

**Exploring the strategies used by educators to teach learners presenting with reading
difficulties**

Submitted by Andile Angelique Mkhize

Student Number: 214514336

**Thesis submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of
Master of Social Science – Educational Psychology**

In the

School of Applied Human Sciences, College of Humanities

December 2022

Supervisor by

Sindiswa Mbali Shezi

Declaration

I, Andile Angelique Mkhize, declare that:

1. The research reported in this dissertation, except where otherwise indicated, is my original work.
2. This dissertation has not been submitted for any examination at any other university.
3. This dissertation does not contain other person's data, pictures, graphs, or other information, unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other persons.
4. This dissertation does not contain another person's writing unless specifically acknowledged as being sourced from other researchers. Where other written sources have been quoted, then:
 - a) Their words have been re-written, but the general information attributed to them has been referenced.
 - b) Where their exact words have been used, their writing has been placed in quotation marks and referenced.
5. This dissertation does not contain text, graphics or tables copied and pasted from the internet, unless specifically acknowledged, and the source detailed in the dissertation and the References sections.

Candidate's signature: _____

Andile Angelique Mkhize

Date signed: _____

22/12/2022

Supervisor's signature: _____

Sindiswa Shezi

Date signed: _____

23/12/2022

Acknowledgment

I thank my Heavenly Father, who guided and strengthened me through his mercy and kindness.

This thesis would not have been successful without the support of the following people:

- ✓ My supervisor, Ms. Sindiswa Shezi, who assisted me and oversaw the execution of this study successfully. I want to thank her sincerely for carefully reading over all of this work and providing appropriate feedback. Her expertise and patience is much appreciated. I am grateful.
- ✓ I am appreciative to my parents, Mr. and Mrs. Mkhize. I cannot express how grateful I am that you guided me through my academic and personal journey. I appreciate you encouraging me to pursue my dreams and enforcing the importance of education.
- ✓ To my fiancé, Ayanda Zama, your constant support and motivation kept me afloat and you have been my safe heaven. You believed in me where I doubted myself. I appreciate you for the constant support you have offered me.
- ✓ My sisters and brother: Wendy, Nomahawu, Anele, Londeka, Ntuthuko, Nqobile, Banele, and Siwe, you have been my pillar of strength, my escape and you kept me sane. Thank you for being there and celebrating every minor achievement I have accomplished.
- ✓ My extended family and friends, who have always been behind me throughout everything in my life, I appreciate you.

Thank you!!

Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my parents, uMaMsomi noMkhize. Ngyabonga bazali bami.

I also dedicate this thesis to my late brother, Bhuti Clifford Msomi. You have been my everyday walking thought. “Abethu abakuNkulunkulu, akupheli ngabo, kepha banjengezingelosi” (Rev. NPS Makhanya, 2022).

List of figures and tables

Figure 1: Schematic Representation of van Lier’s Scaffolding Model

Figure 2: Carroll’s Models of School Learning

Table 1: Taxonomy of Processing Strategies

Table 2: Techniques to Activate Stored Schema

Table 3: Textual Sources

Table 4: DBE Sources

Table 5: Video Sources

List of acronyms and abbreviations

ANA	Annual National Assessment
CAPS	Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DBST	District Based Support Teams
EFL	English First Language
ELL	English Language Learner
LoTL	Language of Teaching and Learning
PIRLS	Progress in International Reading Literacy Study
SIAS	The Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Science and Cultural Organisation

Abstract

Growing concern is expressed in the literature regarding the rise in learners with reading difficulties (Bantwini & Diko, 2011; Manyike & Lemmer, 2010; & Wamala & Seruwagi, 2013). Many South African youth are failed by the present education system as they are functionally illiterate and innumerate and cannot read at grade-level proficiency (Spaull, 2013). The focus of the present study was to identify the concepts used to describe reading difficulties, and to explore the strategies educators employ to help learners who struggle with reading. Peer-reviewed papers, journals, Department of Basic Education records, and videos from the internet providing information on reading difficulties were used to gather the data. This study adopted a qualitative methodology since the researcher investigated, interpreted, and categorised the data from secondary data sources, making it appropriate for the study. The study is located in the interpretive paradigm, as the researcher sought understanding, insights, and experiences that may be presented by the sources to reveal reality as suggested by the sources (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). The use of thematic analysis allowed for identifying and reporting any themes or patterns present in the data.

Key words:

reading difficulties; reading strategies; educators, learners, barriers to reading, language.

Table of Contents

Declaration	ii
Acknowledgment	iii
Dedication	iv
List of figures and tables	v
List of acronyms and abbreviations	v
Abstract	vi
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	10
1.1 Introduction	10
1.2 Background to the study	10
1.3 Statement of the problem	11
1.4 Objectives of the study	12
1.5 Research questions.....	12
1.6 Purpose of the study.....	13
1.7 Outline of the chapters.....	13
1.8 Conclusion.....	14
Chapter 2: Literature review	15
2.1 Introduction	15
2.2 Reading: An overview	15
2.2.1 The role of psycholinguistics in reading.....	15
2.2.2. Cognitive processes in reading	17
2.3 Schema theory	19
2.3.1 Types of schema	21
2.3.2 Schema building	25
2.3.3 Activation of appropriate schemata	28
2.4 Reading difficulties: An overview	30
2.4.1 Factors that exacerbate reading difficulties	31
2.4.2 School learning	35
2.5 Models of reading process.....	37
2.5.1 Bottom-up model.....	38
2.5.2 Top-down model.....	38
2.5.3 Interactive model	39
2.6 Conclusion.....	39

Chapter 3: Research methodology	40
3.1 Introduction	40
3.2 Research approach	40
3.3 Research paradigm	41
3.4 Research design	42
3.4.1 Sampling procedures	43
3.4.2 Data collection.....	59
3.4.3 Data analysis.....	59
3.5 Trustworthiness.....	61
3.5.1 Credibility.....	61
3.5.2 Transferability.....	61
3.5.3 Dependability.....	62
3.5.4 Confirmability.....	62
3.6 Ethical consideration	62
3.7 Conclusion.....	63
Chapter 4: Data presentation and analysis	64
4.1 Introduction	64
4.2 RQ1: What are some of the factors that exacerbate reading difficulties in learners?	64
4.2.1 Theme 1: Reading difficulties: Language development and barriers to reading.....	64
4.2.2 Theme 2 - Relationship between scholastic deficiency and problem behaviour: The chicken-or-the egg conundrum.....	68
4.3 RQ 2: Which strategies are used by educators to assist learners with reading difficulties?.....	69
4.3.1 Theme 3 - Learner preparation: Sparking curiosity and enthusiasm	70
4.3.2 Theme 4 - Teacher development, policy implementation and liaising external stakeholders.....	75
4.4 Conclusion.....	81
Chapter 5: Discussion and conclusion	83
5.1 Introduction	83
5.2. Factors that exacerbate reading difficulties in primary school learners.....	83
5.2.1 Personal factors.....	85
5.2.2 Linguistic factors	87
5.2.3 Curricular and resource Factors	89
5.2.4 Socioeconomic factors.....	90
5.3. Strategies identified in literature to assist learners with reading difficulties.....	91

