taught consciously and separately, which involves a lot of thought and planning. It is important when following the skills approach to keep in mind the difference between general knowledge or 'content' and actual English Language 'skills'. An English Language lesson must be based on an English Language skill such as those listed in this document. The objective of a lesson is never only to have pupils understand a particular bit of content, such as 'the importance of trees' or methods of irrigation'. While many lessons may even contain in-depth discussions of aspects of general knowledge, those are just a medium through which the actual English Language skills being taught in the lesson are presented and practised. Here are some tips on how to plan for the skills approach. 1. As a department, make a school syllabus (scope and sequence chart) using the official syllabus and these teaching objectives. Do not make your school syllabus using only a textbook or textbooks. The school syllabus should cover the two years of the Ordinary Level course and should develop from a similar school syllabus your department makes for the Zimbabwe Junior Certificate course. 2. To make a school.

TEACHING OBJECTIVES FOR ENGLISH LANGUAGE 1. ORAL

COMMUNICATION 1.1 Speaking Phrasing and stress: pupils should be aware that English has a system of grouping words in phrases, each with a stressed (louder)

word. In all the following speaking skills, they should be able to identify pauses and stressed words in spoken English. N.B. this should not be taught in isolation but integrated with the skills below.

1.1.1. Expressing ideas orally Pupils should be able to communicate ideas clearly, accurately and fluently through such activities as: a) describing processes, activities, scenes, events and people; b) presenting and expressing opinions on a variety of topics and holding discussions and debates; c) making pieces of announcement, giving messages, directions, explanations and instructions.

12 1.1.2 Conversation Skills Pupils should be aware that spoken language differs from written languages. They should be able to: a) speak freely, courteously and appropriately in a variety of social interactions ranging from formal to informal, including introductions, greetings, invitations, requests, congratulations, apologies and expressions of appreciation and regret; b) speak in the correct register, according to the context as determined by: i. the subject matter or area being discussed. Many areas have a specific “jargon” (terminology) and way of speaking associated with them. Take, for example, religion, chemical engineering, ordinary gossip, or discussions about love. A job interview will be very different from a discussion on sports, just as talk of a death will differ from talk of a wedding or other celebration. Notice also that the audience will affect the register: two chemical engineers discussing a complex technical issue together will speak in a different way than if one of them is trying to explain the same issue to someone who knows nothing about the same issue or subject. ii. the relationship between the people speaking to one another. For example, a pupil is likely to speak in an informal register to a friend but in a semi-formal register to a teacher. iii. the situation or occasion, including the time, place and atmosphere. The same pupils in (ii) above will speak informally to the teacher when they are travelling together on a bus, and formally when in an interview in the headmaster’s office. Note: Role-playing is an ideal way to teach appropriate register. Pupils must be given practice speaking in English in a variety of situations.

1.2 Listening Speaking and listening go together and are often taught together. In addition to the speaking skills listed in 1.1 above, pupils should be able to: 13 a) listen with concentration and patience; b) follow the plot of a story being read aloud, and a speaker’s line of argument; c) understand and act on oral messages, pieces of announcement, explanation, instructions and directions; d) answer factual, interpretive and evaluative questions based on what they have listened to.

2. **READING 2.1 Reading Materials and Skills** Pupils should be able to: a) understand and use the different types of reading materials they are likely to meet both inside and outside school, including fiction, poetry, drama, non-fiction, textbooks, reference books (especially dictionaries), magazines, newspapers, instruction manuals, pamphlets and reports; b) read at a speed appropriate to the text and to the purpose of the reading which includes the ability to skim, scan, and read closely; c) identify the places in written English where pauses occur, and the word which should be stressed, and read aloud with acceptable intonation and stress; d) use the various parts of a book (for example, the title, the blurb, table of contents, headings, photographs, diagrams and other illustrations, captions and indices) to find information quickly; e) Locate books in a library.

2.2 **Intensive Reading** a) Pupils should be able to read and comprehend a text (including information presented in charts, graphs and diagrams) on various levels, and with the many comprehension skills associated with comprehension on these levels, as indicated in the chart below.

