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**THE INFLUENCE OF GRADE 3 TEACHERS' SELF-EFFICACY ON THE TEACHING OF
ISIXHOSA HOME LANGUAGE READING-COMPREHENSION: RECOMMENDATIONS
FOR AN INDIGENOUS MOTHER-TONGUE BASED TEACHING FRAMEWORK**

by

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINALITY

I, Sive Makeleni confirm that this thesis is my original work. This work has not been submitted for any degree purpose at any university. The information derived from published and unpublished work is acknowledged in the list of references. The thesis is being submitted in fulfilment of the requirements of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education at the University of Fort Hare.

Signed.. 

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to my mother, Nokukhanya Makeleni.

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Acronyms

ANA	Annual National Assessment
CAPS	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement Foundation Phase
FP	Foundation Phase
HL	Home Language
IP	Intermediate Phase
NECT	National Education Collaboration Trust
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading and Literacy Study
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SCT	Social Cognitive Theory

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ABSTRACT

This thesis aimed to examine the extent to which Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influence the teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. The study was conducted in the Buffalo City Metro Education District, Eastern Cape, South Africa. Social Cognitive theory was adopted as a theoretical framework for this study.

The study employed a mixed methods approach, wherein qualitative and quantitative data were collected. Concurrent triangulation was adopted as a research design. In the quantitative phase one hundred and twelve (112) Grade 3 teachers participated through filling in questionnaires. Whilst, in the qualitative phase six (6) teachers were interviewed. Quantitative data was analysed through using descriptive/inferential statistics for the appropriate variables of data, and QUAL analysis of data, using thematic analysis related to the relevant narrative data.

The findings both quantitative and qualitative reveal that the teachers spend most of their time in teaching phonics, phonemic awareness and vocabulary and less time on teaching reading comprehension. The teachers feel that the prescribed Curriculum and Policy Statement that does not accommodate indigeneity and languageness of IsiXhosa Language suppresses their innovativeness and creativeness in teaching IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. The teachers highlighted the orthographic uniqueness of IsiXhosa language as one of the gaps in the curriculum. The majority of the teachers believe that Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement IsiXhosa Home Language Foundation Phase (CAPS), is back-translated from another language. Hence, the teachers feel unease to implement the curriculum as it is. Such conceptual gaps identified, negatively affected the teachers' self-efficacy in teaching IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. Also revealing in the findings are the teachers' use of assessment as a mere compliance strategy. The findings also reveal that the teachers' self-efficacy is affected by contextual factors.

The study therefore recommends a decolonised IsiXhosa-sensitive Curriculum and Policy Statement that reflects the indigeneity and the languageness of IsiXhosa. The study further recommends an indigenous mother -tongue based framework of teaching IsiXhosa Home Language in the Foundation Phase.

Key Terms

Reading comprehension, Self-efficacy, Pedagogical Content Knowledge, Teaching strategies, IsiXhosa, Home Language, Indigenous language, Indigeneity.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION/ BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Education helps many people from different backgrounds to actively participate in the development of each country. This is done through teaching and learning. Governments make use of education as a tool to promote skills development and national economy (Udo, 2017). Foundation Phase is a phase where it is assumed that learners' skills are prepared for effective learning as they venture in formal schooling setting. Therefore, this phase should be able to develop learners' literacy skills and numeracy skills. Foundation Phase in South Africa is from Grade 1 to Grade 3. That means Grade 3 is an exit Grade in the Foundation Phase into Intermediate Phase. The Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT) in the Foundation Phase is the learners' Home Language. South Africa has 11 official languages including sign language. Literature points out that language is a powerful force that forms national identity; and it contributes towards national unity (Resane, 2016). IsiXhosa is one of the indigenous languages dominant in the Eastern Cape Province, and Buffalo City Education District in particular.

Grade 3 learners' Home Languages in the Buffalo City Education District are either English, Afrikaans and IsiXhosa. Heugh (2011) posits that maintaining a home language, culture and cultural identity can influence health, resilience and well-being and may lead to effective use of second or other languages. Ariong (2013) asserts that a child's success at school and throughout life depends largely on the ability to read and understanding of texts. That means a solid foundation for a child's success has to be laid in the Foundation Phase, in the child's Home Language.

Reading comprehension is one of the important skills that have to be developed in the Foundation Phase. However, a number of studies globally and in South Africa reveal that reading comprehension is a challenge for learners, mainly for primary level learners

(Yildirim, 2013; Taylor & Taylor 2013; Hoadley, 2012; Annual National Assessment, 2014). This poor performance seems to affect South Africa's Grade 4 learners' performance in the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS). Learners cannot automatically know how to read with understanding without being taught reading comprehension. Hence, teachers are important stakeholders in improving learners' performance in reading comprehension. The aim of the study was to explore Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influence in the teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language Reading Comprehension.

1.2 Background to the study

Reading is the most important literacy skill that forms a foundation for learning. As Davis (2014, p.2) posits, "a person who knows how to read can educate themselves in any area of life they are interested in. That means a person who can read can improve his/her life for the better. This is also alluded to by Casey (2010) who contends that proficient readers will be able to obtain new skills needed for the fast-changing global marketplace. Literature consistently reveals reading as the most fundamental skill required to acquire knowledge in any discipline (Al-wossabi, 2014; Erdenebaatar, 2016). However, ability to read words only is not enough. It is important for a reader to get meaning out of text. Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011) argue that the main reason for reading is to get the correct interpretation of a message from a text, that is, the message that the writer intended the reader to receive. That means a text carries a message that cannot be found with only reading words, but with understanding. That is also noted by Ariong (2013) who asserts that a child's success at school and throughout life depends largely on the ability to read and understanding of texts. As Shaojun and Sokolovsky (2017, p. 585) posit, "text is open to the plurality of meanings that exist in the social communication system". Thus, readers have to interact with the text they are reading so that they comprehend it. Similarly, Hamdan, Ghafar, Sihes and Atan (2010) point out, "accomplished readers have to use a flexible repertoire of strategies and cues to comprehend texts and solve problems with unfamiliar structure and vocabulary". That brings forward the issue of reading comprehension.

Pour-Mohammadi and Abidin (2011:238) conceptualise reading comprehension as an “interactive mental process between a reader’s linguistic knowledge, knowledge of the world and knowledge about a given topic”. That means as one reads, one is embarking on an interactive process that has to produce comprehension of the text. Edwards and Turner (2009, p. 631) assert that reading comprehension results from “an interaction among the reader, the strategies the reader employs, the material being read, and the context in which reading takes place”. This assertion implies that reading comprehension is a meta-cognitive activity.

Dabarera, Renandya and Zhang (2013) claim that the processes of reading comprehension occur at the metacognitive level entailing: planning before reading, monitoring of understanding during reading and evaluating the reading experience. That means reading comprehension has everything to do with thinking. Klapwijk (2015) posits that reading comprehension is a strategic process in which readers use cues from the text, in conjunction with their existing knowledge, to make predictions, monitor predictions and construct meaning from the text. This assertion highlights the end goal of comprehension as construction of meaning from the text. Thus, Bernhardt (2011) contends that reading comprehension is a cognitive as well as a social process that involves extracting and constructing meaning. However, literature reveals that reading comprehension is a kind of challenge for learners, mainly for primary level learners (Yildirim, 2013).

Albdour (2015, p. 63) mentions a few challenges faced by learners by learners in reading comprehension. The challenges include the following:

- a) **Limited previous knowledge of the reader with inability to integrate new knowledge to the previous one:** In line with the above view, Al Asmari and Zahid Javid (2018) added that literature has revealed that information about the topic, cultural familiarity and readers’ previous knowledge related to the field builds the basis that are important in comprehension. Hence, learners with limited background

knowledge might have problems with reading comprehension in Grade 3 level.

- b) **Limited vocabulary:** Limited vocabulary has been seen as a challenge faced by learners despite evidence that vocabulary is one of the important factors in reading comprehension. Zhang and Annual (2014) posit that to understand text meaning, one will have to be able to decode the printed message. Sidek and Rahim (2015) concur that a good vocabulary system is an asset to a child. That means if learners have limited vocabulary they may face challenges with reading comprehension.

- c) **Lack of oral language skills before entering school:** Peterson and Greenberg (2017) posit that as children interact with others, they encounter new words and new ways of using words to make sense of their world. Subsequently, reading comprehension skills are not necessarily developed as children enter school. This is work that begins in the child's context. Dickinson and Porche (2010) highlight that children's oral vocabulary, storytelling performance and phonological awareness at school entry are predictors of later reading comprehension and decoding. That implies that as children enter schooling, one of the teacher's tasks is to develop oral language skills. This is explained by Malec, Peterson and Elshereif (2017) who contend that children's choice of words, sounds and structures, and ways in which they use these features of language to achieve their own purposes, are some of the indicators of their social learning. Therefore, if children do not have oral language before entering school, they struggle with reading comprehension.

- d) **Lack of listening comprehension skills:** Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011) define listening comprehension as a process of understanding speech and it concentrates on the role of linguistic units. According to them, these linguistic units include phonemes, words and grammatical structures. That implies that as children listen, they are engaging in a process of learning the language as a spoken language. Similarly, Azmi Bingol, Celik, Yidliz and Tugrul Mart (2014) defined listening

comprehension as one's ability to recognize another through sense, aural organs and allocate a meaning to the message to understand it. This suggests that if learners have listening comprehension skills, they can be able to use the skills in reading comprehension.

The discussion above has focused on some of the challenges faced by learners on reading comprehension. In addition, there are problems resulting from teaching of reading comprehension. For instance, Shubaylat (2010, p.102) and Al Asmari and Zahid Javid, (2018, p. 98) include the following as challenges based on how reading comprehension is taught:

- a) Excessive concentration of teachers in the early grades on teaching the skill of decoding the symbol:** Literature reveals that teachers, when teaching reading, spend more time focusing on the mechanical skills of decoding rather than on meaning and comprehension (Verbeek, 2010; Murris, 2014). This implies that learners are disadvantaged by the lack of focus on reading comprehension;
- b) Focus on accurate reading performance at the expense of meaning:** Pretorius and Klapwijk (2016) assert that to be effective reading teachers, teachers need to know about reading and how to teach it, and they also need to be skilled readers who are familiar with different genres of text; and
- c) Lack of exposure of children in the early grades to printed materials:** Gerde, Bingham and Pendergast (2015) posit that young children in classrooms with more print material have higher writing abilities than children in classrooms with less print material. This implies that the more children are exposed to printed material, the more they become familiar with words, and they may learn how to write those words. Furthermore, Neumann, Hood, Ford and Neumann (2012) contend that when teachers draw children's attention to print in books or around the classroom and utilize this print, young children develop language and literacy skills.

The learning and the teaching of reading comprehension challenges above have been identified globally. There are more challenges identified in each country, depending on the focus of each research in each country and the language.

In Colombia for instance, a study by Rosado and Caro (2018) focused on the relationship between lexis and reading comprehension. This study found out that there is a connection between lexis and reading comprehension in all languages including HL. The study recommends that teachers should focus on systematic lexis instruction since it aids learners to increase both lexical knowledge and reading comprehension gains. This Colombian study is relevant in the current study because IsiXhosa HL has its own lexis that is different from other languages yet Home Language curriculum implemented in the FP in South Africa is a direct translation from English HL to IsiXhosa HL .

A study was conducted in Turkey by Kuşdemir and Bulut (2018) the relationship between the Turkish elementary school students' reading comprehension and reading motivation. The study found that there is a positive medium and significant correlation between the students' levels of reading comprehension and reading motivation. This meant that an increase in the students' reading motivation affects their reading comprehension positively and significantly.

In Egypt, a study by Salem (2016) focused on scaffolding reading comprehension skills in English language. The study found that teachers are not aware of the nature of scaffolding strategies they use; as such, they use such strategies for assessing their students' comprehension rather than scaffolding their comprehension. The study recommended that teachers have an adequate orientation of the nature of scaffolding strategies to be used (when to begin using these strategies and when to stop using them) and the significance in developing comprehension skills of students in the mainstream schools. As much as the study in Egypt focused on English, the focus of the study is relevant in this study. Since the

teachers' role is to mediate learning, scaffolding seems appropriate in teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa HL (Reza & Mahmoud, 2013).

The studies referred to above sought to find solutions on improving learners' reading comprehension. The different focus of the researches conducted in each country was context-based. The studies referred to above give recommendations on how best reading comprehension can be taught based on the issues that affect each country. This implies that there are different problems on reading comprehension. However, these problems cannot be necessarily solved by one strategy, and South Africa is not immune to reading comprehension problems. For instance, literature reveals that reading-comprehension has been identified as a major weakness of South African learners (Shalem&Hoadley 2009; National Education Evaluation and Development Unit (NEEDU), 2013; Taylor & Taylor, 2013; Hoadley, 2012). Specifically, it is reported that in 2011's Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), learners who did comprehension tests in their African Home Languages (HL) performed below expectation (Howie, Staden, Tshele, Dowse & Zimmerman 2012 & Meier, 2014). This implies that having an African language as a Language of Learning and Teaching did not automatically make the meaning of texts in the HL accessible to learners (Pretorius &Klapwijk, 2016).

The above sentiments are an indication that South Africa needs a solution to a problem of teaching and learning of reading comprehension, specifically, in the FP, which is a phase where learners learn in their HL. In trying to address this problem, Klapwijk (2015) proposed a reading strategy instruction framework for all teachers. All these efforts and other interventions, globally and locally, are intended to improve the teaching and learning of reading comprehension. However, there seems not to be much research on the teachers' self-efficacy on teaching reading comprehension. Hence, this study sought to find out the extent to which Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influence the teaching of IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Research studies reveal that self-efficacy of teachers determines teachers' behaviour in the classroom, which is how they advance their teaching skill (Aslan, 2015; Hughes & Galbraith, 2011; Dunn & Airola, 2013). That means teachers' self-efficacy influences teachers' behaviour in the classroom. Furthermore, self-efficacy is an indicator of success in teaching (Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2011). In a context where there is a concern about learners' performance in reading comprehension, teachers' self-efficacy seems to be an appropriate phenomenon that has to be studied. For instance, Zee and Koomen (2016) assert that teacher self-efficacy (TSE) is a teacher's personal characteristic that affects student and teacher level outcomes through patterns of teacher behaviour and practices that define the quality of the classroom environment. That means TSE may improve learners' results.

Mazlum and Cheraghi (2015) and Noel, Crosser, Kuglin and Lupomech (2013) posit that persistence, enthusiasm, commitment and high instructional behaviour is found in high efficacious teachers who will yield better results. The researcher believes that an IsiXhosa HL teacher who is high efficacious in reading comprehension teaching can yield better results. For instance, Raissi and Roustaei (2013) also found that there is a relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and learners' reading comprehension performance. Literature reveals that teacher self-efficacy is one's conviction about his or her capabilities to carry out certain tasks in a suitable and effective manner (Gavora, 2010). In the context of this study, a teacher who believes in his/her capabilities to teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa HL can teach the topic effectively.

Literature reveals that teacher self-efficacy is consistently related to positive teaching behaviour and strong pupil achievement because learners learn more from teachers who have high self-efficacy (Gavora, 2010). This is opposite to the teachers with low teacher self-efficacy. Mazlum and Dasta (2015) and Mqingwana (2016) revealed that low efficacious teachers are more likely to attribute difficulties in teaching since they use textbook method and avoid challenging questions from learners by limiting learner engagement. The researcher believes that learner engagement makes learning effective.

Teachers are expected to be effective in their teaching. Pendergast, Garvis and Keogh (2011) point out that teacher self-efficacy is an important motivational construct that shapes teacher effectiveness in the classroom. Studies by Kalagbor (2016) and Phin (2014) show that competent teachers contribute to student learning and promote achievement level. In a country where results indicate that there is a problem with the teaching and learning of reading comprehension, teacher self-efficacy is relevant. As the status of reading comprehension is reported, some researchers even conclude that there seems to be little, if any, formal reading comprehension instruction occurs in schools (Klapwijk, 2011; Zimmerman & Smit, 2014; Zimmermma, 2014). Many studies reveal self-efficacy as a positive link between teaching and learners' achievement (Seashore-Louis, Leithwood, Washlstrom & Anderson 2010; Goddard, Goddard, Sook Kim & Miller, 2015).

Skaalvik and Skaalvik, (2010) and Ağçami and Babanoğlu (2016) assert that efficacious teachers are more likely to continue to work as teachers, are tenacious, resilient and more understanding of less successful students. This implies that even in the context of reading comprehension, teacher self-efficacy is a relevant aspect that has to be investigated. Therefore, teachers' self-efficacy has been found to be a unique and significant predictor of teachers' classroom practices and their students' language and literacy gains, (Guo, Piasta, Justice, & Kaderavek, 2010). Teacher's self-efficacy beliefs are related to the effort they invest in teaching, their persistence and resilience in the face of setbacks, and the quality of instructional strategies they employ (Holzberger, Philipp, & Kunter, 2013). This implies that even if the teachers are teaching in rural areas, they put more effort to provide quality instruction. Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are crucial structures which shape their effectiveness in the classroom and motivates them (Pendergast & Keogh, 2011). The teacher's self-efficacy has an influence on how the teacher commits and dedicates him/herself to his/ her job. Research shows that low levels of teacher self-efficacy may be linked to teacher burnout (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010), which suggests that in order to keep teachers in the profession and to continue to hone their teaching skills, teacher self-efficacy

should not be ignored and steps should be taken to boost teachers' sense of self-efficacy. Bandura (2012) contends that self-efficacy influences thought patterns, emotions, goals, motivation and persistence in the face of adversity.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Reading comprehension is one of the critical skills that help a child to succeed at school and throughout (Ariong, 2013). Similarly, it has been reported that Grade 3 learners perform poorly in reading comprehension, globally, South Africa included (Howie, Staden, Tshele, Dowse & Zimmerman 2012 & Meier, 2014). Grade 3 is an exit level in the Foundation Phase.

In the South African context, the Language of Learning and Teaching in the Foundation Phase is learners' Home Language. In the case of this study context, it is IsiXhosa. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (2011) suggests that children come to school knowing their home language, and this is a foundation upon which learning to read and write is built. Furthermore, CAPS assumes that children can transfer many literacy skills from home language to first additional language. However, International and National benchmark assessments reveal that Grade 3 learners perform below expectation in reading comprehension in the home language (NEEDU, 2013; Taylor & Taylor, 2013; Hoadley, 2012). For instance, Beck and Condy (2017) reported from 2015 ANA results that less than half of Western Cape Province's Grade 3 learners understood questions based on reading comprehension sub-skills, such as Reading and Viewing and Thinking and Reasoning. The foundation for reading comprehension should be established in Grade 3 as it is an exit grade in the Foundation Phase to the Intermediate Phase where the LoLT changes to First Additional Language.

Annual National Assessment of 2014 (2015, p. 91) reveal that the average percentage in IsiXhosa Home Language nationally is 52.5 %. It is further reported that in the Eastern Cape, where IsiXhosa is the majority HL, 29.6 % of learners perform between 0-39 %,

whereas only 26 % perform between 40 -59 %, and only 44.5 % of learners perform between 60-100% (Report on the Annual National Assessment of 2015). Reasons identified included teachers focusing on the mechanical skills like decoding, phonics, lack of content-knowledge (Verbeek, 2010; Murriss, 2014). These reports seem silent about the teacher's effect on learner performance. Yet literature directly links teacher self-efficacy with learners' performance (Mqingwana, 2019). Tschannen-Moran and McMaster (2009) link teachers' self-efficacy to their classroom behaviour, implementation of instructional change, as well as influencing student outcomes, efficacy beliefs, engagement, achievement and motivation. Research on learner performance in language education (Turkish experiences) teacher self-efficacy was found to be a significant predictor of their students' language and literacy gains, (Guo, Piasta, Justice & Kaderavek, 2010; Justice, Mashburn, Hamre, & Pianta, 2008). With regards to South African debates, there is not much focus on the influence of teachers' self-efficacy on the teaching of languages, and specifically IsiXhosa. Hence, this study focused on the influence of Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy on the teaching of reading comprehension, a phenomenon that seems to be overlooked in studies focusing on reading comprehension.

1.4. Purpose of the study

The purpose of this study is twofold. The first purpose is to investigate the extent to which Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influences the teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. The second purpose is to make recommendations for a framework that can help improve the teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language Reading Comprehension.

1.5 Research Questions

1.5.1. Main Research Question

To what extent does the Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influence their teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?

1.5.2. Sub research questions

- a. How does the teacher's self-efficacy influence planning of reading comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language?
- b. To what extent do the teachers' self-efficacy influence reading comprehension instructional strategies in IsiXhosa Home Language?
- c. To what extent can the teacher's self-efficacy influence assessment strategies of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?
- d. What recommendations can be advanced towards indigenous mother-tongue based teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension?

1.6 Objectives of the study

The purpose of this study is to determine Grade 3 teachers' perceptions on the influence of self-efficacy on the teaching of IsiXhosa reading comprehension in selected Eastern Cape schools. Objectives of the study are as follows:

- a. To find out how does the teacher's self-efficacy influence the planning of reading comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language.
- b. To find out the extent to which the teachers' self-efficacy influence reading comprehension instructional strategies in IsiXhosa Home Language.
- c. To find out the extent to which the teacher's self-efficacy influence assessment strategies of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language.
- d. To advance recommendations for indigenous mother-tongue based model of teaching reading comprehension.

1.7 Significance of the study

Several studies have been conducted on the teaching of reading comprehension in many countries. Some of the studies focused on the components of reading comprehension, like vocabulary. One study that focused on vocabulary is that of Kintsch and Mangalath (2011). This study was qualitative in nature and conducted in a different context from the Eastern Cape; it focused on a different language from IsiXhosa Home Language. Another study by Kuşdemir and Bulut (2018) investigated the relationship between elementary school students' reading comprehension and reading motivation. The study was conducted in Turkey, using qualitative methods. Additionally, in South Africa, Klapwijk (2011) conducted a mixed methods study that proposed a reading strategy instruction framework for all teachers. The studies referred to in this section are a few of a number of studies that were conducted on reading comprehension. Some studies were conducted locally and others abroad. The researcher notes that the studies conducted did not focus on the influence of the teachers' self-efficacy in the teaching of reading comprehension, especially IsiXhosa Home Language in Grade 3. Some of the studies were either qualitative or quantitative in nature. Hence, in this study, the researcher adopted a mixed methods approach.

It is hoped that this study will help unearth Grade 3 teachers' perceived capability in undertaking the teaching of reading-comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. It is anticipated that this study can advance recommendations for a teaching framework that can improve the teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. This is anticipated to influence the school, districts and provincial education officers in planning strategies to improve teachers' self-efficacy to teach reading-comprehension in IsiXhosa HL.

1.8 Rationale of the study

The researcher is a lecturer in the Faculty of Education in a University in the Eastern Cape Province. As a lecturer, the researcher is responsible for teaching Home Language teaching methods to Foundation Phase pre-service educators. ANA results that show poor performance of Grade 3 learners, Grade 4 PIRLS poor performance results in reading has also influenced the researcher to research on the teaching of reading comprehension. Grade 3 is the exit level in the FP to Intermediate Phase (IP) which starts in Grade 4. The researcher believes that if learners master reading comprehension in Grade 3, there is a possibility that they will use the skills to master reading comprehension in Grade 4. Since the researcher is based in the Eastern Cape where IsiXhosa is a dominating HL for the majority of learners, the researcher saw it appropriate to focus on the Eastern Cape. Bandura's SCT influenced the researcher in exploring teachers' self-efficacy.

1.9 Scope of the study

The study focused on Grade 3 teachers who are teaching isiXhosa Home Language. Grade 3 is the exit grade from FP to Intermediate Phase. Specifically, the study focused on the teachers' self-efficacy on teaching IsiXhosa Home Language Reading Comprehension. The study was conducted in the Buffalo City Education District in the Eastern Cape Province.

1.10 Definition of key concepts

Indigenous language:

One spoken in a relatively restricted geographical area, and one not commonly learned as a second language by people outside the community (Benson & Kosonen, 2013, p6). In the context of this study, this will be used interchangeably with IsiXhosa Home Language.

Mother Tongue :

The term first language or L1 refers to a language a person speaks as a mother tongue, vernacular, native language, or home language. L1 mother tongue is the language that one (a) has learnt first; (b) identifies with; (c) knows best; and/or (d) uses most (Skutnabb-Kangas (2000) and UNESCO (2003). (Benson & Kosonen, 2012) add... (e) speaks and understands competently enough to learn academic content at the appropriate age level. In this study, this term refers to IsiXhosa Home Language, which is one of the indigenous languages in South Africa.

Grade 3

In South Africa, Foundation Phase starts at Grade R (Reception Year) to Grade 3. In this study, Grade 3 refers to IsiXhosa Home Language learners who are at the exit level of FP.

Teacher's self- efficacy

Skaalvik (2007, p. 612) defines teacher's self-efficacy as an "individual teachers' beliefs in their own ability to plan, organize, and carry out activities that are required to attain given educational goals". In the context of this study, teacher self-efficacy is conceptualized as the extent to which Grade 3 teachers believe that they cope successfully with lesson planning, lesson delivery, classroom management and assessment of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language.

Reading-comprehension

Reading-comprehension in this study is operationally used to refer to learners reading text with understanding. Furthermore, reading-comprehension refers to learners' ability to read text in IsiXhosa HL with understanding. Antoni (2010) asserts that reading-comprehension

is a process that involves the orchestration of the readers' prior knowledge about the world and about language.

1.11 Theoretical Framework and Literature Review

1.11.1 Theoretical Framework: Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory

This study sought to investigate the influence of the Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy on the teaching of reading-comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory is deemed appropriate to guide this study as a theoretical framework. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) state that to investigate the indispensable matters in a specific study, the theoretical framework acts as a subsidiary tool established from a prevailing theory or a combination of theories. Consequently, the theoretical framework assists the researchers to detect and define the problem areas related to the research question that need to be addressed with the use of relevant design in conducting the study. Embedded in the concept of theoretical framework is the concept of theory. The theory qualifies the researcher to link the study to the knowledge contributed by other researchers (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

Social cognitive theory (SCT) has generally been reported as one of the prominent theories of human learning (Ning & Downing, 2010; Diseth, 2011). Furthermore, self-efficacy is seen to occupy a pivotal role in social cognitive theory because it affects action (Ormrod, 2008). This theory is relevant for this study because teachers' self-efficacy relates to the actions of the teacher, which has direct influence on the interaction and learning that happens during the interaction. Furthermore, literature indicates that teacher self-efficacy 'is a teacher's belief in his or her ability to affect change in students' learning outcomes' (Garvis & Pendergast, 2010: 7). These beliefs are realised through teacher commitment, enthusiasm and in many cases, changed teaching behaviours (Skaalvik & Skaalvik 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy 2007). Furthermore, teacher self-efficacy has been

found to be consistently related to positive teaching behaviour and strong pupil achievement; pupils learn more from teachers who have high self-efficacy (Gavora, 2010). Bandura (1986) highlights that social cognitive theory is an important body of work that assist educators to create effective learning processes that address the way learners learn. Furthermore, Bandura (2001) argues that this theory focuses on the interactions among personal factors, behaviours and the environment. Self-efficacy has a positive influence in the teaching and learning domain.

1.11.2 Teachers' perceptions of self-efficacy

Teachers' perceptions are beliefs that the teacher has about his/ her capability to execute the task. Teachers' perceptions of their level of knowledge, skills and experience have an important role in overcoming difficult situations effectively during their professional life (Sarfo, Amankwah, Sam & Konin, 2014). Hence, self-perception of teachers in terms of their professional competencies is an important, and as a specific domain of self-efficacy. These are the beliefs that the teachers have about effectively teaching a specific topic. Self-efficacy, which has been described as an important construct, has a great impact on teachers' motivation and personal accomplishments (Tweed, 2013). Furthermore, "It is important to note that self-efficacy is a motivational construct based on self-perception of competence rather than actual level of competence" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). It is appropriate to determine the teachers' perceptions on their self-efficacy to teach reading-comprehension.

Jaggernauth and Jameson-Charles (2015) conclude that teachers' beliefs are one of the most influential resources that teachers take with them into the classroom. Additionally, teachers' beliefs influence their behaviour and decision-making (Swars, Hart, Smith, Smith, & Tolar, 2007). These perceptions influence and predict teacher behaviours like efforts on the job, persistence in overcoming obstacles, resilience when facing failure, and levels of

stress or depression experienced in managing demanding situations (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Subsequently, this also influence teachers' beliefs about students' ability to learn so that they spend more time and effort in teaching with clarity, which results in better student outcomes (Shidler, 2009). This is consistent with Pajare's (1996) assertions about self-efficacy that influence:

- i. Choices: Self-efficacy beliefs influence the choices people make and the courses of action they follow. Most people take part in tasks in which they feel competent and confident and avoid those in which they do not;
- ii. Effort: It helps to determine how much effort people will expend on an activity;
- iii. Perseverance: how long they will persist when dealing with obstacles and failures;
- iv. Resilience: how resilient they will prove in the face of adverse situations--the higher the sense of efficacy, the greater the effort, persistence, and resilience; and
- v. Stress and anxiety: Efficacy beliefs also influence the amount of stress and anxiety individuals experience as they engage in a task and the level of accomplishment they realize.

1.11.3. Teachers' self- efficacy on lesson planning

Research indicates that lesson plans are of great importance in providing an effective learning environment (Walton, 2011). Teachers with a low sense of teacher self-efficacy believe that little can be done to reach unmotivated students, and that their influence as a teacher is limited by environmental factors beyond their control (Swan, Wolf & Cano, 2011). Conversely, an individual with a high sense of teacher self-efficacy is more inclined to create a dynamic, student-centered learning environment in which students take ownership of their learning (Ibid). Based on social cognitive theory, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001: p. 783) defined teacher self-efficacy as a teacher's "judgment of his or her capabilities to bring about desired outcomes of student engagement and learning, even among those students who may be difficult or unmotivated." Furthermore, Skaalvik (2007, p. 612) offered a similar definition as "individual teachers' beliefs in their own ability to plan,

organize and carry out activities that are required to attain given educational goals.” Teachers’ beliefs in their ability to plan lessons is very important when investigating teachers’ self-efficacy. Foundation Phase teachers have to plan reading –comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language. Vdovina and Gaibisso (2013) point out that a lesson plan helps teachers to have a framework for carrying their students to certain “learning destinations”. This implies that IsiXhosa Home Language teachers should plan their lessons to a particular destination, which is reading–comprehension in the context of this study. Correspondingly, literature reveals that lesson plan involves goals, knowledge and sequencing, as well as activity procedure, implementation, and assessment (Jacobs, Martin & Otieno, 2008). This implies that a teacher has to have clear knowledge of the subject he/she is going to teach. Additionally, Choy, Wong, Lim and Chong (2013) contend that lesson plans reflect teachers’ interpretations of subject matter; the way they adopt instructional materials is further influenced by the extent to which the teacher is informed about learners’ prior knowledge and the topic to be presented. This suggests that FP teachers should have a clear knowledge of the subject matter and the topic they are going to present. This is what is known as Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK).

Park and Oliver (2008) highlight Pedagogical Content Knowledge as the teachers’ understanding and enactment of how to help a group of students understand specific subject matter using multiple instructional strategies, representations, and assessments while working within the contextual, cultural, and social limitations in the learning environment. Furthermore, content knowledge includes central facts, concepts, key ideas, propositions, structures of the concepts, relationships, appropriate representations that make the content comprehensible (Abbott, 2014). Additionally, content-knowledge includes theories, principles that are taught and learned, procedures within a given field; knowledge of explanatory frameworks that organize and connect ideas and knowledge of the rules of evidence and proof (Ibid).

The teachers' self-efficacy becomes relevant when investigating how teachers plan their lessons. Additionally, Poulou (2007) suggests that self-efficacy is a determining factor in teacher performance and, thus, affects a teacher's ability to achieve desired outcomes in the classroom, including classroom management ability. Classroom management refers to a teacher's ability to keep order in the classroom, engage students in learning and elicit student cooperation, all while balancing menial tasks of the classroom (Wong & Wong, 2009). Classroom management is to plan, organise, lead and control the teaching process in such a way that the learner will get maximum benefit from the process (Coetzee & van Niekerk, 2015). This implies that classroom management should be part of the teacher's planning.

Lunenburg (2011) argues that self-efficacy are beliefs a teacher has about his or her ability to accomplish a particular teaching task. Lesson planning is one of the teaching tasks that has to be done by teachers. Accordingly, Pendergast, Garvis and Keogh (2011) posit that teachers' self-efficacy is an important motivational construct that shapes teacher effectiveness in the classroom. Czerniak (1990) as cited by Flores (2015) posits that teachers' levels of efficacy are linked to content and methodological preparation. Hence it becomes necessary to investigate Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy on the teaching of reading-comprehension.

Lee, Chen and Khum (2009) reveal that lesson planning connects requirements of the curriculum and textbooks with what is presented in the classroom. This implies that teachers should have the knowledge of the curriculum. Thus, Shulman (1987) revealed seven categories of knowledge for teaching which are: content knowledge; pedagogical knowledge; curriculum knowledge; pedagogical content knowledge; knowledge of learners; knowledge of educational contexts; and knowledge of educational ends. Planning without having these categories of knowledge may not be effective.

1.11.4 Influence of the teacher's self-efficacy on instructional strategies of reading comprehension

Tournaki, Lyublinskaya and Carolan (2009) postulate that effective teachers plan and prepare, are knowledgeable about their teaching material, have a clearly defined pedagogy, choose their instructional objectives and evaluate students as they teach. This assertion points out a need for a teacher to have instructional strategies planned for each lesson. Research has found that “teachers with higher self-efficacy were likely to have a positive classroom environment, support students’ ideas, and address students’ needs” (Schunk, 2012, p.153). This shows a link between teacher’ self-efficacy and learning by learners. Similarly, literature points out that teachers with high perceptions of self-efficacy are prone to using more successful classroom management strategies and instructional styles (Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh & Khalaileh, 2011). It is argued that positive learning experience stimulates students’ self-efficacy (Csizer & Piniel, 2013). This implies that if teachers’ self-efficacy is high, there is a possibility that learners’ self-efficacy may also be high.

Teachers with higher self-efficacy use appropriate teaching strategies to create a quality learning atmosphere (Yi-Hsiang, 2014). Literature demonstrates that teachers’ beliefs and values play a vital role in shaping the objectives, goals, curriculum, and instructional methods of schools (Hitchens-Smith, Ortlieb, & Cheek, 2011). Reading comprehension is a process that involves memory, thinking abstractly, visualization, and understanding vocabulary as well as knowing how to properly decode (Ness, 2010). Learners cannot go through this process on their own; they need a teacher to teach them. Once the strategy has been taught, students can use it independently (Hagaman, Luschen & Reid, 2010).

However, it is important that the teacher’s instructional strategies are effective. Several studies internationally have pointed out the need for strategy instruction in teaching reading comprehension. Bernhardt (2011) and Block and Duffy (2008) contend that strategy

instruction improves reading comprehension. Literature reveals that through guided strategy instruction, teachers have demonstrated how students can overcome reading comprehension problems using a small repertoire of reading strategies flexibly (Block & Duffy, 2008; Fisher & Frey, 2008). One model of comprehension instruction supported by research is the Gradual Release of Responsibility model, which has been refined over time (Pearson, 2011). The model describes how the responsibility for strategy use ideally transfers from the teacher to the student in five steps listed below:

- a) Naming and describing the strategy – why, when, and how it should be used;
- b) Modelling the strategy in action – either by teacher or student, or both;
- c) Using the strategy collaboratively – in a sort of group think-aloud;
- d) Guided practice using the strategy with gradual release of responsibility; and
- e) Using the strategy independently, with no teacher guidance, individually or in small student-led groups (Pearson & Cervetti, 2013, pp. 530– 531).

Instruction of reading comprehension has been influenced by understandings of the role of social interaction in learning (Grabe, 2009), where strategies are initially modelled by the teacher, and gradually applied by the autonomous learner. Some research suggests a metacognitive strategy instruction is an approach to teaching and learning that focuses on providing explicit instruction and feedback about how and when to use strategies to support learning (Davis, 2007).

1.11.5. Assessing reading comprehension

Assessment and learning are inextricably intertwined, as assessment determines whether learning is taking place, what learning took place and what learning still needs to take place, (Dryer, 2014). This makes assessment a pillar of teaching and learning. Hence, McAfee and Leong (2011) argue that curriculum planning and assessment are integrated throughout the programme. Furthermore, assessment is congruent with and relevant to the goals, objectives and content of the programmes. Webb (2012) posits that teachers with

better content knowledge about their subjects are better at selecting and designing quality assessment. Literature points out that teachers' self-efficacy beliefs are related to the effort they invest in teaching, their persistence and resilience in the face of setbacks, and the quality of instructional strategies they employ (Holzberger, Philipp, & Kunter, 2013). High teacher self-efficacy is associated with achieving goals. One of the ways to measure whether indeed the goals of teaching and learning have been achieved is through assessment. Those who believe they have the capability to succeed are more likely to persist in the face of adversity and invest significant effort to achieve goals of importance to them; whereas, those who doubt their skills and competencies are more likely to see such efforts as futile and will not endure (de la Torre Cruz & Arias, 2011).

1.12 Research methodology

In this section, the researcher unpacks the research paradigm, research approach, research design, population, sampling and sampling techniques, data collection instruments, validity and reliability. In all, this section gives a picture of how the study was conducted.