5.3.1	Psycholinguistic strategies for improving reading.....	93
5.3.2	Schema activation and reading strategies	95
5.4	Limitations of the study	100
5.5	Recommendations.....	100
5.6	Conclusion.....	101
	References.....	102
	Appendix A: Data Recording Form	123
	Appendix B: Turnit In Report.....	117
	Appendix C: Ethical Clearance Certificate.....	121

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

Van Keer and Verhaeghe (2005) note that educators are tasked with teaching learners the skills and knowledge that form part of the curriculum, and teaching the behaviour that meets industry, as well as cultural and social expectations. Hlaithwa (2013) states that the ability to read is intrinsically intertwined with scholastic success among learners and is embedded in everyday human socio-economic functioning. Primarily one would think that the goal of reading is to extract information and meaning from text. However, some learners are unable to fully achieve this goal as they experience reading difficulties. Ghanagur et al. (1998) notes that reading is a challenging process that involves comprehending text for a range of reasons, and in a broad range of contexts, and cannot be reduced to a set of mechanical skills that must be learned absolutely. Torgesen (2002) notes that the work of an educator becomes much more demanding when there are learners in the classroom who have reading difficulties. Therefore, one may view reading difficulties as a shortfall in reading abilities in relation to educational expectations.

1.2 Background to the study

According to the National Reading Strategy (2008), international research shows that in most developing countries, illiteracy is a severe problem. Moreover, half of the population in Sub-Saharan Africa and South Asia are illiterate. Even economically stable countries are also struggling with literacy challenges. According to Bean (2004), there are many learners with reading difficulties in American schools, and that has become a great concern. This concern has been persistent in the education system. Goldenberg (2020) indicates that reading proficiency is a function of two sets of skills: (1) accurate and fluent word recognition and (2) adequate language proficiency to comprehend texts. According to this view, English learners will require greater emphasis on oral language development, particularly listening comprehension, as they progress through the grades so they can attain sufficient language proficiency, which in turn will permit reading comprehension (assuming accurate and fluent word recognition skills). Moreover, accurate and fluent word recognition is partly dependent on knowing word meanings (O'Reilly et al., 2019). That is, if a learner knows the meanings of the words being read, the learner is more likely to read them accurately and fluently. This then suggests oral language proficiency will play a role at all stages of reading development, relatively less at first, with word knowledge perhaps the most important, but increasing as learners progress through the grades and English-language demands of reading and writing

increase. The view remains equally applicable for both English learners and non-English learners (Goldenberg, 2020). According to a recent study by the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS), more than 387 million primary school-age children (or 56%) will not meet the reading proficiency requirements, and in low-income nations, 91% of primary school-age children will fall short of the standard (UNESCO, 2017). The Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS), which was conducted in 2006, found that South Africa scored the lowest score out of 40 countries. The outcomes show concerns about the quality of reading proficiency in South African primary schools. PIRLS indicated that over 80% of African language speakers did not meet the low international criterion, indicating that they lacked fundamental reading abilities and coping mechanisms for academic tasks. Hence, poor readers' classroom experiences are frequently unpleasant ones (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Some teaching procedure can exacerbate a learner's reading difficulties. For example, in some instances, educators may abandon all attempts to teach a learner to read in favour of merely reading everything to the learner. These learners may be requested to remain quiet and observe the teachers or others during reading time. In such instances, Lerner and Johns (2012) say the education system does minimal efforts to assist the learner who is experiencing reading difficulties. Learners with reading difficulties do not read as much in school as learners who are proficient readers. As a result, learners who already struggle with reading do not practice sufficiently to develop their skills.

1.3 Statement of the problem

Mgqwash and Makhathini (2017) state that educators may observe that some learners experience difficulty with recognising words, with their reading pace, and with reading out loud with correct expression. However, a persistent problem noted by Ghanaguru et al. (2010), is that educators typically lack experience and training in psychoeducation for supporting learners. The 2006 PIRLS report indicates that this lack of knowledge is a matter of concern since educators play a pivotal role in the recognition and redress of reading difficulties for learners in rural primary schools. Without the appropriate supervision and mentorship from educators, some learners may exit primary school and enter high school with an inability to read (Bantwini, 2010). There have been numerous attempts by the South African government to enhance the teaching and learning process for learners. However, these have not been implemented successfully as Torgesen (2002) notes. Despite all the new information on reading instruction, there is still widespread worry that public education is not doing enough to educate all children to read. In South Africa, the Department of Education has implemented a number of different curriculum policies since 1994, to equalise the curriculum in South Africa after the

apartheid era. Torgesen (2002) notes that the underlying issue is that too many learners are exiting primary school without the necessary reading abilities to succeed at the next level of schooling. Spaul (2013) says South Africa is affected by the issue and provides an empirical assessment of South Africa's education system since 1994 as well as its current state. The conclusion that there is a persistent crisis in South African education, and that the current system is failing most of South Africa's learners, is supported by a substantial body of evidence. The report provided by Spaul (2013) shows that, with the exception of an affluent minority, most South African learners cannot read at grade-equivalent levels, with significant percentages not being able to read and/ or not being numerate. This is based on a range of independently conducted examinations of learner attainment. Many black learners come from home and neighbourhoods, and schools where good reading habits and literacy are not valued, and that affects their reading abilities (Bertram, 2009). Madikiza et al. (2018) note that, during educator training, educators are not taught how to teach reading, and the different strategies that can improve learner's reading skills. That further negatively impacts on learners who come from disadvantaged schools. The results of a study on educators' perceptions of their reading strategies by Cekiso (2017) showed that most educators merely focused on oral reading and not on reading comprehension.

Pressley (2002) observes that educating learners on reading strategies can improve their reading comprehension. According to Beckman (2002), strategy instruction is teaching learners about strategies, informing them how and when to employ them, and motivating them to incorporate strategic practices into their learning schema. Cofu (2013) states that the implementation of reading strategies by educators in South Africa to help learners reach the levels of competency demanded by the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) is extremely challenging.

1.4 Objectives of the study

1. To identify the factors that exacerbate reading difficulties in learners.
2. To explore the strategies used by educators to assist learners with reading difficulties.

1.5 Research questions

1. What are some of the factors that exacerbate reading difficulties in learners?
2. Which strategies are used by educators to assist learners with reading difficulties?

1.6 Purpose of the study

Pretorius and Klapwijk (2016) say, regardless of the arguments surrounding the educational background of the educator and the learner, educators should be capacitated and trained in frameworks that especially target explicit comprehension instruction. Over the years, a variety of teaching frameworks have been established, many of which provide explicit instruction about reading comprehension. These include Palincsar and Brown's (1984) Reciprocal Teaching; Transactional Strategy Instruction (Pressley, 1998), Concept-oriented Reading Instruction (Guthrie, 2004); the Four-pronged comprehension strategy framework developed by McNamara et al. (2007); and Hedgcock and Ferris' (2009) perspective on intensive reading, to name a few. Locally, Klapwijk (2015) created a framework for teaching reading comprehension in South Africa, with the express purpose of giving educators structure. (Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016). As knowledge-facilitators, educators are crucial in helping learners enhance their reading comprehension abilities. Educators must help learners recognise their cognitive processes and improve their reading comprehension. Additionally, educators must enrich learners with strategies for developing their metacognitive abilities in order to increase reading comprehension (Ngwenya, 2004).