WRITING 3.1 General Writing Skills: Pupils should be able to: a) plan a composition logically and thoroughly with an introduction, body and conclusion; b) write with grammatical accuracy, including correct spelling, punctuation and use of vocabulary and idiom; c) construct a variety of sentence structures, including simple, compound and complex sentences; d) write coherent and cohesive paragraphs (paragraphs which are clear and well-structured); e) link paragraphs logically and skilfully, using discourse markers where appropriate; f) make general points and exemplify them; g) display a proper range of vocabulary and idiom, correctly and sensitively used and in a style and register appropriate to the subject matter; h) show imagination and originality in their writing to arouse the interest of the reader; i) write with attention to detail and relevance to the topic.

3.2 **Free Compositions** Pupils should be able to write the types of compositions listed below using some of the specific skills associated with each type. 16 a) **Narrative:** skills include originality, use of direct speech, good opening and closing paragraphs, wide vocabulary, powers of description and appropriate mood and pace. b) **Argumentative:** skills include paragraphing and use of discourse markers, balancing general points and examples, and using both sides of an argument. c) **Descriptive:** e.g. of a process,

character, scene or event: skills include a vivid and lively style, varied vocabulary and an ability to sustain atmosphere and observation. d) Informative: skills include thoroughness, use of discourse markers, maintaining the reader's interest through both familiar and interesting examples and use of appropriate language.

3.3 Guided Compositions Pupils should be able to write guided compositions based on notes, pictures, diagrams, graphs and a variety of source materials. This includes being able to: a) follow instructions carefully; b) use the appropriate register according to the context specified in the instructions, write in a number of specialized forms such as newspaper articles, business and personal letters and speeches; c) select, rearrange, develop and expand upon the notes provided; d) assemble information and organise it in complete grammatical sentences and correct paragraphs.

4. LANGUAGE The ability to communicate fully in oral and written English cannot be achieved without a thorough knowledge of language structures and an ability to make grammatically correct sentences. Throughout the two-year Ordinary level course, teachers will have to continue to help pupils improve their language skills. This means: a) identifying and rectifying problem areas; b) widening and deepening pupils' knowledge of how language is used. 17 In order to strengthen basic language skills, teachers should familiarize themselves with the language structure lists in the Grade Seven and Zimbabwe Junior Certificate syllabuses and review any areas of continuing difficulty with their pupils. Teachers must identify problem areas (whether in spelling, punctuation, verb tenses, vocabulary, use of pronouns etc) and help pupils learn the correct forms. It is always useful to solve errors which are common to many pupils with the whole class. Of course, teachers should avoid "teaching" pupils common errors: they should not bring errors to the attention of the pupils which the pupils do not make or encounter. However, it is often possible and productive, after identifying a common class problem, to teach the correct way of using the language structure, thus showing how the errors can be avoided. In addition to getting rid of common errors and strengthening basic language skills, the teacher will also have to help pupils widen and deepen their understanding of how to use language creatively and with variety. This means encouraging wide reading, and helping pupils identify and master language structures they come across in the comprehension passages and books they read. Some teachers think that using the communicative approach means that they should not teach language structure and should never use the words, 'noun', 'verb'

and 'adjective'. This is not true! The communicative approach tries to discourage teachers from having pupils learn structures in isolation, for instance, memorizing adjectives without using them, conjugating verbs without putting them in sentences or learning grammatical terms such as 'relative clauses' and 'predicate phrases' out of context. Helping pupils learn and use language structures is perfectly consistent with the communicative approach. As long as the pupils are practising the structures for themselves and looking at how language is used in writing and in speech, then they are learning to communicate.

APPENDIX-W-2.

Brief Overview of Dilthey's Philosophical Development

Wilhelm Dilthey was born in Biebrich on the Rhine in 1833, two years after Hegel had died. Dilthey's ambivalent attitude towards Hegel can provide some initial clues about his own philosophical approach. He admired Hegel's recognition of the historical dimension of philosophical thought, but rejected the speculative and metaphysical ways he developed this relation. Like the Neo-Kantians, Dilthey proposed a return to the more focused viewpoint of Kant, but not without also taking account of the broader perspective of later idealists like Hegel.