1.12.1 Research paradigm: Pragmatic

A pragmatic research paradigm was used in this study. Pragmatic research is not committed to any one system of philosophy or reality. Creswell (2003, p 11) posits that pragmatic paradigm focuses on the "what" and "how" of the research problem. Data collection and analysis methods are chosen as those most likely to provide insight into the question without any philosophical allegiance to any alternative paradigm (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006). In this paradigm, therefore, both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used. Pragmatic paradigm provides comprehensive answers to research questions, going beyond the limitations of a single approach (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006; Creswell, 2014). Since this is the paradigm that this study followed, a detailed description of the mixed method approach is provided below.

1.12.2. Research approach: Mixed methods approach

The study employed a mixed-methods approach to collect data. Creswell (2014) defines mixed methods as an approach to inquiry that combines qualitative and quantitative forms of research starting with a mix (pragmatically) of philosophical assumptions all the way through to data collection, interpretation, analysis and reporting of findings. The mixed method approach to research, therefore, involves gathering both numeric information as well as text information. This may occur when one phase of the research uses quantitative methods while another phase uses qualitative methods. In this study, quantitative and qualitative data were collected concurrently.

1.12.3 Research Design: Concurrent Triangulation design

Research design is a plan for research that covers broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2008). For this study, concurrent triangulation design was utilized (Creswell, 2012) where quantitative and qualitative data were collected simultaneously over the course of three months. Concurrent triangulation design was used because it enabled validation by minimizing biases and increases analytic density (Fielding, 2012; Guion, Diehl & McDonald, 2011; Yeasmin & Rahman, 2012). Concurrent triangulation design combined quantitative and qualitative methods through use of questionnaire and interview, respectively, in data collection on teachers' self-efficacy (Yeasmin & Rahman, 2012).

Concurrent triangulation design involved the use of different methods and sources to ensure the integrity of data or extend inferences drawn from the data through convergence of both the data and the conclusions derived from the data (Ritchie, 2003). This study sought to investigate FP teachers' self-efficacy and establish relationships between variables and not causality. Data were collected through the use of questionnaires and the use of semi-structured interviews.

1.12.4 Population of the study

Population is a group of potential participants to whom the researcher anticipates to generalise the results of the study (van Zyl, 2012). In this study, population included all Grade 3 teachers teaching IsiXhosa Home Language in public schools in the Buffalo City Education District in the Eastern Cape Province.

1.12.5. Sample and Sampling Technique

The study adopted a multi-stage sampling technique. The researcher based this on geographical accessibility and purposively selected Buffalo City Education District in the Eastern Cape Province. Buffalo City Education District has rural, semi-urban and urban schools. However, the research focuses on schools that use IsiXhosa Home Language as the Language of Learning and Teaching in the Foundation Phase. There are 13 circuits in the Buffalo City district. Total enumeration was used to select all the 13 circuits. Disproportionate random sampling was used to select 10 schools in each of the circuits. When there was a lesser number of schools, all the available schools were selected. Therefore, this should give approximately 130 schools. However, there were 112 teachers who participated in this study, due to the rationalisation of schools in some circuits.

Purposive sampling technique was used to select Grade 3 classes from all the selected schools. The criteria for this is that Grade 3 is the exit grade from the Foundation Phase level of education. This Grade is the last class where IsiXhosa is a language of learning and teaching in the selected schools. Total enumeration was used to select all Grade 3 teachers in the selected schools with at least 1 teacher for Grade 3. Therefore, 130 teachers were scientifically selected and formed the sample of the study. Grade 3 IsiXhosa Home Language subject advisor and Education Management Information Systems officials in the selected education district were contacted to source information on the number of schools

that offer Grade 3 isiXhosa Home Language in the district. Furthermore, 6 teachers were selected for interviews conducted by the researcher.

1.13 Data Collection Instruments

1.13.1 Quantitative Data Collection Instrument: Questionnaires

The instruments for collecting quantitative data were questionnaires. This study adopted Schwarze, Schmitz & Daytner's (1999) Teacher Self-efficacy Scale (TSE) to measure teachers' self-efficacy and its sub-constructs. This scale was adopted to suit the purpose of this study. Cohen and Manion (2011) assert that a questionnaire has the ability to preserve anonymity, which encourages greater honesty. Thus, adopting questionnaire as data collection instrument was suitable for this study.

1.13.2. Qualitative data collection Instrument: Semi-structured Interviews

The researcher conducted interviews personally. Each interview was allocated 45 minutes, and interviews were conducted over two months. A case study design was followed.

1.14 Validity and Reliability

1.14.1 Validity

The researcher ensured that research instrument measures what it is intended to measure. Validity is the extent to which any measuring instrument measures what it intended to measure (Zohrabi, 2013). Internal validity in a mixed methods approach is assured by using a convergent design (Creswell, 2014). The researcher gave the instrument to an expert in the field of Languages and the supervisor for this study to validate it.

1.14.2. Reliability

The researcher made use of pilot study and the Cronbach's alpha. Tavakol and Dennick (2011) assert that Cronbach alpha provides a measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale. Furthermore, the internal consistency describes the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same concept or construct. Thus, it is connected to the inter-relatedness of the items within the test. Internal consistency should be determined before a test can be employed for research or examination purposes to ensure validity. In addition, reliability estimates show the amount of measurement error in a test. Put simply, this interpretation of reliability is the correlation of test with itself.

1.14.3. Credibility

Credibility refers to a situation where the findings obtained through qualitative research are agreeable to the participants of the research (Kumar, 2014: 219). 'Credibility is attained through a series of techniques including member checks, prolong engagement, persistence observation and triangulation, i.e. inference quality in mixed methods research' (Teddle & Tashakkori, 2009:332).

Therefore, researcher consulted experts to find their views and inputs on the structure of the interview schedule ; piloting the interview schedules before the actual data collection; ensuring in-depth and thorough data collection with the use of semi-structured interview questions. Member checks were done by checking both the data and the interpretations with study participants. The researcher used multiple methods of collecting data to enable triangulation of the data. He compared many sources of evidence in order to determine the accuracy of data, i.e. mixing strategies to corroborate each other. He also did peer debriefing by having conceptual discussions with another researcher with expertise in mixed methods research.

1.14.4. Transferability

Transferability is described by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009, p.287) as the degree to which finding conclusions may be applied to other similar contexts, people, time periods, settings and theoretical representations of the constructs. Babbie and Mouton (2007, p.277) refer to transferability as “the extent to which the findings of a study can be applied to other contexts, situations or respondents”. In this study, the researcher selected information-rich participants and collect data until saturation was reached. Data provided dense descriptions of the phenomenon under study.

1.14.5. Dependability

Dependability refers to how stable or consistent data is over time and over conditions (Polit et al., 2005, p. 315). In this study, the researcher certified dependability of the issue under investigation more directly and reported the processes within the study in detail, thereby enabling a future researcher (Kumar, 2014).

1.15 Data Analysis

In order to clearly demonstrate the link between the quantitative and qualitative data in a mixed methods research approach, data was presented and analysed separately. This study adopted a parallel mixed data analysis that involves two separate processes. QUAN analysis of data, i.e. using descriptive/inferential statistics for the appropriate variables of data, and QUAL analysis of data, using thematic analysis related to the relevant narrative data. Adopting each process provides readers with an understanding of Grade 3 teachers' self- efficacy on the teaching of reading-comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language in the Eastern Cape Province.

1.16 Ethical Considerations

Creswell (2008) argues that practicing ethics is a complex matter that involves more than just following a set of static guidelines such as those from professional associations. Ethically, conducting research requires researchers to actively interpret these principles for their individual projects, thus tailoring these ethical guidelines to suit the unique contexts of their research. The following guidelines were observed:

1.16.1. Gaining permission

The researcher sought permission to conduct the study from the University of Fort Hare Faculty of Education Research Ethics Committee. Furthermore, the researcher sought permission to conduct research in selected schools from the Department of Education in the Eastern Cape Province. Last, he sought permission to conduct research in the schools from the principals of the selected schools.

1.16.2. Participants' right

Participants were allowed to exercise their right to be part of the research or not. Participants' right to privacy and that of the schools where the participants are teaching were be respected. Participants were informed that they have a right to discontinue their participation if they so wished.

1.16.3 Informed consent

Kumar (2012:244) states, "all informed-consent procedures must meet three criteria: participants must be competent to give consent; sufficient information must be provided to allow for a reasoned decision; and consent must be voluntary and un-coerced." Participants were given all the information to facilitate their voluntarily participation in the study.

1.16.4 Confidentiality and anonymity

All information obtained in this study was treated confidentially and not divulged to anyone. The researcher understands that it is unethical to be negligent by not protecting the

confidentiality and anonymity of the information gathered from the participants (Kumar, 2012, p. 246). Furthermore, in cases where names were attached, the researcher uses pseudonyms for the research participants and the names of the schools where the participants teach.

1.16.5 Protection from harm

According to Burns and Grove (2009, p.198), protection from discomfort and harm originates from the principle of beneficence, which refers to doing good and avoidance of harm. During all interaction with research participants, the researcher avoided any situation that could lead to unwarranted distress and discomfort on the part of the participants.

1.16.6 Maintaining professionalism

The researcher showed commitment to continuous professional development, ethical practice and a responsible attitude toward participants throughout the study. This was done through demonstrating respect, compassion, integrity and altruism in relationship towards the participants.

1.17 Chapter Outline

The proposed outline is as indicated below:

CHAPTER 1: This chapter covers the background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions, purpose of the study, research objectives, significance of the study, assumptions of the study, delimitation of the study and definitions of terms.

CHAPTER 2: The chapter covers the theoretical framework and literature review.

CHAPTER 3: In this chapter, the research methodology, methods, and ethical considerations are discussed.

CHAPTER 4: This chapter presents the quantitative data findings study's findings, analysis and discussions

CHAPTER5: This chapter presents the qualitative data findings , analysis and discussions

CHAPTER6: This chapter discusses the findings , give summary and recommendations

1.17. Summary

In the opening chapter of this study, the researcher started by showing the background of the study internationally to nationally. The chapter then discussed the problem statement, research questions, study purpose, objectives, significance, and delimitations of the study. This helped locate the study. The second chapter discusses the theoretical framework which informs the study and reviews the literature related to the study

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2. Introduction

The first chapter discussed the research problem that gave motivation to this study, as well as the research questions and aims that the study sought to address. In relation to the problem under investigation, the aim of this chapter is to discuss the theoretical framework and literature review in order to explore issues around self-efficacy and the teaching of reading comprehension.

2.1 Theoretical Framework: Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory

It is important to discuss what theoretical framework is and why it is important before discussing the chosen theoretical framework. Lysaght (2011, p. 572) posits that “a researcher's choice of framework reflects important personal beliefs and understandings about the nature of knowledge, how it exists in relation to the observer, and the possible roles to be adopted, and tools to be employed consequently, by the researcher in his/her work”. This implies that the researcher's own beliefs and understandings are important in choosing a suitable theoretical framework for the study. Furthermore, it is clear that a researcher's choice of tools to collect data is also influenced by the theoretical framework chosen.

Literature points out that “theory enables researchers to name what they observe, to understand and to explain relationships and to make sense of human interactions (Kivunja, 2017). That means having a theory helps in understanding the phenomenon. It is stated that “a theory is a set of interrelated constructs, definitions, and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining and predicting the phenomena” (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000, p. 11). Similarly, Yamauchi, Ponte, Ratliffe and Traynor (2017, p. 11) assert that “when researchers do not

use theory to inform their research, they risk the possibility of failing to raise and examine theoretically grounded questions and may generate findings of a narrow or limited value". In light of this assertion a theoretical framework had to be chosen by the researcher.

Swanson (2013, p. 122) posits, "theoretical framework is the structure that can hold or support a theory of a research study". In identifying a theoretical framework, the researcher had to evaluate all theories and come up with a framework that can firmly support this study. Since, it emerges that a study without theoretical framework may lack substance. Grant and Onsloo (2014) point out that without a theoretical framework, the structure and vision for a study is unclear, much like a house that cannot be constructed without a blueprint. This implies that theoretical framework gives an explicit plan/ structure for the research to be conducted.

Kivunja (2018) conceptualises theoretical framework as a "structure or a data mining lens that uses knowledge from research done to date in your field, to make sense of the data in your own research study". That means theoretical framework gives perspective to the researcher, pointing the route that the researcher can take to collect relevant data. posits that theoretical framework helps in establishing deep understanding of the meaning contained in data, (Kivunja, 2015). This study sought to investigate the influence of Grade 3 teachers' self- efficacy on the teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. Since the study sought to investigate self-efficacy, Albert Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) (1986, 1997) was chosen as a relevant theoretical framework.

Social Cognitive Theory is based on the assumption that people are purposeful, goal-directed beings who are primarily motivated through their beliefs of self-efficacy (Erlach & Russ-Eft, 2011). This implies self-efficacy motivates a person towards achieving the goal or a purpose. Furthermore, a person who does not believe in his/her self-efficacy may be demotivated. This may cause a problem in the context of education because a demotivated teacher may not execute his/her roles effectively. Teachers are very significant members

of the educational process (Kudryashova, Gorbatova, Rybushkina & Ivanova, (2016). Hence, understanding their self-efficacy is important. For instance, Oyewumi, Ibitoye and Sanni (2012) posit that a strong sense of efficacy enhances human accomplishment and personal well-being in many ways. That means it a person's efficacy that enhances his/her performance towards accomplishing the desired goals. Wilson, Kickul and Marlino (2009) point out that self-efficacy reflects an individual's self-assessment as to whether they have the ability to perform a particular task as well as the belief that they convert those skills into a successful outcome. Similarly, Bandura (1997) as quoted by Hines (2013) pointed out that effective teaching requires skills, but the teacher must also perceive that he or she has efficacy to successfully use those skills. That means the driving force for an effective teaching depends on how the teacher perceive him/herself. SCT assumes that people are able to symbolize their experiences into internal models of action that allow them to engage in forethought to purposefully direct their behaviour. This study is mainly focusing on the teachers and their teaching. Thus, Social Cognitive Theory was found relevant because it has self-efficacy as one of its premise (Hinnant-Crawford, 2016).

Self-efficacy is defined as the set of beliefs a person holds regarding his or her capabilities to produce desired outcomes and influence events that affect his or her life (Bandura, 1986). That means self-efficacy relates to the extent to which one's belief in his/her capabilities influence their performance, professionally and in life general. In the context of this study, the teachers' belief in his/her capabilities to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is the focus. That means the focus is on the professional aspect of a teacher. The focus is not on the influence of the self –efficacy on how the teacher conducts his/her personal life. Self-efficacy exerts a critical influence on motivation and plays a critical role in self-motivation to deal with unfamiliar tasks and accepted as an important determinant of future performance, (Burnett, Xu & Kennedy, 2010). That means self-efficacy relates to personal motivation, and how each individual deal with unfamiliar tasks. Gavora (2010) points out that self-efficacy is a self-system that controls most personal activity, including appropriate use of professional knowledge and skills. The fact that it is referred to as a self-system, shows that

self-efficacy is multi-dimensional. This implies that in the context of this study self-efficacy of the teachers may influence how they use their professional knowledge and skills to achieve the desired outcomes. That means self-efficacy relates to one's confidence in doing something.

Burnett, Xu and Kennedy (2010) contend that once people have the confidence in themselves to produce the desired outcomes, they will have the motive and incentive to perform the action. Literature points out that self-efficacy is a crucial factor determining how capable individuals think they are in terms of dealing with particular types of tasks (Maddux & Volkmann, 2010). That implies that sense of self-efficacy on a particular task may not be the same with the sense of self-efficacy on another task. Literature shows that self-efficacy has different sources.

Bandura (1986) identified four sources of information that influence self-efficacy: (1) performance; (2) vicarious learning or modelling; (3) verbal persuasion; and (4) emotional and/or physical response. That means self-efficacy is not genetic. Below is the discussion of the sources of self-efficacy.

Mastery experience

Tschannen-Moran and McMaster (2009) conceptualised mastery experience in the context of teachers as perceptions of past experiences of teaching. This infers that the teacher's past experiences and encounters have a significant role in developing self-efficacy. Similarly, Schunk and Usher (2012) point out that the most reliable sources of efficacy information are typically accomplishments that we have experienced ourselves, for which we have tangible evidence of success. Hence, in this study to find out the teachers' self-efficacy, it was important to include the teachers' teaching experience. In finding out teachers' self-efficacy it was important to seek respondents' teaching experience. Bandura (1997) states that each success builds confidence. That implies that failure in doing something can affect the person's self-efficacy negatively. Similarly, Usher and Pajares, (2006) suggests that if individual's actions did not produce desired outcomes, the

individual's confidence to succeed with a similar task in the future is reduced. Literature clearly reveals that mastery experiences have the most powerful influence on perceived self-efficacy as they provide direct feedback on an individual's capabilities (Laughter, 2017).

Vicarious experiences

Usher and Pajares (2008) posit that individuals form their self-efficacy beliefs through observing and interpreting the performance of others. This suggests that an individual can be encouraged/ discouraged by what he/she observes. That means when teachers watch experienced colleagues, movies, digital videos or discs may be stimulated to improve his/her teaching. Usher and Pajares (2006) point out that self-efficacy may increase if one judges his/her performance as superior to his/her peers or even decrease if they feel they are performing worse.

Verbal persuasion

Furtado, Nina, Ramos, Silva, de Oliveira and Pontes (2016) highlight the importance of the verbal stimulation present in the teacher's work environment. This suggests that encouragement from colleagues, senior teachers, school management teams, peers from other schools, parents, family members and even from learners can boost teachers' confidence in their teaching. As literature points out that self-efficacy plays a central role in the self-regulation of motivation through goal challenges and outcome expectations. (Mark & Campbell, 2011). That means if one is not motivated there is a possibility that the goals or outcomes may not be achieved as expected. Hence, verbal persuasion is important as a form of encouragement that stimulates self-efficacy.

Affective experiences

These are beliefs are feelings of anxiety, joy, pride and despair. Bandura (2012) reveals that anxiety, and fear may cause stress, which can be weakening to a successful outcome (Bandura, 2012). Literature indicates that these feelings can impact how individuals judge their capabilities. Teachers' self-efficacy is the set of beliefs a teacher holds regarding his

or her abilities and competencies to teach and influence student behaviour and achievement regardless of outside influences or obstacle, (Steele, 2010).

In the context of this study, teachers' beliefs on his /her abilities to effectively teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Literature points out that effective teachers possess in-depth content knowledge, effective pedagogical skills, have excellent rapport with students and high sense of efficacy for teaching their content (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Darling-Hammond & Rothman, 2011). In light of the previous assertion, sense of efficacy for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is the focus of this study. Teachers' self-efficacy is regarded as a powerful predictor of teacher action (Aslan, 2015 & Tiffany, 2017). Furthermore, literature also reveal that sense of self-efficacy, is a strong predictor of teachers' job satisfaction and intention to stay in the profession (Klassen & Chiu, 2010; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2010). That means , if the teacher is efficacious he/she is motivated to do the job despite all the challenges he/she may encounter. It is for that reason that the researcher believes that to improve learner academic achievement, teachers' self-efficacy has to be also high. In literature it is revealed that there is a relationship between teacher self-efficacy and learner academic achievement (Ucar & Sungur, 2017; Aslan, 2015).

Research reveals that learners taught by highly efficacious teachers perform better than those taught by less efficacious teachers (Hines, 2010; Mojavez & Tamiz, 2012). That means teacher self-efficacy is one of the key variables that help learners perform well in their academics. However, it is worth noting that teacher self-efficacy changes according to the content they teach (Holzberger, Philipp & Kunter, 2013). That is one of the reasons that this study chose IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension as the content that the respondents in this study are teaching.

Similarly, Pendergast, Garvis and Keogh (2011) posit that self-efficacy affects the teacher's mental structure in organizing learning activities and his/her capacity to do activities in the class. That means teacher's self-efficacy influences how he/she plans his/ her lessons,

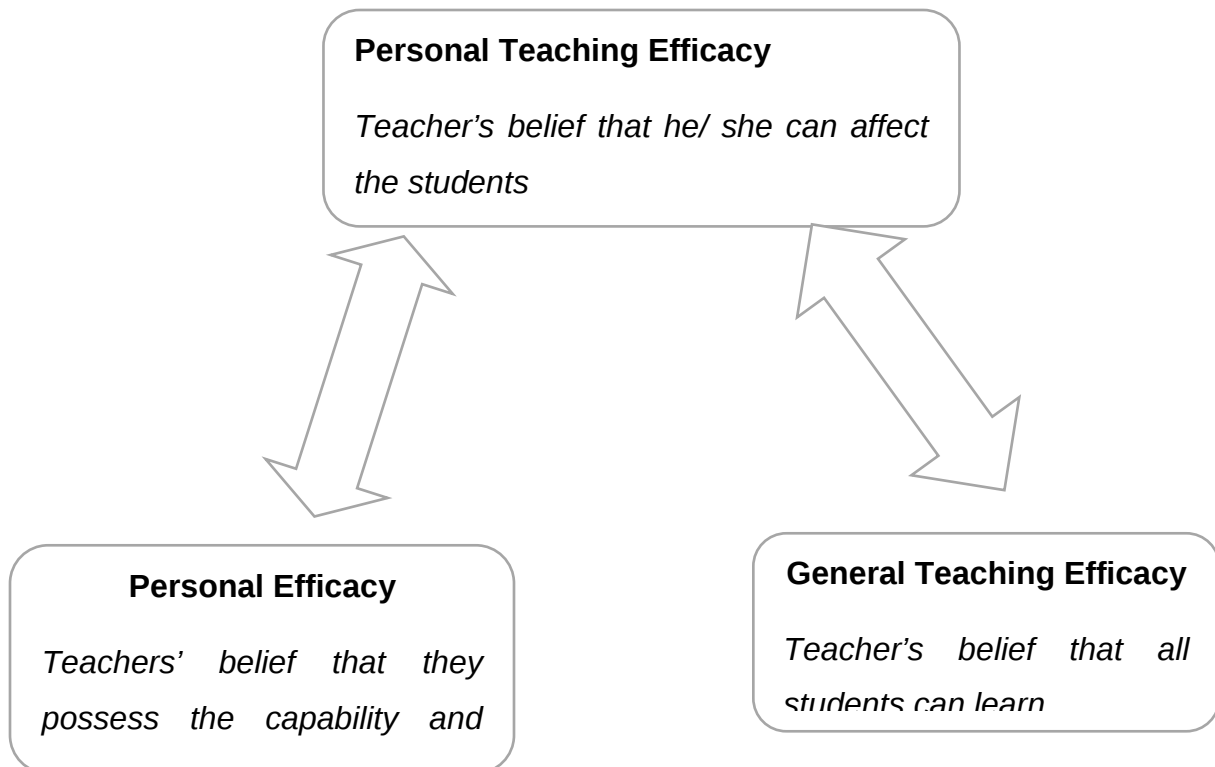
his/her teaching activities and his/her assessments. Malinene, Savolainen, Englbrecht, Xu, Nel, Nel and Tlale (2013) argue that teachers may feel efficacious about teaching certain subjects to certain students in certain settings, while perceiving themselves as less efficacious under different circumstances. This suggests that teacher's self-efficacy may be high in one subject and be low in the other subject. Thus, this study specifically focused on IsiXhosa HL as a subject taught by the participants. In this study, a chosen theoretical framework is related to self-efficacy.

Ekinci (2012, p. 20) contends, "a teacher having a high level of self-efficacy is naturally expected to have a higher level of self-confidence. The researcher argues that if a teacher is confident in teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language, learning outcomes can be positive. Additionally, the researcher assumes that it is the teacher's self-efficacy that can influence the teacher to do everything possible to teach the content effectively. Literature indicates that teacher self-efficacy 'is a teacher's belief in his or her ability to affect change in students' learning outcomes' (Garvis & Pendergast, 2010, p. 7). That means if the teacher believes that he/she cannot teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language, learners may suffer.

However, the researcher acknowledges that there are debates about teacher self-efficacy and its role in learners' academic achievements. For instance, some studies suggest that teacher's knowledge correlates positively with learner achievement (Ekinci, 2012. However, finding out about the teacher's belief about his/ her capability to teach reading comprehension is relevant. These beliefs are realised through teacher commitment, enthusiasm and in many cases changed teaching behaviours (Skaalvik & Skaalvik 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy 2007). In the context of this study commitment is demonstrated by the teacher's reading comprehension lesson planning, delivering of the lesson and assessing the lesson.

Teacher self-efficacy has been found to be consistently related to positive teaching behaviour and strong pupil achievement, (Gavora, 2010). Investigating teachers' self-efficacy in teaching reading comprehension is relevant in South Africa because literature has shown that learners are performing poorly in reading comprehension. Bandura (1997) stated that teachers with high self-efficacy believe that difficult students are teachable through extra effort and appropriate instructional strategies. Teachers with a high sense of efficacy view struggling learners as "reachable, teachable, and worthy of teacher attention and effort" (Ashton & Webb, 1986, p. 85).

The SCT, as a framework, seem to accommodate the lenses upon which the researcher will look at the issue of teachers' self- efficacy. Bandura (1986) highlights that SCT is an important body of work that assist educators to create effective learning processes that address the way learners learn. It is this theory that will guide in finding out how the teacher's self-efficacy influence their planning for teaching reading comprehension, teaching reading comprehension and assessing reading comprehension. Bandura (2001) posits that SCT focuses on the interactions among personal factors, behaviours and the environment. Teacher's actions in the classroom as he/she teaches reading comprehension seems important in answering the questions of this study. In the context of teaching, Ashton (1983) introduced a model of teacher efficacy. The following figure shows the model.



(Figure 1: Ashton's three types of efficacy beliefs)

Figure 1 above shows Ashton's three types of efficacy beliefs which are: general teaching efficacy, personal efficacy and personal teaching efficacy. General teaching efficacy (GTE), represents teachers' views of the "general relationship between teaching and learning" (Ashton, 1986, p. 2). That means a teacher may have pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge, but lack capability to teach the content.

Secondly, the teacher may have what Ashton terms as Personal efficacy (PE) which refers to teachers' belief that they themselves possess the capability and skills to motivate students. Ashton and Webb (1986) found that teachers with low personal efficacy use public embarrassment as one tactic to punish and discourage students who misbehave, and they use excommunication by sending potential threats from the room during instruction. This implies that the teacher has different teaching skills that can motivate learners. Whereas,

the third component is the Personal Teaching Efficacy (PTE) which is the teachers' beliefs that they can motivate students in their current context. It is this personal teaching efficacy that is relevant in the context of this study. Literature has shown that teachers with high personal teaching efficacy tend to be more organized, keep students on task, and possess greater skills in instruction, questioning, explaining, and offering feedback (Mojavezi & Tamiz, 2012). Whereas, teachers with low personal teaching efficacy avoid content for which they are unfamiliar and are preoccupied with their own sense of inadequacy rather than student learning (Ashton & Webb, 1986). This study's framework is anchored on the above three types of efficacy belief. The following literature reviewed using the SCT lenses as stated above.

2.2. Introducing literature reviewed in this study

The previous section discussed the theoretical framework used in this study. Bandura's SCT was seen relevant for a study that sought to investigate the influence of Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. The purpose of this section in this chapter is to locate the present study by reviewing relevant the literature on research conducted in the field of teaching. The researcher gathered information to accept or reject the alternative hypotheses. To do that, the researcher used the research questions stated at the beginning of the chapter to reach to the conclusion of rejecting or accepting the alternative hypotheses.

Literature looked at the present studies in answering the already stated research questions to accept or reject the alternative hypotheses. To unpack the present studies, the researcher first discussed teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy and how it relates to teaching. After that the researcher focused on reading broadly, narrowing it down to reading comprehension which is the focus of this study. The researcher unpacked lesson planning and the teaching of reading comprehension. Lastly, the researcher discussed assessing reading comprehension.

2.2.1. Teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy

Teacher self-efficacy is viewed to have a greater impact on learner achievement (Cantrell, Almasi, Carter & Rintamaa, 2013; Mqingwana, 2019). That means teacher self-efficacy is one of the variables that are important towards learner's academic achievement. Similarly, literature points out that teachers' sense of efficacy is an important factor in school improvement (Noel, Crosser, Kuglin & Lupomech, 2013; Mazlum & Cheragi, 2015). In a context where literature reveals poor academic achievement in reading comprehension in Grade 3, there is a need to also explore teachers' self-efficacy in looking for solutions. Teacher self-efficacy belief have been proven to be the powerful weapon to achieve desirable goals in the classroom (Mazlum, Cheragi & Dasta, 2015). The researcher believes that South Africans want to improve academic results in reading comprehension, hence, this study. Some similar studies were conducted in different contexts and in different subjects.

A study by Özge (2015) in Turkey reveals that mathematics teachers with a higher self-efficacy belief show a higher level of effort and persistence with students. Furthermore, teachers with a higher self-efficacy are reported to be more open to new ideas and new methods, believing in students' achievements (Ibid). That means teachers with higher self-efficacy are willing to go an extra mile in making sure that learners learn. This is not only in the Mathematics subject, but also in other subjects. For instance, a study in India by Begum (2018) found that there is a significant relationship between self-efficacy and teaching reading comprehension skill. Literature points out that efficacy beliefs are an important predictor of how much effort individuals make and how well they persevere when coping with obstacles; these also reflect how effectively people can regulate their motivation, choice and achievement (Schunk, Meece & Pintrich, 2014). That shows a need to find out how the teachers self-efficacy influences their teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. The researcher has noted several studies that identify problems

with the teaching of reading comprehension in other languages. Yet, there is need to focus on the teachers' perceptions about their teacher self-efficacy.

Protheroe (2008) states that teachers in a school who are classified by a can-do attitude tend to accept challenging objectives and less likely to easily give up. Teachers are important in learning, the manner in which they view themselves has an influence on how they behave. Bandura (2012) contends that people's self-beliefs influence how they view situations, optimistically or pessimistically, which could be self-enabling or self-debilitating. Hence, perceptions of teachers on their self-efficacy is relevant in this study. It is revealed that self-efficacy beliefs affect teaching practice and the attitude towards the educational process and therefore, the quality of teaching and learning (Achurra & Villardón, 2012). That means teachers' practice is linked to their self-efficacy.

Furthermore, literature points out that literature shows that high efficacious teachers tend to maintain high level of student engagement and spend more time with struggling learners perceiving them as teachable with extra attention (Dunn & Airola, 2013; Aslan, 2015). The researcher identified a gap in literature about teachers' self-efficacy in teaching IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. However, literature reveals that learners are performing poorly in reading.

Teachers' perceptions of their level of knowledge, skills and experience have an important role in overcoming difficult situations effectively during their professional life (Sarfo, Amankwah, Sam & Konin, 2014). This implies that teachers with higher teacher self-efficacy can motivate learners to also strive for the best. Improvement of teacher self-efficacy is important not only for increasing learner performance but also for making teacher's classroom practices more effective and engaging in the profession more devotedly (Aslan, 2015). This is also alluded by Tschannen-Moran and Johnson (2011) who bring forward that self-efficacy beliefs become self-fulfilling prophecies because what we believe about ourselves is often more powerful than the skills we possess. That means what you believe

about yourself is more powerful than the skill you have. Bangs and Frost (2012) advance that teachers are role models of every student. That means if teachers are demotivated and not enthusiastic about their work, this may affect learners' learning. For instance, Corkett and Benevides (2011) reveal that teachers with low self-efficacy are more critical of struggling learners, spend less time assisting those who do not understand, and refer more students for special education services than teachers who have a high sense of teaching efficacy. Self-efficacy has been described as an important construct that has a great impact on teachers' motivation and personal accomplishments (Tweed, 2013). Furthermore, "It is important to note that self-efficacy is a motivational construct based on self-perception of competence rather than actual level of competence" (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). It is appropriate to find out the teachers' perceptions on their self-efficacy to teach reading-comprehension.

Xu (2012) contends that teachers' beliefs are more influential than teachers' knowledge on determining their teaching activities. That means that a teacher may have pedagogical knowledge and subject matter knowledge, but struggle to transfer the knowledge due to different variables, including TSE self-efficacy. Xu further asserts that teachers' beliefs influence teacher consciousness, teaching attitude, teaching methods, teaching policy, and also strongly influence teaching behaviour and learner development (2012). Hence, one of the questions in this study sought to find out teachers' perceptions of their self-efficacy. Jaggernauth and Jameson-Charles (2015) conclude that teachers' beliefs are some of the most influential resources that teachers take with them into the classroom. The researcher argues that if the teacher does not believe in him/herself there can never be an effective teaching and learning. Notably, teachers' beliefs also influence their beliefs about learners' ability to learn, so that they spend more time and effort in teaching with clarity, which results in better student outcomes (Shidler, 2009). This is in congruence with Pajare's (1996) assertions about self-efficacy that influence:

- Choices: Self-efficacy beliefs influence the choices people make and the courses of action they follow. Most people take part in tasks in which they feel competent and

confident and avoid those in which they do not;

- Effort: they also help determine how much effort people will expend on an activity;
- Persevere: how long they will persist when dealing with obstacles and failures;
- Resilience: and how resilient they will prove in the face of adverse situations--the higher the sense of efficacy, the greater the effort, persistence and resilience; and
- Stress and anxiety: Efficacy beliefs also influence the amount of stress and anxiety individuals experience as they engage in a task and the level of accomplishment they realize.

Literature reveals that teachers with a high level of self-efficacy believe that they can teach difficult students effectively (Baleghizadeh & Shakouri, 2017). Literature further points out that teacher's self-efficacy beliefs are related to the effort they invest in teaching, their persistence and resilience in the face of setbacks, and the quality of instructional strategies they employ (Holzberger, Philipp & Kunter, 2013). High teacher self-efficacy is associated with achieving goals. These can be seen through the teachers' instructional strategies. Hence, Postholm (2011) posits that teachers should demonstrate instructional strategies, effective classroom practices and engage learners for better understanding.

One of the ways to measure whether, indeed, the goals of teaching and learning have been achieved is through assessment. Those who believe they have the capability to succeed are more likely to persist in the face of adversity and invest significant effort to achieve goals of importance to them, (de la Torre Cruz & Arias, 2011). Whereas, those who doubt their skills and competencies are more likely to see such efforts as futile and will not endure (Ibid). The following section unpacks reading and its components, and this includes reading comprehension.

2.2.2. Understanding reading

Gurning and Siregar (2017) posit that reading is one of the important skill to master by the students besides writing, speaking, and listening. That means reading is a skill that has to be developed in all children. Pretorius and Lephala (2018) points out that language is the vehicle through which and in which reading is done. Hence in this study the focus is on IsiXhosa Home Language. Furthermore, literature points out that in whatever language learners learn, reading needs to be a central school activity (Pretorius & Lephala, 2018). This is because reading is a very fundamental tool of learning throughout schooling. Akindele (2012) suggests that reading is a basic life skill. This implies that in order for learners to be firmly established in life they must possess the basic life skills that are attained through reading. Hence, Azami (2014) contends that to be successful in school and throughout life, children need reading as a foundation. The ability to read properly can open doors for opportunities in life (Ibid). Additionally, Davis (2014, p.1) contends, “understanding the written word is one way the mind grows in its ability, teaching young children to read helps them develop their language skills”. That means schools should make sure that reading is allocated time for teaching.

It is explicitly revealed that reading is the most essential skill required to acquire knowledge in any discipline (Al-wossabi, 2014:817; Erdenebaatar & Harputlu, 2016:16). This implies that a reader has to understand what he/she is reading in order to acquire knowledge. That, therefore, means the purpose of reading is to get knowledge. Similarly, Naseri (2012) points out that reading is a complex cognitive activity essential for sufficient functioning and for obtaining information in modern society. Hence, it has to be taught explicitly from early grades. Klapwijk (2015) points out that reading is probably one of the most important linguistic skills that need to be developed in young children.

Foundation Phase teachers have the responsibility to develop this most important linguistic skill. Thus, Phajane (2014) posits that in any country, the Foundation Phase learning is

critical. This is the phase where learners are supposed to learn how to read. For instance, Kigel, McElvany and Becker (2011) contend that in Grade 3, learners are expected to have mastered decoding skills, and the focus of reading instruction shifts to more complex aspects of reading. These complex aspects include vocabulary knowledge and text comprehension (Ibid). That implies that much of the work should be done from Grade 1 so that when learners get to Grade 3, they have the basic knowledge. The researcher believes that all FP teachers in their teaching should build towards establishing a proficient reader, who can comprehend the text.

Joubert, Bester, Evan and Phatudi (2015, p. 101) point out that reading is “a message-getting, problem-solving activity, which increases in power and flexibility the more it is practised”. That means when reading, a reader must be able to get the message from the text. However, getting a message from the text may not be easy without first knowing vocabulary. Hulme and Snowing (2015) contend that reading comprehension is a complex process in which learners must decode and recognise words, aggregate the meaning of words into larger units, and summarise the content. That implies, for learners to be able to comprehend the text, they must be able to decode and recognise words. Hence, learners have to be taught decoding skills from early grades. Cambria and Gurthrie (2010) posit that reading comprehension is an ultimate reading outcome. That means as teachers teach decoding skills and word recognition, they should be driving learners towards reading comprehension. Silva and Cain (2015) stressed that developing students’ vocabulary knowledge and teaching grammar rules support further text comprehension.