1.7 Outline of the chapters

This dissertation is divided into five chapters.

Chapter One – Introduction: This chapter provided a brief introduction of the study, and the background to the study. The problem statement, research objectives, and research questions were presented, concluding with a brief elaboration of the purpose of the research.

Chapter Two -Literature Review: This chapter provides a review of the literature relevant to the study, and the theoretical framework employed to guide the research.

Chapter Three – Methodology: This chapter discusses the research methodology, which includes the research approach, researcher paradigm, research design, sampling, data collection strategies, data analysis, and ethical considerations.

Chapter Four – Data Analysis: This chapter presents the findings of the study that were analysed thematically.

Chapter Five – Discussion: This chapter provides a detailed discussion as well as the limitations of the study and concludes with recommendations for strategies that can be used to teach learners experiencing reading difficulties.

1.8 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the background to the study and the statement of the problem, followed by a highlight of the research objectives, and research questions, as well as the purpose of the study. The researcher reviews the literature in the following chapter to learn about the contributions made by other academics on reading issues and gain a wider perspective and of the research being conducted.

Chapter 2:

Literature review

2.1 Introduction

Bertram and Christiansen (2014) note that a literature review is a discussion that is founded on previous literature and is used to contextualise the research. Literature indicates that internationally, there is growing concern about the increase in the number of learners who are experiencing reading difficulties (Bantwini & Diko, 2011; Manyike & Lemmer, 2010; PIRLS, 2006; & Wamala & Seruwagi, 2013). In an attempt to determine the strategies used by educators to teach learners with reading difficulties, related literature is discussed. The literature review focuses on the following aspects: reading overview, reading difficulties, strategies for improving reading, models of the reading process, and the theoretical framework.

2.2 Reading: An overview

Hlaethwa (2013) says reading can be viewed as a multifunctional phenomenon which is grounded on interdisciplinary knowledge. According to Castles et al. (2018), Cummins (2011), and Millin (2015), reading has been viewed from perspectives of cognition, language processing and socialization. In this study, the focus is on reading from a psycholinguistic view, a cognitive view, as well as a sociocultural view.

2.2.1 The role of psycholinguistics in reading

Within a scholastic environment, progression from one grade to the next is fundamentally dependent on the learner's ability to read fluently and to read with understanding, and the use of correct expression at grade appropriate level (Landsberg et al., 2016). de Debat (2006) views reading as a process of establishing meaning from written language, which renders it a rational and purposeful activity rather than a passive task of sounding words with no comprehension.

According to Huttig and Pickering (2019), reading increases syntactic understanding and provides access to a multitude of new knowledge, allowing the reader to connect words in each sentence. Learners build syntactic awareness by engaging in activities such as word order recognition, where the learner has to rearrange words for the sentence to be grammatically correct (Cain, 2007). Reading offers learners the opportunity to gain knowledge and pleasure. However, linguistic skills are vital for comprehension (Naafan, 2018). Point (2004) identifies

five essential components of reading instruction: (i) phonemic awareness, (ii) phonics, (iii) fluency, (iv) vocabulary, and (v) comprehension.

2.2.1.1 Phonemic awareness

Phonemic awareness is understanding that spoken words are developed from units of sound that are merged together when words are articulated (Cunningham et al., 2010). Tindall and Nisbet (2010) note that phonological awareness is an inclusive term for hearing spoken language and refers to joint sounds in words, syllables, rhyming words, and onset-rimes. Therefore, phonemic awareness is the capacity to hear and pronounce words. Point (2004) says the view that learners who are taught phonemic awareness at a young age are at an advantage of enhancing their reading proficiency.

According to Point (2004), the development of phonemic awareness in learners enables them to recognise unknown words in text. The key role phonemic awareness plays in recognising unknown words is centred on decoding, whereby a sound is assigned to a specific letter or letter groupings. When the reader is able to recognise the order of letters in a word with the relevant pronunciation and meaning, words can be retained in the reader's lexicon.

2.2.1.2 Phonics

Phonics refers to the relationship between letters and sounds. Phonic guidelines help readers to decode unknown words (Fitzgerald & Shanahan 2000). Tindall and Nisbet (2010) note that, in the English language, learners are taught phonics when they have established sound and letter correspondence in the early stages of reading.

2.2.1.3 Fluency

Tindall and Nisbet (2010) regard fluency as the ability to read expressively while simultaneously comprehending words. Florit and Cain (2011) concur by stating that fluency may be viewed as the ability to correctly identify words in written text at an appropriate speed when reading. A fluent reader places less emphasis on word recognition, and more attention on comprehension (Sebole et al., 2019).

2.2.1.4 Vocabulary

Tindall and Nisbet (2010) define vocabulary as knowledge of words and their meaning. Reading vocabulary refers to words that a reader can decode and understand. Improving the

learners' vocabulary leads to proficient readers who understand abstract and complex content (Paratore et al., 2011).

2.2.1.5 Comprehension

Comprehension is viewed as the accurate extraction of meaning by integrating the written content with the reader's background knowledge (Point, 2004). In other words, comprehension is a constructive process of incorporating language, content, and the reader's prior knowledge or experiences. Duke and Carlisle (2011) opine that comprehension is the ultimate objective of reading.

2.2.2. Cognitive processes in reading

According to Ahmadi and Gilakjani (2012), reading is a cognitive process comprising of a reader, text, and the interaction between the two. Castle et al., (2018) notes that general cognitive resources that have been identified to have effects on reading comprehension include executive skills such as cognitive flexibility and working memory.

Cognitive flexibility is the capacity to simultaneously manage or actively switch between many components of a task, such as managing both phonological and semantic processes while reading (Chevalier & Blaye, 2008; Miyake et al., 2000). Learners with reading difficulties are unable to transfer their attention to the meanings of texts or to manage decoding and meaning construction at the same time. As a result, cognitive inflexibility could be a contributing factor to their reading difficulties.

Cognitive tasks, such as language comprehension, planning or problem solving, and fluid intelligence, need working memory (Cowan et al., 2005). Working memory is referred to as a dynamic processing system that can store and manipulate a limited quantity of data in the short term (Kane & Engle, 2002). Working memory plays a critical role in aiding learning, particularly reading. There is evidence that working memory ability is directly associated with academic accomplishment. Chall established a model that explained reading developmental stages from birth to adulthood. Each stage describes reading development and explains the various teaching methods associated with each stage. Chall advocated that children experience six stages as they advance as readers (Chall & Jacobs, 2003). These stages include prereading; decoding; confirmation and fluency; learning the new; multiple viewpoints and a worldview.