Dilthey characterized his own expansive view of philosophy as one of establishing integral relations to all the theoretical disciplines and historical practices that attempt to make sense of the world. Instead of demarcating the boundaries that set philosophy apart from other ways of engaging life, Dilthey conceives its critical task as articulating the overall structures that define the human spirit in general. Relatively early in his career, philosophy is defined as "an experiential science of spiritual phenomena" that seeks to "cognize the laws governing social, intellectual and moral phenomena" (1867/GS.V, 27). Philosophy should aim to preserve the scope that idealists such as Fichte, Schelling and Hegel once gave it, but it must do so by recapturing the Kantian rigor that had been lost and by applying it empirically.

These goals, as formulated in the inaugural lecture that Dilthey gave in 1867 on assuming his first professorship in Basel, were already prefigured in his early journals. Thus in 1859 Dilthey wrote that a new Critique of Reason must proceed on the basis of the psychological laws and impulses from which art, religion and science all derive. All intellectual systems are mere crystallizations of more generic schemata rooted in life (JD, 80).

The early Dilthey conceived his goal as a broadening of the critical project that would ground the human sciences as Kant had grounded the natural sciences. His hope then was that the human sciences would be able to arrive at lawful explanations just like the natural sciences. Up until at least 1887, when he published his *Poetics*, Dilthey was confident that inner explanations of human creativity could be arrived at. He

himself formulated three laws of the imaginative metamorphosis to account for the powerful effect that poets can have on us.

But through his efforts to work out the psychology that could be appealed to by such inner explanations, Dilthey came to modify some of his basic assumptions. He increasingly stresses that our access to the human world of history is much more direct than our access to nature. Although Dilthey is still willing to accept that objects of outer experience are phenomenal, he no longer accepts the Kantian thesis that the contents of inner experience are phenomenal as well. They are real and the time that relates us to history is not merely the ideal form that Kant had explicated.

This second phase of Dilthey's thought is characterized by a stress on the reality of lived experience and on the immediate understanding of human life that this makes possible. It is in the "Ideas for a Descriptive and Analytic Psychology" of 1894 that Dilthey works out his explanation-understanding distinction. "We explain through purely intellectual processes, but we understand through the cooperation of all the powers of the mind activated by apprehension" (1894/SW. II, 147). The human sciences will henceforth be conceived as primarily concerned with understanding the meaning of human action and interaction. Also central to this second phase of Dilthey's thought is the essay "The Origin of Our Belief in the Reality of the External World and Its Justification" of 1890. Our initial access to the external world is not inferential, but is felt as resistance to the will. The world of lived experience is not merely a theoretical representation, but is directly present to us as embodying values that are relevant to our purposes. The stress on feeling and immediacy in this second phase amounts to a rejection of Hegel's dialectical approach.

If the first phase was characterized by a search for inner explanation and the second phase by direct understanding, the third phase can be characterized by the need for interpretation. This final phase can be said to span the last decade of Dilthey's life until his death in 1911. It begins with the realization in the essay "The Rise of Hermeneutics" of 1900 that the inner intelligibility of lived experience does not yet constitute understanding. Self-understanding can only come from without. The way we express ourselves, whether in communication or in action, is a crucial intermediary in defining ourselves. Understanding can only be reliable if it proceeds through the interpretation of human objectifications. Thus, we understand ourselves not through introspection

but through history. It is in this last phase of his thought that Dilthey, who now occupied the chair that Hegel had once held in Berlin, revives his predecessor's theory of objective spirit as the medium relating us to the past. In 1906 Dilthey published a seminal work on the young Hegel that made use of recently discovered theological and political fragments. These unknown early fragments disclosed Hegel's historical geniality before it became constrained by the dialectical systematization that Dilthey had always objected to. Dilthey's student Herman Nohl was helpful in deciphering some of these fragments and went on to publish them. Nohl also edited a volume of Dilthey's writings on the history of German Idealism going back to Kant, Beck and Fichte and leading up to such contemporaries of Hegel as Schelling, Schleiermacher, Schopenhauer and Fries.