Reading engages two connected and fundamental processes: comprehension and decoding (Mansory, 2012). That means reading is a process, so one cannot just read without going through the process. Syatriana (2010) reveals that the reading process includes three processes: (1) letter and word recognition, (2) comprehension of concepts, and (3) reaction and assimilation of the new knowledge with the reader’s past experience. It is therefore important that the person who teaches reading knows how to teach reading,

and is able to teach effectively. However, Zimmerman (2014) points out that FP teachers put much emphasis on teaching decoding skills, though this is often done in a superficial, haphazard and decontextualized way. This suggests that there is a challenge with the teaching of reading. Consequently, Pretorius and Currin (2010) highlighted that teachers assume that learners will be able to comprehend when they can decode; as a result, little attention is paid to reading comprehension. The ability that individuals can figure out the pronunciation of a written word and define its meaning is decoding, while reading comprehension is understanding what you are reading (Azami, 2014). Despite, literature revealing the importance of reading comprehension, there seems to be a gap in the FP. Duran (2013) points out that reading is a medium of absorbing knowledge, resolving all the doubts, or expressing thoughts with others. It is important for teachers to take note of the components of reading.

2.2.2.1. Components of reading

Nel and Adam (2014) posit that there are five essential components of reading according to scientific research. These are, phonemic awareness, phonics/ word recognition; reading fluency; vocabulary and reading comprehension. It is worth noting that the context in which these components were discovered is different from IsiXhosa Home Language. Hulme and Snowling (2009) argue that the transparency of a language's orthography influences the strategies that children use when learning to read in that language, as well as the relative ease with which reading skills are acquired. Hence, the researcher argues that there is a huge difference on learning to read in English or any other language and learning to read in IsiXhosa Home Language. However, these components assist in understanding the fundamentals of teaching reading.

Phonemic Awareness

Phonemic awareness is a critical part of reading (Chappell, Stephens, Kinnison, & Pettigrew, 2009). It is the process of understanding sounds (Pullen & Lloyd, 2007). It

focuses on the phonemes, which are units of sound that correspond with the letters of the alphabet (Chappell et al., 2009). In the FP, learners should be taught phonemic awareness. Teaching phonemic awareness to students is important because it helps with the alphabetic principle (Manyak, 2008). Learners have to know letters and alphabets in order to be able to read. As literature points out, phonemic awareness is an important basic skill that gets students ready to develop into readers (Elish-Piper, 2010). This makes this skill a basic skill that can lead to reading comprehension.

Phonics /word recognition

According to Morrow (2007), phonics is the connection of sounds and symbols. The use of phonics requires children to be taught letter sounds and combinations of letter sounds or phonemes, associated with their corresponding letter symbols or graphemes. Phonics can be used to introduce learners to the letters of the alphabet.

Fluency

Literature defines fluency as fast, accurate oral reading with proper expression (Kuhn, Schwanenflugel & Meisinger, 2010; Rasinski, 2012). This implies that fluency relates to speed and rate in which the reader reads the text. Cotter (2012) reveals that reading fluency is an important skill to master as it creates a bridge to reading comprehension. Cotter further asserts that being a fluent reader allows one to focus on the content in the reading, rather than focusing on the decoding of each individual word (Ibid). This suggest that fluency is an important skill that leads to reading comprehension. Klauda and Guthrie (2008) reveal that oral passage reading fluency significantly accounts for comprehension abilities.

Vocabulary

Azami (2015) suggest that there is a complex relationship between reading comprehension and vocabulary. Tze-Ming Chou (2011) points out that having vocabulary knowledge enables the reader to comprehend the text easily, and reading more will help readers develop their vocabulary. The above-mentioned author further argues that it is impossible

for a reader to read a text if he or she has no knowledge of the words found in the text. This makes vocabulary an important component of reading. There seems to be an intertwined connection between other components of reading and reading comprehension. The focus of this study is on reading comprehension. That is why the following paragraphs focus deeply on reading comprehension.

2.2.3. Reading comprehension

Pour-Mohammadi and Abidin (2011, p. 238) conceptualise reading comprehension “as an interactive mental process between a reader’s linguistic knowledge, knowledge of the world, and knowledge about a given topic”. According to this conceptualisation, reading comprehension digs deep into a reader’s prior-knowledge. Hanse (2016) suggests that reading comprehension is to make meaning of what we read. That means the link between linguistic knowledge, knowledge of the world and knowledge about topic has to guide the reader towards meaning getting. This implies that reading comprehension is a skill that has to be taught to learners. Merisuo-Strom (2010) contends that a child who does not learn to read and comprehend in the early years of schooling will experience difficulties in other subjects. Cognizant of the fact that literature shows that reading comprehension is a multi-faceted aspect, and as such, there are multiple definitions of what makes efficient reading comprehension (Kendeou, Papadopoulos & Spanoudis, 2012)

For instance, some researchers posit reading comprehension as a metacognitive act that combines the meanings of individual words into a coherent sentence, and then assimilate multiple sentences to create an overall understanding of the text (McNamara, Ozuru & Floyd, 2011). That implies that learners’ knowledge about word formation is an important skill that scaffolds reading comprehension. Whereas, some researchers believe reading comprehension is influenced by the knowledge, experiences and purpose of the reader, content and features of the text, and the situation or context of reading, (Kraayenoord, 2010). That implies that a reader has to be able to interact with the text as the reader reads

the text. That means the language of the text, content and context should be relevant to the reader. Some researchers see a process of reading comprehension as not easy as accessing word meaning and combining those words (Moss, Schunn, Schneider, McNamara & Van Lehn, 2011). According to these researchers, the process of comprehension includes the construction of a mental image representation of a text, lexical process to retrieve the meaning of the word (Ibid). This means as the reader is reading, he/she has to think about the text he/she is reading. That implies that a reader is engaged in a process of making connections in his/her brain.

Karbalaei (2011) points out that with regards to reading, it is common to talk about metacognitive awareness (what we know) and metacognitive regulation or control (knowing when, where, and how to use strategies, that is, what we can do. Baker (2008) contends that we learn strategies that support our comprehension and learn how to carry out these strategies effectively. Karbalaei (2011) points out that it is the combination of conscious awareness of reading, strategic reading processes and the actual utilization of reading strategies that distinguishes skilled from unskilled readers. This infers that learners cannot on their own develop reading strategies.

It is the responsibility of the teacher to facilitate the development of the metacognitive skills relevant for reading. Fitria, Syarif and Refnaldi (2014, p. 1) point out that “through reading, the students are able to use the information in the text, to understand the sentences, utterances, paragraph, evaluate the written ideas, and apply the ideas to actual situations”. The researcher acknowledges that reading comprehension is a multi-faceted aspect, and as such, there are multiple definitions of what makes efficient reading comprehension (Kendeou, Papadopoulos & Spanoudis (2012). Hence, there is a need to teach these skills to learners.

The above sentiments imply that teachers have a significant role of developing learners' cognitive and metacognitive skills, as they are important in reading comprehension. Zare

and Othman (2013) hypothesize that during reading, the cognitive effort is expressed through strategies, which are “procedural, purposeful, effortful, wilful, essential, and facilitative in nature. By pointing out metacognition as an important aspect of reading comprehension, the researcher seeks to reveal that reading comprehension is not easy; it needs to be taught explicitly. Comprehension skills require students’ continuous development toward more advanced comprehension competencies through the application of self-guided thinking throughout every reading experience (Ortlieb & Cheek, 2012; Ortlieb, Cheek, & Verlaan, 2013).

The researcher also argues that FP is a relevant schooling phase where these metacognitive skills can be developed. Reading comprehension research has shown the value of explicit, structured instruction of metacognitive strategies, enabling learners to accomplish reading tasks effectively (Cantrell & Carter, 2009). Literature reveals a need to teach reading strategies clearly for learners to be effective readers. Duke and Block (2012) suggest predicting, questioning, visualising, drawing inferences and summarising as effective metacognitive strategies that can help learners read effectively.

Beck and Condry (2017) bring forward that equipping learners with reading strategies enables them to read independently, that is, when the teacher is not present. Furthermore, they contend that teachers who explicitly teach effective literacy behaviours and who role model critical reading and writing skills help learners who come from homes where this is not provided (Ibid). Casey (2010) contends that proficient readers will be able to obtain new skills needed for the fast-changing global marketplace. That means for learners to participate effectively in the global market, they have to be taught reading comprehension skills effectively. Learners seem to miss out the opportunity to be taught how to read proficiently. Hence, the focus of this study was to find out the influence of teachers’ self-efficacy on their teaching of reading comprehension. As much as teachers are important in the process of reading comprehension, learners’ prior-knowledge seems to be one of the pillars for effective reading comprehension.

Elwer (2014) contends that knowledge of the world is necessary to make text connections such as inferences. This suggests that a reader's knowledge about the language is also necessary when reading. Alfaki and Siddiek (2013) point out that the reader brings information, knowledge, emotion, and culture to the printed word. The researcher argues that reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language cannot be similar to reading in another language. In the context of this study, IsiXhosa is the learners' mother tongue and the teachers' mother tongue. That suggests that both learners and teachers have a common ground, which is the language and culture. In this regard, it is essential to activate the learners' prior knowledge before reading a text through a series of activities, which would make them prepared for reading and lead to a better comprehension (Alfaki & Siddiek, 2013).

In most studies, prior-knowledge is closely associated with the schema theory. Alhaisoni (2017) suggests that the main idea behind schemata is that readers can make sense of visual information and understand printed matter by relating them to their previous background knowledge and previous experience. Similarly, Ricketts (2011, p. 111) points out "to understand written text, words need to be recognized and their meanings accessed, relevant background knowledge also needs to be activated and inferences generated as information is integrated during the course of reading". The discussion of the schema helped the researcher in contextualising the study as it focuses on a specific language in a specific context. Literature introduces different types of schema that are relevant in reading. These are linguistic, formal and content schemata (Huang, 2009; Xiao-hui, Jun, & Wei-hua, 2007).

a) Linguistic / language schema

Jian-ping and Li-sha (2016) theorize that language schema covers vocabulary, sentence structure, and grammar. Similarly, Huang (2009, p. 139) points out that linguistic schemata include "the decoding features needed to recognize words and how they fit together in a

sentence". In the context of this study, this means phonics in IsiXhosa, grammar rules, syntax and semantics in IsiXhosa should be the learners' prior knowledge. Pour-Mohammadi and Abidin (2011) suggest that letters alone, when combined with other letters and the ability to predict what word or words will follow, using syntax knowledge, are the basis for schemata. Furthermore, linguistic schemata is conceptualised as having knowledge of the letters and their corresponding sounds (Pour-Mohammadi & Abidin, 2011). That means learners' linguistic schema has to be developed from the early grades. Al-Jahwari and Al-Humaidi (2015) posit that schemata theory rests on the principle that written text itself does not carry meaning but only directs a reader towards retrieving or constructing meaning with the help of their previously acquired knowledge. Hence, the researcher argues that the learners' knowledge of the language read is a stepping stone to the level where learners comprehend the text.

Linguistic schema assumes that the learner has been taught phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency and vocabulary. This is also alluded to by Xiao-hui, Jun and Wei-hua (2007) who advance that linguistic schemata are the readers' existing language proficiency in vocabulary, grammar and idioms. All these have to be taught to learners; however, this may not be realised if the teacher doubts his/her ability to teach the language. A research conducted in South Africa reveals that teachers spend far more time focusing on the mechanical skills of decoding rather than on meaning and comprehension (Verbeek, 2010; Murris, 2014). This then implies that teachers do spend time on developing linguistic schema although this does not translate to learners' ability to read with understanding. Mullis, Martin, Kennedy, Trong and Sainsbury (2009) contend that meaning has to be constructed through interaction between the reader and the text in the context of the reading experience, with the reader using a repertoire of linguistic skills, cognitive and metacognitive strategies and background knowledge in the process.

b) Formal Schema

The discussion above sought to show the importance of the linguistic schema as the background knowledge. However, possessing linguistic schema does not necessarily mean that a learner can read with understanding. That means a learner may be able to decode, read fluently and yet do not comprehend what he/she is reading. Al-Jahwari and Al-Humaidi (2015) point out that formal schema refers to the discourse structure of various genres of articles. That means a learner has to know that there are different types of genres. This is in agreement with Che (2014) who states that formal schema is the degree of a reader's knowledge on the style of the text. This explains formal schema as the knowledge of different text styles and structures. For instances, a learner's knowledge about transactional texts, essays, literary and media texts is important. Each text has its own purpose, text structure and language features. Hamed, Behnamb and Saiedi (2014) suggest that readers' expectations about the genre of a text influence the way that a text is processed and represented in memory and expert readers typically activate appropriate reading goals for each discourse genre. Furthermore, the researcher argues that without the teachers' self-efficacy on teaching the subject, the teacher may not effectively develop learners' formal schema.

c) Content Schema

Al Asmari and Zahid Javid (2018) posit that information about the topic, cultural familiarity and readers' previous knowledge related to the field builds the basis of content schemata. Whereas Zarei and Mahmudi (2012) suggest content schema as a culture-specific knowledge. This implies that reader's cultural background and context are important when reading. That is one of the reasons that the researcher chose IsiXhosa Home Language which is the mother-tongue for the teachers and the learners involved in the study.

The researcher argues that at Grade 3, learners should have knowledge about phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency and vocabulary. Similarly, it is reported that vocabulary knowledge is key to successful text comprehension (Silva & Cain, 2015). In the context of

this study, IsiXhosa Home language is the language of learning and teaching. Hence, learners' content schema is important when teaching reading comprehension. Kigel, McElvany and Becker (2011) contend that in Grade 3, learners should have mastered decoding skills, and the focus should be put on vocabulary knowledge and text comprehension. The researcher contends that when teachers teach reading comprehension, they have to be able to link what learners already know with the new knowledge.

The researcher argues that learners may have all the relevant schemata for reading, but that makes no difference if the teacher's self-efficacy is low. Thus, this study sought to investigate the influence of the teachers' self-efficacy on teaching reading comprehension. Literature points out that teachers with high-efficacy are better at teaching (Bautista & Boone, 2015). The following section discusses teaching of reading comprehension.

Zhang (2010) suggests that when teaching reading comprehension, teachers should help students facilitate reading comprehension by making use of the schemata. This implies that teachers' role in teaching reading comprehension is that of a facilitator. Elwér (2014) proposes that reading has different processes at different levels, which need to be coordinated, including abilities, strategies and knowledge. That means a teachers' role is to facilitate reading strategies, stimulate prior-knowledge and coordinate learners' metacognitive skills. The South African Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) is a prescribed curriculum that has to be commonly implemented in all schools. CAPS clearly specifies what has to be taught in each grade; however, it is silent on how teachers should teach reading comprehension (Department of Basic Education, 2011).

Literature points out that if learners lack the ability to comprehend effectively by Grade 3, they will fall behind their peers and may find it difficult to catch up (Prado & Plourde 2011). This suggests that in Grade 3, teachers have to teach reading comprehension explicitly. Hitherto, Klapwijk (2012) posits that South African teachers seldom teach reading strategies

explicitly either because they believe that it is too time-consuming or because they feel inadequately trained to do so. This implies that learners are at a disadvantage because of teachers. On the other hand, Prado and Plourde (2011) suggest that reading comprehension should be taught explicitly. That means reading comprehension has to be a planned lesson, and be taught clearly with learners understanding the content. Yet, Pretorius and Currin (2010) reveal that teachers pay much attention on teaching decoding skills because they assume that learners will be able to comprehend when they can decode. Hence, there is little reading comprehension taught in some schools as teachers focus on word recognition/ orthography (Ibid).

Literature reveals that orthographic depth affects acquisition and development in reading (Pillunat & Adone, 2009) and influences the cognitive process of word recognition (Yamashita 2013). That means, as teachers teach reading comprehension the issues of orthography come to the fore. One cannot teach reading comprehension without being proficient in the language. In the context of South Africa, literature reveals disjuncture in the training of teachers. For instance, Probert and de Vos (2015) reveal that in South Africa, the relationship between language structure and orthography are not always reflected in pedagogy as teacher training is oriented to English and Afrikaans. Whereas, African language curriculum documents are often translated directly from English and therefore reflect English teaching concerns (Bikitsha & Katz, 2013).

The researcher argues that the anomalies and inconsistencies in IsiXhosa HL CAPS for FP may create problems for teachers. Cognizant of the fact that literature shows a gap on the teaching of reading comprehension in African Languages. For instance, De Vos, van der Merwe, and van der Mescht (2014, p. 168) posit that very little has been done on the 'cognitive-linguistic processes involved in reading in African languages. In such a context Grade 3 IsiXhosa HL teachers have to teach reading comprehension.

That means teachers should purposely plan, teach and assess reading comprehension lessons. Klapwijk (2012) and Oyetunji (2013) posit that reading comprehension can be improved when these reading strategies are taught. Maine (2013) suggests that reading comprehension strategies are conscious plans and sets of steps that good readers use to make sense of the text. The researcher believes that teachers should make time to focus on teaching reading comprehension. Beck and Condry (2017) posit that “teachers who explicitly teach effective literacy behaviours and who role model critical reading and writing skills help learners who come from homes where this is not provided”. Some researchers/scholars believe that modelling and scaffolding reading comprehension are important.

Huggins and Edwards (2011) posit that scaffolding is important when teaching reading comprehension. Similarly, Salem (2017) contends that well-constructed scaffolds optimize student learning, provide a supportive environment as well as facilitating student independence. This suggests that if Grade 3 teachers scaffold learners during reading comprehension, they develop learners’ ability to read independently. On the other hand, Prado and Plourde (2011) believe that children need to see reading strategies modelled and be led through guided practice before they are given time to practise independently. This implies that teachers should demonstrate reading skills. Huang and Nisbet (2012) reveal that modelling and guided reading practices are important enablers for reading comprehension.

Learners cannot just know how to coordinate these different processes without effective teaching of reading. Hence, the researcher contends that if a teacher does not know how to teach reading comprehension there cannot be effective teaching of reading comprehension. The researcher believes that if learners are not motivated to read, they will struggle to read. Slavin (2013) posits that motivation is the drive and desire that activate the organism for a purpose, give energy needed to maintain this activity and determine the direction of the activity. Thus, the researcher contends that a demotivated teacher cannot be effective in his/her teaching. Kuşdemir and Bulut (2018) assert that sources of intrinsic

motivation include positive experiences regarding reading, getting pleasure from reading, personal importance of reading. As much as learners should develop intrinsic motivation, there is a need for a teacher who believes in his/capability to teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. In the following sections, aspects of teaching reading comprehension, as suggested by Zhang (2010), are discussed.

Alfaki and Siddiek (2013) contend that a text does not by itself carry all meaning; the reader brings information, knowledge, emotion and culture to the printed word. This suggests that the first thing the teacher has to do is establish what learners already know in relation to the text they are going to read. Thus, Zhang(2010) argues for the strengthening of related cultural background knowledge of the target language. In the context of this study IsiXhosa Home Language is the target language for the teaching of reading comprehension. Teachers who are respondents in this study are also IsiXhosa Home Language speakers. This suggests that they have a cultural background of the language. Igwe (2011) points out that “reading adds quality to life, provides access to culture and cultural heritage, empowers and emancipates citizens as well as brings people together”. The researcher argues that it is the teacher’s role to strengthen that background in order to prepare the learner for effective reading comprehension.

Pour-Mohammadi and Abidin (2011, p. 238) conceptualise reading comprehension “as an interactive mental process between a reader’s linguistic knowledge, knowledge of the world, and knowledge about a given topic”. This points out the importance of learners’ prior knowledge in reading comprehension. Similarly, Tarchi (2010) states that one of the key strategies in reading comprehension is the use of prior knowledge. Herczog and Porter (2012) points out that most successful readers set an intention for reading and make use of prior knowledge, experiences and different strategies to come up with the meaning of the text. Prior knowledge may not only refer to cultural knowledge but also linguistic knowledge. Learners should be able to decode words; they have to be able to know letter-sound relationships. Tarchi (2009) contends that the ability to infer meaning in text is positively

influenced by the level of vocabulary and background knowledge the learner has. Reading comprehension strategies may be presented, however, if teachers have to possess content knowledge.

The teacher's knowledge is a sufficient condition for successful learning particular material (Maryono, Sutawidjaja, Subanji & Irawati, 2016). Literature further reveals that the teacher's knowledge includes content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge (Ibid). The knowledge about the content to be taught should influence the teacher's planning of the lesson. Literature reveals that self-efficacy is found to be an indicator of success in teaching (Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2011). In linking teachers' self-efficacy and lesson planning, it seems appropriate to highlight the importance of pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). Gess-Newsome and Carlson (2014) define PCK as the knowledge of, the rationale behind, planning for, and the act of teaching a piece of subject matter using specific methods for specific students to promote student. Furthermore, Abbit (2011) suggests that PCK is knowledge of pedagogy, learning practices and lesson planning, as well as the appropriate methods to teach the material. Hence, in this section, the discussion is on the importance and relevance of content knowledge in lesson planning.

Content knowledge includes the central facts, concepts, key ideas, propositions, structures of the concepts, relationships, appropriate representations that make the content comprehensible (Abbott, 2014). In the context of this study, reading comprehension in IsiXhosa is the content knowledge that Grade 3 teachers are supposed to have. Berg and Smith (2016, p.8) note that teachers with high teacher self-efficacy beliefs have been found to be more committed; enthusiastic about teaching; more likely to continue to work as a teacher; tenacious; resilient, and more understanding of less successful students; more likely to trial pioneering methods and innovative ideas. All these features concur with Park and Oliver (2008) who suggest that PCK is the teachers' understanding and enactment of how to help a group of students understand specific subject matter using multiple

instructional strategies, representations, and assessments while working within the contextual, cultural, and social limitations in the learning environment.

Lunenburg (2011) argues that self-efficacy is the belief a teacher has about his or her ability to accomplish a particular teaching task. The researcher is of the view that having a low self-efficacy may affect the teachers' planning, subsequently, the teachers' teaching. Lesson planning is one of the teaching tasks that has to be done by teachers. Accordingly, Pendergast, Garvis and Keogh (2011) posit that teachers' self-efficacy is an important motivational construct that shapes teacher effectiveness in the classroom. The teacher believes that one of the motivating factors for effective teaching is teacher-self-efficacy. Czerniak, 1990 as cited by Flores (2015), posits that teachers' levels of efficacy are linked to content and methodological preparation. Hence, it becomes necessary to investigate Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy on the teaching of reading –comprehension.

Lee, Chen and Khum (2009) reveal that lesson planning connects requirements of the curriculum and textbooks with what is presented in the classroom. This implies that teachers should have the knowledge of the curriculum. Thus, Shulman (1987) revealed seven categories of knowledge for teaching which are: content knowledge; pedagogical knowledge; curriculum knowledge; pedagogical content knowledge; knowledge of learners; knowledge of educational contexts; and knowledge of educational ends. Planning without having these categories of knowledge may not be effective. This implies that having the content knowledge and high self-efficacy can help teachers design reading comprehension lesson plan. In addition to the subject matter knowledge and general pedagogical knowledge, teachers need PCK, a unique and tacit knowledge that they use in the teaching process (Kind, 2009, p. 270).

Influence of the teacher's self-efficacy on instructional strategies of reading comprehension
Tournaki, Lyublinskaya and Carolan (2009) posit that effective teachers plan and prepare, are knowledgeable about their teaching materials, have a clearly defined pedagogy, choose

their instructional objectives, and evaluate students as they teach. This assertion points out a need for a teacher to have instructional strategies planned for each lesson. Research has found that “teachers with higher self-efficacy were likely to have a positive classroom environment, support students’ ideas, and address students’ needs” (Schunk, 2012, p.153). This shows a link between teacher’ self-efficacy and learning by learners. Similarly, literature points out that teachers with high perceptions of self-efficacy are prone to use more successful classroom management strategies and instructional styles (Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh & Khalaileh, 2011).

It is argued that positive learning experience stimulates students’ self-efficacy (Csizer & Piniel, 2013). This implies that if teachers’ self-efficacy is high, there is a possibility that learners’ self-efficacy may also be high. Teachers with higher self-efficacy use appropriate teaching strategies to create a quality learning atmosphere (Yi-Hsiang, 2014). In light of the above sentiments, the researcher believes it is important to find out the extent to which Grade 3 teachers’ self-efficacy influence their teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language. Literature demonstrates that a teacher’s beliefs and values play a vital role in shaping the objectives, goals, curriculum, and instructional methods of schools (Hitchens-Smith, Ortlieb & Cheek, 2011). Reading comprehension is a process that involves memory, thinking abstractly, visualization, and understanding vocabulary as well as knowing how to properly decode (Ness, 2010). Learners cannot go through this process on their own, they need a teacher to teach them. However, teachers themselves have to believe in their capability to effectively teach reading comprehension.

2.3 Teachers’ self-efficacy and lesson planning

Research indicates that lesson plans are of great importance in providing an effective learning environment (Walton, 2011). That means to have an effective lesson, there has to be a clear plan on how to make that lesson effective. Literature reveals that teachers who perceived themselves as confident in their lesson plan reflections and summative

reflections, created enabling learning environments for their students (Bordelon, Phillips, Parkison, Thomas & Howell, 2012). That implies that teachers with a low sense of teacher self-efficacy believe that little can be done to reach unmotivated students, and that their influence as a teacher is limited by environmental factors beyond their control, (Swan, Wolf, & Cano, 2011). That means this may affect their lesson planning because they themselves are not motivated. Yet, most studies on teacher self-efficacy indicate that teachers with high-efficacy are better at teaching (Bautista & Boone, 2015). This is consistent with an assertion that an individual with a high sense of teacher self-efficacy is more inclined to create a dynamic, student-centered learning environment in which students take ownership of their learning, (Swan, Wolf & Cano, 2011).

Wydeman (2015) contends that thorough planning promotes learning because it takes into account the diverse backgrounds, interests and abilities of learners in class. Similarly, Skaalvik (2007, p. 612) highlights the importance of an “individual teachers’ beliefs in their own ability to plan, organize, and carry out activities that are required to attain given educational goals.” A teacher’s belief in his/her ability to plan lessons is very important when investigating teachers’ self-efficacy. Foundation Phase teachers have to plan reading – comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language. Vdovina and Gaibisso (2013) point out that a lesson plan helps teachers to have a framework for carrying their students to certain “learning destinations”. This implies that IsiXhosa Home Language teachers should plan their lessons to a particular destination, which is reading-comprehension in the context of this study. Wydeman (2015) suggests that teachers should plan practical issues in the classroom. These include:

- planning resources;
- planning the physical arrangement of the classroom;
- planning time in the classroom;
- planning assessment;
- planning for diversity in the classroom;
- planning for active learning in the classroom;

- planning of poor progress and barriers to learning; and
- planning classwork and homework.

Literature also reveals that lesson plan involves goals, knowledge, and sequencing, as well as activity procedure, implementation, and assessment (Jacobs, Martin & Otieno, 2008). There seems to be a connection between lesson planning and subject matter knowledge. Thus, Choy, Wong, Lim and Chong (2013) contend that lesson plans reflect teachers' interpretations of subject matter, as well as the way they adopt instructional materials, as influenced by the extent to which the teacher is informed about learners' prior knowledge and the topic to be presented. This suggests that FP teachers should have a clear knowledge of the subject matter and the topic they are going to present.

2.4 Assessing reading comprehension

Assessment and learning are inextricably intertwined, as assessment determines whether learning is taking place, what learning took place and what learning still needs to take place, (Dryer, 2014). That means assessment informs teachers what to teach and how to teach that. At the same time, it also informs learners what to learn and how to learn. Amua-Sekyi (2016) defines assessment as all activities that teachers and students undertake to get information that can be used to alter teaching and learning. This makes assessment a pillar of teaching and learning. Hence, McAfee and Leong (2011) argue that curriculum planning and assessment are integrated throughout the programme. Furthermore, assessment is congruent with and relevant to the goals, objectives and content of the programmes (Ibid). That means as the teacher plans a lesson, he/she should integrate assessment. That implies that a lesson should have objectives that will be measured at the end of the lesson. Webb (2012) posits that teachers with better content knowledge about their subjects are better at selecting and designing quality assessment.

Assessment provides immediate feedback for teachers to shape their teaching practices according to the learning styles of their students (Tosuncuoglu, 2018). This statement implies that assessment does not only benefits learners it also benefits the teacher, who is an assessor. Furthermore, this suggests that assessment should be a process that seeks to assist both learners and teachers. Hus and Matjašič (2017, p. 664) contend that “assessment is the process of finding and interpreting evidence to be used by learners and teachers in order to enable them to establish exactly where the learners are in their learning, where they have to focus and what best way to get there is”. In literature, there are two categories of assessment, formative and summative assessments (Dunn & Mulvenon, 2009).

Formative assessment is embedded in the teaching and learning process and provides feedback to the teacher in the course of teaching to enable him or her judge how well students are learning (Amua-Sekyi, 2016). However, summative assessment takes place at the end of a course or programme to determine the level of students' achievement or how well a programme has performed (Ibid).

The above sentiments on assessment sought to reveal that assessment is an integral part of teaching. Literature reveals that there are different types of assessment, which are formative assessment and summative assessment. Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement IsiXhosa Home Language CAPS (2011) proposes that during the reading lessons teacher has many opportunities to engage children in a range of levels of thinking and questioning. The suggested questions in CAPS seem to be aligned with Barrett's Taxonomy levels. Barrett has developed 'Cognitive and Affective Taxonomy of reading comprehension, that assist in questioning learners (Yıldırım, 2012). The curriculum used in South Africa gives a clue on the kind of questions that can be asked to learners during reading comprehension lesson in a home language. Muayanah (2014) posits that the Barrett taxonomy categorizes reading comprehension skills into five levels of

comprehension. These levels are presented in the hierarchy from the lowest to the highest level of reading, they are literal, reorganization, inference, evaluation and appreciation.

Jude and Ajay (2012) assert that literal comprehension is a basic form of reading comprehension involving understanding the facts and descriptions that are explicitly stated, not alluded to or inferred in the text. That means literal comprehension questions are the questions that of the lower level of thinking. Similarly, Goff (2010) asserts that literal comprehension is a process that involves reading to understand the surface meaning. The researcher contends that in any assessment there has to be questions that assess learners' literal comprehension. Huggins (2009) brings forward that questions like 'what', 'when' and 'where' are used to assess literal comprehension. Goff (2010) posits that of literal comprehension are context, facts and sequence. That means when the assessor asks questions related to the context, asking learners to state facts and the sequence of events is assessing literal comprehension. Yet, according to Barrett's hierarchy, there is a need to also assess reorganization.

2.5 Summary

This chapter presented the theoretical framework where Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory is unpacked as a relevant theory for this study. Self-efficacy influenced this study, thus the study's focus was on teachers' self-efficacy. Research related to reading comprehension, and teacher self-efficacy was included along with the empirical evidence of research related to current study. Detailed description on the Research Methods and Methodology used in the study is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER THREE RESEARCH METHODS AND METHODOLOGY

3. Introduction

The study explored the extent to which Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influence the teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. This chapter aims to outline the Research Methods and Methodology adopted for the study. Research Methodology can be defined as the rational underlying the implementation of the scientific approach to the study of reality (Babbie, 2011). Methodology describes the philosophies, values and theories that support the way in which a research method must be applied. The Research Paradigm used set the assumptions or beliefs about fundamental aspects of reality which gave rise to a worldview (Nieuwenhuis, 2007). It talked to important assumptions taken on trust, such as belief about the nature of reality (ontology), the relationship between the knower and the known (epistemology) and the assumptions about methodologies (Maree 2012). A detailed description of the Research Approach, Research Design, Data Collection Techniques and Data Analysis formed part of this chapter. The first part of this chapter outlines the main research of the study and the sub-research questions for the ease of reference.

3.1 Research paradigm: Pragmatic approach

Kivunja and Kuyini (2017, p. 26) assert that a paradigm "constitutes the abstract beliefs and principles that shape how a researcher sees the world, and how s/he interprets and acts within that world". The paradigm should be influenced by the researcher's beliefs and principles. Biesta (2010) contends that paradigms should be considered as "tools" useful to the research process but not intending to be exclusionary. That means as the researcher plans to conduct research, he/she has to also think about the tools that he/she will use in the process. Mertens (2010) contends that a research paradigm has a direct influence on the decision about the nature of phenomena to be studied and the manner in which the

study will be carried out. This implies that research questions, data collection and analysis are influenced by the choice of the research paradigm. Neuman (2011) explains a paradigm as a planning framework for a research process that includes issues such as methodology, assumptions/hypothesis and models. This emphasises Collis and Hussey's (2014) point that a research paradigm is a philosophical framework that informs and determines how scientific research needs to be organised and carried out. This suggests that without this philosophical framework, the process of conducting research may be flawed. A paradigm influences questions that researchers poses and the methods they employ to answer them (Morgan, 2007).

Tracy (2013) suggests that a paradigm is a preferred way of understanding reality, building knowledge and gathering information about the world. This implies that when a researcher chooses a paradigm, he/she is choosing a lens upon which he/she will understand the reality. Lincoln, Lynham and Guba (2011), Creswell (2014), Babbie (2010) and Mertens (2005) posit that a paradigm is essentially a frame of reference with which to observe and understand the world. In the context of this study, the researcher sought understand the extent to which Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influences their teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. It is important to note that pragmatism is viewed as replacing arguments about the nature of reality as the essential criterion for differentiating approaches to research; it also recognizes the value of those different approaches as research communities that guide choices about how to conduct inquiry (Morgan, 2016). Therefore, a researcher has to think about his thinking because a paradigm is also viewed as a system of thinking (Neuman, 2011).

Consistently, literature further shows that a research paradigm has an impact on research methodology to be adopted in a study, especially in terms of why one collects certain data, what data is to be collected, where data is to be collected, how data is to be collected and how data is to be analysed (Harrits, 2011). Hence, in this chapter the researcher also

discusses the study's methodology. In this study, pragmatism was identified as a suitable research paradigm.

In literature, there are different paradigms that can be used by researchers, depending on their beliefs and principles. For instance, there is positivism (post positivism), critical theory, pragmatism and interpretivism/ constructivism (Denzin & Lincoln 2011; Mackenzie & Knipe 2006; Cohen, Manion & Morrison 2007). Different paradigms differ in their assumptions. It is clear that epistemological, ontological, axiological and methodological assumptions help in differentiating each paradigm from the other. This is revealed by Tracy (2013, p. 38) who highlights that "a researcher's paradigm can differ on the basis of the nature of reality, the nature of knowledge, the values associated with areas of research and theorizing, or strategies for gathering, collecting and analysing data". That is why researchers have to explicitly state the choice of the paradigm.

Scortland (2012) points out that every paradigm is based upon its own ontological and epistemological assumptions. The following table (Table 3.1) shows how the different paradigmatic assumptions define the nature of knowledge and its purpose and how knowledge is determined when each of the paradigms guides a research namely: positivist, interpretivist and pragmatist.

Table 3.1. Major research paradigms and their philosophical assumptions

Assumption	Question	Positivism	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
Ontological stance	What is the nature of reality	Reality is objective and singular	Reality is subjective and multiple, socially constructed and as seen by participants in the research	Reality can be singular or multiple as researchers can test hypotheses and also provide multiple perspectives
Epistemological stance	What is the relationship between researcher and the researched?	Objective : Researcher is independent from	Interactive/ subjective : researcher interacts	Practicality, researchers collecting data by what works to

		what is being researched	with what is being researched	address the research question
Methodological stance	What is the process of research?	Quantitative; Randomized controlled Trials	Qualitative approaches	Combining, e.g. researchers collect both quantitative and qualitative data and mix them
Purpose	What is the purpose of research?	Prediction,/control/ explanation/ framing of general laws	Understanding/ reconstruction/ transfer findings	Come out with knowledge that works
Axiological stance	What is the role of values?	Value-free	Value- laden, and biased	Multiple stances, e.g. researchers include both biased and unbiased perspectives
Rhetoric	What is the language of research?	Formal, based on set of definitions, impersonal voice, use of accepted quantitative words	Informal, evolving decisions, personal voice, use of accepted qualitative words	Formal and informal. Researchers may employ both formal and informal styles of writing.

(Adapted from Creswell, 2014)

3.1.1 Positivism

Literature points out that positivism is a conviction that there is a single reality (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). It is this single reality/ truth that the positivists seek to discover. It is pointed out by Scortland (2012) that positivists are concerned with uncovering truth and presenting it by empirical means. In positivism, the quest is to discover a single truth about that which is observable and measureable, through deductive reasoning, using objective (value free) method (Mertens, 2005). That is why positivists collect numerical data utilising quantitative methods such as, tests, experiments, questionnaires and surveys (Denzin & Lincoln 2011; Creswell, 2013). Reality, according to positivists, is observable, replicable and verifiable (Karlsson, 2016). Whereas, ontologically, positivists subscribe to realism. Realism claims

that objects exist and can be researched independently of the observer and the researcher (Scotland, 2012).

The nature of this study propelled the researcher to also use quantitative methods used by positivists. One of the major principles in positivism is that knowledge claims are meaningful when they can be verified directly through observation of the world (Muhuro, 2008). The paradigm is based on the view that all knowledge should be on practical experience or observations (Punch, 2014). At the ontological level, positivist assume that the reality is objectively measurable using properties that are independent of the researcher, meaning knowledge is objective and quantifiable.

3.1.2 Post- positivism

Post-positivism also agrees that indeed there is a single reality. However, to the post-positivists, there are hidden variables that make it difficult to understand reality (Merriam, Caffarella, & Baumgartner, 2007). In post-positivism, there is a belief that truthfulness of facts is determined by falsification, a principle of taking the hypothesis through a number of attempts to prove it false (Denzin & Lincoln 2011). Unlike the positivist, post-positivists have a minimal contact with the research subjects in the process of knowledge production (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). They too use statistics as they believe in the visual interpretation of findings (Caffarella, Baumgartner, 2007; Creswell, 2013). This paradigm was not relevant in this study since the researcher had no contact with the respondents when collecting quantitative data.