2.2.2.1 Prereading

This stage encompasses children from birth to age six, and there is no formal teaching of reading (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000). This stage is also referred to as the emergent literacy period, where children acquire essential knowledge such as the letters of the alphabet, language and phonological awareness (Chall & Jacobs, 2003). Typical activities that children can partake in include story reading, alphabet activities, rhyming, nursery rhymes and invented spelling (Stahl et al., 2020).

2.2.2.2 Decoding

Learners who are 6 to 7 years old are typically located at this stage. The learner begins to learn about letter-sound correspondences and to self-monitor their word and meaning making. Learners also focus on whether sentences are grammatically correct (Chall & Jacobs, 2003). Typical activities that learners can partake in include educator-directed reading instruction and phonics instruction (Stahl et al., 2020).

2.2.2.3 Confirmation and fluency

Learners between the ages of 7 and 9 years are typically located at this stage. Learners acquire knowledge about how to decode words fluently and correctly. At the beginning of this stage, reusing stories that learners have already read enhances fluent reading as they use prior knowledge and context to recognise words (Chall & Jacobs, 2003). The acquired information is internalised and a shift towards reading advanced words becomes the focus of the reader (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000).

2.2.2.4 Learning the new

Learners between nine and thirteen are typically located at this stage. Learners are expected to start learning from content area books, and educators are required to equip learners with reading strategies that promote the construction of meaning, particularly for content subjects consisting of elaborate formulas, charts, and graphs (Stahl, 2000). In South Africa, this includes subjects such as Mathematics, Natural Science, and Life Sciences from grade 4, where greater emphasis is placed on abstract, complex, and longer sentences (Ministry of Education, 2004). Towards the end of these stages, learners do not require excessive instruction from educators. The learners develop the capacity to adopt new vocabulary and new perspectives. They are able to monitor the amount of knowledge they have acquired and apply their background knowledge as they read (Chall & Jacobs, 2003).

2.2.2.5 Multiple viewpoints

Learners between 14 and 17 years are typically located at this stage. Learner's view information from a variety of texts and acknowledge multiple viewpoints. When reading, they are able to observe their own viewpoints while acknowledging and integrating different viewpoints. Furthermore, the ability to observe and create one's meaning develops as learners engage with advanced reading material (Stahl, 2000). This enables learners to acquire advanced knowledge about text attributes and enhance critical thinking skills. Common critical thinking strategies include hypothesising alternatives to what is written in the text (Chall & Jacobs, 2003).

2.2.2.6 A worldview

Learners who are 18 years and above are typically located at this stage. Learners choose which information is worth influencing their worldview (Stahl, 2000). The learners engage in reading for various reasons such as researching a particular topic, as the learner knows how to interpret, analyse and evaluate different perspectives (Fitzgerald & Shanahan, 2000).

Each of these stages outlines how reading develops, and the various instructional methods used at each step. However, one must consider that learners learning to read need to know the alphabetic system in order to comprehend what they are reading. Ehri proposed phases of development from novice to expert reader (Foorman & Connor, 2011). As the learner progresses through these phases, their capacity to pronunciation and construct meaning cognitively increases (Blackwell & Laman, 2013).

2.3 Schema theory

Sadoski and Paivo (2007) define a theory as a set of interconnected constructs and hypotheses that illustrate a systematic view of phenomenon. Bertram and Christiansen (2014) concur by stating that a theoretical framework is an established, coherent explanation for occurrences. The Schema Theory is employed in this study as a framework for interpreting the constructs that are used in literature when referring to reading difficulties, and the strategies used by educators to assist learners with reading difficulties.

According to Zhao and Zhu (2012), a key proponent of the introduction of Schema Theory in education is educational psychologist Richard Anderson. Research carried out by Richard and Pearson (1984), Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011), Linck et al. (2014), and Anderson (2018), found that learning memory, and comprehension, all rest on the learners capacity to employ and

generate the relevant schemata. Following Piaget's ideas, Richard and Pearson (1985) argue that without a schema into which new information can be absorbed, the circumstance is unintelligible and of little instructional use. These concepts were considered ground-breaking because they changed the way that reading was viewed from a simple issue of word recognition to one that focused on the reader's engagement in the comprehending process. According to the schema theory, reading is a collaborative process involving the text and the reader's prior knowledge.

The term schema is used to illustrate the ways in which individuals develop, accumulate, and organise information in their cognition. In other words, information is organised as cognitive constructs in long-term memory (Nassaji, 2002). Ajideh (2003) concurs that schema is a cognitive component for representing constructs accumulated in memory. The information is kept in subsets called schemas, which are attained throughout one's life. In a review, 25 reading/language arts texts published between 1989 and 2004 used schema theory to explain the reading process, especially comprehension (McVee et al., 2005). Despite the fact that the words "schema" and "schemata" were commonly used in academic and practitioner publications in the 1980s, scholars have recently preferred to use terms like "current knowledge," "subject knowledge," "prior knowledge," and "previous knowledge." Schemata can be referred to as functional characteristics of adaptations between people and their physical and social environments. For McVee et al. (2005), this early use of the word alluded to interaction between personal experience and cultural practice. To explain the constitutive function of culturally ordered experience in individual meaning making, schemas are required.

According to Al-Issa (2006), the trademark of this theory, with regards to reading, is that written words do not bear meaning on their own. Therefore, the reader introduces language, emotion, culture, familiarity, and information (schemas), to the written words when interpreting text (Li et al., 2007). Schemas are important, not just for interpreting information, but also for decoding how information is presented (Widmayer, 2004). Learners may be unable to comprehend text if schemas are not activated, and consequently experience reading difficulties (Al-Issa, 2006). Li et al. (2007) indicate that the schema theory can be employed in relation to the improvement of learners' reading capacity. A reader's schema serves as the foundation for interpretations that go beyond what is explicitly mentioned in a text (Anderson, 1984). Furthermore, schema theory stresses the idea that a text can always be viewed in several forms. Schemata provide ordered knowledge of the universe, that shape the foundation for understanding, studying, and recalling the concepts in stories and texts (McVee et al., 2005).

The schema theory has a long history in the field of education and can assist educators and

researchers to understand how prior experience affects comprehension. Individual cognitive processes and sociocultural experiences are both highlighted in schema theory. Additionally, literature has also shed light on people's meaning-making processes by emphasising the significance of social experiences, the role of language as a mediational tool, and the contextuality of language and social interactions within cultural and historical structures.

2.3.1 Types of schema

Zhao and Zhu (2012), as well as Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011) elaborate on four types of schema which are the focus of this study; (i) linguistic schema (ii) formal schema, (iii) cultural schema, and (iv) content schema.

2.3.1.1 Linguistic schema

Li et al. (2007) define linguistic schema as the reader's present linguistic ability in grammar, idioms and vocabulary, which form the basis for all additional schema a reader may acquire and possess. Zhao and Zhu (2012) further note that a learner becomes a proficient reader when they are able to decode and interpret written text and engage in oral communication. It is thus, important for the learner to have the appropriate prior linguistic knowledge to be able to decode meaning from text. The narratives have to be written in a way that is congruent with the learner's pre-existing schemata. Hence, the educator's emphasizes the significance of providing learners with materials that correspond to what they already know (McVee et al., 2005).