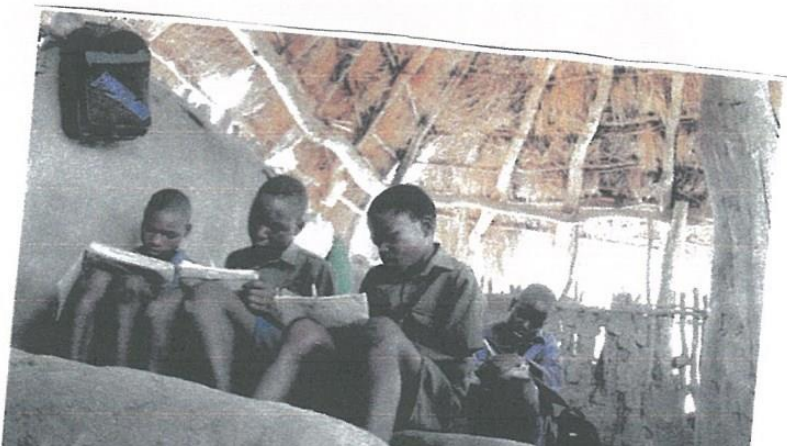
Appendix-X-1. Author's Photos showing some deplorable state of some rural schools

XI

APPENDIX-X

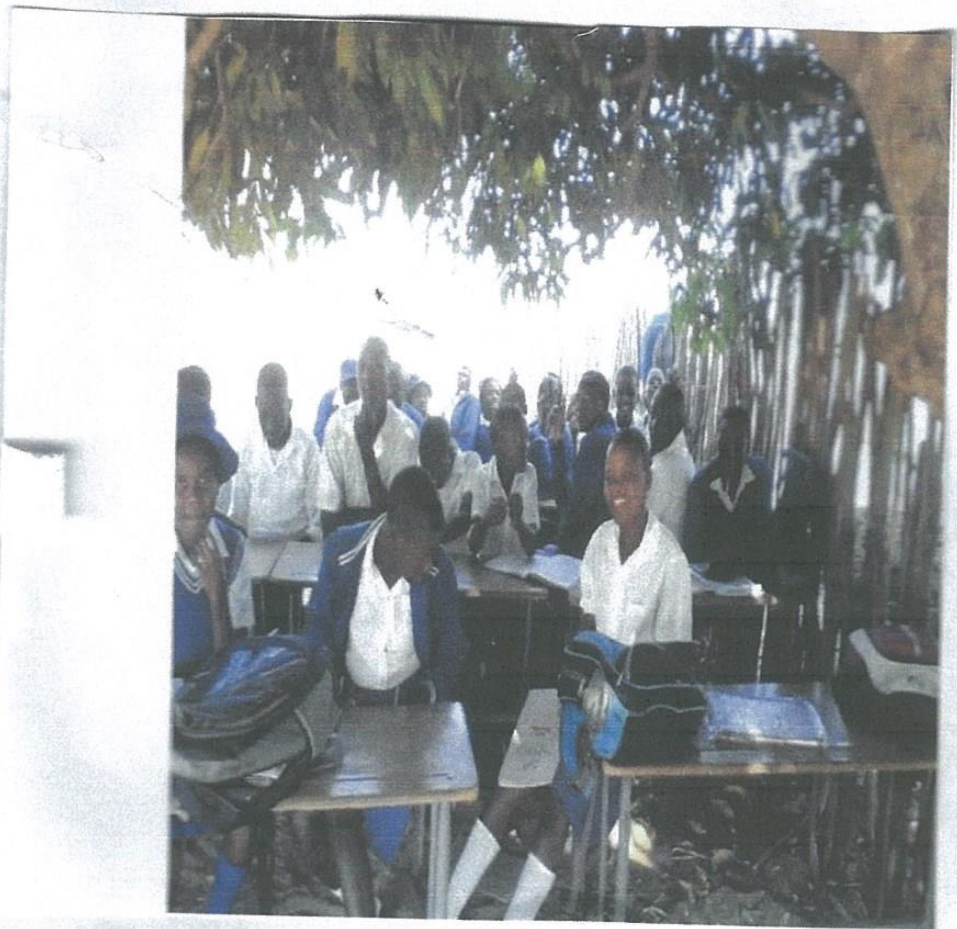


Buno Primary school pupils walk past