3.1.3. Interpretivism

Literature uses the interpretivist and the constructivist paradigm synonymously (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010) while others talk about these paradigms separately without mentioning the other. Interpretive researchers argue that reality is socially constructed by humans, which can be changed and understood subjectively (Kroeze, 2012). Furthermore, interpretivism is associated with the collection of qualitative

data that leads to multiple interpretations, (Cresswell, 2003, 2014). It is argued that interpretivists use thick descriptions to detail their findings (Cresswell, 2014). In this study, the researcher collected qualitative data with the purpose of interpreting participants' responses during interviews. Hence, pragmatism that combines the features of positivism and interpretivism was found to be appropriate for this study.

3.1.4. Pragmatism

This study adopted pragmatism as a way of understanding reality, building knowledge and gathering information about the influence of Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy. The focus was on the teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. Pragmatism is most often associated with mixed methods; however, some mixed methods researchers position themselves within the transformative paradigm (Somekh & Lewin, 2005; Mertens, 2005). Pragmatists believe in both single and multiple realities because to them, reality is ever-changing (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007). Researchers within this paradigm use all the approaches which they deem relevant and or practical to the understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2003).

According to Mackenzie and Knipe (2006), researchers working in this tradition use data collection and analysis methods that are most likely to offer insights as they attempt to answer the research question and or questions. This mixes the methods by implication. Since pragmatism assists to establish proper relationships between educational research and educational practice (Biesta, 2007), it was found to be relevant in this study. Pragmatism believes that reality can be singular or multiple as researchers can test hypotheses and also provide multiple perspectives, (Creswell, 2007).

Literature points out that in a mixed methods research, pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews, different assumptions and different forms of data collection and analysis (Bryman, 2016; Morgan, 2007). A pragmatic paradigm was adopted

because it is relevant for mixed methods approach. Romm (2014) contends that pragmatism in mixed methods research is normally associated with the idea that researchers can match methods to specific purposes of research and work back and forth between approaches as supposedly required by the research context. This is what the researcher did in this study as he worked between quantitative and qualitative approaches. Furthermore, the pragmatic paradigm provided comprehensive answers to research questions, thus going beyond the limitations of a single approach (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006 & Creswell, 2014). Since this is the paradigm that this study followed, a detailed description of the mixed methods approach is provided. Creswell (2003, p 11) posits that a pragmatic paradigm focuses on the “what” and “how” of the research problem.

The word *pragmatism* is derived from the Greek word “pragma” which means “work”. Thus, pragmatism is defined as a philosophy of workability that encourages people to seek out processes, and to do things that work best to help people to achieve desirable ends (Nwafor, 2013). The researcher, to achieve the desirable ends of this study as outlined in Chapter 1, had to adopt pragmatism as a paradigm. In thinking about teachers’ influence on the teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa, the researcher used pragmatism as a thinking framework. This allowed the researcher to explore perceptions, assumptions and beliefs that Grade 3 teachers have on the influence of self-efficacy on the teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa.

Some researchers (Creswell, 2009; Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2009; Neuman, 2011) suggest that it is important to initially question the research paradigm to be applied in conducting research because it substantially influences how one undertakes a social study from the way of framing and understanding social phenomena. Pragmatism implies looking for practical solutions to issues of concern (raised as of concern within society); it also implies an approach to knowing where it is recognized that multiple perspectives need to be taken on board in looking at any social “situation” (Johnson, 2009). However, it is still unclear from his discussion how alternative perspectives can indeed be integrated, and

what the role of research participants and wider audiences is, in finding “pragmatic ethical solutions”. The research paradigm chosen allowed the researcher to adopt a relevant research approach for the study. The following figure shows the relationship between this study's paradigm, research approach, research design and data collection instruments.

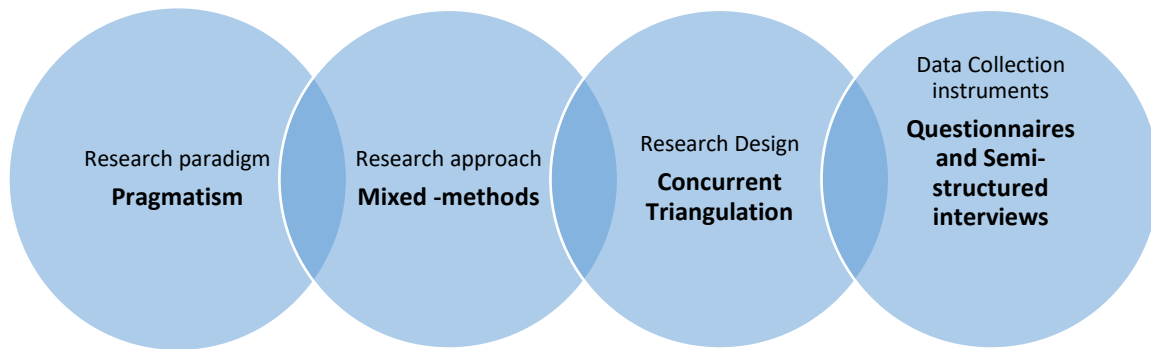


Figure 3.1 The relationship between research paradigm, research approach, research design and data collection methods (based on Creswell, 2014)

3.2 Research approach: Mixed methods approach

The study employed a mixed methods approach. Creswell (2014) defines mixed methods as an approach to inquiry that combines qualitative and quantitative forms of research. This commenced with a mix (pragmatically) of philosophical assumptions all the way through to data collection, interpretation, analysis and reporting of findings (Ibid). Mixed methods researchers contend that mixing qualitative and quantitative data is a natural method of everyday problem-solving (Morgan, 2007; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Since, this study sought to investigate the extent to which the Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influences their teaching of reading comprehension, the mixed methods approach was deemed appropriate.

The research questions that this study sought to ask are quantitative and qualitative in nature. For instance, the extent to which teacher's self-efficacy influences their teaching of

reading comprehension required quantitative methods. Whereas, exploring teachers' perceptions about their self-efficacy in teaching reading comprehension required the researcher to use qualitative methods. This approach allowed the researcher to explore teachers' perceptions about their teacher self-efficacy. Greene (2008) points out that in a mixed methods research, the research question drives the entire study. As Simons and Lathlean, (2010) and Maudsley (2011) contend, what differentiates mixed methods research from other approaches is that mixed methods research is the 'mixing' of the qualitative and quantitative components within the study.

The choice for this mixed methods approach was guided by Creswell and Plano-Clark's (2011) suggestion that four important decisions should be made by the researcher when formulating research questions as follows:

- a) The first is whether the two strands (quantitative and qualitative), from the formulation of the question to data analysis, should be kept separate or not. In this study, data was collected concurrently, so there was no strand given preference than the other;
- b) Secondly, should one strand be given more weight? In this study, there is no strand that was given more weight than the other;
- c) Third, will the study contain strands that are run concurrently, in sequence, or will it combine them in other ways? Strands (quantitative and qualitative) were run concurrently in this study; and
- d) Finally, at which stage will integration of the qualitative and quantitative strands of the study take place? During analysis stage, the researcher integrated quantitative and qualitative strands.

One of the motivations to utilize mixed methods research methodology was to build upon strengths of both quantitative and qualitative approaches to provide the most complete and comprehensive investigation of the research question (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). For instance, in finding out the extent to which Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influences teaching of IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, the quantitative approach had

to be used. Additionally, to find out the teachers' perceptions on the teaching of IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, the qualitative approach had to be employed. Data collected sought to respond to the research questions of this study, that is, questions that could not be answered by using one approach. Mixed methods research is a "research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches" (Tashakkori & Creswell, 2007, p. 3). Scholars contend that truly mixed methods studies are those that involve integration of the qualitative and quantitative findings at some stage of the research process, be it during data collection, analysis or at the interpretative stage of the research (Kroll & Neri, 2009). In the context of this study, integration was done during data analysis and at the interpretive stage. Literature further reveals that the use of mixed methods finds its roots in triangulation that aims to enhance and strengthen research validity and credibility (Creswell, 2009; Bryman, 2008).

Collins, Onwuegbuzie and Sutton (2006) suggest that mixed research studies contain 13 steps. These steps include the following: determining the goal of the study; formulating the research objective; determining the research/mixing rationale; determining the research/mixing purpose; selecting the sample design; selecting the mixed research design; collecting the data; analyzing the data; validating/legitimizing the data; interpreting the data; writing the mixed research report and reformulating the research question(s).

All the above steps were considered in this study by the researcher. For instance, Chapter 1 discusses each of the above steps briefly. The discussions from chapter one are detailed in the following chapters as done in this chapter. In the following paragraphs, the researcher discusses quantitative and qualitative approaches as they are also relevant in this study.

3.2.1 Quantitative approach

Based on the research questions, aims and objectives of this study, this study is both quantitative and qualitative in nature. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) describe quantitative research as “a type of approach which is deductive in nature”. Something that is deductive in nature works from the more general to the more specific. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) explain that a quantitative approach is generally used by researchers to test theories and hypothesis as well as to examine the correlation among variables. In this study, there are hypotheses that the study sought to examine, so the quantitative approach was found to be relevant. Furthermore, Van Rensburg (2010:85) describes the quantitative approach as “a formal, objective and systematic process in which numerical data are used to obtain information about the phenomenon under investigation”. Hence, the instrument to collect such data has to produce numerical data. In the context of this study, research questionnaires were found to be relevant in collecting statistical data.

Bryman (2012) advances that, quantitative researchers value the use of standard procedures, objectivity, validity, reliability, prediction, causality and generalisation. The use of standard procedures ensures that the same measure is used across contexts. In this study, questionnaires were of a standard procedure. Objectivity ensures that the researcher has minimal or no influence on the data. This is achieved through use of scientific and standard measurements across the population. The researcher distributed questionnaires to the respondents and collected them at an agreed upon time. The researcher had no influence on how the respondents responded on the questionnaire. Reliability is concerned with ensuring that similar results are produced if the research is applied to a population with the same characteristics. Quantitative researchers ensure reliability of data through pilot testing. Lim and Tang (2012) point out that variables in quantitative research are outlined in a manner that makes them measurable. This makes quantitative studies objective and factual.

Rauscher and Greenfield (2009) contend that although quantitative research is particularly effective for examining causal relationships among variables and making predictions, it often fails to illuminate the context within which these relationships occur. Furthermore, it does not address questions of "how" and "why" particular relationships among variables exist (Ibid). This implies that the quantitative methods do not permit the researcher to go deeper in investigating the phenomenon. This is also asserted by Rahman (2016) when pointing out that quantitative research methods take snapshots of a phenomenon: not in-depth, and overlook test-takers' and testers' experiences as well as what they mean by something. Quantitative research uses methods from the natural sciences designed to ensure objectivity, generalisability and reliability (Weinreich, 2009). Techniques used in quantitative research include random selection of research participants from the study population in an unbiased manner, the standardised questionnaire or intervention they receive and statistical methods used to test pre-determined hypotheses regarding the relationship between specific variables.

The Quantitative approach helped in testing objectivity of theories (Maree, 2012). Objectivity refers to the position adopted by the researcher where beliefs, views, values, feelings and positions should not interfere with the data (Creswell, 2016). This has the advantage of reducing biasness of the researcher as it can be the disadvantage of a qualitative approach. Data gathered in the quantitative research is usually measured numerically (Babbie, 2011; Kumar, 2011). The main advantage of using numbers is that they are easy to interpret and analyse than words, as one can have a quick general sense of data by looking at graphs and charts (Kumar, 2011).

3.2.2 Qualitative approach

Merriam (2009, p. 5) asserts, "qualitative researchers are interested in understanding how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their worlds and the meaning they attribute to their experiences." This is consistent with the main research question of this

study which sought to explore Grade 3 teachers' perceptions on the influence of their self-efficacy on their teaching of IsiXhosa reading comprehension. Flick (2014, p. 542) suggests that qualitative research is interested in analysing subjective meaning or the social production of issues, events, or practices by collecting non-standardised data and analysing texts and images rather than number and statistics." Similarly, this study also collected data through interviews where Grade 3 teachers were interviewed and responded orally.

Contrary to the quantitative research design, which focuses on testing objectives, theories and relationship between variables, qualitative research design "focuses on the exploration, description, understanding and interpretation of individuals' perceptions of a social or human problem or setting" (Creswell, 2009, p. 4). As much as this study sought to explore the extent of influence of teachers' self-efficacy on their teaching of reading comprehension, it also sought to explore teachers' perceptions on their self-efficacy on teaching reading comprehension. It was befitting to collect qualitative data to explore perceptions of teachers on their teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language.

Creswell (2009) points out that qualitative research "values participants' perspectives on their worlds; often relies on people's words as primary data". Accordingly, this research sought to also listen to Grade 3 teachers' perspectives on the influence of their self-efficacy on their teaching of reading comprehension. This was done through conducting semi-structured interviews. Participants' views about their self-efficacy on teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language were used as the primary data. Creswell, (2007) suggests that researchers should conduct their research in the field where participants live and work. Thus, the researcher collected data through interviews in schools where the selected teachers work.

Richards and Morse (2007) point out that perceptions present us with evidence of the lived world. The study believes that it is Grade three teachers who teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language who are relevant to answer research questions as stated in Chapter 1. The qualitative approach was suitable to classify textual data obtained from Grade 3 teachers' experiences (Anderson 2010). It further enabled the researcher to look

for patterns in the data. These patterns helped to provide more realistic view of how Grade 3 teachers perceive their self-efficacy on teaching reading comprehension in isiXhosa. Literature reveals that qualitative approach enhances the participants' personal understanding of their practice so that they can reflect on and improve that practice, which the researcher is interested in (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Hence, the adoption of qualitative approach in this study.

Qualitative approach allows participants to respond to open-ended questions that enable them to share their experiences and views regarding the phenomenon studied, (Creswell, 2007). This means using qualitative approach in research provides an in-depth picture of reality and values participants' perspectives on their worlds. Furthermore, literature reveals that qualitative research involves perceptually putting pieces together to make wholes, from this process, meaning is produced, and because perception varies with the individual, many different meanings are possible (Joubish, Khurram, Haider, Fatima & Ahmed, 2011).

3.3 Research Design: Concurrent Triangulation

This section unpacks the chosen research design for this study, which is concurrent triangulation design. Research design is a plan for research that covers broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis (Creswell, 2008). Before unpacking the chosen design, it is important to briefly discuss other research designs aligned with mixed methods research approaches. According to Clark and Linder (2006:376), mixed methods paradigm consists of four major types of mixed methods designs. They are concurrent triangulation, embedded, sequential explanatory, and exploratory designs. The designs are employed to address various research objectives and the timing of qualitative and quantitative methods employed in the study differentiates them. The authors also explicate how the qualitative and quantitative methods are integrated in a single study.

3.3.1 Embedded research design

The embedded research design focuses on the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data used to approach the research problem in experiment and intervention of the problems. It concentrates on the processes of collection and analysis of qualitative and quantitative data. The data that are collected before, during and after trials are analyzed and then interpreted. The embedded design consists of embedding one method (quantitative or qualitative) within a large study guided by the other method (quantitative or qualitative), having a secondary method to address different questions and using the secondary method to enhance the implementation and/or interpretation of the primary method (Clark & Linder, 2006).

3.3.2 Sequential explanatory design

The sequential explanatory design is a form of mixed methods research which involves implementing the methods in two distinct phases; starting with quantitative data collection and analysis, connecting from the quantitative results of a qualitative phase, and using the qualitative data collection and results to follow up or explain the initial quantitative results (Clark & Linder, 2006). It is also used when the topic needs to be explored qualitatively before it can be measured or tested quantitatively, and before results of the findings are finally interpreted.

3.3.3 The concurrent triangulation design

The concurrent triangulation design is the most common approach in mixed method research. It helps the researcher understand the research problem and involves methods of collecting and analysing quantitative and qualitative data concurrently. In this design, two or more data sets are combined to understand better the research problem that is under the study. Ridenour and Newman (2008) note that triangulation is the combination of several data resources or collection strategies in the same design to enhance validity.

Concurrent design refers to the time order decision in which data are mixed. This means that in the process of mixing data, the emphasis can be given to a design. The emphasis can be given equal status for both qualitative and quantitative designs or higher status to either the qualitative or quantitative one.

The concurrent mixed method of data collecting strategies can be employed to validate one form of data with the other form, to transform data comparison or address different types of questions. In this sense, collected data can be mixed and triangulated while processing the data for interpretation. Triangulation is defined as the mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints cast light upon a research problem. For example, mixing survey data with interviews is an exemplary form of triangulation as it refers to the mixing of methods. It seeks convergence and corroboration of results from different methods and designs studying the same phenomenon. Thus, it is a way of looking at data from two or more angles.

In this study, a concurrent triangulation design was utilized (Creswell, 2012) where quantitative and qualitative data were collected simultaneously over the course of three months. Concurrent triangulation design was used because it enabled the validation by minimizing biases and increases analytic density (Fielding, 2012; Guion, Diehl & McDonald, 2011; Yeasmin& Rahman, 2012). This design was selected due to the equal levels of priority given to the research questions. Quantitative data and qualitative data were compared to determine if there are differences, similarities or some combination of the two (Creswell, 2009). Concurrent triangulation design combined quantitative and qualitative methods through use of questionnaires and semi- structured interviews, respectively, in data collection on teachers' self-efficacy (Yeasmin & Rahman, 2012). Literature points out the main features of concurrent triangulation which according to Creswell, 2008 and Wurtz, 2009 are:

- a. Quantitative and qualitative data collection are concurrent and happen during a single data collection phase;

- b. Neither of the data collection methods is given more priority than the other;
- c. The two methods are integrated in the interpretation of the findings phase; and
- d. Integration focuses on how the findings from each of the methods correspond with or differ from the primary purpose of complementing and supporting each other.

This study sought to explore the influence of Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy on their teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa by establishing relationships between variables and not causality. As pointed out by Hesse-Biber (2010), triangulation/concurrent method design enables the researcher to gain the more rigorous understanding of quantitative results by integrating qualitative findings to triangulate the research findings and to explore divergent or disparate finding. To collect the data for this study, the researcher employed a survey questionnaire and interviews.

3.3.3.1 Advantages of using mixed method approach

The advantages of using a mixed method approach for this research is summarized by Creswell and Plano Clarke (2011). An apparent weakness of quantitative research is that it is often perceived and seen to be weak in understanding the context or setting in which people talk and the voices of respondents are accordingly not directly (verbally) heard. On the other hand, qualitative research is seen as deficient because of the personal interpretations and the involvement of the researcher that may lead to bias. Mixed method research provides more comprehensive evidence for studying a research problem than either qualitative or quantitative research alone. Mixed method research helps to answer questions that cannot otherwise be answered (Creswell & Plano Clarke, 2011). Mixed method research is "practical", as the researcher is free to use relevant methods, skills and thinking to address a research problem. Mixed method research enables the use of an all-encompassing paradigm, such as pragmatism. It is imperative for the researcher to decide on the specific mixed methods design that best addresses the research problem. Hence, the specific mixed methods for this research are elaborated upon.

3.4 Population of the study

Population is a group of potential participants to whom the researcher anticipates to generalise the results of the study (van Zyl, 2012). In this study, population included all Grade 3 teachers teaching IsiXhosa Home Language in the Buffalo City Education District. The following figure demonstrates the link between population and sampling as applied in this study.

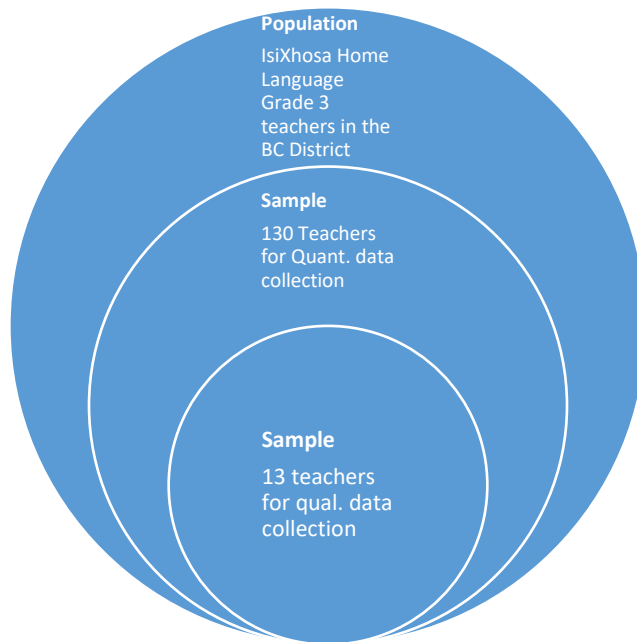


Figure 3.2. Interconnectedness of sample and sampling techniques in this study

3.4.1 Sample and Sampling Technique: Multi-stage sampling

The study adopted a multi-stage sampling technique. This is a sampling technique where two or more probability techniques are combined (Alvi, 2016). It is used when the elements of population are spread over a wide geographical region and it is not possible to obtain a representative sample with only one technique (Ibid). The researcher based on geographical accessibility purposively selected Buffalo City Education District in the Eastern Cape Province. Buffalo City Education District has rural, semi-urban and urban schools. There are approximately 200 schools that have IsiXhosa as a Language of learning and

teaching in Foundation Phase. For the purpose of this study, the schools that teach IsiXhosa Home Language as a Home Language were relevant. The district is divided into 13 circuits.

Total enumeration was used to select all the 13 circuits. Disproportionate random sampling was used to select 10 schools in each of the circuits. In circuits where there were less numbers of schools, all available schools were selected. The information for the number of schools was sought from the district office. The schools that were selected were mainly from rural and semi-urban areas. This is because the schools that are teaching IsiXhosa as a Home language are mainly in these areas. In the urban areas, the schools teach IsiXhosa as a second additional language. Hence, purposively, the researcher selected relevant schools in rural and semi-urban areas. Total enumeration was used to select all Grade 3 teachers in the selected schools. For the purpose of this study, 112 Grade 3 teachers were selected for quantitative data collection. Additionally, 6 teachers were selected purposively for qualitative data collection.

The criteria used was the location of the schools, three teachers from rural schools and three teachers from semi-urban schools were selected. The researcher believed that the six participants were enough to give in-depth information about the phenomenon researched. These are teachers teaching isiXhosa in Grade 3. IsiXhosa Home Language subject advisor and Education Management Information Systems officials in the selected education district were contacted to source information on the number of schools that offer Grade 3 isiXhosa Home Language in the district.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

This study employed a mixed methods approach, which allowed the researcher to use quantitative and qualitative instruments to collect data. In this section, data collection instruments are unpacked by first explaining how the quantitative data was collected, followed by an explanation on how qualitative data was collected. Data in this study were collected simultaneously. Even though both quantitative and qualitative data were collected

simultaneously, for the sake of the report presentation, each data set is presented separately.

3.5.1 Quantitative Data Collection Instrument: Structured Questionnaires

Creswell (2014, p. 4) points out that quantitative research is “an approach for testing objective theories by examining the relationship among variables”. On the other hand, qualitative research is “an approach for exploring and understanding individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem” (Ibid). The nature of this study requires both quantitative and qualitative instruments to be used. The instruments for collecting quantitative data were questionnaires. Johnson and Christensen (2008) describe a questionnaire as a self-report data collection instrument that each research participant completes as part of a research study. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) assert that it is the most popular technique for obtaining data from participants because it is relatively reasonable.

This study adapted Schwarze, Schmitz and Daytner’s (1999) Teacher Self-efficacy Scale (TSE) to measure Grade 3 teachers’ self-efficacy and its sub-constructs. This scale was adapted to suit the purpose of this study. Cohen and Manion (2011) assert that a questionnaire has the ability to preserve anonymity, which encourages greater honesty. According to Rule and John (2011), the questionnaire is good for saving time and money and when you want to collect data from people simultaneously. However, the researcher might lose opportunity to probe information further.

The researcher chose to use questionnaires as another data collection instrument because questionnaires could be distributed to many respondents simultaneously. Therefore, a large sample of a population can be covered, and respondents could complete questionnaires in their own time, thereby giving respondents more time to consider answer before final response in a more relaxed atmosphere. A questionnaire is a self-report collection instrument that each research participant fills out as part of a research study (Johnson &

Christenson, 2012). Questionnaires allowed respondents to respond exactly to the same questions because standard instructions were given to the respondents. The data provided by questionnaires could be more easily analysed and interpreted than data obtained from verbal responses. It facilitates collection of vast amounts of data with minimal effort. As research instruments, questionnaires may be used time and time again to measure differences between groups of people. They were thus, reliable data gathering tools for this study.

The person administering the instrument has the opportunity to establish rapport, explain the purpose of the study and elaborate on the meaning of items that may not be clear. Well-designed questionnaires could allow relationships between data to be identified. These were particularly useful for showing relationships with easily quantifiable data. However, the questionnaire was also disadvantageous because the researcher needed to be attentive while conducting research. If the researcher forgets to ask a question, s/he cannot usually go back to respondents, especially if they are anonymous. When distributing questionnaires, it was sometimes difficult to obtain a sufficient number of responses. Those who had an interest in the subject were more likely to respond, skewing the sample as they might ignore certain questions. Questionnaires also appear impersonal, and respondents might misunderstand questions because of poor design and ambiguous language.

Questionnaires often provide low response (return rates) and are time-consuming in follow-up and data entry. Ease of production and distribution can result in the collection of more data than can be effectively used. Lack of adequate time to complete the instrument might result in the return of superficial data. Absence of personal contact (if the questionnaire is mailed) may mean that response rates suffer, necessitating the expense of follow-up letters, telephone calls and other means of chasing the participant. Hence, adopting questionnaire as data collection instrument was found to be suitable for this mixed methods study.

3.5.1.1 Quantitative data collection phase

This study employed concurrent triangulation design. This resulted in conducting quantitative and qualitative data concurrently. However, for the sake of reporting on how each data were collected, the researcher is using the terms *qualitative phase* and *quantitative phase* respectively. For instance, in this section, the researcher is reporting how data were collected during quantitative phase. The quantitative phase involved three stages. These were (a) drafting of the questionnaire, (b) giving the questionnaire to piloting the draft and, finally, (c) administering the questionnaire. The following section unpacks in detail how these stages were followed.

i) *Construction of the unstructured questionnaire*

The researcher first undertook a survey using a questionnaire to gather information about Grade 3 teachers who are teaching IsiXhosa Home Language in the Buffalo City Education District. The questionnaire (**Appendix 1**) comprised three parts. Part 1 gathered data on the participants' biographic information; it contained 10 items. Part 2 sought to find out perceptions of respondents about their teacher self-efficacy on teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. This part was sub-divided into three sub-items. The first sub-item requested respondents to indicate the extent to which their self-efficacy influences their lesson planning for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. The second sub-item requested respondents to indicate the extent to which their self-efficacy influences their instructional strategies of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. The third sub-item requested respondents to indicate the extent to which their self-efficacy influences their assessment strategies for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language.

In responding to the items in part two, a Likert type scale was used where respondents had to select from 1 to 4. In the questionnaire, it was indicated that 1 means weak, 2 means fair,

3 means good and 4 means excellent. Part 3 requested respondents to indicate their perceptions on their self-efficacy towards teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. A Likert Scale of 1 to 4 was also used. In this part, it was indicated that 1 means strongly disagree, 2 means disagree, 3 means agree and 4 means strongly agree.

In summary, the questionnaire sought the following information:

- Biographic data of the teacher educators;
- Location where the teacher works;
- Age of the teacher;
- Gender of the teacher;
- Number of years of teaching;
- Number of years teaching Grade 3;
- Teacher's self- efficacy in lesson planning of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa;
- Teacher's self-efficacy in instructional strategies for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language;
- Teacher's self- efficacy in assessment strategies for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language; and
- Teacher's self-efficacy towards teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language.

ii) Piloting the questionnaire

In order to increase validity, the questionnaire was piloted on five Grade 3 teachers teaching IsiXhosa Home Language who were not part of the respondents in the main study. These teachers were deemed by the researcher as knowledgeable on teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language and were able to respond to the questions. The respondents were further asked to comment on whether:

- a) The questions were correctly framed to solicit the expected answers;

- b) The contents and language were appropriate for the target population; and
- c) The instructions were clear.

Comments received from the pilot were then used to refine the questionnaire. Initially, the draft questionnaire had requested respondents to indicate if they are weak, fair, good and excellent in all the three parts of the questionnaire. However, after the pilot study, it was suggested that in the third part, respondents should indicate whether they disagree, strongly disagree, agree or strongly disagree. There were also minor corrections of the language and grammar identified by some of the respondents. These suggestions were incorporated in the revised questionnaire. In the next section, a description of how the questionnaire was administered is given.

iii) Administering the questionnaire

All Grade 3 teachers who were selected to participate in the main research study were requested to complete the questionnaire. The researcher, with the research assistants, help the questionnaires were distributed to schools. All in all there were 112 Grade 3 teachers who participated in this study. One reason for administering the questionnaire to all Grade 3 teachers was to obtain as much information as possible from as many teachers. In this way, each member of the target population was given an equal chance to complete the questionnaire.

3.5.2 Qualitative data collection Instrument: Semi-structured Interviews

3.5.2.1 Quantitative data collection phase: The interview

Interviews are a valuable method for exploring the construction and negotiation of meanings in a natural setting (Cohen, Manion & Morison, 2007). One of the reasons why this study was conducted was to investigate the perceptions of Grade 3 teachers on their self-efficacy on teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. Thus, the researcher

believed, to get such information, he had to conduct interviews with the selected participants. Rubin and Rubin (2012) posit that interviews provide researchers with rich and detailed qualitative data for understanding participants' experiences, how they describe those experiences and the meaning they make of those experiences. This is also concurred by Bertram and Christiansen (2014, p.80) when asserting that:

“Interview is used extensively in interpretivism research interview is a structured and focused conversation where the researcher has in mind particular information that he or she wants from the respondent, and has designed particular questions to be answered”

It is against this background that the researcher chose the interview as one of the tools for collecting narrative data from a purposefully selected sample of Grade 3 teachers at the six research sites. What follows is a brief overview of the different types of research interviews. The interview can be classified as structured or semi-structured (Oyoo, 2009). This depends on the types of questions the interviewer poses to the respondent. In a structured interview, the researcher takes the lead with some guidelines, where the set of questions used is difficult with no permission to divert (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Creswell, 2012). However, a semi-structured interview is open, allows the researcher to bring in new ideas during the interview, depending on the interviewee's responses aims and objectives of the study. The researcher used semi-structured interviews to collect data from six participants, focus group learners' interview schedule and the HoDs' interview schedule as a guideline for the interviews in this study.

i) Construction of the semi- structured interview schedule

The interview schedule was developed following guidelines recommended by various authors (i.e. Babbie & Mouton, 2003; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011; Creswell, 2003, 2014). The semi-structured interview schedule requested participants to respond to the following research questions:

- What do the teachers know about reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?
- How do the teachers teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?
- What strategies used by teachers to assess reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?

ii) Piloting of the interview schedule

As earlier indicated, a draft of the interview schedule was given to two Grade 3 teachers from two different schools who were not part of the schools selected for the study. The purpose of giving the interview schedule to the teachers was for them to review and comment. The teachers who were selected to review the schedule were deemed by the researcher to be knowledgeable about the teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language in Grade 3 since they are also teaching Grade 3.

The reviewers were asked to comment on:

- The structure and length of the schedule;
- Clarity of instructions; and
- The language of the questions.

These issues were meant, in part, to address issues of relevance and clarity of questions, researcher bias, use of appropriate vocabulary, and cultural and professional issues. Comments given by the reviewers were incorporated in the final version of the schedule.

iii) Conducting of the interview

Using a semi-structured interview schedule with open-ended questions, the researcher interviewed purposively selected number of Grade 3 teachers. These Grade 3 teachers are from semi-urban and rural schools in the Buffalo City Education districts. These teachers teach IsiXhosa Home Language in Grade 3. The profile of the participants is given in

Chapter 4 of this study. Additionally, in Chapter 4, the researcher explains interview process before presenting data collected.

3.6 Validity and Reliability

Validity is the extent to which any measuring instrument measures what it intended to measure (Zohrabi, 2013). In a mixed methods research (MMR), Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006, p. 56) call validity "*legitimation*". They emphasize that legitimation is not an outcome, but a continuous, iterative and interactive process that should occur at each stage of the mixed research process, whether quantitative, qualitative or both. The two researchers, Onwuegbuzie and Johnson, came out with nine types of legitimation (2006). The nine types of legitimation and the researcher's actions in each legitimation are presented in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2 Data collection process flow undertaken by the researcher

Legitimation	Action taken by the researcher
Sample integration The extent to which the relationship between the quantitative and qualitative sampling designs yields quality meta-inferences	In this study, purposive sampling was employed to select relevant participants for quantitative phase and qualitative phase. All the participants in each phase are Grade 3 IsiXhosa Home Language speakers and teachers.
Inside-outside The extent to which the researcher faithfully presents and appropriately utilizes the insider's view and the observer's views for purposes such as description and explanation	The researcher maintained a well-informed and balanced perspective when collecting, analyzing, and interpreting quantitative and qualitative data.
Weakness minimization The extent to which the weakness from one approach is compensated by the strengths from the other approach	The researcher explored threats and weaknesses of both quantitative and qualitative approaches in the research. Thus, mixed methods approach was found appropriate.
Sequential The extent to which one has minimized the potential problem wherein the meta-inferences could be affected by reversing the sequence of the quantitative and qualitative phases	The study adopted a concurrent triangulation design. This allowed the researcher to collect data concurrently.
Conversion The extent to which quantitizing or qualitzing yields quality meta-inferences	The researcher made sure that he uses relevant language in quantitative phase and qualitative stage. This was done by working closely with quantitative research experts and the promoter of this study. Furthermore, the researcher had a briefing session with the participants in a qualitative phase to avoid over-generalisations and misrepresentations.
Paradigmatic mixing The extent to which the researcher's epistemological, ontological, axiological, methodological and rhetorical beliefs that underlie the quantitative and qualitative approaches are successfully (a) combined or (b) blended into a usable package	In this study, pragmatism was employed as a research paradigm. The researcher's assumptions are made clear and the research was conducted according to the stated assumptions.
Commensurability The extent to which the meta-inferences made reflect a mixed worldview based on the cognitive process of Gestalt switching and integration	The researcher attended workshops run by the GMRDC and SGCE supervisors. Furthermore, the researcher worked closely with mixed methods researchers who are experienced in conducting mixed methods research.
Multiple validities	The researcher piloted questionnaires and interview questions. Furthermore, the

The extent to which addressing legitimization of the quantitative and qualitative components of the study result from the use of quantitative, qualitative, and mixed validity types, yielding high-quality meta-inferences	researcher worked with the promoter and experts in quantitative research and qualitative research experts.
Political The extent to which the consumers of mixed methods research value the meta-inferences stemming from both the quantitative and qualitative components of a study	The researcher acknowledges ideologically-based conflicts within research, especially in mixing quantitative and qualitative approaches in one research study. Based on available literature that supports mixed methods approach, the researcher eventually chose to do MMR. Furthermore, the researcher understands the contradictions and paradoxes when qualitative and quantitative data are compared and contrasted. Hence, data were integrated in this study.

Table 3.2 above gives an overview of how validation/ legitimization was observed in this study. Each legitimization is briefly explained what it means as conceptualised by Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006). This has allowed the researcher to identify the course of action. For instance, next to each legitimization, the researcher explains what actions he took to avoid threats. The researcher made use of pilot study and the Cronbach's alpha. Tavakol and Dennick (2011) assert that Cronbach alpha to provide a measure of the internal consistency of a test or scale. Furthermore, the internal consistency describes the extent to which all the items in a test measure the same concept or construct. Therefore, it is connected to the inter-relatedness of the items within the test. Internal consistency should be determined before a test can be employed for research or examination purposes to ensure validity. In addition, reliability estimates show the amount of measurement error in a test. Put simply, this interpretation of reliability is the correlation of test with itself.

3.7 Data Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness refers to as the authenticity of data through evidence of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 cited by Teddlie & Tashakkori 2009, p.295; Nastasi & Hitchcock, 2016). The researcher ensured validity and

reliability of qualitative and quantitative data by ascertaining the credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the study results.

3.8 Credibility

Credibility refers to a situation where the findings obtained through qualitative research are agreeable to the participants of the research (Kumar, 2014, p.219). 'Credibility is attained through a series of techniques, including member checks, prolonged engagement, persistence observation, and triangulation, i.e. inference quality in mixed methods research (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009 p.332).

3.9 Transferability

Transferability is described by Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009, p287) as the degree to which finding conclusions may be applied to other similar contexts, people, time periods, settings and theoretical representations of the constructs. Babbie and Mouton (2007, p.277) refer to transferability as "the extent to which the findings of a study can be applied to other contexts, situations or respondents". In this study, the researcher selected information-rich participants and collected data until saturation was reached.

3.10 Dependability

Dependability refers to how stable or consistent data is over time and over conditions (Polit et al., 2005, p. 315). In this study, the researcher certified dependability of the issue under investigation more directly and reported the processes within the study in detail, thereby enabling a future researcher (Kumar, 2014). In this study, the researcher ensured dependability by reading the themes over again to verify that they made sense and auditing all data transcripts. Seal (2004) emphasizes that auditing transcripts provides the opportunity to engage in self-critical account of the events.

3.11 Data Analysis

In order to clearly demonstrate the link between the quantitative and qualitative in a mixed methods research approach, data is presented and analysed separately. This study adopted a parallel mixed data analysis that involves two separate processes. Quantitative data were analysed using descriptive/inferential statistics for the appropriate variables of data.

After the data was collected from the sample participants, the researcher employed descriptive statistics to analyse and interpret the data and give meaningful analysis and discussions. Descriptive statistical tools such as percentages, tables, graphs and figures were employed to strengthen the findings of the study through SPSS Version 22.