If the learner does not possess the correct linguistic schema, it may lead to reading difficulties (Li et al., 2007). It is, therefore, important for the educator to be aware of the linguistic diversities within the classroom (Fillmore & Snow, 2000). Yafeng (2018) further suggests that, for the application of linguistic schema as a strategy to improve the learner's reading proficiency, educators should take advantage of learners' mother tongue and incorporate it with the classroom setting, as the learner may already be capacitated in language skills. Learners with rich vocabulary are able to comprehend written text more rapidly. Therefore, when learners are reading, educators should support them by cultivating their vocabulary, assisting

in interpreting text, expanding on key words, and providing definitions for unknown words (Du, 2019).

2.3.1.2 Formal schema

Formal schema refers to the basic constructs that provide meaning to the arrangement of written communication. (Li et al., 2007). These may include descriptions, reports, stories, and poems (An, 2013). In other words, formal schema is the learner's knowledge about discourse structure of texts (Al-Issa, 2006). For instance, the schema underlying stories is that its structure contains time, context, characters, episodes, and reaction. Each genre has its own unique structure, and insufficient knowledge of these structures may affect reading fluency and comprehension (An, 2013). Familiarity with text structures enhances the speed at which the reader processes the text (Abidin & Mohamad, 2000). Knowing the category and field (i.e., genre) of a text improves the reader's understanding. According to Anderson (1984), schemata serve as a foundation for deciding the critical elements in a message or text. Schemata serves six functions, namely, (1) assimilating information, (2) filling in the gaps in messages with inferential explanations, (3) paying close attention to key text elements, (4) retrieving memory in a systematic manner, (5) articulating a summary of material, and (6) making inferences that allow one to recreate an original message despite the fact that certain details have been forgotten. These functions show how the learner's experience has a wide range of effects on their reading proficiency. Bransford (2004), asserts that the activation of relevant knowledge is vital as understanding and recalling is a central part of the process of remembering and comprehension. Ehri posits that the development of learners' word recognition develops in four phases; (i) pre-alphabetic phase, (ii) partial alphabetic phase, (iii) full alphabetic phase, and (iv) consolidated alphabetic phase (Roberts et al., 2011; Blackwell & Laman, 2013).

i. Pre- alphabetic phase

Learners use visual prompts to read sight words. The learner notices that certain words have distinct visual qualities (Blackwell & Laman, 2013), and forms linkages between visual attributes and word sound. In this phase. Learners can remember how to read specific words by retaining their visual characteristics or by inferring words from context (Beech, 2005).

ii. Partial alphabetic phase

The learner advances to this phase when they acquire the necessary knowledge about the sounds of the alphabet. The learner is not yet acquainted with the rules of the alphabet, so they

may encounter difficulties decoding unfamiliar words (Blackwell & Laman, 2013).

iii. Full alphabetic phase

The learner has the capacity to examine the spelling of words by linking all the letters to sounds when pronouncing words. Hence, the reader is able to decode unknown words (Blackwell & Laman, 2013). There is a shift from sight word reading to decoding letters individually.

iv. Consolidated alphabetic phase

The learner is able to remember more words by memory. It is difficult to read advanced words if the learner has not memorized enough words (Blackwell & Laman, 2013).

2.3.1.3 Cultural schema

Richard et al. (2000) refers to culture as attitudes, behaviors, beliefs, customs, and social habits accepted by individuals of a community. Cultural schema necessitates a social mindset as meaning is found in interactions with and through experiences, behaviour, speech, people, and other kinds of culturally situated information, such as pictures (Gee, 2004). The question of whether cultural differences within a country play a role in differential reading comprehension is a crucial one (McVee et al., 2007). One may ask the question whether it is fair to assume that learners from all subcultures will have the same knowledge of the setting, attribute similar goals and motivations to characters, envision the identical pattern of acts, anticipate the same emotions, or assume the same products while reading the same story (Brandsford, 2004). It is apparent that patterns of enactment, or forms of communicating with the environment, both form and are influenced by cultural interaction. The learner's sociocultural models, as well as the traditions and settings in which they are embedded, provide the guidance for the application of cultural schema. To make use of cultural schemas as part of a reading strategy, educators must pay attention to the cultural references in the material that is used in the classroom, to avoid potential cultural biases (Widmayer, 2004). Teaching in multicultural classrooms can be challenging as the educator has to observe and be mindful of the multiple cultural perspectives. However, educators can use the learner's cultural schema to expand on their reading ability, by choosing topics that learners find interesting and empowering to the learners, about cultures other than their own (Yafeng, 2018).

2.3.1.4 Content schema

Content schema refers to the familiarity of the subject matter of the text. It includes an understanding of the topic of the text and the background knowledge needed to interpret it (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). Ausubel et al., (1968) state that the organiser's main job is to close the difference between what the learner already knows and what he needs to know in order to master the task at hand. Paris and Lindauer (1976) concur with this view by stating that learners do not immediately combine what they are reading into their previous knowledge. Anderson (1984) says the role of book writers is to provide teaching tips in guides and manuals intended to assist learners in activating applicable skills prior to reading. Reading preparation should therefore, be given special attention. Questions that inform learners of recent personal experiences and orient them against the challenges posed by story characters should be asked. Additionally, when prerequisite information cannot be confidently assumed, educators' guides should provide tips for constructing prerequisite knowledge. This practice, according to schema theory, should encourage comprehension, through supportive knowledge-building activities. In a study conducted by Hayes and Tierney (1980), when learners were requested to read and remember newspaper reports about cricket matches before reading the newspaper reports, the learners were given instruction on the nature of the cricket game, leading to an increase in their reading proficiency. Anderson (1984) urges publishers to include lesson exercises that encourage learners to connect current knowledge with what is illustrated in the text.

Learners who possess a background knowledge to the provided information and knowledge are able to understand and retain information. In an effort to develop skillful readers, educators need to provide learners with sufficient reading material to incorporate background knowledge, thereby enhancing the learners' content schema as well as increasing comprehension of the text (Li et al., 2007). Content schema hold information that is specific to different topics, and how the information correlates to each other to develop a comprehensible text (An, 2013). For instance, a geography learner may have content schema that includes maps, landscapes, globes, and different locations. Educators can further cultivate learners' content schema by introducing extracurricular reading, movies, debates, and role plays. This will further assist learners make assumptions or interference, and remove ambiguities while reading (Du, 2019). Schemata makes editing and summarising easier. Since a schema includes relevance parameters, it allows the reader to create summaries that comprise important propositions while excluding insignificant ones.