one of the classrooms at the school

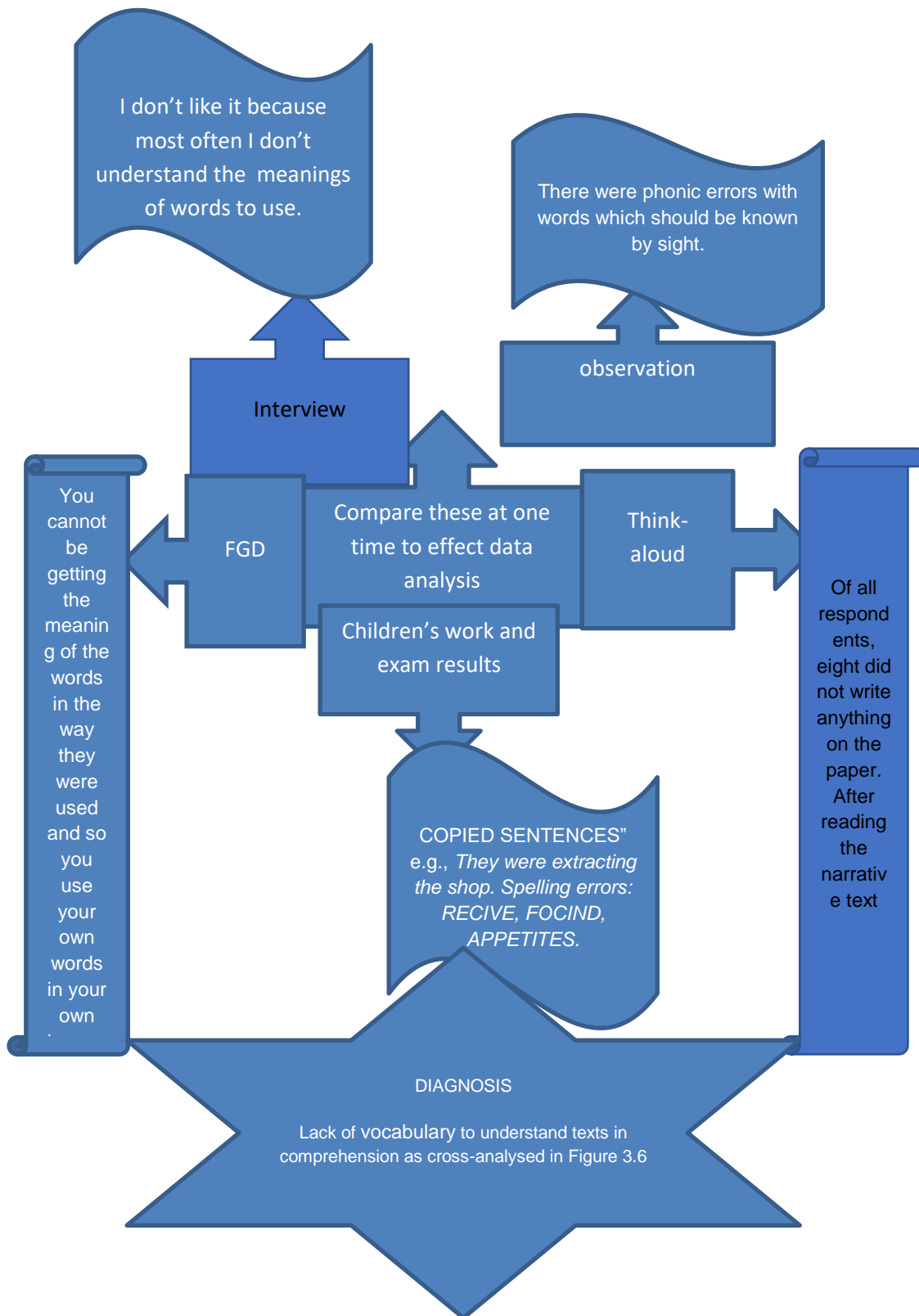


Appendix-X-2. Author's photos showing some deplorable situation in some rural schools depicting children learning in thatched classrooms