However, qualitative data were analysed using thematic analysis related to the relevant narrative data. The researcher trusts that adopting each process would provide readers with of Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy on the teaching of reading-comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language in the Buffalo City Education District.

3.12 Ethical Considerations

Creswell (2008) argues that practicing ethics is a complex matter that involves more than just following a set of static guidelines such as those from professional associations. Ethically, conducting research requires researchers to actively interpret these principles for their individual projects, thus tailoring these ethical guidelines to suit the unique contexts of their research. The following guidelines were observed:

3.12.1 Gaining permission

The researcher requested permission to conduct the study from the University of Fort Hare Research Ethics Committee. After getting an Ethical Clearance Certificate (**Appendix 3**), the researcher requested permission to conduct research in the selected schools from the Department of Education in the Eastern Cape Province. Upon receipt of permission from

the Department of Education, the researcher requested permission verbally from Buffalo City Education District (**Appendix 2**). The researcher further visited the selected schools and requested permission to conduct research from the principals

3.12.2 Participants' rights

Participants were informed about their rights as participants. Furthermore, participants were informed that they are allowed to exercise their right to be part of the research or not. Participants' right to privacy and that of the schools where the participants are teaching were respected. Participants were also informed that they have a right to discontinue their participation if they so wished.

3.12.3. Informed consent

Kumar (2012:244) states that "all informed-consent procedures must meet three criteria: participants must be competent to give consent; sufficient information must be provided to allow for a reasoned decision; and consent must be voluntary and un-coerced." Participants were given all the information that would facilitate their voluntarily participation in the study.

3.12.4 Confidentiality and anonymity

All information obtained in this study was treated confidentially and not divulged to anyone. The researcher understands that it is unethical to be negligent by not protecting the confidentiality and anonymity of the information gathered from the participants (Kumar, 2012, p. 246). Furthermore, in cases where names were attached, the researcher uses pseudonyms for the research participants and the names of the schools where the participants teach.

3.12.5 Protection from harm

According to Burns and Grove (2009, p.198), protection from discomfort and harm originates from the principle of beneficence, which refers to doing good and avoidance of doing harm. During all interaction with research participants, the researcher avoided any situation that could lead to unwarranted distress and discomfort on the part of the participants.

3.12.6. Maintaining professionalism

The researcher showed commitment to a continuous professional development, ethical practice and a responsible attitude toward participants throughout the study. This was done through demonstrating respect, compassion, integrity and altruism in relationship towards the participants.

3.13 Summary

In this chapter, the researcher described and justified the research design and methodology used when conducting the research. The study adopted a mixed methods approach grounded by a pragmatist paradigm. In this study concurrent triangulation was employed as a research design. Buffalo City Education District Grade 3 teachers who are IsiXhosa Home Language speakers and IsiXhosa HL teachers were used as the population for this study. Data were collected using quantitative and qualitative instruments. For instance, quantitative data were collected through the use of questionnaires, whereas qualitative data were collected through semi-structured interviews. Validity and reliability of the instruments were done through field-testing and using a mixed methods expert to validate these instruments. Ethical consideration was observed, and ethical clearance certificate was granted by the University of Fort Hare. The next chapter presents and analyses qualitative and quantitative data collected to check the extent to which Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influences the teaching of IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4. Introduction

In Chapter three, discussions of the research design and methodology were presented. In particular, a description of the population studied and various techniques applied to determine the target sample and the data collection method were explained. In addition, explanations on the statistical analyses techniques applied in the study were provided. The primary purpose of the current chapter is to present the research findings. As indicated in the preceding chapter, data was collected using a questionnaire to cover a large audience within a short period of time and minimise costs. All responses from the questionnaire were analysed as quantitative variables through Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 software programmes.

The chapter commences with a discussion of the response rate (4.1.1). Section 4.2 commences with the discussion of the biographical details and progresses to discuss each question and responses. The results of correlation coefficients are presented in terms of how variables (dependent and independent) relate to the findings. Most discussion on the findings thus commence with descriptive statistics. The chapter then proceeds with a discussion that integrates qualitative and quantitative findings as expected in a mixed methods study and concludes with a summary of the findings.

4.1 Response Rate

The response rate in a research study refers to the percentage of respondents who completed the survey from the total study population (Zikmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013). A total of 112 questionnaires were distributed through hand distribution by the research assistants to the respondents. From these, a total of 86 questionnaires were returned constituting a response rate of 76.8%. The high response rate in this study is highly

attributed to the collaboration of the researcher with the respondents in the data collection process. However, from the 86 questionnaires that were returned, only 85 were found to be complete. Thus, 1 of the questionnaires returned could not be used.

4.2 Biographical Details of Teacher Respondents

4.2.1 Gender of the participants

Figure 4.1 below presents a summary of the biographical details of the respondents according to variables such as gender, age, academic qualifications, experience in teaching, among others.

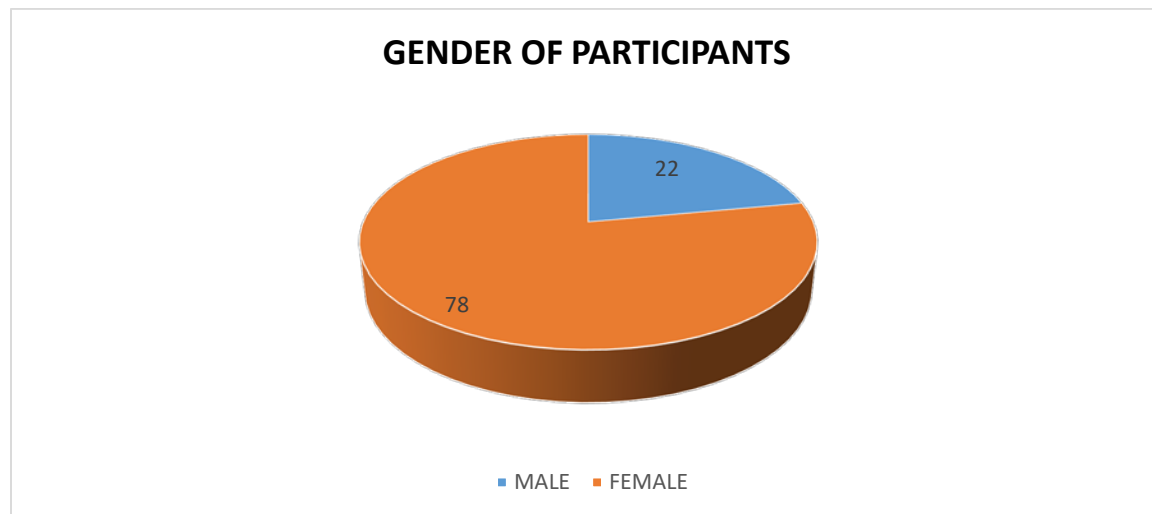


Figure 4.1: Gender of participants

4.2.2 Age of participants

An analysis of the age of the respondents in Table 4.1 below reveals that 21 (24.7 %) were 50 years and above; however, only 6 respondents are 25 years and younger. Additionally, the age of the respondents also reveals that there were 26 respondents who are between ages 46- 50 years. One can confidently say when adding 21 respondents who are 50 years

and above together with the 26 respondents who are between ages 46- 50 years that will give a total of 47 (55.2%) respondents who are experienced in teaching.

Table 4.1: Age of respondents

		Age			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	<25	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	25-35	19	21.1	22.4	29.4
	36-45	13	14.4	15.3	44.7
	46-50	26	28.9	30.6	75.3
	>50	21	23.3	24.7	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.2.3 Teaching experience

The age of the respondents above was viewed in relation to their teaching experience. Responses in relation to experience in teaching show that 48 (56.4%) respondents have 10 and more years teaching experience, whereas only 6 (7.1%) respondents who have 1 year and less experience in teaching.

Table 4.2: Teaching experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	< 1 year	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	1-3 years	11	12.2	12.9	20.0
	4-6 years	12	13.3	14.1	34.1
	7-10 years	8	8.9	9.4	43.5
	> 10 years	48	53.3	56.5	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

However, in relation to the experience in teaching Grade 3 (Table 4.3 below), only 42 (49.4%) respondents have more than 10 years' experience, whereas 7 (8.2 %) respondents have 1 year and below. The responses in age and teaching experience indicated that the respondents to the questionnaire were mostly mature and experienced teachers who were able to respond to the topic.

Table 4.3: Experience in teaching Grade 3

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid < 1 year	5	5.6	5.9	5.9
1-3 years	15	16.7	17.6	23.5
4-6 years	12	13.3	14.1	37.6
7-10 years	11	12.2	12.9	50.6
> 10 years	42	46.7	49.4	100.0
Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing System	5	5.6		
Total	90	100.0		

To add to the above discussion on experience, Table 4.4 below shows that 38 (44.7%) of the respondents have 10 years and more experience in teaching IsiXhosa HL, whereas 15 (17.6%) have between 1- 3 years' experience in teaching IsiXhosa HL.

Table 4.4: Experience in teaching Grade 3 IsiXhosa Home Language

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid < 1 year	7	7.8	8.2	8.2
1-3 years	15	16.7	17.6	25.9
4-6 years	12	13.3	14.1	40.0
7-10 years	13	14.4	15.3	55.3
> 10 years	38	42.2	44.7	100.0
Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing System	5	5.6		
Total	90	100.0		

4.2.4 Qualifications of participants

Regarding academic qualifications, Table 4.5 below shows that the respondents were all qualified to teach as they possessed teaching profession qualifications. For instance, 26 (30.6%) of the respondents have Teacher's Diploma, whereas 37 (43.5%) of the respondents have Bachelor of Education Degrees (B Ed). Additionally, 22 (25.9%) of the respondents indicated that they have Bachelor of Education Honours. An analysis of the highest qualifications of the respondents indicates that 59 (69.4 %) of the respondents were highly qualified as they held Bachelors of Educations and Bachelors of Education Honours.

Table 4.5 Respondents' qualifications data

Variable	Descriptive	Frequency	Valid Percentage
Highest Academic Qualifications			
	Diploma in Teaching	26	30.6
	Bachelor of Education	37	43.5
	Bachelor of Education Honours	22	25.9
Total		85	100

4.2.5 School type and class size

To add to the issue of qualification and linking this to the school type and class size, Table 4.5 indicates that the majority, 43 (50.6%) of the respondents were from semi-urban schools, whereas 42 (49.4%) were from rural schools. Additionally, table 4.6 below also shows that 17 (20%) of the respondents indicated that they have 50 and more learners in their classrooms, whereas, 8 (9.4%) indicated that they have between 46-50 learners in the classrooms. It is notable from the data presented in Table 4.6 that the majority 37(43.5%) of the respondents have between 25-35 learners in their classes.

Table 4.6 School type and class size

Variable	Description	Frequency	Valid Percentage
School characterization	Rural	42	49.4
	Semi-urban	43	50.6
Class Size	25 learners and below	7	8.2
	25-35 learners	37	43.5
	36-45 learners	16	18.8
	46-50 learners	8	9.4
	50 learners and above	17	20.0

4.3 Quantitative data: Findings from questionnaires

In the previous section, the researcher presented biographical description of the respondents in quantitative phase. This study employed a mixed methods approach. This approach allowed the researcher to collect qualitative and quantitative data using interviews for qualitative data collection and questionnaires for quantitative data collection. In this section, the researcher presents quantitative data. This is done through presenting numerical data collected in a table format and below each table a narration interpreting what is contained in the tables is given by the researcher.

There are four (4) tables that present quantitative data. The tables are linked to responses in 4 parts of the questionnaires. For instance, tables give numerical data collected in response to (1) the extent to which teachers can plan IsiXhosa HL lesson, (2) the extent to which teachers can teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, (3) extent to which teachers can assess IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension and (4) teachers' self-efficacy towards teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa HL.

4.3.1 Extent to which teachers can plan IsiXhosa Home Language Lessons

This section presents respondents' views on the extent to which they can plan IsiXhosa HL lessons. The researcher distributed the questionnaires respondents and left them to respond in a relaxed manner away from him. Data from the respondents' questionnaires were analyzed using descriptive statistical methods involving percentages. Table 4.7 below presents results on the extent to which teachers can plan IsiXhosa Home Language Lessons.

Table 4.7 Planning for IsiXhosa Home Language Lessons

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Good	42	46.7	49.4	56.5
	Excellent	37	41.1	43.5	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

On the extent to which teachers can plan IsiXhosa Home Language Lessons, 37 (43.5) of the respondents view themselves as excellent, whereas 42 (49.4%) view themselves as good in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons. However, 6 (7.1%) of the respondents view themselves as weak in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons. In essence from the respondents' responses it is visible that majority of the respondents 79 (92.9%) view themselves as good in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons, whereas only a minority, 6 (7.1%) who indicate that they are weak in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons. This shows that respondents believe they are capable to plan IsiXhosa HL lessons. However, the questionnaire sought to find out the extent to which teachers can plan specifically IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS document.

4.3.2 Extent to which teachers can plan IsiXhosa Home Language Lessons reading comprehension using CAPS document

Another variable explored was the extent to which teachers can plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS document. Table 4.8 below shows that 15 (17.6%) of the respondents view themselves as excellent, whereas 28 (32.9%) view themselves as good. This shows a decrease from the 37 (42.5%) who view themselves as excellent in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons, and the 42 (49.4%) who view themselves as good in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons. Contrary there are 36 (42.4%) of the participants who view themselves as fair in planning IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS and 6 (7.1%) who view themselves as weak in planning IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS document.

One can notice that 43 (50.6%) of the respondents view themselves as good in planning IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS, which is a decrease of 36 (42.3%) from the 79 (92.9%) who view themselves as good in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons. Notably, there was an increase from the 6 (7.1%) of those who view themselves as weak in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons to 42(49.4%) which is an increase of 36 (42.3 %) of respondents who view themselves as weak in specifically planning IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS document. This shows that as much as majority of respondents claim that they can plan IsiXhosa HL lessons, not all of them can plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons using CAPS document.

Table 4.8 Planning for IsiXhosa Home Language Lessons comprehension lessons using CAPS

			Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak		6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Fair		36	40.0	42.4	49.4
	Good		28	31.1	32.9	82.4
	Excellent		15	16.7	17.6	100.0
	Total		85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System		5	5.6		
Total			90	100.0		

4.3.3 Extent to which Teachers Can Use Other Relevant Resources to Plan IsiXhosa HL Reading Comprehension Lessons Using Other Relevant Resources

To complement the above findings, in the questionnaire there was a question to find out the extent to which teachers can use other relevant resources to plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons. Table 4.9 below indicates that 15 (17.6%) view themselves as excellent in using other relevant resources to plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. This data seems consistent with the 15 (17.6%) of the respondents who indicated that they are not excellent in planning IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS document. Additionally, 64 (75.3%) of the respondents indicated that they are good in using other relevant resources to plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons. This shows that the majority of respondents who reported weak in planning reading comprehension using CAPS document use other relevant resources to plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons.

As the data show that a total of 79 (92.9%) use other relevant resources to plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons. Whereas, only 6 (7.1%) of respondents indicated that they are weak in using other relevant resources to plan IsiXhosa HL

reading comprehension. In planning for reading comprehension lessons, teachers should also plan learner activities.

Table 4.9 Planning for IsiXhosa Home Language Lessons comprehension lessons using other relevant resources

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Good	64	71.1	75.3	82.4
	Excellent	15	16.7	17.6	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.4 Extent to which teachers can plan learner activities that are relevant for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

Regarding the extent to which teachers can plan learner activities that are relevant for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, Figure 4.2 below shows that 34 (40%) of the respondents indicate that they can plan learner activities that are relevant for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Additionally, 45 (52.9%) also indicate that they are good in planning learners' activities that are relevant for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. This shows that the majority of respondents, 79 (92.9%) can plan learner activities that are relevant for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

This is despite the indication in Table 4.8 that the majority of respondents are weak in planning IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using a prescribed CAPS document. The data in the table mentioned above show that 6 (7.1%) of the respondents indicate that they cannot plan learner activities that are relevant for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Teachers should use teaching materials and resources to teach a topic.

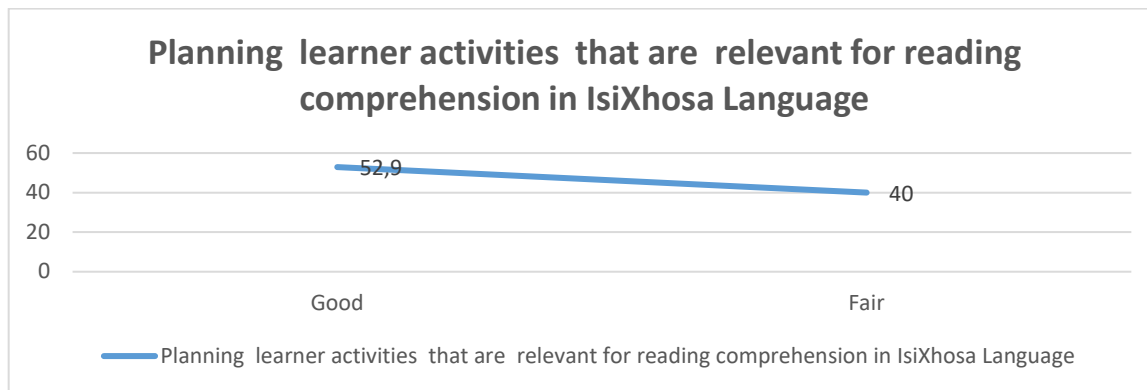


Figure 4.2: Planning learner activities that are relevant for reading comprehension skills in IsiXhosa Language

4.3.5 Extent to which teachers source teaching materials and resources relevant for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

Table 4.9 below shows responses on the extent to which teachers source teaching materials and resources relevant for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Data show that 31 (36.4%) of respondents believe that they are excellent in sourcing teaching materials and resources relevant for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Additionally, 36 (42.4%) also believe that they are good in sourcing teaching materials and resources relevant for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. That means 67 (78.8%) of the respondents indicated that they are good in sourcing teaching materials and resources for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. On the other hand, 18 (21.2%) indicated that they are weak in sourcing teaching materials and resources for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

This shows that some of the respondents teach reading comprehension without using teaching materials. As teachers plan their lessons they should also plan classroom management strategies for each lesson.

Table 4.9 Extent to which teachers source teaching materials and resources relevant for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Fair	12	13.3	14.1	21.2
	Good	36	40.0	42.4	63.5
	Excellent	31	34.4	36.5	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.6 Integration of classroom management strategies

In this study, respondents were also asked to respond to rate their integration of classroom management strategies. Table 4.10 below shows that 39(45.9%) believe that they are excellent in integrating classroom management strategies in their planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Another 39 (45.9%) believe that they are good in integrating classroom management strategies in their planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lesson. Whereas, 7 (8.2%) believe that they are fair in integrating classroom management strategies in their planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Almost 78 (91.8%) of the participants indicated that they are good in integrating classroom management strategies in their planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Table 4.10: Integration of classroom management strategies

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	7	7.8	8.2	8.2
	Good	39	43.3	45.9	54.1
	Excellent	39	43.3	45.9	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.7 Accommodating learners' diversity in planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lesson

Accommodating learners' diversity is one of the important components of lesson planning. Figure 4.3 below highlights the teachers' responses when they were asked to rate their levels of accommodating learners' diversity in planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons.

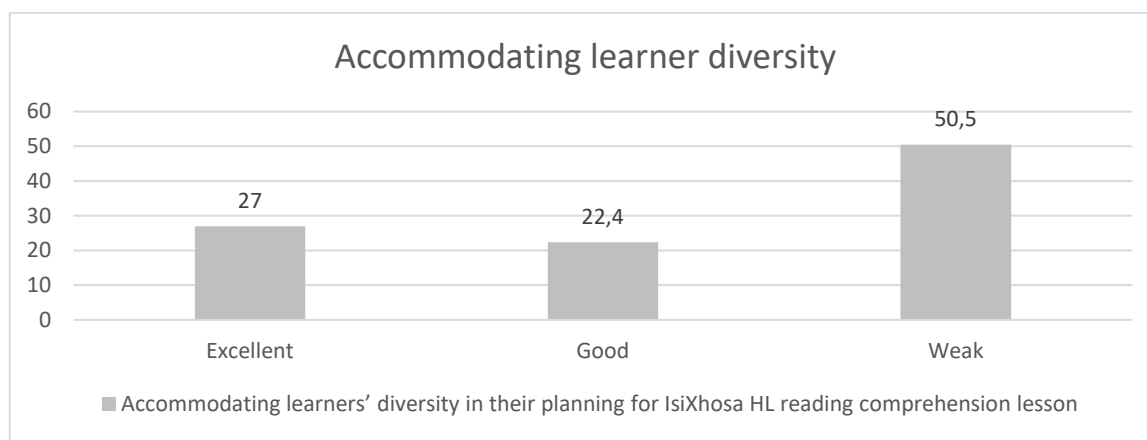


Figure 4.3: Accommodating learners' diversity in planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lesson

In Figure 4.3 above, it is revealed that 23 (27.0%) of respondents believe that they are excellent in accommodating learners' diversity in their planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lesson. Similarly, 19 (22.4%) of the respondents indicated that they are good in accommodating learners' diversity in their planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lesson. However, 43 (50.5%) indicate that they are weak in accommodating learners' diversity in their planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lesson. That means the majority (50.5%) of respondents indicated that they are weak in planning for diverse needs of learners. The questionnaire sought to find out the extent to which teachers implement their IsiXhosa HL lesson plan.

4.3.8 Implementing the lesson plan prepared for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

Table 4.11 below shows that the majority, 47(55.3%) of the respondents indicated that they are good in implementing the lesson plan prepared for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Additionally, 32(37.6%) of the respondents indicated that they are excellent in implementing the lesson plan prepared for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Whereas, 6(7.1) of the respondents indicated that they are fair in implementing the lesson plan prepared for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. There was a need to find out the extent to which teachers make time for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Table 4.11 Implementing the lesson plan prepared for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Good	47	52.2	55.3	62.4
	Excellent	32	35.6	37.6	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.9 Making time specifically for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

On the extent to which teachers make time specifically for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, Figure 4.4 below reveals that 60 (70.6%) of the respondents indicated that they do make time specifically for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. These are the respondents who view themselves as excellent in making time for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Contrary to that, there are 13 (15.3%) who are weak in making time specifically for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Data show that majority of teachers make time specifically for reading comprehension. However, there is a minority of respondents who are consistently showing weaknesses in many

views that sought to find out extent to which they can plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons. The following presentation is data collected to find out the extent to which respondents can teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

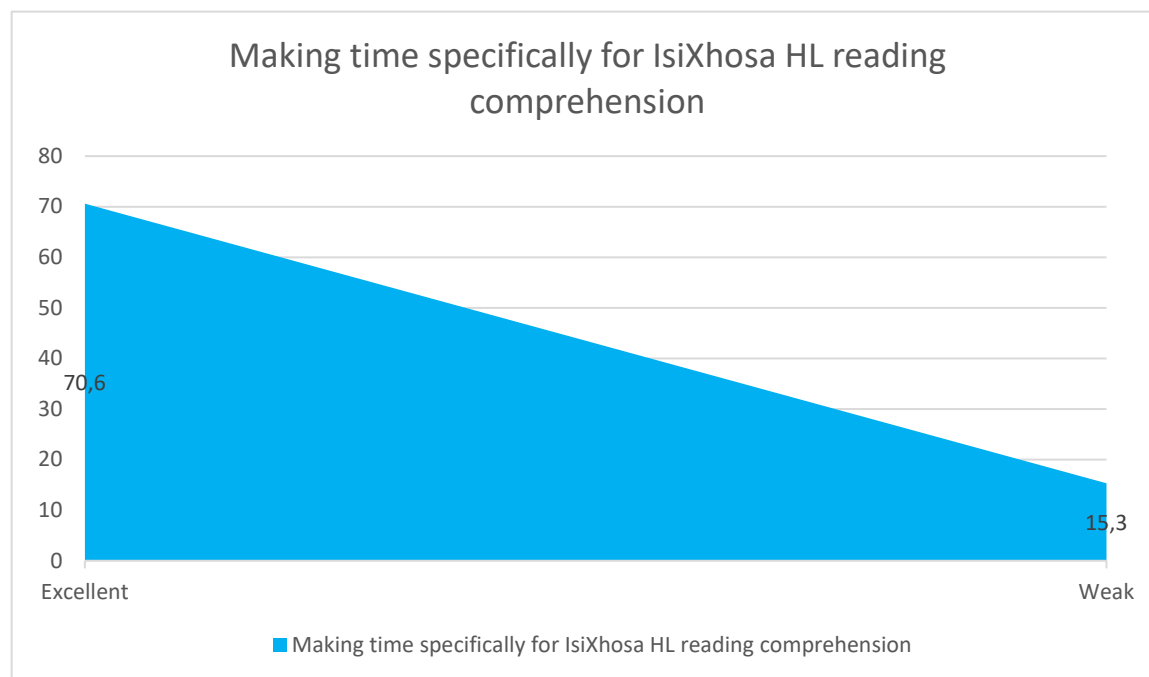


Figure 4.4 Making time specifically for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

4.3.10 Teachers' ability to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

Table 4.12 presents data collected to determine teachers' ability to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. The majority of respondents, 47 (55.3%) indicated that they believe they are excellent. Additionally, 32 (37.6%) also believed they are good in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Whereas, only 6 (7.1%) of the respondents indicated that they are weak in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. The minority (7.1%) that indicated that they are weak in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension seem consistent with the minority that also indicated that they are weak in planning IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons in Figure 4.4 above.

Table 4.12 Teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Good	32	35.6	37.6	44.7
	Excellent	47	52.2	55.3	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.11 Provision of differentiated instruction strategies to accommodate all learners

Regarding the extent to which teachers provide differentiated instructional strategies to accommodate all learners, majority of respondents, 46 (54.1 %) indicated that they believe they are good at that. Whereas, 29 (34.1%) indicated that they believe they are excellent in doing that. Data show a decrease of 18(21.1%) from the majority who believe that they are excellent in teaching IsiXhosa HL RC and the majority who believe they are excellent in providing differentiated instructional strategies to accommodate all learners. Data also show a slight increase of the respondents who believe that they are weak in providing differentiated instructional strategies to accommodate all learners. For instance, the 6 (7.1%) reported that they believe they are weak in providing differentiated instructional strategies to accommodate all learners, was added by the 4 (4.7%) who believe that they are fair in providing differentiated instructional strategies to accommodate all learners.

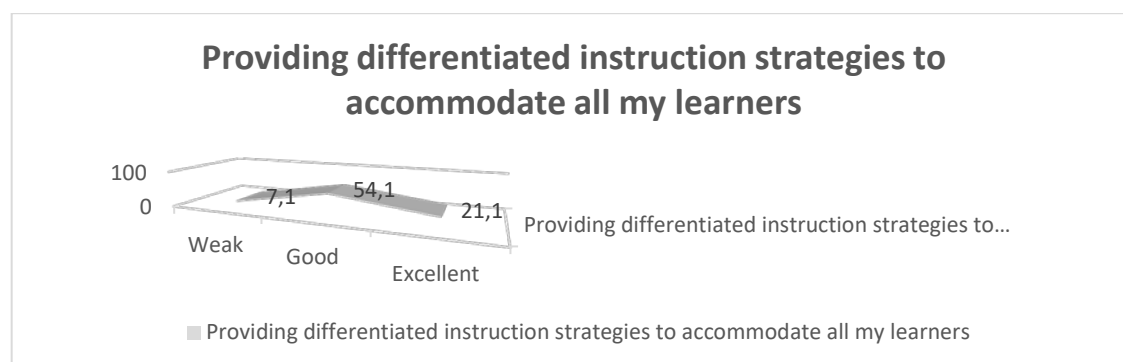


Figure 4.5 Providing differentiated instruction strategies to accommodate all my learners

4.3.12 Making time to reach to learners with reading comprehension challenges

With regards to teachers making time to reach learners with reading comprehension challenges, data reveal that majority of respondents, 38 (44.7%) believe that they are good at doing that. Furthermore, the other 36(42.4%) believe that they are excellent in making time to reach learners with reading comprehension challenges. In essence data reveal that 74 (87.1%) believe they make time to reach to learners with reading comprehension challenges. However, there is still a minority of respondents, 11(12.9%) that indicated they are weak in making time to reach to learners with reading comprehension challenges.

Table 4.13 Making time to reach to learners with reading comprehension challenges

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	11	12.2	12.9	12.9
	Good	38	42.2	44.7	57.6
	Excellent	36	40.0	42.4	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.13 Having the skills and attitude to motivate all learners

On the extent to which teachers have skills and attitude to motivate learners, data show 59 (69.4%) who indicated that they are good. This is also added by the 7(8.2%) of the respondents who views themselves excellent. This data show that majority of respondents, 63 (74.1%) when adding the 59 who viewed themselves good and the 7 who viewed themselves excellent are having skills and attitudes to motivate learners. Whereas, 19 (22.4%) viewed themselves fair in their responses. This is a minority that viewed that they have fair skills and attitudes to motivate learners.

Table 4.14 Having the skills and attitude to motivate all learners

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	19	21.1	22.4	22.4
	Good	59	65.6	69.4	91.8
	Excellent	7	7.8	8.2	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.14 Utilizing the different teaching strategies to identify the learners' cognitive abilities in the classroom

With regards to the teachers teaching learners different strategies that they can use for reading comprehension data show that majority of the respondents, 35 (41.2%) view themselves as good, whereas 21 (24.7%) view themselves as excellent. On the other hand, 29 (34.1%) of the respondents viewed themselves as fair. When one adds 35 of those who view themselves as good and the 21 of the respondents who viewed themselves as excellent, that gives a total of 56 (65.9%). That means majority of the respondents (65.9%) view themselves as good in teaching different strategies that learners can use for reading comprehension.

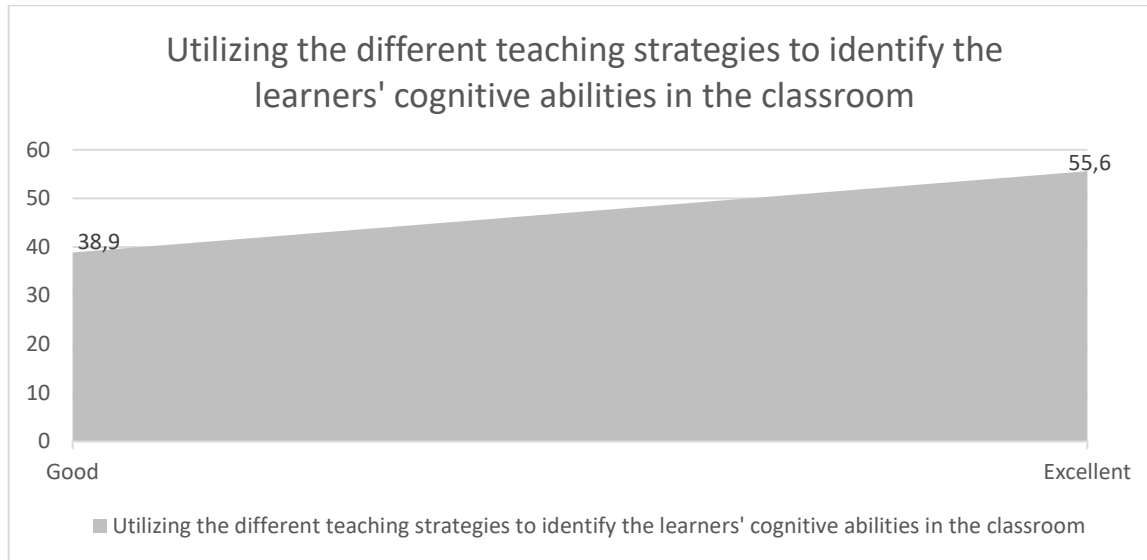


Figure 4.6 Utilizing the different teaching strategies to identify the learners' cognitive abilities in the classroom

4.3.15 Teachers equip learners of different abilities with explicit skills appropriate for reading comprehension

On the extent to which the teachers equip learners of different abilities with explicit skills appropriate for reading comprehension, data show 44 (51.8%) of the respondent who viewed themselves as good. Similarly, 24 (28.2%) of the respondents viewed themselves as excellent in equipping learners of different abilities with explicit skills appropriate for reading comprehension. Whereas, 16 (8.8%) of the respondents viewed themselves as fair whilst 1 (1.2) of the respondent view him/herself as weak in equipping learners of different abilities with explicit skills appropriate for reading comprehension. That means on the extent to which the teachers equip learners of different abilities with explicit skills appropriate for reading comprehension, the majority of the respondents, 68 (80%) equip learners of different abilities with explicit skills appropriate for reading comprehension, whereas the minority, 17 (20%) viewed themselves as weak.

Table 4.15 Equipping learners of different abilities with explicit skills appropriate for reading comprehension

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	1	1.1	1.2	1.2
	Fair	16	17.8	18.8	20.0
	Good	44	48.9	51.8	71.8
	Excellent	24	26.7	28.2	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.16 Teachers model reading comprehension strategies

With regards to the extent to which the teachers model reading comprehension strategies, data show majority of the respondents, 70 (82.3%) viewed themselves as excellent. Whereas, 8 (9.4%) viewed themselves as good in modelling reading comprehension strategies. On the other hand, 6 (7.1%) of the respondents viewed themselves as weak, whereas 1(1.2%) of the respondents viewed him/herself as fair in modelling reading comprehension strategies. From the data, it can be deduced that the majority of the respondents, 78 (91.8%) view themselves as good in modelling reading comprehension strategies.

Table 4.16 Modelling reading comprehension strategies for the learners

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Fair	1	1.1	1.2	8.2
	Good	8	8.9	9.4	17.6
	Excellent	70	77.8	82.4	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.17 Use of scaffolding strategies during reading comprehension lessons

On the extent to which the teachers use scaffolding strategies during reading comprehension lessons, data show that majority of the respondents, 26 (30.6%) viewed themselves as fair. Whereas, 21 (24.7%) viewed themselves as weak in using scaffolding strategies during reading comprehension lessons. On the other hand, 20 (23.5%) viewed themselves as good, whereas, 18 (21.2%) viewed themselves as excellent. The data show that even though the majority of the respondents, 78 (91.8) viewed themselves excellent in modelling reading strategies, the situation changes when using scaffolding strategies during teaching reading comprehension. The majority, 47 (55.2%), view themselves as weak in using scaffolding strategies during reading comprehension lessons.

Table 4.17 Scaffolding strategies during reading comprehension lessons

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	21	23.3	24.7	24.7
	Fair	26	28.9	30.6	55.3
	Good	20	22.2	23.5	78.8
	Excellent	18	20.0	21.2	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.18 Use of group guided reading to teach reading comprehension

With regards to the extent to which the teachers use group guided reading to teach reading comprehension, data show that 56 (65.9%) viewed themselves as excellent, whereas, 23 (27%) viewed themselves as good. That means 79 (92.9%) of the respondents view themselves as good in using group guided reading to teach reading comprehension. However, 6 (7.1%) of the respondents viewed themselves as weak in using group guided reading to teach reading comprehension. This is despite the revelation that majority of the respondents 55.2% view themselves as weak in using scaffolding strategies during teaching reading comprehension.

Table 4.18 Using group guided reading to teach reading comprehension

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Good	23	25.6	27.1	34.1
	Excellent	56	62.2	65.9	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.19 Teachers provide learners opportunities to practice reading comprehension strategies individually

Data reveal that majority of the respondents, 55 (64.7%) view themselves excellent on the extent to which the teachers provide learners opportunities to practice reading comprehension strategies individually. Additionally, 22 (25.9%) of the respondents view themselves as good in providing learners an opportunity to practice reading comprehension strategies individually. Whereas, 7 (8.2%) view themselves as fair, and 1(1.2%) view him/herself as weak. Surprisingly, the majority of the respondents viewed themselves as weak in scaffolding reading comprehension strategies, yet, majority of the same respondents view themselves as excellent in providing learners opportunities to practice reading comprehension strategies.

Table 4.19 Providing learners an opportunity to practice reading comprehension strategies individually without my guidance

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	1	1.1	1.2	1.2
	Fair	7	7.8	8.2	9.4
	Good	22	24.4	25.9	35.3
	Excellent	55	61.1	64.7	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.20 Using the prescribed texts for Grade 3 reading comprehension lessons

With regards to the extent to which the teachers use the prescribed texts for Grade 3 reading comprehension lessons, data show that majority of the respondents, 60 (70.6%) view themselves as good, whereas, 16 (18.8%) view themselves as excellent. That shows that 76 (89.4%) of the respondents view themselves good in use the prescribed texts for Grade 3 reading comprehension lessons. However, 9(10.6%) of the respondents viewed themselves as fair and no one viewed him/herself as weak. That means the majority of the respondents view themselves as good in using the prescribed texts for Grade 3 reading comprehension lessons.

Table 4.20 Using prescribed texts for Grade 3 reading comprehension lessons

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	9	10.0	10.6	10.6
	Good	60	66.7	70.6	81.2
	Excellent	16	17.8	18.8	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.21 Giving reading comprehension homework to learners

Data collected show that 41 (48.2%) of the respondents viewed themselves as excellent in giving reading comprehension homework to learners. Whereas, 19 (22.4%) viewed themselves as good in giving reading comprehension homework to learners. Similarly, data show 18 (21.2%) of the respondents who view themselves as weak in giving reading comprehension homework to learners. Whereas, 7 (8.2%) viewed themselves as fair. That means on the extent to which the teachers give reading comprehension homework to learners, 60 (70.6%) of the respondents view themselves as good.