Looking at the four types of schemas conveys that spoken or written texts do not themselves create meaning. However, meaning is constructed from linguistic, content, and formal schema (Al Asmari & Javid, 2018). Linguistic schema enables the reader to recognise even unfamiliar terms based on the precise manner in which they are collocated, content schema, supplies the reader with background information. Finally, formal schema is concerned with the organization of text, vocabulary, and grammar, as well as the understanding of various genres and language constructions. These three schemata are crucial for effective reading comprehension. Since effective comprehension depends on learners' capacity to draw from prior knowledge, the proper schemata must be activated (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983; Ho & Truoc, 2019).

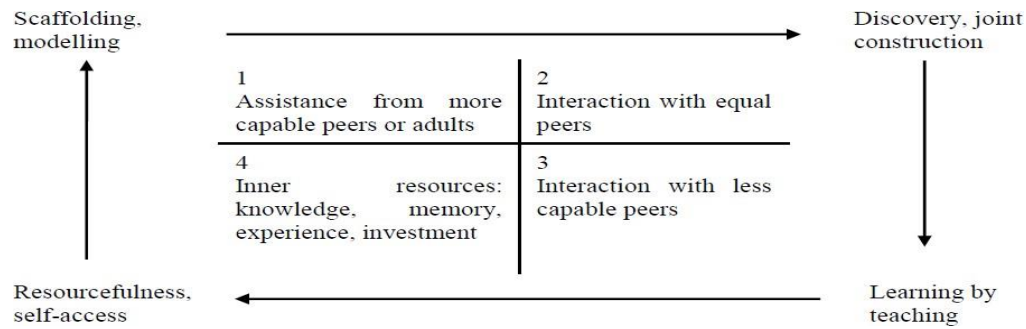
2.3.2 Schema building

According to Aaron and Joshi (1992), a metacognitive strategy to teach learners to plan, implement and evaluate strategic approaches to reading comprehension is described by Palincsar (1986) as reciprocal teaching. Before reading begins, learners and their educator go over the strategies for effective reading, such as strategic planning, self-evaluation, and self-monitoring of understanding. A very fundamental metacognitive mechanism is comprehension monitoring. If a learner reads and comprehends poorly but is aware of this fact, the learner can take the necessary steps to correct the comprehension failure. In contrast, a learner who does not monitor their own understanding will not make adjustments (Ngwenya, 2004).

Building schema is a scaffolding strategy that Walqui (2006) suggests is particularly significant for enhancing learners' performance in acquiring subject content in a second language. In order to improve a learners' performance in attaining subject content in a second language, Walqui (2006) offers six methods of scaffolding: modelling, bridging, creating schema, contextualization, re-presenting text, and developing metacognition. The term "scaffolding" first appeared in the writings of Bruner (1985), who described it as a process of providing a setting that facilitates access for the learner, and then gradually withdrawing support when the learner develops the necessary skills to do the task on their own. Van Lier's (2004) scaffolding model/concept is used to create a scaffolding framework (Carstens, 2016).

Figure 1

Schematic representation of Van Lier's scaffolding model



Carstens (2016) breaks down Van Lier’s scaffolding model as follows: the traditional definition of scaffolding is shown on the top left panel (1) and involves educators or classmates who have more expertise using scaffolds like textual models; support by equals, which is often collaborative, is represented by the top right panel (2); the bottom right panel (3) focuses on a less conventional interpretation of scaffolding, meaning that more knowledgeable classmates may benefit from learning achievements by clarifying complex ideas to less knowledgeable classmates; and the bottom left panel (4) represents the internalization of scaffolding by the learner, which involves the formation of cognitive and metacognitive structures that promote learner autonomy.

According to the CAPS document, time should be set aside every day for various reading requirements, including partner reading, independent reading, ability groups, group reading, and group led reading (DBE, 2011). The term group reading describes a teaching strategy in which the educator reads aloud with the entire class. Typically, big books, posters, or overhead projects are used (DBE, 2011). The CAPS recommends that learners be exposed to vocabulary, comprehension, decoding abilities, and text structures when participating in group reading (DBE, 2011).

Guided reading is a small-group instruction that aims to meet each learner's individual reading level through small-group education that offers differentiated instruction (DBE, 2011; Pinnell, & Fountas, 2010). It assists learners improve their reading fluency. The goal of guided lessons, according to Pinnell & Fountas (2010), is to teach reading comprehension through a variety of strategies. Hence, guided lessons emphasize reading components such as comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, and other abilities (Pinnell & Fountas, 2010). Educators could complete this activity by choosing text that compliments the reading levels of their learners. By doing this, learners become proficient readers. If learners are organised according to their abilities, ability group reading classes increase learner engagement and reading motivation (DBE, 2011).

Therefore, the educator must guide and assist learners by offering a variety of texts that support both individual and group growth (Siyothula, 2019).

In research by Pritchard (1990), learners were instructed to verbally report their reading methods and recount the material after reading. Pritchard (1990) created a taxonomy of 22 processing techniques in five categories based on the verbal reports. The categories are: (A) developing awareness, (B) accepting ambiguity, (C) establishing intra-sentential ties, (D) establishing inter-sentential ties, and (E) using background knowledge. When reading a culturally unfamiliar passage, learners applied methods in categories A and C, more frequently than when reading a familiar passage; and employed strategies in categories D and E, substantially more often for a passage culturally familiar than for a passage unfamiliar. For the section that was more recognizable to the learners culturally, learners produced more elaborations and idea units in their recalls, as well as fewer distortions. Thus, it seems that cultural schemata has an impact on learners' processing methods and degree of comprehension. Furthermore, it appears that learners who are unfamiliar with the subject matter of a text scaffold their production of meaning from the text using comprehension-monitoring procedures. Table 1 presents the final taxonomy of processing strategies adopted from Pritchard (1990, p. 280).

Table 1
Taxonomy of processing strategies

A.	Developing awareness
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Referring to the experimental task 2. Recognising loss of concentration 3. Stating failure to understand a portion of the text
B.	Accepting ambiguity
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 4. Skipping unknown words 5. Formulating a question 6. Considering alternative inferences 7. Suspending judgement
C.	Establishing intrasentential ties
	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 8. Gathering information

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 9. Rereading 10. Paraphrasing 11. Using context clues to interpret a word or phrase 12. Reacting to author's style or text's surface structure
D.	Establishing intersentential ties
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 13. Reading ahead 14. Relating the stimulus sentence to a previous portion of the text 15. Extrapolating from information presented in the text 16. Confirming/ disconfirming an inference
E.	Using background knowledge
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 17. Using background knowledge of discourse format 18. Referring to the previous passage 19. Responding affectively to text content 20. Visualising 21. Relating the stimulus sentence to personal experience 22. Speculating beyond the information presented in the text

2.3.3 Activation of appropriate schemata

Learners attempt to give a text meaning by activating the proper schema. If the correct schemata is activated, the learner is able to comprehend the text. The fundamental idea is that the learner's background knowledge or schematic framework, rather than the text itself, accounts for a large portion of the meaning that is grasped from a text. The specific schema that is active at the time of reading determines what is comprehended from a text (Cailing, 2016). In other words, schema activation is commonly understood as the process by which certain textual cues signal the direction or area for the learner to look for and summon the appropriate schema into the current reading task from memory (Li & Cheng, 1997). One assumption regarding the activation of schema is that certain words, word groupings, or text heading can motion a specific schema (An, 2013). There are different levels of non-comprehension that might occur when an English second language learner fails to engage the proper schema when reading. This inability to activate the proper schema could be caused by the learner not having the correct schema that the author had anticipated. There is a discrepancy between what the writer assumes the learner will be able to draw on to derive meaning from the text, and what the reader can read with understanding. Therefore, when reading, the necessary schemata must be present and

engaged (Cailing, 2016). The following table shows some strategies for activating stored schemata.