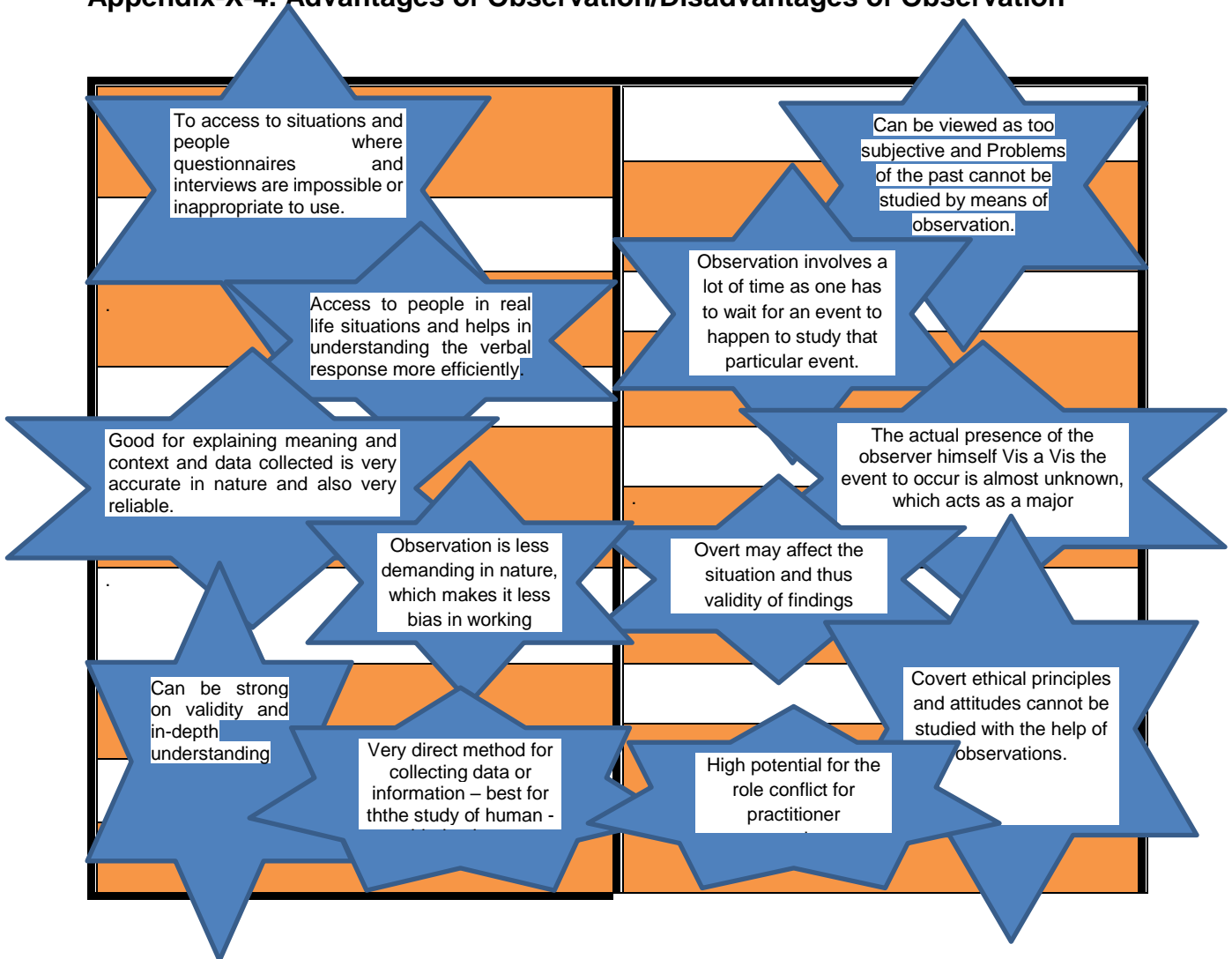
X2



Appendix-X-3. Figure:3.6. Athor’s example of a cross-sectional data analysis



Appendix-X-4. Advantages of Observation/Disadvantages of Observation



Appendix-X-5. Advantages of Observation/Disadvantages of Observation