Table 4.21 Giving homework to learners on reading comprehension

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	18	20.0	21.2	21.2
	Fair	7	7.8	8.2	29.4
	Good	19	21.1	22.4	51.8
	Excellent	41	45.6	48.2	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.22 Assessing IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension

On the extent to which the teachers assess IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension, data show that 44 (51.7%) of the respondents reported themselves as good in assessing IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. Additionally, 35 (41.2%) viewed themselves as excellent in assessing IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. Whereas 6 (7.1%) viewed themselves as fair. The data show that majority of the teachers, 79 (92.9%) view themselves as good in assessing IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension.

Table 4.22 Assessing reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Good	44	48.9	51.8	58.8
	Excellent	35	38.9	41.2	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.23 Teachers explain the purpose of the assessment activity to learners

On the extent to which the teachers explain the purpose of the assessment activity to learners, data show that majority of the respondents 40(47.1%) viewed themselves as good. In addition, 26(30.6%) view themselves as excellent. That shows majority of 66

(77.6%) of the respondents who view themselves as good in explaining the purpose of the assessment activity to learners. Whereas, a minority of 19(22.3%) of the respondents viewed themselves as fair. As much as this a minority, (22.3%), it shows that there is a challenge.

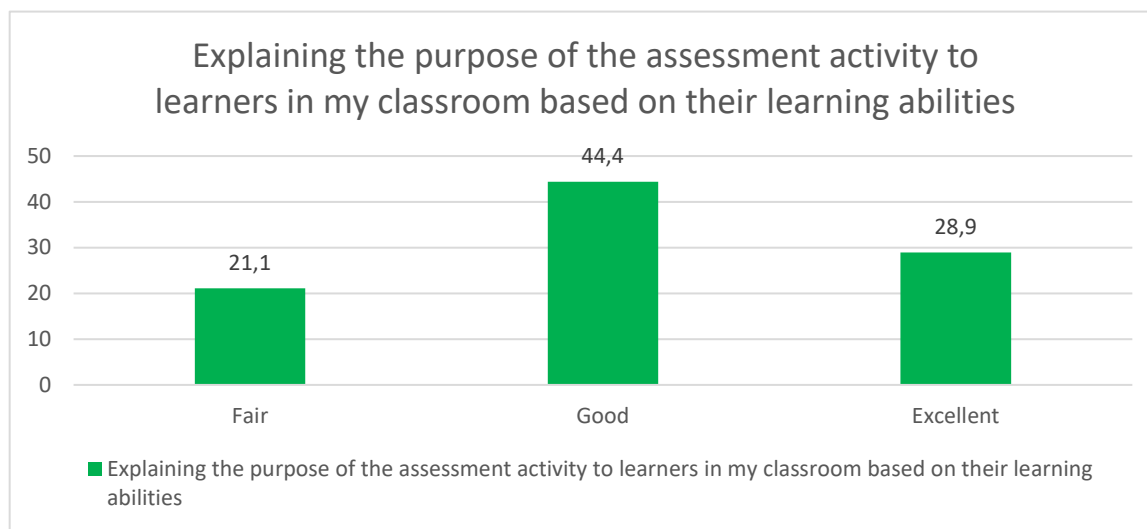


Figure 4. 7 Explaining the purpose of the assessment activity to learners in my classroom based on their learning abilities

4.3.24 Assessing learners' pre-reading, during reading and after reading comprehension

Data show that 52(61.2%) of the respondents view themselves as good in assessing learners' pre-reading, during reading and after reading comprehension. Additionally, 16 (18.8%) view themselves as excellent. Whereas, 10(11.8%) viewed themselves as fair, the other 7(8.2%) viewed themselves as weak. In essence, 17 (20%) of the respondents view themselves as weak in assessing learners' pre-reading, during reading and after reading comprehension.

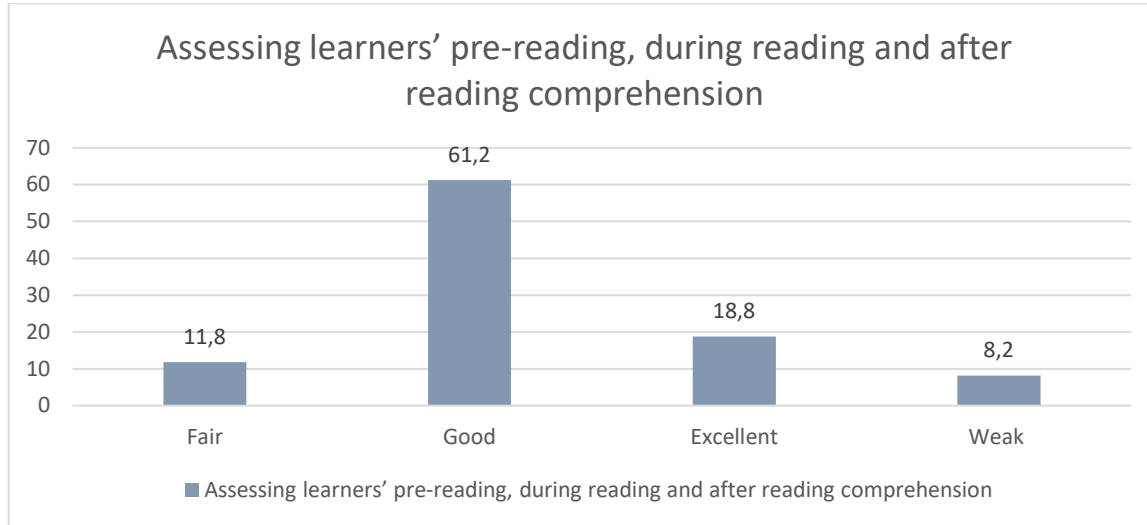


Figure 4.8 Assessing learners' pre-reading, during reading and after reading comprehension

4.3.25 Assessing learners' literal comprehension skills

With regards to assessing learners' literal comprehension, data show a majority of the respondents, 64 (75.2%) who viewed themselves as good. Whereas, 2 (2.4%) who viewed themselves as excellent. That means the majority of the respondents, (77.6%) see themselves as good in assessing learners' literal comprehension. On the other hand, 19(22.4%) viewed themselves as fair.

Table 4.23 Assessing literal comprehension skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	19	22.4	22.4	22.4
	Good	64	75.2	75.3	97.6
	Excellent	2	2.4	2.4	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.26 Assessing learners' reorganization comprehension

On the extent to which the teachers assess learners' reorganization comprehension, data show that majority of the respondents, 68(80%) viewed themselves as good, whilst 2

(2.4%) view themselves as excellent. The 2.4% of the respondents who viewed themselves as excellent may be the same respondents who viewed themselves as excellent in assessing literal comprehension. Data also show an increase from the 64 (75.2%) who viewed themselves as good in assessing learners literal comprehension to the 68 (80%) of the respondents who viewed themselves as good in assessing reorganization comprehension.

Table 4.24 Assessing reorganization comprehension skills after every reading comprehension lesson

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	15	16.7	17.6	17.6
	Good	68	75.6	80.0	97.6
	Excellent	2	2.2	2.4	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.27 Teachers assess learners' inferential comprehension skills

On the extent to which the teachers assess learners' inferential comprehension skills, data show 64 (75.2%) of the respondents who viewed themselves as good. Furthermore, data show an increase from 2.4% who viewed themselves excellent in assessing literal and reorganizational comprehension skills to, 10 (11.8%) who view themselves excellent in assess learners' inferential comprehension skills. Similarly, data show 5(5.9%) who viewed themselves as fair, and 6(7.1%) who viewed themselves as weak. This is despite inferential comprehension skills being in a higher level than literal and reorganization comprehension skills.

Table 4.25 Assessing learners' inferential comprehension skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Fair	5	5.6	5.9	12.9
	Good	64	71.1	75.3	88.2
	Excellent	10	11.1	11.8	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.28 Teachers assess learners' evaluation comprehension skills

With regards to the extent to which the teachers assess learners' evaluation comprehension skills, data show 58 (68.2%) of the respondents who viewed themselves as good. Whereas, 14(16.5%) viewed themselves as excellent in assessing learners' evaluation comprehension skills. Data show that 7(8.2%) of the respondents viewed themselves as fair, whilst 6 (7.1%) viewed themselves as weak in assessing learners' evaluation comprehension skills. Once more, data show an increase from the 10 (11.8%) who viewed themselves excellent in assessing inferential comprehension skills to 14 (16.5%) who viewed themselves excellent in assessing learners' evaluation comprehension skills.

Table 4.26 Assessing evaluation comprehension skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Fair	7	7.8	8.2	15.3
	Good	58	64.4	68.2	83.5
	Excellent	14	15.6	16.5	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.29 Teachers assess learners' appreciation comprehension skills

On the extent to which teachers assess learners' appreciation comprehension skills, data show 55 (64.7%) viewed themselves as good. Whereas, 20 (23.5%) view themselves excellent. On the other hand, 4(4.7%) viewed themselves as fair, whilst 6(7.1%) view themselves weak. The data shows that 6 (7.1%) of the respondents viewed themselves weak in assessing literal, reorganizational, inferential and evaluation comprehension skills. However, data show an increase from 2.4% who viewed themselves excellent in assessing literal comprehension to 23.5% who viewed themselves as excellent in assessing appreciation comprehension skills which is the highest level of questioning.

Table 4.27 Assessing appreciation comprehension skills

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Fair	4	4.4	4.7	11.8
	Good	55	61.1	64.7	76.5
	Excellent	20	22.2	23.5	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.30 Teachers identify areas where learners are experiencing difficulties after assessment

With regards to the extent to which the teachers identify areas where learners are experiencing difficulties after assessment, data show 56 (65.8%) of the respondents who view themselves as excellent. Whereas 21(24.7%) who viewed themselves as good. However, 2 (2.4%) viewed themselves as fair, whilst 6(7.1%) viewed themselves as weak. Notably, data show a decrease of those who view themselves as good in assessing literal, reorganizational, inferential, evaluation, appreciation comprehension skills compared to those who view themselves good in identifying areas where learners are experiencing difficulties after assessment.

Table 4. 28 Identifying areas where learners are experiencing difficulties after assessment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Weak	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Fair	2	2.2	2.4	9.4
	Good	21	23.3	24.7	34.1
	Excellent	56	62.2	65.9	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.31 Changing teaching strategies based on assessment results

On the extent to which the teachers change their teaching strategies based on assessment results, data show that 59 (69.4%) of the respondents viewed themselves as good, whilst, 8(9.4%) view themselves excellent. Whereas, 18(21.2%) view themselves as fair. Even though the majority of the teachers view themselves good in changing their teaching strategies based on the assessment results, the minority of 21.2 % who view themselves as fair are a concern in this data.

Table 4.29 Changing my teaching strategies based on assessment results

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	18	20.0	21.2	21.2
	Good	59	65.6	69.4	90.6
	Excellent	8	8.9	9.4	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.32 Changing assessment strategies based on the assessment result

With regards to the extent to which the teachers change their assessment strategies based on the assessment result, data show 58 (68.2%) who view themselves as good. Whereas,

10(11.8%) view themselves as excellent. However, 17 (20%) of the respondents view themselves as fair. This data is consistent with the minority of respondents who viewed themselves as fair in changing their teaching strategies based on the assessment results.

Table 4.30 Changing my assessment strategies based on assessment results

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	17	18.9	20.0	20.0
	Good	58	64.4	68.2	88.2
	Excellent	10	11.1	11.8	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.33 Using appropriate assessment tools when assessing reading comprehension

On the extent to which the teachers use appropriate assessment tools when assessing IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show 62(72.9%) who viewed themselves as good, whereas, 19 (22.4%) viewed themselves as excellent. Data show that 4(4.7%) of the respondents viewed themselves as fair. That means the majority of 81(95.3%) view themselves good in using appropriate assessment tools when assessing IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Using appropriate assessment tools when assessing reading comprehension

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	4	4.4	4.7	4.7
	Good	62	68.9	72.9	77.6
	Excellent	19	21.1	22.4	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.34 Ensuring that assessment tasks assess different abilities of all learners in the classroom

With regards to the extent to which the teachers ensure that assessment tasks assess different abilities of all learners in the classroom, data show that 50 (58.8%) of the respondents viewed themselves as good. However, 10 (11.8%) viewed themselves as excellent. That means 60 (70.6%) of the respondents viewed themselves good in ensuring that assessment tasks assess different abilities of all learners in the classroom. This is consistent with the respondents who viewed themselves as good in differentiating assessment to accommodate all learners. Additionally, 25 (29.4%) view themselves as fair in ensuring that assessment tasks assess different abilities of all learners in the classroom

Table 4.31 Ensuring that assessment tasks assess different abilities of all learners in the classroom

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	25	27.8	29.4	29.4
	Good	50	55.6	58.8	88.2
	Excellent	10	11.1	11.8	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.35 Teachers design an improvement plan based on the performance of learners in IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension assessment

With regards to the extent to which the teachers designing an improvement plan based on the performance of learners in IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension assessment, data show 58 (68.2%) view themselves as good. At the same time, 10 (11.8%) viewed themselves as excellent, whereas 17(20%) viewed themselves as fair. That means the

majority of the respondents, 68(80%) view themselves good, whereas minority, 20% viewed themselves as fair.

Table 4.32 Designing an improvement plan based on the performance of the learners in a reading comprehension assessment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	17	18.9	20.0	20.0
	Good	58	64.4	68.2	88.2
	Excellent	10	11.1	11.8	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.36 Teachers reflect on their lesson after assessing IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

On the extent to which the teachers reflect on their lesson after assessing IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show 44(51.8%) of the respondents viewed themselves as good. Whereas, 37(43.5%) viewed themselves as excellent. Notably, on the extent to which teachers change their teaching strategies 8 (9.4%) view themselves as excellent, yet that has increased to 37(43.5%) on the extent to which the teachers reflect on their lesson after assessing IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. However, 4 (4.7%) of the respondents viewed themselves fair on reflecting on their lesson after assessing IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Table 4.33 Reflecting on my lesson after teaching reading comprehension

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Fair	4	4.4	4.7	4.7
	Good	44	48.9	51.8	56.5
	Excellent	37	41.1	43.5	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.37 IsiXhosa HL is not a problem to the teachers

On the view that teaching IsiXhosa HL is not a problem to the teachers, most of the respondents, 46 (54.1%) strongly agreed, whilst 30 (35.3%) agreed. Whereas only 9 (10.6) disagreed. That means a majority of the teachers strongly agree that teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is not a problem for them. This is consistent with data reported in Table 4.34 below, the majority of the respondents 79 (92.9%) viewed themselves as good in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Table 4.34 Teaching isiXhosa Language is not a problem to me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	9	10.0	10.6	10.6
	Agree	30	33.3	35.3	45.9
	Strongly Agree	46	51.1	54.1	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.38 Teachers consider themselves to be effective in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

Regarding the view that the teachers consider themselves to be effective in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, most of the respondents, 41(48.3%) strongly agreed, whereas 32 (37.6%) agreed. That means majority of the respondents, 73(85.9%) consider themselves effective in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. However, 12 (14.1%) disagreed with the view that they consider themselves effective in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Similarly, in Table 4.34 above, a minority of respondents 6 (7.1%) viewed themselves as weak in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Table 4.35 I consider myself to be effective in teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	12	13.3	14.1	14.1
	Agree	32	35.6	37.6	51.8
	Strongly Agree	41	45.6	48.2	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.39 Designing a lesson plan for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is not easy for the teachers

On the view that designing a lesson plan for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is not easy for the teachers, data show that 40 (47.1%) disagreed with the view. Whereas, 38 (44.7%) agree with the view, additionally, 7 (8.2%) strongly agree that designing a lesson plan for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is not easy for the them. That means 45 (52.9%) of the respondents, which is a majority, agree that designing a lesson plan for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is not easy for the them. This not consistent with data presented in Table 4.35 above. For instance, on the extent to which teachers can plan IsiXhosa Home Language Lessons, 37 (43.5) of the respondents view themselves as excellent, whereas 42 (49.4%) view themselves as good in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons.

Table 4.36 Designing a lesson plan for reading comprehension in isiXhosa is not easy for me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	40	44.4	47.1	47.1
	Agree	38	42.2	44.7	91.8
	Strongly Agree	7	7.8	8.2	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.40 Using IsiXhosa HL CAPS document to plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is a problem for the teachers

Regarding the view that using IsiXhosa HL CAPS document to plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is a problem for the teachers, data show 27(31.8%) agree with the view. Similarly, 19 (22.3%) of the respondents strongly agree with the view. That means 46 (54.1%) view using IsiXhosa HL CAPS document to plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is a problem for them. Compared to the 27 (31.8%) who disagree and the 12(14.1%) who strongly disagree with the view. In essence, it is the minority, 39(45.8%) who disagree with the view. This is consistent with data presented in Table 4.36 above, on the extent to which teachers can plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS document, 43 (50.6%) of the respondents view themselves good. Whereas, 42 (49.4%) as weak in planning IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS.

Table 4.37 Using CAPS document to plan for reading comprehension lesson in IsiXhosa is a problem for me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	13.3	14.1	14.1
	Disagree	27	30.0	31.8	45.9
	Agree	27	30.0	31.8	77.6
	Strongly Agree	19	21.1	22.4	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.41 Teachers have gained much skills to diversify their lesson on IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

With regards to the view that the teachers have gained much skills to diversify their lesson on IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show 53 (62.4%) who agree with the view. Whereas, 23 (27%) strongly agree with the view. That means, 76 (89.4%) of the respondents agree that they have gained much skills to diversify my lesson on IsiXhosa

HL reading comprehension. Whilst, minority of 3 (3.5%) strongly disagree with the view and 6 (7.1%) who disagree with the view.

Table 4.38: I have gained much skills to diversify my lesson plans on reading comprehension

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	3	3.3	3.5	3.5
Disagree	6	6.7	7.1	10.6
Agree	53	58.9	62.4	72.9
Strongly Agree	23	25.6	27.1	100.0
Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing System	5	5.6		
Total	90	100.0		

4.3.42 Teachers consider themselves having effective classroom management skills relevant for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons

On the view that the teachers consider themselves having effective classroom management skills relevant for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons, data show 41(48.2%) strongly agree with the view. Additionally, 40 (47.1%) agree with the view. That means majority of the respondents, 81 (95.3%) consider themselves as having effective classroom management skills relevant for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons. Whereas, 4 (4.7%) disagree with the view. This is consistent with data in Figure 4.3 which reveals that 78 (91.8%) of the respondents indicate that they are good in integrating classroom management strategies in their planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Whereas, 7 (8.2%) of the respondents view themselves as weak in integrating classroom management strategies in their IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lesson plans.

Table 4.39 I consider myself having effective classroom management skills relevant for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language lesson

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Disagree	4	4.4	4.7	4.7
Agree	40	44.4	47.1	51.8
Strongly Agree	41	45.6	48.2	100.0
Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing System	5	5.6		
Total	90	100.0		

4.3.43 Teachers are not able to make time for learners who are struggling during IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

With regards to the view that teachers are not able to make time for learners who are struggling during IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show 40 (47.1%) who strongly disagree with the view. As, 26 (30.6%) also disagree with the view that they are not able to make time for learners who are struggling during IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. For instance, in Figure 4.3 it is presented that 74(87.1%) of the respondents view themselves good in making time to reach learners with reading comprehension challenges.

Table 4.40: I am not able to make time for learners who are struggling during reading comprehension lessons

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	40	44.4	47.1	47.1
Disagree	26	28.9	30.6	77.6
Agree	13	14.4	15.3	92.9
Strongly Agree	6	6.7	7.1	100.0
Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing System	5	5.6		
Total	90	100.0		

4.3.44 Teachers use several strategies to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

Regarding the view that the teachers use several strategies to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show that 60 (70.6%) of the respondents agree. Whereas, 16 (18.8%) strongly agree with the view. That means most of the respondents, 76 (89.4%) agree that they use several strategies to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Whilst, 6(7.1%) disagree and 3(3.5%) with the view. This is consistent with data presented in Table 4.30 indicating that majority of respondents, 67(78.8%) view themselves good in changing teaching strategies based on assessment results.

Table 4.41 I can use several strategies to teach reading comprehension lesson in isiXhosa Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	3.3	3.5	3.5
	Disagree	6	6.7	7.1	10.6
	Agree	60	66.7	70.6	81.2
	Strongly Agree	16	17.8	18.8	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.45 Teachers do not have time to scaffold learners when teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

On the view that the teachers do not have time to scaffold learners when teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show 37(43.5%) disagree with the view. In addition, 19(22.4%) also strongly disagree with the view. Whereas, 11 (12.9%) strongly agree with the view and 18(21.2%) of the respondents agree with the view. Data show contradictions between the data presented in Table 4.41 above, which shows majority of respondents, 47 (55.3%) who view themselves as weak in using scaffolding strategies during reading comprehension lessons and the 56 (65.9%) of the respondents who agree that they do not have time to scaffold learners when teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Table 4.42 I do not have time to scaffold learners when teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	19	21.1	22.4	22.4
	Disagree	37	41.1	43.5	65.9
	Agree	18	20.0	21.2	87.1
	Strongly Agree	11	12.2	12.9	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.45 Teachers have some challenges in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

With regards to the view that the teachers have some challenges in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show that 28 (32.9%) disagree with the view. Whereas, 24 (28.2%) strongly disagree with the view. That means majority of the respondents, 52 (61.2%) disagree that they have some challenges in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. This is consistent with the data presented regarding the view that the teachers consider themselves to be effective in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. For instance, most of the respondents, 41(48.3%) strongly agreed, whereas 32 (37.6%) agreed. That means majority of the respondents, 73(85.9%) consider themselves effective in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Table 4.43: I have some challenges in teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	24	26.7	28.2	28.2
	Disagree	28	31.1	32.9	61.2
	Agree	22	24.4	25.9	87.1
	Strongly Agree	11	12.2	12.9	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.46 Teachers' experience as teachers influences positively how they teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

On the view that the teachers' experience as teachers influence positively how they teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show that 37(43.5%) strongly agree with this view. Whereas, 36(42.4%) agree with the view. The other 8(9.4%) disagree, whilst 4(4.7%) strongly disagree. That means, majority of the respondents, 73(85.9%) agree with the view that their experience as teachers influence positively how they teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Consistently, the biographical data show that 48 (56.4%) respondents have 10 and more years teaching experience, whereas only 6 (7.1%) respondents who have 1 year and less experience in teaching.

Furthermore, in relation to the experience in teaching Grade 3, only 42 (49.4%) respondents who have more than 10 years' experience, whereas 7 (8.2 %) respondents have 1 year and below. The responses in age and teaching experience indicated that the respondents to the questionnaire were mostly mature and experienced teachers who were able to respond to the topic. Similarly, the Table 4.2 above shows that 38 (44.7%) of the respondents have 10 years and more experience in teaching IsiXhosa HL, whereas 15 (17.6%) have between 1- 3 years' experience in teaching IsiXhosa HL.

Table 4.44: My experience as a teacher influences positively how I teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	4.4	4.7	4.7
	Disagree	8	8.9	9.4	14.1
	Agree	36	40.0	42.4	56.5
	Strongly Agree	37	41.1	43.5	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.47 Teachers believe they can improve learners' performance in IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

Regarding the view that the teachers believe they can improve learners' performance in IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show 54(63.5%) of the respondents agree with the view. On the other hand, 19(22.4%) strongly agree with the view. Whereas, the minority of 12(14.1%) disagree with the view that they can improve learners' performance in IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. That means the majority of the respondents, 73(85.9%) believe that they can improve learners' performance in IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Table 4.45: I can improve learners' performance in comprehension by teaching them IsiXhosa Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	12	13.3	14.1	14.1
	Agree	54	60.0	63.5	77.6
	Strongly Agree	19	21.1	22.4	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.48 Identifying, selecting and using teaching material to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is a simple process for the teachers

With regards to the view that identifying, selecting and use of teaching material to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is a simple process for the teachers, data show that 40(47.1%) of the respondents agree with the view. Whilst, 23 (27.1%) strongly agree with the view. That means majority of the respondents, 63(74.1%) agree that identifying, selecting and use of teaching material to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is a simple process for them. Whereas, 12 (14.1%) of the respondents disagree with the view and 10(11.7%) of the respondents strongly disagree. That means minority of the respondents, 22 (25.9%) disagree with the view that identifying, selecting and use of teaching material to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. This is consistent with data

presented in Table 4.32 in responding to the extent teachers source teaching materials and resources relevant for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Data show that 67 (78.8%) of the respondents viewed themselves as good in sourcing teaching materials and resources for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. However, 18 (21.2%) viewed themselves as weak in sourcing teaching materials and resources for teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

Table 4.46: Identification, selection and use of instructional material to teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa is a simple process for me

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	10	11.1	11.8	11.8
	Disagree	12	13.3	14.1	25.9
	Agree	40	44.4	47.1	72.9
	Strongly Agree	23	25.6	27.1	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.49 Teachers believe diversifying IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension assessment is not a problem for them

On the view that the teachers believe diversifying IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension assessment is not a problem for them, data show that 37 (43.5%) of the respondents disagree with the view. Whilst, 33(38.8%) of the respondents strongly disagree with the view. That means majority of the respondents 70(82.4%) of the respondents disagree that diversifying IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension assessment is not a problem for them. Whereas, 6(7.1%) of the respondents strongly agree, and 9(10.6%) of the respondents agree. That means a minority of the respondents, 15(17.6%) believe that diversifying IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension assessment is not a problem for them. Similarly, with regards to the extent to which the teachers differentiate assessment to accommodate different learners, data show majority of the respondents, 40 (47.1%) themselves as fair. In addition, 4 (4.7%) of the respondents view themselves as weak in differentiating

assessment to accommodate different learners. That gives a total of 44 (51.2%) which is a majority of respondents who view themselves as weak in differentiating assessment to accommodate different learners. Whereas, 36 (42.3%) view themselves as good, and only 5 (5.9%) who viewed themselves as excellent in differentiating assessment to accommodate different learners. That means a minority of respondents view themselves as good in differentiating assessment to accommodate different learners. That shows that majority of the respondents see diversifying of IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension assessment as a problem.

Table 4.47: Diversifying reading comprehension assessment is not a problem

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	6.7	7.1	7.1
	Disagree	37	41.1	43.5	50.6
	Agree	33	36.7	38.8	89.4
	Strongly Agree	9	10.0	10.6	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.3.50 Teachers believe that they are able to assess learners after teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension

With regards to the view that teachers believe that they are able to assess learners after teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show 55(64.7%) of the respondents agree with the view whilst 30(35.3%) strongly agree. That means all the respondents believe that they are able to assess learners after teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. This is consistent with the findings on the extent to which teachers can assess IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. Data show that the teachers assess IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, though they focus more on inferential, evaluation and appreciation comprehension skills when assessing. Additionally, data show that the teachers assess IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension even though majority believe diversifying IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension assessment is a problem for them.

Table 4.48: I am able to assess learners after teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Agree	55	61.1	64.7	64.7
	Strongly Agree	30	33.3	35.3	100.0
	Total	85	94.4	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.6		
Total		90	100.0		

4.4 Integration and analysis of results from the qualitative and quantitative phases

4.4.1 Introduction

The previous section presented and analysed qualitative and quantitative data. Attention is now drawn to the integration, analysis and interpretation of results using mixed methods techniques. This procedure involves looking across the quantitative and qualitative results and making assessments of how the information addresses the (mixed) research question (Tiddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:212). This is in order to present the entire results as a coherent whole. Mixed methods data integration also reduces the gaps between inferences drawn the two phases of the study. It also enables the researcher to compare and contrast the findings from the quantitative and qualitative phases (Tiddlie & Tashakkori, 2009:287). Based on the integration of the two sets of results, reasonably valid inferences can be drawn. According to Tiddlie and Tashakkori (2009), inferences are conclusions and interpretations that are made on the basis of data collected during the study. These inferences can be process inferences where meaning is created using a series of steps or can be made as conclusions made on the basis of obtained results.

According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), it is recommended that in a mixed methods research report, the researcher should pay particular attention to the integration and analysis of data drawn from the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. This is in order to increase the validity and reliability of the results as well as draw valid inferences across the phases of the study. Integration of data also enables the researcher to unearth

inconsistencies that may exist within data collected in different phases (Driscoll, Yeboa, Salib & Rupert, 2007). In this study, the mixed methods integration was done with regard to answering the research questions as set out in Chapter 1. To reiterate, these questions were:

Main research question

To what extent does the Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influence their teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?

Sub-research questions:

1. To what extent do the teacher's self-efficacy influence the planning of reading comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language?
2. To what extent do the teachers' self-efficacy influence read comprehension instructional strategies in IsiXhosa Home Language?
3. What knowledge do the teachers have about teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?
4. How do the teachers teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?
5. To what extent can the teacher's self-efficacy influence assessment strategies of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?
6. What recommendations can be advanced towards mother-tongue based teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension?

4.4.2 Integrated summary and analysis of results to the first research question

The first research question was: **To what extent do the teacher's self-efficacy influence the planning of reading comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language?** In the qualitative phase, responses to this question were drawn from a question that sought to find out how do the teachers teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. The six participants who were interviewed reported that they struggle with designing and implementing lesson plans because in their classes, they have learners who have to be taught previous grades work. They complained that even though they can develop reading

comprehension lessons, they have to spend more time on teaching phonics. Furthermore, participants reported that they also struggle planning using CAPS document because they claim that CAPS assumes that learners are at the same level and are progressing quickly. Participants also reported that the CAPS document uses methods that are not responding to the teaching of IsiXhosa Language. Furthermore, participants also felt uneasy about using NECT lesson plans as the participants say the lesson plans are also moving faster than the pace of learners. However, the same question was explored in the quantitative phase.

Contrary to the qualitative data, quantitative phase data show that 37 (43.5) of the respondents view themselves as excellent, whereas 42 (49.4%) view themselves as good in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons. However, 6 (7.1%) of the respondents view themselves as weak in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons. In essence, from the responses, it is clear that the majority of the respondents 79 (92.9%) view themselves as good in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons, whereas only a minority, 6 (7.1%) who view themselves as weak in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons.

On the extent to which teachers can plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using the CAPS document, a different picture is presented by the respondents. For instance, 15 (17.6%) of the respondents view themselves as excellent, whereas 28 (32.9%) view themselves as good. This shows a decrease from the 37 (42.5%) who view themselves as excellent in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons, and the 42 (49.4%) who view themselves as good in planning IsiXhosa HL lessons. In contrast, there are 36 (42.4%) of the participants who view themselves as fair in planning IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS and 6 (7.1%) who view themselves as weak in planning IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension using CAPS document.

Quantitative data regarding the view that using IsiXhosa HL CAPS document to plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is a problem for the teachers show 27(31.8%) agree with the view. Similarly, 19 (22.3%) of the respondents strongly agree with the view. That means 46 (54.1%) view using IsiXhosa HL CAPS document to plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension is a problem for them. Compared to the 27 (31.8%) who disagree and the

12(14.1%) who strongly disagree with the view, this is consistent with qualitative data wherein participants felt unease in using CAPS document when planning.

In the light of the above, there seemed to be a contradiction between qualitative and quantitative responses. This may be because qualitative phase allowed the researcher to probe the participants. In the quantitative phase, only self-reporting was employed. However, literature reveals that teachers who perceived themselves as confident in their lesson plan reflections and summative reflections, created enabling learning environments for their students (Bordelon, Phillips, Parkison, Thomas & Howell, 2012). Similarly, Wydeman (2015) contends that thorough planning promotes learning because it takes into account the diverse backgrounds, interests and abilities of learners in class. Similarly, Skaalvik (2007, p. 612) highlights the importance of an “individual teachers’ beliefs in their own ability to plan, organize, and carry out activities that are required to attain given educational goals.” Teachers’ beliefs in their ability to plan lessons is very important. Vdovina and Gaibisso (2013) point out that a lesson plan helps teachers to have a framework for carrying their students to certain “learning destinations”. Teachers are expected to plan their lessons using prescribed curriculum.

The participants’ concern about CAPS aligns with Bikitsha and Katz (2013) who assert that African language curriculum documents are often translated directly from English and therefore reflect English teaching concerns. This is further revealed by Probert and de Vos (2015) who contend that in South Africa, the relationship between language structure and orthography are not always reflected in pedagogy as teacher training is oriented to English and Afrikaans.

The second question was: **To what extent do the teachers’ self-efficacy influence reading comprehension instructional strategies in IsiXhosa Home Language?** In the qualitative phase, this question was answered through a question that sought to find out how do the teachers teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. Firstly, all the participants (six) in the qualitative phase reported that they encounter challenges with teaching reading comprehension. One of the challenges raised by the participants was the issue of learners who progressed to Grade 3 without mastering previous grade work.

As a result, participants reported that they spend much time focusing on teaching phonemic awareness to assist learners who have not mastered phonemic awareness in the previous grades.

Data in the qualitative phase show that participants differ in how they teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. For instance, participants who have more than 10 years of experience in teaching reported that they make sure that vocabulary is established first before they teach reading comprehension. According to the participants, vocabulary is the foundation for learning to read. The participants reported that the exercise of teaching vocabulary consumes much of their time; as a result, they integrate teaching of vocabulary in reading comprehension lesson.

The participants' view on the importance of vocabulary is supported by Pour-Mohammadi and Abidin (2011, p. 238) who conceptualise reading comprehension "as an interactive mental process between a reader's linguistic knowledge, knowledge of the world, and knowledge about a given topic". That means learners should possess linguistic knowledge. Pretorius and Currin (2010) reveal that teachers pay much attention on teaching decoding skills because they assume that learners will be able to comprehend when they can decode. Hence, there is little reading comprehension taught in some schools as teachers focus on word recognition / orthography (Ibid). That means participants' focusing on vocabulary is relevant, however, how they do it may be a problem. Research conducted in South Africa reveals that teachers spend far more time focusing on the mechanical skills of decoding rather than on meaning and comprehension (Verbeek, 2010; Murriss, 2014).

Participants in the qualitative phase revealed that they model reading comprehension strategies to scaffold learners. However, participants could not explain whether modelling reading comprehension strategies is a planned strategy or it just happens coincidentally. Nevertheless, Huggins and Edwards (2011) posit that scaffolding is important when teaching reading comprehension. Similarly, Salem (2017) contends that well-constructed scaffolds optimize student learning, provide a supportive environment as well as facilitating student independence. This suggests that if Grade 3 teachers scaffold learners during reading comprehension, they develop learners' ability to read independently. On the other

hand, Prado and Plourde (2011) believe that children need to see reading strategies modelled and be led through guided practice before they are given time to practise independently. This implies that teachers should demonstrate reading skills. As Huang and Nisbet (2012) reveal, modelling and guided reading practices as important enablers for reading comprehension.

On the issue of modelling and scaffolding reading comprehension, the quantitative phase shows some contradictions. For instance, on the view that the teachers do not have time to scaffold learners when teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show 37(43.5%) disagree with the view. In addition, 19(22.4%) also strongly disagree with the view. Whereas, 11 (12.9%) strongly agree with the view and 18(21.2%) of the respondents agree with the view. Data show contradictions between the data presented in Table 4.24, which shows majority of respondents, 47 (55.3%) who view themselves as weak in using scaffolding strategies during reading comprehension lessons and the 56 (65.9%) of the respondents who agree that they do not have time to scaffold learners when teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension.

With regards to the extent to which the teachers model reading comprehension strategies, data show that the majority of the respondents, 70 (82.3%) viewed themselves as excellent. Whereas, 8 (9.4%) viewed themselves as good in modelling reading comprehension strategies. On the other hand, 6 (7.1%) of the respondents viewed themselves as weak, whereas 1 (1.2%) of the respondents viewed him/herself as fair in modelling reading comprehension strategies. From the data, it can be deduced that majority of the respondents, 78 (91.8%) view themselves as good in modelling reading comprehension strategies.

Furthermore, regarding the view that the teachers use several strategies to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, data show that 60 (70.6%) of the respondents agree, whereas, 16 (18.8%) strongly agree with the view. That means most of the respondents, 76 (89.4%) agree that they use several strategies to teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. Whilst, 6(7.1%) disagree and 3(3.5%) with the view. This is consistent with data presented in Table 4.23 indicating that the majority of respondents 67(78.8%) view themselves good

in changing teaching strategies based on assessment results. Furthermore, Table 4.38 shows that most respondents 75(88.2%) view themselves as good in providing differentiated instructional strategies to accommodate different learners.

In light of the above revelations, there seems to be differing views on which strategy is working effectively, between scaffolding and modelling. However, quantitative and qualitative data show that the participants in the study use both of the strategies when teaching reading comprehension. Additionally, the majority of the respondents believe that they can effectively teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension, using various strategies. Elwér (2014) posits that reading has different processes at different levels, which need to be coordinated, including abilities, strategies and knowledge. That means modelling and scaffolding are important in teaching reading comprehension.

The third question: **To what extent can the teacher's self-efficacy influence assessment strategies of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?** The quantitative phase revealed more on the assessment of IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. For instance, the majority of the respondents, 79(92.9%) indicated that they do assess IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. However, from the data it emerged that 44 (51.8%) of the respondents view themselves weak in differentiating assessment to accommodate diverse learners. The majority of the respondents 68(80%) view themselves good in assessing learners pre-reading, during reading and after reading comprehension. There were contradictions in the respondents' responses on what they assess.

For instance, in the quantitative phase majority of the respondents assess literal comprehension skills, (77.6%); reorganisation comprehension skills, (80%); inferential comprehension skills, (75.2%); evaluation comprehension skills, (84.7%) and appreciation comprehension skills, (88.2%). What is appalling in this data is that those who viewed themselves weak in assessing literal comprehension, viewed themselves good/ excellent in assessing other comprehension skills. This is surprising because literal comprehension skills are of a low order according to Barret's Taxonomy. Quantitative data show that the majority of the teachers change their teaching strategies based on the assessment results.