Table 2

Techniques to activate stored schemata

Activities	Purpose
Brainstorming	Think out related words and phrase.
Semantic mapping	Write down words or draw a simple outline.
Experience sharing	Discuss similar or related issues.
Guide questions	Encourage learners to prompt questions or pictures.
Content-based reading	Read related short texts for gist, either English or Chinese.
Advanced organising	Recall and transfer prior knowledge to new information.

Li and Zang (2016) posit that the three types of schemata work together when reading. Linguistic schemata is the basis of understanding the text; content schemata is the source of understanding the content, formal schemata aids the ability to recall the content. Rueda (2011) adds that learning and development is, not only based on the learner's intrinsic abilities and academic standing as the relationship the learner has with the social and cultural aspects of one's society shapes learning, but also on context and culture. Ghanaguru et al. (1998) note that reading goes beyond mechanical abilities of decoding text as it is a multi-layered procedure of constructing meaning from written words in diverse contexts. Venn (2007) agrees with this view by stating that the reader's social circumstances and background knowledge facilitates a relationship between the text and the meaning constructed by the reader. Furthermore, as communication within the educational environment and technology advances, reading is considered a social activity. Reading enables the learner to engage in various platforms such as academic research and enables learners to communicate with others on social networks for learning or pleasure purposes (Bantwini & Diko, 2011). Reading is beneficial to individuals who wish to expand their knowledge as it offers an opportunity to view and learn about cultures (Aina et al., 2011). Historically, reading and writing were introduced as a communication system between human beings. Interaction and language expression were portrayed in drawings and man-made objects. This has been used as visual information been stored and preserved for generations. Through the exhibition of these artifacts, the sociocultural aspects

of various generations are explored, analysed, and interpreted by different societies (Lazutina et al., 2016).

2.4 Reading difficulties: An overview

Reading comprehension is one of the important skills that should be developed in the Foundation Phase. However, a number of studies (Yildirim, 2013, Taylor & Taylor 2013; Hoadley, 2012), globally and in South Africa, reveal that reading comprehension is a challenge for learners, and that reading difficulties are global phenomena (Fesi et al., 2020). According to a study conducted in Turkey by Kuşdemir and Bulut (2018), there was a substantial association between the degrees of reading comprehension and reading motivation among Turkish primary school learners. This means that increasing learners' reading motivation has a favourable and considerable impact on their reading comprehension (Fesi et al., 2020). In Egypt, a study by Salem (2017), centred on scaffolding reading comprehension skills in English language, discovered that educators were unaware of the essence of the scaffolding strategies they employ, and used them to test rather than scaffold their learners' comprehension. The focus of a study in Egypt was reading in English, which is relevant to this study. Scaffolding appears acceptable in teaching reading comprehension in African home languages because educators' role is to facilitate learning (Ghafar Samar & Dehqan, 2012).

Rosado and Caro (2018) conducted a study in Colombia that looked at the association between lexis and reading comprehension. This study discovered that in all languages, including one's native tongue, there was a link between lexis and reading comprehension. The study also found that educators concentrated on systematic lexis education, which helped learners improve their lexical knowledge as well as their reading comprehension (Fesi et al., 2020). However, according to Fleisch (2008) and Howie et al., (2012), learners in the Foundation Phase continue to struggle with reading comprehension. Emphasis on mechanical skills like decoding and phonics, as well as lack of content knowledge by educators, were among the reasons highlighted (Verbeek, 2010). Reading difficulties have been a long-standing problem in South Africa as indicated by the two national systematic evaluations conducted by the DoE in 2001 and 2004 to determine reading and numeracy skills in primary schools. The results of the evaluations showed that 54 percent of grade three learners did not have adequate reading skills. In the surveys, reading proficiency was found to be low throughout the country. The average reading and writing score of 52 000 grade three learners from 1 400 primarily urban schools was 39% (DoE, 2008).

De Witt et al. (2008) notes that, in response to learner's low reading levels, the National Department of Education has undertaken a number of programs to address the reading crisis. Many campaigns, such as the South African Literacy Initiative (SANLI); the Culture of Learning, Teaching, and Services (COLTS); Ithuteng "ready to learn campaign"; Masifunde Sonke; the National Reading Strategy; and the foundations for learning campaign, were launched by various Ministers of Education (DoE, 2008; Tlale, 2021). Pretorius and Currin (2010) conducted a study on intervention programs meant to increase reading proficiency in primary school learners in South Africa and the findings revealed that educators identified a large number of learners who cannot read. However, the educators did not have the right competence to determine the appropriate reading capacity in learners for each respective grade or the strategies to employ in order to assist learners who present with reading difficulties. Subsequently, some of the educators do not anticipate much from the learners, thus poor reading proficiency becomes a norm as learners reach high school, with inadequate comprehension of grade level work (Pretorius & Currin, 2010).

Many university students in South Africa have reading levels that are not equivalent with the academic requirements needed by their courses (Tlale, 2021). The reading level of sixty first-year students was examined in a study by the University of the Orange Free State's students' service bureau. None of the students could read at grade eight level, and thirteen of them could only read at a grade one or two level (Hugo et al., 2005). Another study by the Unit for the Development of Language Abilities discovered that the language capacity of 2 000 out of 6 000 first-year undergraduates was equivalent to, if not below than, that of a grade seven learner (Hughes et al., 2017). It is, therefore, clear that many students in South Africa lack the requisite literacy abilities, including reading, to ensure academic success (Hugo et al., 2005).

2.4.1 Factors that exacerbate reading difficulties

The National Reading Strategy (2008) identifies various factors that exacerbate reading difficulties within the South Africa context. These include training, economic background, and multilingualism.

2.4.1.1 Insufficient educator training

For many young learners, learning to read only occurs in a formal setting, where the Foundation Phase classroom educator is responsible for imparting reading instruction. According to Hugo

(2011), reading instruction during the Foundation Phase appears to be ineffective, which leads to reading difficulties of many young learners in South African classrooms. This problem, Pretorius and Machet (2004) found, stems from primary school all the way up to tertiary education. This is concurred by Rademeyer (2009). Fleisch (2008) views this as a crisis in South Africa's basic education system, with Pretorius and Klapwijk (2016) adding that the crisis may be exacerbated by educators' perspectives about reading and their personal reading practices. These are referred to as “teacher cognitions” by Borg (2003), and include what educators think, understand, and perceive, as well as the link of these cognitive constructions to what educators execute in the reading classroom.