Furthermore, the majority of the respondents indicated that they change assessment strategies and design improvement plans.

With regards to qualitative data, all six (6) participants reported that they do assess reading comprehension. However, the participants' understanding of assessing reading comprehension differed.

Contrary to the quantitative phase, qualitative data reveal that the participants spend less time assessing actual reading comprehension. Instead they focus on assessing phonic and phonemic awareness. Furthermore, the participants reported that since they are expected to have evidence of assessing reading comprehension, they do give learners "minor tasks" based on the text they read. That means these kinds of assessment are for compliant purposes only. The participants complained that the assessments as prescribed by the curriculum (CAPS) and now NECT "assume that learners are at the same level cognitively".

The participants in the qualitative phase reported that they give many questions on literal comprehension skills and inferential skills. This is different from the quantitative data where they reported that they give less of literal comprehension skills. Participants in the qualitative phase reported that they give more literal comprehension and inferential comprehension skills because learners' assessment tasks marks are to be recorded and be used on South African School Administration and Management System (SA-SAMS) for progression.

The participants complained that the system requires a specific number of tasks with specific focus within IsiXhosa HL; therefore, reading comprehension as one of the components has its own marks. It emerged from the participants' assertions that as teachers they are expected to conform; as a result, they end up compromising quality in order to comply. Assessing reading comprehension seems to be a problem according to the participants in a qualitative phase, as they claim the issue of focusing on phonics and phonemic awareness.

Muayanah (2014) brings forward that Barrett taxonomy categorizes reading comprehension skills into five levels of comprehension. These levels are presented in the

hierarchy from the lowest to the highest level of reading, they are literal, reorganization, inference, evaluation and appreciation. Jude and Ajay (2012) assert that literal comprehension is a basic form of reading comprehension involving understanding the facts and descriptions that are explicitly stated, not alluded to or inferred in the text. That means literal comprehension questions are the questions that of the lower level of thinking. Similarly, Goff (2010) asserts that literal comprehension is a process that involves reading to understand the surface meaning. Participants in the qualitative phase seemed to only focus on this level of questioning. That means there is limited variety of questions that also assist teachers to find out how to improve their strategies.

Hus and Matjašič (2017, p. 664) contend that “assessment is the process of finding and interpreting evidence to be used by learners and teachers in order to enable them to establish exactly where the learners are in their learning, where they have to focus and what best way to get there is”. In the quantitative phase the respondents indicated that the feedback from assessment helps them to change their teaching strategies and their assessment strategies. The Qualitative phase reveals an image of the teachers who are not innovative, who only assess because they want to comply. As such, teachers confuse the purpose of formative and summative assessment. Formative assessment is embedded in the teaching and learning process and provides feedback to the teacher in the course of teaching to enable him or her judge how well students are learning (Amua-Sekyi, 2016). Therefore, summative assessment takes place at the end of a course or programme to determine the level of students’ achievement or how well a programme has performed (Ibid).

4.5 Summary

In this chapter, the researcher has presented, analyzed and discussed quantitative data findings. Furthermore, the researcher integrated quantitative data findings and qualitative data findings. The purpose of this integration was to show the relationship between the two approaches used in this study. The following chapter presents qualitative data findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

QUALITATIVE DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

5. Introduction

In the previous chapter, the researcher presented and analysed data collected in the quantitative phase. The aim of this chapter is to present data collected in qualitative phase. This study employed a mixed methods approach, hence, the two approaches were used (qualitative and quantitative approach). Concurrent triangulation was chosen as a research design. This allowed the researcher to collect qualitative and quantitative data concurrently.

5.1 Data presentation and analysis: Qualitative phase

Before presenting qualitative data, the main research question and sub-research questions are unpacked for the ease of reference. A detailed description of the procedures that were followed when selecting participants, accessing and interview processes has been provided in the previous chapter. A profile of the participants is provided in a tabular form and brief narrative is provided. The main purpose of the interviews was to find out Grade 3 teachers' perceptions on teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. The purpose of this qualitative phase was for participants to respond to the following questions. These research questions gave themes that assisted the researcher to package data presentation.

5.1.1. Main Research Question:

To what extent does the Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influence their teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?

5.1.2. Sub research questions

1. How does the teacher's self-efficacy influence the planning of reading comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language?
2. To what extent do the teachers' self-efficacy influence reading comprehension instructional strategies in IsiXhosa Home Language?
3. To what extent can the teacher's self-efficacy influence assessment strategies of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?
4. What recommendations can be advanced towards mother-tongue based teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension?

5.2 Biographical information of the participants in qualitative phase

This section gives a brief description of biographical information of the participants in the qualitative phase. Purposive sampling was adopted when selecting participants in this study. The sample was selected from the population of Grade 3 teachers who teach IsiXhosa Home Language in the Foundation Phase. There were six teachers who were selected, three (3) from rural schools and three (3) from semi-urban schools. The schools were selected because they teach in isiXhosa and IsiXhosa is the Home Language in these schools.

Table 5.1 Profile of the participants in the qualitative phase

Name of the participant (Pseudonym)	Age	Highest Qualification	Experience in teaching	Experience in teaching IsiXhosa in Grade 3	Location of the school
Miss Mkhabela	32	Bachelor of Education	6 years	2 years	Semi-urban
Mrs Citshane	57	Junior Primary Teachers' Diploma	23 years	9 years	Semi-urban

Mr Mkhont'ubomvu	30	Bachelor of Education	5 years	5 years	Semi-urban
Miss Fakade	52	Senior Primary Teachers' Diploma	22 years	10 years	Rural School
Mrs Tenza	35	Bachelor of Education	8 years	7 years	Rural School
Mrs Jalamba	50	Junior Primary Teachers' Diploma	27 years	10 years	Rural School

Table 5.1. presents participants' profile in a qualitative phase of this study. Six participants were purposively selected from semi-urban and rural schools. The table above shows that there were five (5) female participants and one male participant. The only male participant in this study was from a semi-urban school. The ages of the participants range from 30- 57 years. The participants' highest qualifications show that the senior teachers who are 50 years and above have Junior or Senior Primary Teachers' Diplomas, whereas the young teachers from 30- 35 years have Bachelor of Education Degrees. It is also revealed in the profile of the respondents that though Foundation Phase was for teachers who qualified for Junior Primary Teachers' Diploma, there is one participant who did Senior Primary Teachers' Diploma who is teaching in the Foundation Phase. The participants' experience in teaching ranges from 6-27 years whereas number of years in teaching Grade 3 IsiXhosa Home Language ranges from 2 -10 years.

Interviews were conducted in the interviewees schools in their classrooms and some in the school's office with the permission of the principal. These settings were considered "natural" since they were places where the respondents "worked" (Creswell, 2014: 185).

Interviews lasted between 35-45 minutes. Interviews were conducted in English; however, some of the participants used IsiXhosa to respond to some of the questions. All interviews as much as possible followed the interview schedule (**Appendix 1 & 2**).

5.2.1. Interview data analysis

The following steps were taken during the analysis of interview data:

- Verbatim transcription was done with the help of research assistants who listened to the audio recordings and transcribed every word that was said by the interviewer and respondent.
- The researcher then reviewed the transcripts while listening to the recordings and while cross checking with the notes taken during the interview.
- The researcher then identified preliminary themes that were entered into a table.

5.3 Thematic presentation of data

Theme 1: Teachers' conceptualisation of reading comprehension

All six participants conceptualise reading comprehension as an ability to read with understanding. However, the participants' conceptualisation of reading with understanding differed. Half of the participants saw reading with understanding as an ability to get meaning from the text. Whereas, another half of the participants limit reading with understanding to decoding the words. Below is the presentation of data on how the teachers conceptualise reading comprehension.

Sub-theme: Reading with understanding

As stated above, all the participants conceptualise reading comprehension as an ability to read with understanding. The researcher asked what the participants meant by *reading with understanding*. Half of the participants explained *reading with understanding* as an ability to get a message from the text. For instance, Miss Mkhabela said:

“Reading comprehension is when learners read the text and are able to get message from the text.

Miss Mkhabela's sentiments were echoed by Mrs Tenza who said:

"The purpose of reading should be to get meaning because every text has a message, that means as readers learners should be able to explain what is meant by a particular text"

Mr Mkhont'ubomvu' s view agreed with the participants' view. He explained and said:

"The purpose of reading should be to understand the meaning behind the written text"

Explaining what he means about understanding the meaning behind the text, he said:

"When you read, you also think about what you are reading, trying to make sense of what you are reading, it is then after making sense that you can say you understand what you are reading"

According to Mr Mkhont'ubomvu, a text has to make sense to the reader for the reader to understand what he/she is reading. In essence, Mr Mkhont'ubomvu refers to the use of meta-cognitive skills when reading. However, the participant implies that for a learner to make sense of the text, he/she has to understand words that are written. Mr Mkhont'ubomvu's sentiments about *"making sense of what you are reading"* were also echoed by Miss Mkhabela who also highlighted the importance of making sense when you are reading. When explaining what she means by making sense, Miss Mkhabela said:

"Just like when you are speaking, if you listen to yourself and you discover that what you are saying does not make sense you do not continue speaking, you rephrase, that is what should happen when you are reading"

The participants mentioned above are the participants who are between the ages 30-35 years of age. Additionally, the participants hold Bachelors of Education qualifications. The participants' assertions show the product of reading without focusing on the process of reading. There was a contrary view from the three participants.

Contrary to the aforementioned assertions, the other half of the participants' view reading with understanding as an ability to decode words. According to the participants, it is important for learners to first understand how words are formed. For instance, Mrs Jalamba said:

“The most basic thing that children have to understand is IsiXhosa Phonics, mabazazi izandi zesiXhosa, bakwazi ukufunda amagama esiXhosa. Without understanding sounds in IsiXhosa, there is no comprehension”

Echoing Mrs Jalamba’s sentiments, Mrs Citshane explained by saying:

“I think mna for any learner before we talk about reading, we have to first talk about sounds, letters and how those two form a word. How is it possible for a learner to understand the meaning if he/she does not understand the words?”

The above assertions by Mrs Jalamba and Mrs Citshane were further asserted by Miss Fakade, who said:

“How can you read a text if you do not understand words? How can you understand words without first understanding sounds and letters? For me bhuti children have to understand how to read words, join those words and form sentences that will give them paragraphs, that ke kum is reading comprehension”

The three participants mentioned above focused in understanding words before one can understand the whole text. The participants’ view seemed to refer to the process of reading before getting to the product which is meaning making. Mrs Jalamba explained this by saying:

“You know when children read they have to understand what each word means in a sentence and what each sentence mean in a paragraph, that will culminate into understanding the message in the text.

According to Mrs Jalamba. this is a *“chain if you break one piece of it, then you will not achieve your purpose”*

Notably, the participants who emphasise the importance of understanding words are the teachers who are between 50-57 years old. According to the participants, reading with understanding has to first begin with an understanding of sounds, and how those sounds form words.

All six participants’ assertions about reading with understanding are consistent with literature. As Hanse (2016) posits that reading comprehension is to make meaning of what we read. Similarly, Joubert, Bester, Evan and Phatudi (2015, p. 101) also view reading as “a message-getting and a problem –solving activity”. This implies that the participants’ conceptualisation is not different from available literature. However, as noted from the

presentation the participants view reading with understanding as an end product of reading, while others view reading with understanding as a process of reading.

According to the participants, reading with understanding implies ability to understand word formation. Invernizzi and Hayes (2010) suggest that rapid and effortless word recognition is a major component of fluent reading. Whereas, Jian-ping and Li-sha (2016) reveal the importance of a linguistic schema that covers vocabulary, sentence structure, and grammar. In the data presentation above, it emerges that the participants emphasise the importance of IsiXhosa HL vocabulary, IsiXhosa sentence structure and grammar as the understanding that learners should have. Similarly, Huang (2009, p. 139) points out that linguistic schemata include "the decoding features needed to recognize words and how they fit together in a sentence". The question is at which stage of reading do teachers have to focus on word recognition.

Mansory (2012) also posits that reading engages two connected and fundamental processes called: comprehension and decoding. That means, the participants' sentiments about the importance of word recognition is consistent with findings by other researchers. Literature points out that reading process includes three processes: (1) letter and word recognition, (2) comprehension of concepts, and (3) reaction and assimilation of the new knowledge with the reader's past experience, (Syatriana, 2010). However, Zimmerman (2014) points out that FP teachers put much emphasis on teaching decoding skills, though this is often done in a superficial, haphazard and decontextualized way. As some of the participants in this study see decoding skills as more important as a basis for reading comprehension.

To the participants decoding and reading with understanding are the same thing. Yet, Azami (2014) points out that ability that individuals can figure out the pronunciation of a written word and define its meaning is decoding, while reading comprehension is understanding what you are reading. Participants were probed further on the benefits of reading comprehension. Below is the presentation of the benefits of reading comprehension as reported by participants.

This is another sub-theme under theme 1.

Importance of reading comprehension

All the six participants agree that reading comprehension is beneficial to learners. However, some participants believe that reading comprehension is important for learners' academic achievement. Whereas, some participants see reading comprehension as an important skill in "making it in life". For instance, Mrs Tenza stated that:

"There is nothing that a learner can learn without being able to read with understanding".

Echoing Mrs Tenza's sentiments, Mrs Citshane explained by saying:

"One of the reasons why some of the learners fail grade 12, it's because they do not understand questions because they do not read with understanding"

The two participants (Mrs Tenza and Mrs Citshane) posit that reading comprehension enables learners to understand their academic work and therefore progress academically. Whereas, Mr Mkhont'ubomvu narrowed the importance of reading comprehension to "understanding and responding appropriately to the given questions". He stated that:

"Some of the children fail their comprehension tests because they do not read with understanding, for instance when they are asked high order questions they struggle to respond"

The three participants (Mrs Tenza, Mrs Citshane and Mr Mkhont'ubomvu) see reading comprehension as an important skill for academic progression. Contrary to this view, the other three participants see reading comprehension beneficial to learners in *"making it in life"*

Mrs Jalamba explained the importance of reading as follows:

"Uyabona these days if you cannot read, you are left behind. Everything needs one to read with understanding, we have cellphones with SMSes, we fill forms, we have contracts, municipal letters; I mean everything needs one to read in order to survive"

Miss Mkhabela and Miss Fakade echoed Mrs Jalamba's sentiments by also highlighting reading comprehension as an important skill for "survival in this world". For instance, Miss Mkhabela said:

“If one cannot read, he/she cannot understand simple instructions, these days there are many sicknesses, people use different medications, if one cannot read will struggle to understand instructions in their medications, today we are using technology, if one cannot read will not understand the manual, enyanisweni, there is no life without reading comprehension”

Echoing Miss Mkhabela's sentiments Miss Fakade said:

“In this life we read most of the things, times are moving fast, there is no person who is responsible to explain things, people have to read and learn everything around them. If you cannot read with understanding, you will believe everything you hear from people.”

The three participants (Miss Mkhabela, Miss Fakade and Mrs Jalamba) see reading comprehension as beneficial for surviving in life. According to the three participants for one to make it in life, he/she must be able to read every text with understanding. The researcher notes that even though some participants only see reading comprehension as an important skill for academic progress, they still see reading comprehension beneficial to learners. For instance, Merisuo-Storm (2010) also contends that a child who does not learn to read and comprehend in the early years of schooling will experience difficulties in other subjects also. This was also raised by the participants who believe that the effect of poor reading comprehension is evident until Grade 12.

Similarly, Ashton (2012) also states that reading comprehension proficiency is very significant for academic success. Some participants believe reading comprehension is beneficial as it open opportunity doors. Similarly, Akindele, (2012) posit that reading is a basic life skill. As Miss Mkhabela and Miss Fakade also believe that if learners reading comprehension is proficient they will be able to live a better life. This is also alluded by Azami, (2014) who contends that to be successful in school and throughout life, children need reading as a foundation. Additionally, having the ability to read properly can open doors for opportunities in life (Ibid). That means participants' understanding about the benefits of reading comprehension are consistent with literature.

Theme 2: Teaching Reading Comprehension

All the six participants interviewed reported that they teach IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension in their Grade 3 classes. However, from their responses it emerged

that there are challenges with regards to the teaching of reading comprehension. Some of the challenges reported by the participants is the issue of lesson planning, secondly, teaching in a classroom with a number of progressed learners and the issue of a prescribed curriculum.

Lesson Planning

Half of the respondents in this study reported that they regularly plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons. Whereas, the other half of the participants do not often plan IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lesson plans. There were different reasons given by the participants on why they plan their lessons. One of the common reasons for planning is to produce evidence of teaching. Whereas, the participants who do not plan stated the confusion caused by progressed learners and the prescribed curriculum (CAPS) as the problems. The following presentation is on planning to produce evidence of teaching; this is one of the sub-themes under the major theme 2.

Planning to produce evidence of teaching

Half of the participants reported that they plan their lessons to produce evidence of teaching. Notable, this half of the participants are those participants who have their ages ranging from 30-35 years of age. These are participants who have between 0-8 years of teaching experience. The participants reported that as per the school requirements, all teachers must have a portfolio file. In the file, there must be evidence of teaching, a lesson plan is one of the requirements. This was explained by Mr Mkhont'ubomvu who said:

“In my school our HOD expects us to have files, in the files we are expected to have our annual teaching plan, lesson plans and assessment plan. The HOD quarterly she asks us to bring the files for moderation. We have to produce evidence of our teaching through the file and learners’ books. That is why I am also used to do lesson plans, I do not want to be seen as disrespectful”

The sentiments by Mr Mkhont'ubomvu about producing evidence of teaching were echoed by Miss Mkhabela. She reported that she is new in the school, she has been redeployed to the school from another district and circuit. Miss Mkhabela reported that her principal is “strict” so as teachers they must have evidence for everything they are doing in the classroom. She said:

"I like the way things are done here, we are kept on toes, we have to plan our lessons and keep them in our portfolio files. I did not like to do a lesson plan, but here in this school, it is compulsory that you have your own lesson plan. At the end of each month, we all submit our lesson plans and learners' books for moderation. I think I like that.

The majority of the participants reported that they have a challenge with lesson planning for IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. In their responses, they complained about learners' level of knowledge, Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), and the National Education Collaboration Trust (NECT) Lesson Plan Book. Participants complain that some of the learners' cognitive level in their Grade 3 classes are at Grade 1 level. For instance, Mrs Jalamba raised her concern by saying:

"Hayi, it is very difficult these days, learners progress to other grades even if they cannot read or write

well. Look in my class of 53 learners, I have almost 20 learners who cannot read or write. How can I teach the other 30 learners and leave behind the other 20 something? If I teach reading comprehension, I also have to teach phonics in the same lesson. These learners passed grade 2, yet they struggle with IsiXhosa Phonics, now, that adds more work to me"

Echoing Mrs Jalamba's sentiments Mr Mkhont'ubomvu said:

"The problem in my class is the number of learners who struggle with phonics that they should have mastered in Grade 1. I find myself covering Grade 1 work and also grade 3 work at the same time. Sometimes I have to spend most of the time focusing on phonics teaching, than on reading comprehension"

Similarly, Miss Tenza and Mrs Citshane also complained about the time they spend on teaching phonics instead of reading comprehension because they want to help those learners who have progressed to Grade 3 without, mastering Grade 1 & 2 work. Mrs Citshane explained her situation by saying

"I have two groups in my class and it's bad. I have learners who I teach Grade 1 work and those I teach Grade 3 work. I have no option because they have progressed to Grade 3 because they system and parents did not want them to repeat Grade 1 or 2. How can I then teach reading comprehension effectively in such situation?"

The participants complained that it is difficult for them to plan their lessons and implement them effectively because of learners who have to be taught previous grades work. All the participants reported that learner progression is causing problems for them as they have to teach previous grades work, especially socially progressive learners. The participants complain of the time they have to spend focusing on teaching phonics to the struggling learners. However, one of the participants Miss Fakade believes that reading comprehension should be given “much attention” in Grade 4. Explaining her reasoning, she said:

“In Foundation Phase we spend much time teaching phonics, these children need more time . You cannot just move on without firmly building phonemic awareness, as a results you will find that much of our time is spent focusing on phonemic awareness instead of reading comprehension”

Echoing Miss Fakade’s sentiments, Miss Mkhabela said:

“Yhooo! these children cannot spell, they struggle to understand simple words, you have to spend time teaching them phonics, there is no time to focus on reading comprehension because too much time is spent on other components of reading”

Whereas, Mrs Fakade said:

“I think Grade 4 is the best grade to focus more on teaching reading comprehension, because by that time children’s phonemic awareness is established , they can spell words correctly, they have the vocabulary and can read fluently”

One thing that comes out strongly from the participants’ responses is the time they have to spend focusing on teaching phonemic awareness in Grade 3. Some of the participants (four participants) attribute this to the progression of learners who struggle with phonemic awareness in the previous grades. However, some of the participants (two of the participants) believe that in FP, the focus should be to establish learners’ phonemic awareness. Hence, they say they do not teach reading comprehension effectively. Despite these complaints, the participants acknowledge that reading comprehension can be taught from Grade 1. For instance, Mr Mkhont’ubomvu said:

“Children from Grade 1 can be taught the importance of reading with understanding; this will help build a firm foundation for other grades”

Similarly, Mrs Tenza echoed the above sentiments by saying:

“If children are not used to read with understanding from an early grade they may not take reading serious and this could affect their reading behaviour”

Additionally, Miss Tenza explains by saying:

“If we fail to teach reading comprehension from Grade 1 we will be failing our children, look now it is said Grade 4 learners cannot read with understanding even in their home language, that means we have to change our ways”

Azami (2014) points out that to be successful in school and throughout life children need reading as a foundation. That means, the participants view about teaching reading comprehension from early grades is consistent with literature. Klapwijk (2015) also suggests that reading is an important linguistic skill that needs to be developed in young children. That implies that teachers from Grade 1 should have time to teach reading comprehension skills. The participants' revelation that they spend much time focusing on decoding skills is in line with what Zimmerman (2014) found out. FP teachers put much emphasis on teaching decoding skills, though this is often done in a superficial, haphazard and decontextualized way (Ibid). However, in this study, the participants' reasons for focusing on decoding skills is to assist learners who have progressed to grade 3 without mastering decoding skills in the previous grades.

Following curriculum guidelines

All the six participants reported that they follow CAPS IsiXhosa Home Language when teaching reading comprehension. However, some of the participants (four participants) raised their concerns about the pace in which CAPS moves. They complained that CAPS is moving very fast; as a result, they do not follow everything written in the document. The four participants lamented that CAPS assumes that learners are at the same level. For instance, Mrs Jalamba explained by saying:

“CAPS is moving fast for our children, it assumes that we are teaching children who can read proficiently, forgetting that these children only read here at school”

Echoing the above sentiments, Mrs Citshane said

“CAPS is not realistic for me, the 15 minutes they talk about in CAPS makes no sense in my situation. I have 48 learners in my classroom; tell me how can I spend only 15 minutes for reading in such a big classroom?”

The above sentiments were also echoed by Miss Fakade who said:

“Bhuti CAPS is also confused; we sometimes get learners who struggled with phonics in the previous grades, now CAPS assume that these learners can read fluently and with understanding in Grade 3. How can we make miracles mntakabawo?”

Participants also raised concerns about implementing NECT lesson plans. The participants' concern is on the pace of NECT. Participants reported that as much as NECT has daily lesson plan with resources and activities, the programme is not “context based”. For instance, Mrs Citshane who is in a rural school explained her concern by saying:

“I do use NECT, I do not want to lie bhuti NECT is simple, but sometimes it misses the context. Each day has its own activity that sometimes is at a higher level than learners in the classroom. One more thing about NECT is that it promotes working with groups and individual learners, something which is very difficult when you have so large number of learners in your classroom. If you are not careful you might leave behind a number of learners behind”

The above sentiments were also echoed by Mrs Citshane were also echoed by Mrs Jalamba who said:

“Hayi mna I struggle using NECT, the lesson plans in NECT are good, they are simple and clear, but they assume that learners are at the same level. Yet, in the same classr4oom you have those learners who need more time than the time allocated in the NECT programme”.

The two participants Mrs Citshane and Mrs Jalamba's view about NECT programme showed a challenge in implementing prescribe curriculum efficiently. However, Mrs Tenza reported that she uses CAPS and NECT in her teaching:

“I use NECT and CAPS when teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa, but ke with CAPS there is a problem because CAPS seems to be designed for English language only. In IsiXhosa there is much to be done with phonics, for, instance sinononye, onombini, onontathu, onone, you cannot just move fast without first making sure that your learners understand that. IsiXhosa bhuti sinezandi zaso ezifuna ucoselele xa uzifundisa”

All six participants were concerned that CAPS and NECT do not address the context of their schools. Furthermore, the participants complained that CAPS document seems to be “translated exactly” from English HL to IsiXhosa HL document. According to the participants, this is causing problems for them, as they cannot teach IsiXhosa HL with the same methods English HL is taught. Mostly, the participants complained that CAPS is not clear on how to teach reading comprehension. The participants’ assertions are not different from what has been found out. For instance, Beck and Condry (2017) contend that CAPS document does not prescribe how comprehension should be taught, many teachers choose implicit approach when teaching comprehension.

Strategies to teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language

Participants reported that they all teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. However, in responding to how the participants teach reading comprehension there were different responses. Each participant has his/her own way of teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. For instance, three (3) participants reported that they use “*traditional way*” of teaching reading comprehension. Mrs Citshane clarified the “traditional way” by saying:

“When I teach reading I make sure that I read for the learners so that they can hear how I pronounce words, that time they are also reading in their readers, I write down the difficult words on the chalkboard so that after reading we discuss the words. I then ask learners to read in groups” After they have read I ask questions based on the story they have read”

Mrs Citshane’s sentiments were also echoed by Mrs Jalamba who also said:

“The easy way to teach these children is to focus on words, because there is no point of moving further without establishing a solid foundation with their vocabulary, so for me I read and they follow me sometimes, or they choose difficult words and we write them on the chalkboard”

Miss Fakade stated that she first teaches new words so that learners can understand the text, because according to her:

“there is no point of expecting learners to understand the text without first understanding the words in the text”

Miss Fakade explained by saying:

“Yes I spend much time focusing on vocabulary, as a results there is limited time to focus on other aspects of reading like comprehension; otherwise this is working, because when children understand the vocabulary they are able to read fluently and they can understand the text, but it takes time”

Mrs Citshane responded by saying:

“When you do your best in teaching these children vocabulary you are helping them to read with understanding, this needs time ke bhuti. You have to be patient, give learners’ time, do not move fast. Learners differ, there are those who quickly learn and they can read quicker, there are those who struggle, then I have to spend time with them”

Despite the above sentiments by Miss Fakade, Mrs Citshane and Mrs Jalamba, the other three (3) participants had different ways of teaching reading comprehension. For instance, Mr Mkhont’ubomvu said:

“Mna I have a time allocated for free reading every day, it has become a tradition in my class. I know it may not be on the school plan, but I think the more time spent on giving children time to read, the more we develop their reading skills.”

Mr Mkhont’ubomvu clarified that during this reading time he gives learners different choices of books to read, they read independently and silently. Learners are encouraged to ask him questions as they read. He also explained that he expects learners to re-tell the story they read, either to the whole class or to a group of learners. He said:

“I emphasise a need for them to read with understanding because I expect them to market their stories to each other by retelling the story”

When Mr Mkhont’ubomvu was probed further on how does he teach learners to read with understanding, he explained by saying

“During the first term I make sure that I spend time teaching learners pre-reading strategies, like predictions using title of the book/ story or book cover or sometimes pictures. These activities assist in laying a foundation, so that when they read they link what they read with their predictions.

He explained that this strategy helps him because learners are able to also use their own background knowledge to focus their reading. As much as he said this is working, he also lamented that:

“some of the learners ke bhuti they just do predictions and end there, they struggle to read simple words in IsiXhosa, they enjoy discussing pictures and do guessing ,

but when you ask them to read dololo! What makes it worse is to find that even with pictures that they see, they tell you something way out of the context of the story. I think that's my main problem, honestly I do not know what to do"

Miss Mkhabela also echoed Mr Mkhont'ubomvu's strategy of teaching reading comprehension. She explained it by saying:

"When we were trained in the University we were encouraged to promote free reading, where learners choose their own books, more than teaching them how to read I facilitate by guiding them so that when they read they have a focus. For instance, we do pre-reading, during reading and post reading."

Similar to Mr Mkhont'ubomvu, Miss Mkhabela believes that learners should be encouraged to read books of their choices; however, she suggests that learners should be guided. She reported that during pre-reading, she encourages learners to predict what may be contained in the story. Miss Mkhabela reported that this allows her to set a purpose for reading the story. She said:

"if we create an interesting environment for reading, encourage learners to enjoy reading by having a purpose, we will achieve the development of reading, kaloku bhuti if learners read because of marks or because they want our approval they will not enjoy reading"

On the other hand, Mrs Tenza highlighted the importance of learners reading for a purpose and that purpose should be to get "message out of the text". She made an example with her during her school days, saying:

"You know during my school days we did poems in Afrikaans, comprehensions in Afrikaans, I was even selected in Matric to represent my school in Afrikaans orals, but I cannot speak Afrikaans up to this day. I only passed because I had to match the questions with similar words in the text, there was no understanding needed, there was no purpose at all"

Mrs Tenza further explained that she first creates a free environment for learners to read. She clarified by saying:

"first and foremost as a teacher I make sure that I read, I tell stories, so motivate my learners. There is no use in telling learners to read, yet, you do not read yourself. I encourage debates and discussions after every reading session. I do not want

learners to see reading as a waste of time, or a strategy to keep them busy. I want them to take reading serious”.

When asked what does she do to teach learners comprehension, she responded by saying:

“I first do pre-reading activities, it is during these activities that I identify learners’ prior-knowledge relevant for the story. I use that as a foundation, I guide them when they read. During reading time I ask questions, just to encourage them.”

One common thing about the three participants’ responses (Mr Mkhont’ubomvu, Mrs Tenza and Miss Mkhabela) is the need to do pre-reading activities. According to them, this allows to set a purpose for reading. The participants reported that this strategy helps with reading comprehension. However, the participants could not explain their role explicitly during free reading. For instance, the participants only said they guide learners by setting a purpose for reading.

Additionally, participants reported that they use pre-reading activities to establish a purpose that learners use during reading. However, the participants are silent on what they do after reading. However, participants reported that they do not have time to focus specifically to learners who are struggling with reading comprehension. This is despite the participants acknowledging that there are learners who are struggling with reading comprehension. For instance, Mr Mkhont’ubomvu said:

“Hayi ke I do not want to talk about struggling learners, you will find that a quarter of your class is made up of learners who cannot read or write. I do everything in my power to assist them, but honestly I do not penetrate. Personally I think they should not be in grade 3”

Echoing Mr Mkhont’ubomvu’s sentiments, Mrs Tenza expressed herself by saying:

“yhoo! asikwazi ukujika amatye abezizonka (we cannot change stones into bread) learners who were having reading and writing problems from Grade R we are now expected to improve their reading and writing skills, we cannot, we do not have time for that”

Similarly, Miss Mkhabela said:

“I do try sometimes to give them books from lower grades, but it does not work tu (at all), I feel like wasting my time and other learners’ time. I use to call parents to ask for their assistance at home, but the same parents would tell me that their children can read perfectly at home, now I am a liar. It becomes worse because

some of the parents would tell you that you are the one with a problem because the previous teachers did not complain about the reading and writing problem”

The researcher asked participants their understanding of lesson planning for IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons. All the participants responded that they understand the importance of planning whenever a teacher has to present a lesson. However, when the researcher asked if they do plan for reading comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language, they gave different responses. For instance, Mrs Jalamba said:

“Hayi it’s difficult to plan specifically for reading comprehension; sometimes as you teach phonics or anything you use a passage so that your learners can read. You will notice that these days preferred subjects are English and Mathematics, that’s where too much planning has to be done.

When the researcher asked how does English and Mathematics relate to the planning and teaching of IsiXhosa HL, the participants said:

“If you have heard there are schools that are closed because of the number of learners, so, to market the school, we have to focus on English and Mathematics because parents want their children to speak, read and write English and also they always hear about the importance of Mathematics. Therefore, as schools we focus on those two subjects.

When probed further on why she thinks it is difficult to plan for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language, she reported that she gets confused by the CAPS and NECT programmes. She explained by saying:

“I get confused bhuti, CAPS is saying something else, and this new NECT is saying something else. Practically, kunzima ukufundisa isiXhosa ulandele indlela kaCAPS noNECT. I end up not knowing what is needed of me. When we attend these workshops, we end up getting more confused. I choose to use my own experience and observation. You know these children do not speak IsiXhosa properly even at home, they mix IsiXhosa and English, so I have to teach IsiXhosa to make up for that”

When asked to explain exactly what is confusing in the CAPS and NECT programmes, she explained and said:

“CAPS and NECT babhabha phaya phezulu, abantwana babashiyile, they are both at a higher level than our learners, I know my learners, for instance in NECT they give you things to do on a specific day, without considering the fact that our context are different. Mna I have to teach vocabulary, fluency, then comprehension skills in one lesson, something which is not accommodated in these documents,

ungumXhosa uyayazi izandi zesiXhosa zahlukile kwezinye, awunakuzifundisa i15 minutes ube ugqibile.

The researcher asked how she plans for reading comprehension. She reported that she has no written lesson plan for reading comprehension, but she “integrates” it when she is teaching other components of reading. The sentiments of Mrs Jalamba about not having lesson plans specifically for reading comprehension were also echoed by Miss Citshane who said:

“I know I have to plan for reading comprehension, but to be honest with you, I do not have lesson plans for reading comprehension. Yes, I have lesson plans on reading general, but not for what you are saying.”

However, Miss Citshane's reasons for not having lesson plans specifically for reading comprehension, she explained by saying:

“I think bhuti I did not see a need to have lesson plans specifically for reading comprehension, I guess I did not give it a thought, I just taught it from the heart. I do have my planning book, I do write that I will teach comprehension, but I do not give as much details as I would do for mathematics, umntwana angafunda kanjani engazazi izandi?”

Whereas Mrs Tenza reported that she plans all her lessons even for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. When Mrs Tenza was asked how she plans for reading comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language, she reported by saying:

“My Head of Department encourages us to use NECT, and for me that is working. For instance, NECT has everything, there are even activities that you can do. I just copy what is in NECT and try to modify it for my context. Yes, sometimes I do not follow it exactly because learners may be struggling with a particular concept. I am using NECT bhuti, it made my work easier.

Theme 3: Assessing reading comprehension

All the six (6) participants reported that they assess learners' reading comprehension. However, responses from the participants revealed different reasons for assessing learners. The reasons are presented as sub-themes, as follows:

Compliance with assessment requirements

Four (4) participants reported that they assess reading comprehension so that they meet School Based Assessment (SBA) requirements. Mrs Jalamba reported this by saying:

"We are required to assess certain amounts of tasks for SBA, and in those tasks there is a component of comprehension. Sometimes because of lack of time, we end up using continuous assessment tasks to meet the requirements. SA-SAMS is demanding too much, so we follow the guidelines"

When probed further to explain how the assessment for SBA is different from other assessments that teachers have to do, Mrs Jalamba explained:

"Sometimes you would feel that learners are not ready for a particular task, but because you have to cover the assessment plan, you have to assess them. Kaloku when the HOD and subject advisors come and find that you are behind, you have to explain"

Echoing Mrs Jalamba's sentiments, Mrs Citshane said:

"I have been teaching for years, we used to assess after establishing that learners have understood the content. But, these days we are rushed by the SA-SAMS and the SBA, behind you there is a syllabus coverage report that you have to submit. There is too much these days. Personally, I just give learners tasks so that they appear in their books when evidence is needed"

When Mrs Citshane was asked how the above sentiments make her feel, she said:

"Bhuti ayindivuyisi tu, it does not make me happy at all, this rush is causing confusion, we are just assessing so that we are not labelled as lazy. Sometimes you feel pained because some of the learners struggle with the concept, but you have to assess anyway. Kaloku in week so and so, you should have covered a particular session."

In the same context, Miss Fakade reported that she has a problem with the SBA requirements. She said:

"Our hands are tied mntakabawo, we are forced to comply, or else we will be seen as inactive. It's like our work is measured on the number of topics covered, evidenced by the number of assessment you did with your learners"

When Miss Fakade was asked to explain what she means by "hands are tied", she said:

"I love teaching bhuti, I do not want to move forward leaving my learners behind, but this system does not open such opportunities. It is not nice to always report that you are not done with a particular topic that has to be taught in a particular week. Sometimes you may be seen as a lazy person, yet, you know you delayed because you wanted to take along your learners with you"

Mrs Jalamba explained her concern by saying:

“ my concern mna bhuti is the compromising of the quality of education. I am sitting in a classroom with more than 10 learners that I know were not supposed to be in Grade 3. I know as I prepare my tasks knowing very well that no matter what I do, these learners are expected to progress to Grade 4.

Expanding from her response, Mrs Jalamba stated that the marks entered for SBA affect learners' progression to another grade or phase. The participants' responses demonstrated that the teachers have no programme of assessment of their own as teachers. This may signify lack of innovation because they depend on prescribed assessments programme from SBA/ CAPS aligned. As a result, participants did not talk about their own strategies to assess different learners in the classroom, except giving lower grade's work.

Type of learners

The participants in this study reported that in their classrooms, they have learners who have progressed to Grade 3 without first mastering grade 1 and Grade 2 work. All the participants (six), reported that they struggle with assessment tasks because they have to also have an assessment designed for the progressed learners. One of the participants, Miss Fakade said:

“It's a challenge to assess three different groups in one classroom. Kaloku here I have learners who are struggling with phonics work from Grade 1, I have those who struggle with decoding words as they read, then I have those who can read fluently. I have to assess all those learners. Where is the time to do that?”

Echoing Miss Fakade's sentiments, Mr Mkhont'ubomvu reported that he is still struggling with “actually differentiating” assessment to accommodate *progressed* learners in his classroom. He stated:

“Yhoo! ha.a! my brother, it's difficult to assess different groups in one classroom. Learners' books are moderated monthly, even though the SMT knows that you have learners who were progressed because of age or because they do not have to repeat a phase for more than two times. Funny enough people expect you to assess those learners as if they are at the same level with others. I have to try my best, but I am not in Grade 1 here, I am not in Grade 2, I cannot do previous grades work.”

The participants' responses demonstrated a challenge with regards to differentiating their assessment to meet diverse learners in their classrooms. Notably, the teachers' reasons for not differentiating assessment is based on their attitude towards learners who have progressed to Grade 3 without mastering previous grades work. In South Africa, progression, is defined as the advancement of a learner from one grade to the next (excluding grade R), despite the learner not having complied with all promotion requirements (Department of Basic Education, 2012). It emerged from the teachers' responses that the teachers are against grade progression policy. Similarly, data collected demonstrated that the teachers do not understand the policy clearly, especially on the supporting of progressed learners. The teachers see this grade progression as a burden to them as they are expected to teach and assess previous grades' work.

Questioning in the assessment

The participants were asked to explain their assessment whether it assesses literal comprehension skills, reorganisation comprehension skills, inferential comprehension skills, evaluation skills and appreciation skills. Firstly, the researcher had to explain what is meant by these terms, because the participants needed clarity. The researcher referred to the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement IsiXhosa HL in clarifying the concepts. All the participants reported that they assess literal comprehension and reorganisation skills. However, two of the participants who the youngest from the participants reported that they also assess inferential and evaluation comprehension skills. When probed why the others focus on literal comprehension and reorganisation comprehension skills, one participant Mrs Fakade said:

"These children do not want to think, when you want them to think, they do not finish writing, they take time, even when you ask them to respond orally they take too much time to think. We do not have the whole day teaching one subject"

Echoing Mrs Fakade's sentiments, Mrs Jalamba said:

"Awunakugqiba ukufundisa (you will never finish teaching) if you wait for these learners to finish writing. They take too much time to write a simple answer, and it becomes too much when you ask them to give reasons or justify their answers. These kids do not want to think, they are so lazy".

Whereas, Mrs Citshane said:

“I try to vary the questions, but majority of my questions have to be simple, it becomes a challenge when you assess them after a lesson in the classroom. It is better when you give them the task as a homework, then at least they have much time to think at home, here you move from one subject to the next, there is no luxury of time”.

The participants raised the issue of time as a reason that motivate them to give learners low-level questions. The participants reported that learners take too much time to respond to high order questions that demand them to think. The participants' responses demonstrated that the teachers have no programme of assessment of their own as teachers. This may signify lack of innovativeness because they depend on prescribed assessments programme from SBA/ CAPS aligned. As a result, participants did not talk about their own strategies to assess the different learners in the classroom, except giving a lower grade's work.

5.4 Discussion of the themes

The six participants interviewed reported that they do not have a problem with teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. However, they reported that they spend much of their time teaching phonics, vocabulary and reading fluency. The participants allege that due to high numbers of learners who have progressed to Grade 3 without mastering previous grades' work, they have to spend time filling the gaps. The participants reported that they do not have a problem with teaching reading comprehension.

All the participants in the qualitative phase were concerned about how CAPS IsiXhosa HL is designed. They complained that CAPS IsiXhosa HL does not consider the time that has to be spent teaching IsiXhosa phonics and IsiXhosa vocabulary to learners. Experienced (10 years or more in teaching) participants in the study reported that they prefer to use old sources and resources that they used before CAPS. The participants complained that CAPS is moving fast, resulting in some learners being left behind. However, the participants reported that because they are expected to comply with the School Based Assessment, they teach using CAPS. The participants further reported that they “sometimes” use NECT lesson plans. Participants agree that NECT is “simple and clear”.

However, four of the participants feel that NECT does not address the issues related to IsiXhosa as a language. The participants feel that CAPS and NECT do not specify how reading comprehension should be taught in a context of IsiXhosa HL.

All the participants (6) agree on modelling reading for learners. They reported that this is one of the strategies they use. The participants reported that they do shared reading and group guided reading wherein they model reading skills. The participants complained that in some instances, they end up deviating from their plans and spending time modelling phonics. All participants reported that modelling reading skills assists learners to imitate the teachers. However, they reported that sometimes, learners are just imitating without understanding the text. The participants reported that they do not have enough time to scaffold reading comprehension skills to learners and argued that it is not easy to scaffold reading comprehension skills when one has a large classroom.

All participants reported that they do differentiate their content when teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension but could not explain how they differentiate the content. Instead, they reported that they try to accommodate the group of learners who have progressed by grouping them and teaching them simple content.

All the participants reported that they assess reading comprehension. However, it emerged from the participants' responses that the focus is on assessing literal and reorganisation comprehension skills. The participants reported that learners struggle with inferential, evaluation and appreciation comprehension skills and that they are being put under pressure by the SBA requirements. All the participants complained that the issue of learner progression and promotion affects their assessments.

The participants stated that the marks entered for SBA affect learners' progression or promotion to another grade or phase. The participants' responses demonstrated that the teachers have no programme of assessment of their own as teachers. This may signify lack of innovativeness because they depend on prescribed assessments programme from SBA/ CAPS aligned. As a result, the participants did not talk about their own strategies to assess the different learners in the classroom, except giving lower grade's work. Yet, literature reveals that assessment and learning are inextricably intertwined, as assessment

determines whether learning is taking place, what learning took place and what learning still needs to take place (Dryer, 2014). Furthermore, assessment provides immediate feedback for teachers to shape their teaching practices according to the learning styles of their students (Tosuncuoglu, 2018).

Based on the participants' responses it can be seen that the teachers' efficacy is affected by the variables like prescribed curriculum (CAPS) and the learner progression policy. These two variables emerged as strong hindrances in effectively teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. There is nothing from the responses that suggest that teachers are not willing to teach reading comprehension. However, the methodology to teach reading comprehension seem not to be clear on the teachers. Furthermore, the prescribed curriculum seemed not to address the "IsiXhosaness" of IsiXhosa HL. That means, the curriculum does not accommodate the teaching of IsiXhosa holistically.

The researcher does not dispute that once people have the confidence in themselves to produce the desired outcomes, they will have the motive and incentive to perform the action (Burnett, Xu & Kennedy (2010). However, data presented above show that teacher self-efficacy cannot be effective in isolation from other variables. Yes, literature points out that self-efficacy is a crucial factor determining how capable individuals think they are in terms of dealing with particular types of tasks (Maddux & Volkmann, 2010). That means in the context of this study, the teachers think they are capable of teaching IsiXhosa HL. However, the reality of the context on the ground is the confusion created by other variables affect their teaching. Literature has shown that teachers with high personal teaching efficacy tend to be more organized, keep students on task and possess greater skills in instruction, questioning, explaining, and offering feedback (Mojavezi & Tamiz, 2012).

However, the researcher thinks these can be realised in an ideal context, where teachers have a transparent curriculum and possess pedagogical content knowledge relevant for the subject. Teachers' perceptions of their level of knowledge, skills and experience have an important role in overcoming difficult situations effectively during their professional life (Sarfo, Amankwah, Sam & Konin, 2014).

If teachers are confused and have a negative attitude towards the curriculum that they have to teach, their self- efficacy may be affected. The teachers' complaint about learners who have progressed may imply that the teachers have low teacher self-efficacy. Corkett and Benevides (2011) reveal that teachers with low teacher's self-efficacy are more critical of struggling learners, spend less time assisting those who do not understand, and refer more students for special education services than teachers who have a high sense of teaching efficacy. These sentiments could be relevant in the context of this study, based on the teachers' responses.

However, the researcher believes that it cannot be concluded that the teachers in this study have low teacher's self-efficacy, because the researcher has not looked in-depth the effect of the other variables highlighted by the teachers. Berg and Smith (2016, p.8) note that teachers with high teacher self-efficacy beliefs have been found to be more committed; enthusiastic about teaching; more likely to continue to work as a teacher; tenacious; resilient, and more understanding of less successful students; more likely to trial pioneering methods and innovative ideas. The participants in this study demonstrated lack of enthusiasm about teaching; they are not understanding of less successful learners and lack innovative ideas. However, the researcher still believes teachers' self-efficacy cannot be viewed in isolation from the context of the participants. The teachers reported their desire to effectively teach reading comprehension. As literature points out, an individual with a high sense of teacher self-efficacy is more inclined to create a dynamic, student-centered learning environment in which students take ownership of their learning, (Swan, Wofl & Cano, 2011). However, the fact that the participants seem to be confined to implement a curriculum that does not talk to the realities of the language leave them discouraged.

All six participants were concerned that they do not have time to focus in teaching IsiXhosa vocabulary because of the curriculum requirements. The participants reported that because they have to submit "syllabus coverage report" to the Head of Department (HOD), they have to jump and focus on compliance tools. The issue of teaching just to comply may

create problems with the outcome. All six participants reported that the prescribed curriculum does not address IsiXhosa lexis.

Groux (2015) points out that lexis is pivotal in language learning and development, especially in its relationship with reading as the skill that grants access to knowledge. The researcher believes that each language is unique as it has to be taught in its uniqueness. That means the teaching of each language has to accommodate what makes each language to be a language. Literature points out that vocabulary knowledge is key to successful text comprehension (Silva & Cain, 2015). That means teachers who feel that learners should have vocabulary knowledge are missing the point of teaching reading comprehension. However, from the same participants there is a concern about the time spent teaching vocabulary instead of reading comprehension in Grade 3. This is not a new concern as Kigel, McElvany and Becker (2011) contend that in Grade 3, learners should have mastered decoding skills and the focus should be put on vocabulary knowledge and text comprehension.

One of the aspects highlighted by participants as fundamental in teaching reading comprehension is to create a motivating environment for reading. Some of the participants even clarified by stating that they create a free environment, where learners are not reading for marks or to get the teacher's approval, but they are motivated to read independently. Slavin (2013) posits that motivation is the drive and desire that activate the organism for a purpose, give energy needed to maintain this activity and determine the direction of the activity. It emerged from the participants' responses that learners who are motivated to read do that proficiently. Furthermore, participants highlight reading for enjoyment as motivating learners. This is also revealed by Kuşdemir and Bulut (2018) who assert that sources of intrinsic motivation include positive experiences regarding reading, getting pleasure from reading, personal importance of reading. However, participants are silent on how they motivate learners. Similarly, participants seem not to use the scaffolding method as they teach reading comprehension. Nevertheless, Huggins and Edwards (2011) posit that scaffolding is important when teaching reading comprehension. Similarly, Salem

(2017) contends that well-constructed scaffolds optimize student learning, provide a supportive environment as well as facilitating student independence.

Similarly, from the responses given by the participants it emerged that teachers who have been teaching for more than 20 years it is not easy to change the strategies they used before the introduction of CAPS. The participants' view about IsiXhosa Home Language CAPS document is similar to the concern raised by other scholars. For instance, Bikitsha and Katz (2013) contend that indigenous language curriculum documents are often translated directly from English and therefore reflect English teaching concerns. According to the participants the focus should be on the teaching of phonics so that learners can be able to read fluently and therefore comprehend the text. This seems to be consistent with the assertion brought forward by Invernizzi and Hayes (2010) when contending that rapid and effortless word recognition is a major component of fluent reading.

5.6. Summary

This chapter has presented qualitative data findings thematically , analysed the data and has discussed the themes. The following chapter discusses the quantitative and qualitative data findings. Furthermore, the chapter gives recommendations .

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6. Introduction

In the previous chapter, findings from the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study were presented and analysed. This chapter builds upon the findings presented in Chapter 4. It starts with an introduction that restates the purpose of the research and the research questions that accompany it. What follows is a detailed discussion of how quantitative and qualitative data was integrated followed by discussion of the themes that guided the analysis. Conclusions and recommendations arising from the research are then presented.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy in their teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. As literature posit that teachers' self-efficacy is the set of beliefs a teacher holds regarding his or her abilities and competencies to teach and influence student behaviour and achievement, regardless of outside influences or obstacles (Steele, 2010). The study sought to respond to the following research questions.

Main Research Question:

To what extent does the Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy influence their teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?

Sub-research questions:

1. How does the teacher's self-efficacy influence the planning of reading comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language?
2. To what extent do the teachers' self-efficacy influence reading comprehension instructional strategies in IsiXhosa Home Language?

3. To what extent can the teacher's self-efficacy influence assessment strategies of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language?

4. What recommendations can be advanced towards mother-tongue based teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension?

The study followed a mixed methods approach within the pragmatic research paradigm. In the following sections, mixed data integration is further elucidated, followed by analysis and discussion of the outcomes of the research that address each of the questions. In this chapter, recommendations are made about a mother-tongue based teaching model for IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension.

6.1. Discussion of findings

Quantitative and qualitative data revealed that the teachers have confidence in themselves in planning and implementing IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. However, qualitative phase of the study revealed that the participants are having a challenge with planning their lessons using CAPS document and NECT documents. The data showed that the teachers may have high sense of self-efficacy, but there are other variables like type of learners in their classrooms, class sizes, and curriculum that may affect their planning. Furthermore, the findings reveal that the teachers are unhappy with the prescribed curriculum (CAPS). The teachers claim that they struggle to use CAPS because the document does not cover the in-depth teaching of IsiXhosa Language.

Malinene, Savolainen, Englbrecht, Xu, Nel, Nel and Tlale (2013) contend that teachers may feel efficacious about teaching certain subjects to certain students in certain settings, while perceiving themselves as less efficacious under different circumstances. This assertion was also revealed by both quantitative and qualitative data in this study. Wydeman (2015) asserts that thorough planning promotes learning because it takes into account the diverse backgrounds, interests and abilities of learners in class. The participants in the qualitative phase reported similar sentiments as stated by Wydeman (2015). That means teacher self-efficacy should not be singled out as influencing IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension lessons. The context, learners' background, learners' abilities

in the classroom should also be considered. This is despite evidence that teacher self-efficacy belief has been proven to be the powerful weapon to achieve desirable goals in the classroom (Mazlum, Cheragi & Dasta, 2015). The findings of the study suggest that the uniqueness of each language affects how the language is to be taught. Gay (2013) notes that a culturally responsive approach to teaching connects students' experiences in and out of the school, supports educational equity and excellence, and empowers students by giving them the skills to effectively negotiate and impact the world around them.

6.2 Implication for Existing Theory, Policies and Practice

This section of the study discusses the implication of the findings of the study for existing theory, policies and its practices for adaptability. The reason for exploring the above facets is that each research is not done in a vacuum, and its value lies in its ability to contribute to knowledge.

6.2.1 Implication for existing theory

The theoretical framework of this study was Social Cognitive Theories. This theory succinctly addressed the critical focus of this study, which was the influence of Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy on the teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. The central issue arising out of the study, as pointed out in the discussion above is that the teachers' self-efficacy is affected by the prescribed curriculum (CAPS) which does not address the indigeneity of IsiXhosa Home Language. As a result, teachers do not effectively teach IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. The study has exposed, through Social Cognitive theory that teacher self-efficacy does not on its own determine effective teaching of IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. However, other variables are significant as they affect teachers' self-efficacy. Thus, the study concludes that Social Cognitive Theory has to be contextualised. For instance, the findings of this study suggest that there is no relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and their planning of IsiXhosa Home Language lessons. However, compliance requirements forces teachers to plan the lessons.

Bandura (2012) contends that self-efficacy influences a) thought patterns, b) emotions, c) goals, d) motivation and e) persistence in the face of adversity. The findings of this study reveal that the teachers think that they are helpless. This is revealed as they think that they cannot do anything about the curriculum which does not address the languageness of IsiXhosa Language. The teachers' thought pattern is affected negatively by the context. This has a negative bearing on the teachers' self efficacy in teaching IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. The teachers thought patterns affect their emotions.

It is revealed in the study that the teachers feel demotivated, despair and unhappy. These feelings affect the teachers' self-efficacy in teaching IsiXhosa HL reading comprehension. The teachers in the study are not happy with the progression of learners without mastering previous grades' work. The teachers feel demotivated as they have to focus on teaching the content at grade level and also differentiate the content to meet progressed learners' levels. The teachers are demotivated because they feel that the department of education is not giving them enough support to deal with the challenges they face in dealing with the teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa HL. This demotivation affects the teachers self-efficacy in teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa HL. This can also affect the teachers goals.

The prescribed curriculum sets out the goals. In the context of this study CAPS IsiXhosa Home Language Foundation Phase is the prescribed curriculum. Teachers have to align their own goals with the goals of the curriculum. However, in this study the findings reveal that the teachers do not support the prescribed curriculum . This can negatively affect the achievement of the goals. The teachers in the study have reported that they would want to teach learners differently from what is prescribed in the curriculum. This implies that the teachers have their goals and they believe that those goals may help teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa HL effectively. Additionally, the teachers find it difficult to align their goals with the curriculum that they do not support. As a results, the study reveal that the teachers are only complying with the curriculum as they do not own it. The teachers' self-efficacy in achieving the goals is affected by the misalignment of the curriculum and

the context of learners. The teachers perseverance seems to be found to be strong despite the challenges they encounter.

The findings of the study show that the teachers are perseverant in an adverse situation. The teachers despite having a curriculum that does not give them freedom to be innovative, they still wake up and go to work. There may be different reasons why the teachers still want to go to work. However, their persistence in the face of adversity shows that the teachers are confident of their capability to teach. The teachers complain about the curriculum, progressed learners and the classroom contexts. However, the teachers feel that they can effectively teach reading comprehension if the prescribed curriculum is changed to address the indigeneity or the languageness of IsiXhosa. The study has teachers who are approaching sixty years of age, however, these teachers still feel that they can contribute in the development of reading comprehension skills.

In light of the above it can be deduced that Bandura's theory has to be viewed in context. There are various factors that contribute to the teachers' self- efficacy. Hence, the teachers' self- efficacy should not be detached from the realities of the context. It cannot be generally agreed that the teachers' self-efficacy is high or low without first establishing the status of the material conditions in context. The results of the study could have been different if the researcher did not employ a mixed methods approach. The interviews conducted gave a different picture from the one given by the responses in the questionnaires. For instance, data from the interviews were able to reveal the importance of the context. Thus the study concludes that social cognitive theory is appropriate, however, the theory has to be contextualised.

6.2.2 Implication for Existing Policies

The challenge of most South African schools post-1994, in the democratization of education, is that even though the constitution and other regulatory documents (e.g. White Papers, CAPS) advocated for equal access to education for all, in practice, such access is

limited by inadequate guidance, support and operationalization. In terms of the current study, for example, skills development for teachers of IsiXhosa HL and their self-efficacy is frustrated by lack of succinct clarity on the teaching of IsiXhosa HL using language-specific model, instead of back-translating other mother-tongue models. The constitution of the Republic of South Africa recognises and gives value to the 11 official languages; however, those languages do not receive equal acknowledgement. There are still dominant languages that influence the teaching of African languages that were marginalised.

6.2.3. Implication for Practice

The study establishes that the teachers' self-efficacy is affected by other significant variables like CAPS; it found that teachers teach IsiXhosa HL using models that are not IsiXhosa language specific. As a result, the teachers teach IsiXhosa HL for compliance. It is then vital that in practice, IsiXhosa HL teachers be trained, monitored and supported by specialists in IsiXhosa Language to promote effective teaching of IsiXhosa HL.

6.3 Recommendations

Based on the findings, analysis and conclusions of the study, the following recommendations were made:

6.3.1 Recommendation 1: A newly developed framework of IsiXhosa Home Language focusing on orthography characteristics

A model of IsiXhosa Home Language needs to be developed to recognize its uniqueness in terms of orthography characteristics. This recommendation is based on the finding that the teachers identified modelling reading comprehension as one of the strategies that they use when teaching reading comprehension. However, they complained about the learners who have not mastered phonics and phonemic awareness in previous grades. Therefore, teachers have to spend much time focusing on teaching phonics instead of focusing on reading. There has to be a clear framework for teaching IsiXhosa Home Language, addressing the *languageness* of IsiXhosa. This will help avoid IsiXhosa language extinction.

6.3.2 Recommendations 2: Decolonising CAPS to be IsiXhosa language-specific and not a mere translation from English

The current curriculum (CAPS IsiXhosa HL) in its present form has to be reviewed to promote mother-tongue based teaching of Home Language. This recommendation is based on the findings that the teachers are not satisfied with how the curriculum (CAPS IsiXhosa HL Foundation Phase) is packaged. They complain that the curriculum is fast and not tailored to teach language-specific orthographic characteristics. The teachers feel that the languageness of IsiXhosa is fading because of the direct translation. As a result, teachers feel that they just follow CAPS and NECT for compliance purposes, in planning, teaching and assessment. The curriculum has to preserve languages, not destroy them. Hence, the curriculum has to be designed so that the language does not lose its indigeneity and its *languageness*.

6.3.3 Recommendation 3: Content support from Subject advisors

Subject advisors should monitor and support, in a context-based manner, teaching and learning of IsiXhosa HL. It would be more beneficial if such subject advisors are specialists in the said language, which in the case of this study is IsiXhosa. It is expected that regular visits to school would be beneficial to teachers of IsiXhosa HL; through guidance from subject advisors, schools would be able to maintain the expected standards for effective learning to take place. The regular visits should not only be on monitoring alone, supporting teachers is very much fundamental. Monitoring may force teachers to fill in the monitoring tools without actually doing the work.

6.3.4 Recommendation 4: Decolonising curriculum support for teachers of IsiXhosa HL

In addition to subject advisors, curriculum planners need to assist IsiXhosa Home Language teachers in teaching IsiXhosa Home Language using appropriate IsiXhosa language teaching methods. No language should dictate how IsiXhosa language should be taught. The reading components (phonemic awareness; phonics; vocabulary; fluency and comprehension) should be explicitly taught, so the curriculum has to give equal value

to the teaching of each of the components.

6.3.5 Recommendation 5: Consistent and accountable teacher skills development

In order to achieve what has been recommended above, through subject advisors and curriculum planners, the government should allocate more funds to train teachers to be equipped with the necessary skills to accommodate a combination of learners with different learning capabilities in the IsiXhosa Home Language. Continuous monitoring of such skills development for IsiXhosa HL teachers would have to be done at school level by the government in order to determine quality and value of such training and how they contribute to teaching and learning. Furthermore, teacher-training institutions should prepare FP pre-service teachers to effectively teach IsiXhosa HL. Such accountable skilling can improve teachers' self-efficacy to teach reading-comprehension in IsiXhosa.

6.4 Recommendations for further studies

More research should be conducted to further ascertain implications of using Western models in teaching indigenous languages in South Africa. Several studies have been conducted on teaching reading comprehension in many countries. Some of the studies focused on components of reading comprehension, like vocabulary. One study that focused on vocabulary is that of Kintsch and Mangalath (2011). This study was qualitative in nature and conducted in a different context from the Eastern Cape; it focused on a different language from IsiXhosa Home Language. Another study by Kuşdemir and Bulut (2018) investigated the relationship between elementary school students' reading comprehension and reading motivation. The study was conducted in Turkey, using qualitative methods.

Additionally, in South Africa, Klapwijk (2011) conducted a mixed methods study that proposed a reading strategy instruction framework for all teachers. The studies referred to in this section are a few of a number of studies that were conducted on reading comprehension. Some studies were conducted locally and others abroad. The researcher

notes that the studies conducted did not focus on the influence of teachers' self-efficacy in the teaching of reading comprehension, especially IsiXhosa Home Language in Grade 3. Some of the studies were either qualitative or quantitative in nature. Hence, in this study, the researcher adopted a mixed methods approach. There is a need to further investigate a suitable framework that can be used to effectively teach IsiXhosa Home Language and recognizing its languageness.

In light of the above recommendations, the study specifically calls for the training of IsiXhosa HL teachers. The teachers who are teaching IsiXhosa HL were trained to teach using English language methods. It should not be assumed that since a person is an umXhosa and can speak isiXhosa fluently can teach IsiXhosa. IsiXhosa HL Foundation Phase pre-service teachers should graduate having IsiXhosa HL Pedagogical Content-Knowledge. In preserving the languageness and indigeneity of the language, pedagogy has to be decolonized. Hence, it is important that in-service teachers are also re-skilled. Continuous teacher development programmes should be designed to also include language, especially indigenous languages. It is the responsibility of teacher training institutions to contextualize their training to suit effective teaching of indigenous languages. It is also the responsibility of IsiXhosa language academics to develop the language through their writing and contributions. Research on IsiXhosa, production of IsiXhosa language materials and the teaching of IsiXhosa should be given priority by academics. Early Childhood Development and Foundation Phase are the appropriate levels wherein the language can be developed. Children's love for the language can be stimulated early. Children cannot love the language if the teachers themselves do not possess relevant pedagogical content-knowledge. This should not end there, training , monitoring and support should be an ongoing process. Hence, the department of education should be more active.

The department of education should offer appropriate monitoring and support to the educators. In the absence of support, the teachers feel despair, they feel demotivated, they feel helpless. As a result the teachers do their work only to comply with the department of

education. Yet, if the department was doing more than monitoring through paper work, the gaps could have been identified earlier. It seems the department officials rely on the report given by the teachers. However, it is important that the subject advisors continuously update their knowledge so that they properly monitor and support educators. Hence, the subject advisors have to be also experts in the language. This cannot be possible if there is no relevant curriculum.

The country's curriculum has to be relevant to the country's needs. Development of indigenous language should be seen as a need, and as such a priority. Hence, the development of the language curriculum has to unearth the languageness of each language. No language has to dictate how the other language has to be taught. Languages are unique, languages are peculiar, and therefore, they should be respected as such. IsiXhosa language curriculum development without full participation of the language experts is doomed to create more confusion. Academic scholars, indigenous experts of the language should actively participate in the development of the language. Curriculum developed specifically for IsiXhosa Language should also address the notional hours to be spent teaching a particular concept. For instance, there are sounds that cannot be taught for fifteen minutes. The teaching of the reading components in IsiXhosa language cannot be done the same as in English language. Curriculum that is relevant and appropriate for IsiXhosa HL should influence the choice of learning and teaching materials.

Learning and teaching material is usually aligned with the curriculum of the day. The books that children read are important. It is important to contextualise the stories that children read. If the curriculum addresses the languageness and the indigeneity of the language, the language and teaching materials will also do the same. The stories read by children may not be relevant to them. Hence, it is important that the curriculum be reviewed. IsiXhosa cultural voice in the children's texts may be silent. Yet, language and culture are intertwined. The idioms found in texts may be missing because they are not seen as important. The texts that children read may miss *izafobe* , *izangotshe*, *izaci* and *amaqhalo* that spices up the language . Hence, the call for the review of the curriculum to address

the languageness and indigeneity of IsiXhosa language. IsiXhosa sounds, words, and sentences can only be taught IsiXhosa way.

The teachers feeling of despair, helplessness, and unhappiness may affect their teaching. This may have a negative impact on the product of their teaching. There seems to be no much done with offering teachers with emotional support. There seems to be limited involvement of educational psychologists in schools. Specifically, in supporting teachers. Bandura's theory posit motivation as one of the important components of self-efficacy. Teachers who feel helpless may not have confidence in their teaching. This study has found that the teachers are helpless, unhappy because their innovativeness is limited by the prescribed curriculum. Hence, there is also a need for the involvement of educational psychologists who are supportive and responsive to teachers' needs.

6.5 Conclusions

This study sought to examine the influence of Grade 3 teachers' self-efficacy in teaching IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension. Based on the findings from qualitative and quantitative data collected, this study concludes that the teachers' self-efficacy can be negatively affected by the teaching context. For instance, in this study, the teachers self-efficacy in teaching IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension is affected, amongst others, by the prescribed curriculum that does not address language-specific orthographies. The study further concludes that a language may lose its indigeneity and its *languageness* if in the curriculum, those issues are not addressed. There is no way of claiming that all languages are equal, yet, the uniqueness indigenous languages is ignored. A curriculum that undermine the *languageness* of indigenous languages is slowly driving those languages towards extinction. In preserving indigenous languages in South Africa, the curriculum has to reflect the indigeneity of the languages. No language should dictate how the other language should be taught. The teachers' pedagogical content-knowledge should be developed in such a way that teachers can be effective in their teaching. The study concludes that IsiXhosa Home Language can be effectively taught by educators

trained to teach IsiXhosa Home Language. Each language has its own experts who are supposed to be given space to develop the language and preserve its indigeneity.

Teachers cannot be accused of having low or high teacher self-efficacy when the curriculum does not relate to them. The teachers should own the curriculum, embrace it so that they can implement it. Hence, IsiXhosa Language scholars and experts should be given the freedom to develop a framework specific to IsiXhosa language teaching in the Foundation Phase. The teachers' self-efficacy cannot be viewed in isolation from the prescribed curriculum and other realities revealed in this study. The teaching of IsiXhosa HL to IsiXhosa HL learners should not be compromised. There is an IsiXhosa saying "umthi ugotywa usemtsha" meaning a tree is bent whilst still young. That means, if the language is taught appropriately from early grades, there is a possibility that the language may not fade away. In decolonising education, it is important to decolonise language. In decolonising language, it is important to holistically deal with the content taught to learners in school. IsiXhosa is an independent language; it is autonomous and unique and should be taught as such. Hence, the study recommends an IsiXhosa-sensitive Curriculum and Policy Statement that reflects the indigeneity of IsiXhosa language. Furthermore, the study recommends that there should be a framework appropriate for the effective teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language with its uniqueness.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Grade 3 teacher's self-efficacy in teaching IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension

Grade 3 teacher's self-efficacy in teaching IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension																																																															
Dear Teacher This instrument is designed to measure the influence of your teacher self-efficacy on the teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language. The data is for academic research purpose. Feel free to respond to the items as honestly as possible and be rest assured that your responses will be kept in confidence. PART ONE: Demographic Factors Please answer the following demographic questions by ticking the appropriate answer. Choose the box that is relevant to you. 1. What is your gender? <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Male</td> <td style="width: 30px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Female</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> 2. What is your age? <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;"><25</td> <td style="width: 30px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">25-35</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">36-45</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">46-50</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">>50</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> 3. How would you characterize your school location ? <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Urban</td> <td style="width: 30px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Rural</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Suburb</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> 4. What is your educational level? <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Diploma</td> <td style="width: 30px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Bachelors</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Honours</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Masters</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Doctorate</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> 5. How long have you been teaching? <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;"><1 year</td> <td style="width: 30px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">1-3 years</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">4-6 years</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">7-10 years</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">>10 years</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> 6. What is the level of the school in which you are teaching? <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Junior Primary</td> <td style="width: 30px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">Senior Primary</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> 7. What is the enrolment of the school in which you are teaching? <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;"><200</td> <td style="width: 30px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">200-500</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">501-1000</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">>1000</td> <td></td> </tr> </table> 8. What is your experience in teaching Grade 3 <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;"><1 year</td> <td style="width: 30px;"></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">1-3 years</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">4-6 years</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">7-10 years</td> <td></td> </tr> <tr> <td style="padding: 2px 5px;">>10 years</td> <td></td> </tr> </table>		Male		Female		<25		25-35		36-45		46-50		>50		Urban		Rural		Suburb		Diploma		Bachelors		Honours		Masters		Doctorate		<1 year		1-3 years		4-6 years		7-10 years		>10 years		Junior Primary		Senior Primary		<200		200-500		501-1000		>1000		<1 year		1-3 years		4-6 years		7-10 years		>10 years	
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9. What is your experience in teaching Grade 3

10. What is your class size

IsiXhosa Home Language

<1 year	
1-3 years	
4-6 years	
7-10 years	
>10 years	

<25	
25-35	
36-45	
46-50	
>50	

PART TWO

All answers will be selected from the Likert Scale: (1) Weak, (2) Fair, (3) Good, (4) Excellent. Tick the appropriate box to indicate to what extent can you do the following:

1. Lesson Planning		1	2	3	4
1.1	Planning for IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension lessons				
1.2	Planning IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension lessons using CAPS document.				
1.3	Using other relevant resources to plan reading comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Home Language				
1.4	Planning learner activities that are relevant for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language				
1.5	Sourcing teaching materials and resources relevant for teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language				
1.6	Integrating classroom management in my plan				
1.7	Accommodating learners' diversity in my planning				
1.7	Implementing the plan I did for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language				
1.8	Making time specifically for reading comprehension lessons in IsiXhosa Language				
2. Instructional Strategies		1	2	3	4
2.1	Teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa				
2.2	Providing differentiated instruction strategies to accommodate all my learners				
2.3	Making time to reach to learners with reading comprehension challenges				
2.4	Updating my knowledge of engaging with learners diverse needs in my classroom				
2.5	Having the skills and attitude to motivate all learners.				
2.6	Utilizing the different teaching strategies to identify the learners' cognitive abilities in the classroom.				
2.7	Teaching learners different strategies that they can use for reading comprehension				
2.8	Equipping learners of different abilities with explicit skills appropriate for reading comprehension.				
2.9	Modelling reading comprehension strategies for the learners				
2.10	Scaffolding strategies during reading comprehension lessons				
2.11	Using group guided reading to teach reading comprehension				
2.12	Providing learners an opportunity to practice reading comprehension strategies individually without my guidance				
2.13	Using prescribed texts for Grade 3 reading comprehension lessons				
2.14	Giving homework to learners on reading comprehension				
3. Assessment strategies		1	2	3	4
3.1	Assessing reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home Language				

3.2	Differentiating my assessments to accommodate different learners in my classroom				
3.3	Explaining the purpose of the assessment activity to learners in my classroom based on their learning abilities				
3.4	Assessing learners pre-reading, during and after reading comprehension				
3.5	Assessing literal comprehension skills				
3.6	Assessing reorganization comprehension skills after every reading comprehension lesson				
3.7	Assessing learners' inferential comprehension skills				
3.8	Assessing evaluation comprehension skills				
3.9	Assessing appreciation comprehension skills				
3.10	Identifying areas where learners are experiencing difficulties after assessment				
3.11	Changing my teaching strategies based on assessment results				
3.12	Changing my assessment strategies based on assessment results				
3.13	Using appropriate assessment tools when assessing reading comprehension				
3.14	Ensuring that assessments tasks assess the different abilities of all the learners in the classroom.				
3.15	Designing an improvement plan based on the performance of the learners in a reading comprehension assessment.				
3.16	Reflecting on my lesson after teaching reading comprehension				

Part 3 : Teachers' Self-efficacy towards teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Home language

All answers will be selected from the Likert Scale: (1) Strongly Disagree, (2) Disagree, (3) Agree, (4) Strongly Agree. Tick the appropriate box.

ITEMS		1	2	3	4
1.	Teaching isiXhosa Language is not a problem to me				
2.	I consider myself to be effective in teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language				
3.	Designing a lesson plan for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa is not easy for me				
4.	Using CAPS document to plan for reading comprehension lesson in IsiXhosa is a problem for me				
5.	I have gained much skills to diversify my lesson plans on reading comprehension				
6.	I consider myself having effective classroom management skills relevant for reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language lesson				
7.	I am not able to make time for learners who are struggling during reading comprehension lessons.				
8.	I can use several strategies to teach reading comprehension lesson in IsiXhosa Language				
9.	I do not have time to scaffold learners when teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language				
10.	I have some challenges in teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa				
11.	My experience as a teacher influences positively how I teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language				
12.	I can improve learners' performance in comprehension by teaching them IsiXhosa Language				
13.	Identification , selection and use of instructional material to teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa is a simple process for me				
14.	Diversifying reading comprehension assessment is not a problem				
15.	I am able to assess learners after teaching reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language				

APPENDIX 2: Semi - Interview questions

Semi - Interview questions

1. How do you understand the teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension?
2. Why do you think learners should be taught reading comprehension in isiXhosa Language?
3. How do you teach IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension?
4. How does CAPS help you teach IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension?
5. What challenges do you encounter when teaching reading comprehension?
6. How do you manage the challenges you encounter when teaching reading comprehension?
7. What keeps you motivated to teach reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language?
8. What strategies do you use to vary your teaching to accommodate diverse learners in your classroom?
9. What resources do you use to plan and teach reading comprehension?
10. How do you assess IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension?
11. Why do you assess IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension the way you do?
12. What challenges do you encounter when assessing IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension?
13. What is your view about the teaching of IsiXhosa Home Language reading comprehension?
14. What do you think can be done to promote effective teaching of reading comprehension in IsiXhosa Language in Grade 3?

APPENDIX 3: Ethical Clearance Certificate



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: DUK261SMAK01

Project title: **The influence of grade three teachers' self-efficacy on their teaching of IsiXhosa reading comprehension: Towards and effective teaching framework.**

Nature of Project PhD in Education

Principal Researcher: Sive Makeleni

Supervisor: Prof N.S Duku

Co-supervisor: N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document;
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research.

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: *Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:*

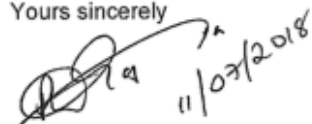
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected;
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented;
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require;
 - The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to.
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office.

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'P. Dineo Gqola', with a date '11/07/2018' written next to it.

Professor Pumla Dineo Gqola
Dean of Research

05 July 2018