According to Pretorius and Machet (2004), there are connections between educators' primary reading experiences or how they conceptualize reading, and the practices that emerge in the classroom. Furthermore, there is lack of knowledge about the nature and development of early reading, and educators generally find it challenging to explain their reading pedagogy within a theoretical context. Additionally, there is a lack in specialized training in teaching English (common language of instruction in South Africa) as a second language. Nel (2011) explored the crisis from the perspective of pre-service educator training and looks at what Foundation Phase educators understand concerning comprehension, and whether they are trained to teach it. Nel (2011) found that teacher trainees lack basic training and expertise regarding how to grade readers' understanding. They drew the conclusion that existing pre-service teacher-training programs do not effectively equip teacher trainees with the competence and abilities to teach and improve reading comprehension.

The phrase ‘educator competence’ is complex to define, as there are many factors that contribute to the construction of this competence. Contributing factors identified in literature include educational qualification, number of years studied, and years of teaching experience (Johansson et al., 2015). According to Lauchande et al. (2017), factors such as educators’ knowledge of the subject content, educators’ educational background, and motivation contribute towards learners’ achievement, especially in senior primary school.

In many countries, the need to evaluate educator competence has been growing, and countries such as the United States use this as a criterion to establish licensing to teach. Additionally, other countries such as the United Kingdom, Australia and Hong Kong have developed means to evaluate whether educators have the correct competencies to facilitate reading strategies in

the classroom, and whether they have English competence, or basic literacy skills (Griffin, 2007). A study conducted by Marima (2016) revealed that, in Kenya, most educators were confident about their teaching competence. However, upon further investigation, educators were not knowledgeable about methods to teach reading, and were not provided with sufficient teaching material, which contributed to low reading proficiency in learners.

According to a research study conducted by Lauchande et al. (2017), there is a consistent positive association between qualified competent educators and learner achievement. It is, therefore, important for higher education institutions that train educators to capacitate student-educators with rich pedagogic skills in relation to reading (Marima, 2016). In sub-Saharan countries that are developing, resources are limited, and infrastructure is inadequate. Therefore, the educator's competence in pedagogical structure and subject content knowledge helps to facilitate the delivery of quality education for learners (Lauchande et al., 2017). The National Reading Strategy report (Department of Education, 2008) indicates that many of the educators teaching grades 1- 4 are not adequately qualified to teach learners the correct reading skills. Educators should, therefore, engage in frequent pedagogical training to enhance their competence in teaching reading. Torgesen (2002), notes that lost opportunities to practice reading exacerbate the low performance in the Foundation Phase (grades 1- 3).

A competent educator who, according to Hill (2003), is informed, savvy, responsive, and has a positive impact on learners' learning, is essential to tackling the crisis of reading difficulties in the classroom through prompt implementation of relevant interventions. However, the calibre of their instruction typically depends on the calibre of their own education. Pretorius and Klapwijk (2016) note that, in South Africa, developing knowledgeable educators remain scarce, despite the fact that many South African educators enhance their teaching qualifications by attending a universities' part-time or distance learning courses. In South Africa, distance learning accounts for the majority of institutional teacher preparation. Many of such teachers would not have been well equipped for university study as they attended under resourced schools.

2.4.1.2 Disadvantaged socio-economic background

Naafan (2018) explains that, in Sub-Saharan Africa, reading difficulties can be further perpetuated by factors such as poverty. Learners from socio-economically disadvantaged families frequently attend school without receiving basic needs from home. They also do not

engage in reading for leisure at home, as parents often do not have the financial means to purchase books. A study conducted by Griffin (2007) reveals that learners from low socio-economic backgrounds tend to attain low scores in reading when compared to learners from high socio-economic backgrounds. The National Reading Strategy (2008) states that 60% of the parents in disadvantaged communities, and who have not graduated from primary school, find reading with their children to be a difficult task. Ruterana (2012) concurs by stating that reading difficulties are mostly associated with learners who come from households where the adults rarely engage in reading. On the other hand, in households that have members that are literate, reading is not frequently practiced due to absence of reading resource.

2.4.1.3 Language barriers

After 1994, South Africa endorsed multilingualism in its constitution, stipulating those 11 languages had been made official. Manyike (2007) posits that within the school context, there is a high prevalence of parents and guardians who desire their children to be educated in English, even though their mother tongue is one of the other official languages. Broom (2004) notes that the schooling system is under strain to ensure an effective shift to English from mother tongue. The Manual for Teaching English Across the Curriculum (DBE, 2013) indicates that most South African schools use English as the Language of Teaching and Learning (LoTL). Broom (2004) also notes that the use of a second language as the medium of instruction proves a barrier to learners' scholastic progress. As a means to removing this barrier, the Language in Education Policy states that South African learners can be taught in their mother-tongue in the Foundation Phase (grade R – 3). However, in grade 4, the LoTL shifts to English. In South Africa, 80% of African learners are taught in a second language, while Indian, Coloured, and White learners are taught in the same language (i.e., English or Afrikaans) throughout their schooling. African language speaking learners in grade 4 start to receive education in English as the LoTL (Howie et al., 2007).

According to Pretorius and Currin (2010), learners who gain fundamental reading skills in their mother tongue improve cognitively and linguistically. However, many learners experience difficulties when transitioning from mother tongue instruction to English as LoTL. Baatjies (2003) notes that many schools are concerned that learners struggle with reading after grades 3 and 4 due to lack of language competence. Some learners may not have the capacity to manage reading in English. Furthermore, it is inevitable that learners will experience difficulties during the teaching and learning process as they will be exposed to complex English

words in different content subjects (Pretorius & Currin, 2009). It is, therefore, pivotal to acknowledge that proficient reading in English is important for all learners, regardless of the grade (Chaka, 2015). The Ministry of Education (2004) asserts that all educators should promote reading, and this should be facilitated across the curriculum, from grade 1 to grade 12. Since 2001 to date, several research studies, such as the PIRLS, SACMEQ, UNESCO and the Annual National Assessment (ANA), have produced findings that the reading levels of grade 3-6 South African learners are low. Over the years, these findings have persisted, suggesting that learners begin their reading journey with poor reading skills, and continue to have poor reading skills (Pretorius & Currin, 2010).

For most South African learners, English is a second language in which they receive educational instruction. This poses a twofold challenge as; (1) the learner has to learn English as a subject, and (2) the learner has to learn to use English in specific subject content. The Manual for Teaching English Across the Curriculum (2013) notes that this modification to learn in an additional language (English) occurs prior to the learner acquiring proficient reading skills (i.e., decoding and comprehension). A learner's linguistic competence impacts their academic achievement in all subjects, at all grade levels. Hence, low language proficiency limits conceptual development (National Reading Strategy, 2008). Hedgcock and Feris (2018) assert that reading comprehension is also dependent on the attention element of working memory. Hence, learners with poor concentration need additional classroom support to achieve the set scholastic goals, as frequent reading can assist learners increase their working memory and attention span (Holmes et al., 2010; Rueda, 2011; Loosli et al., 2012).

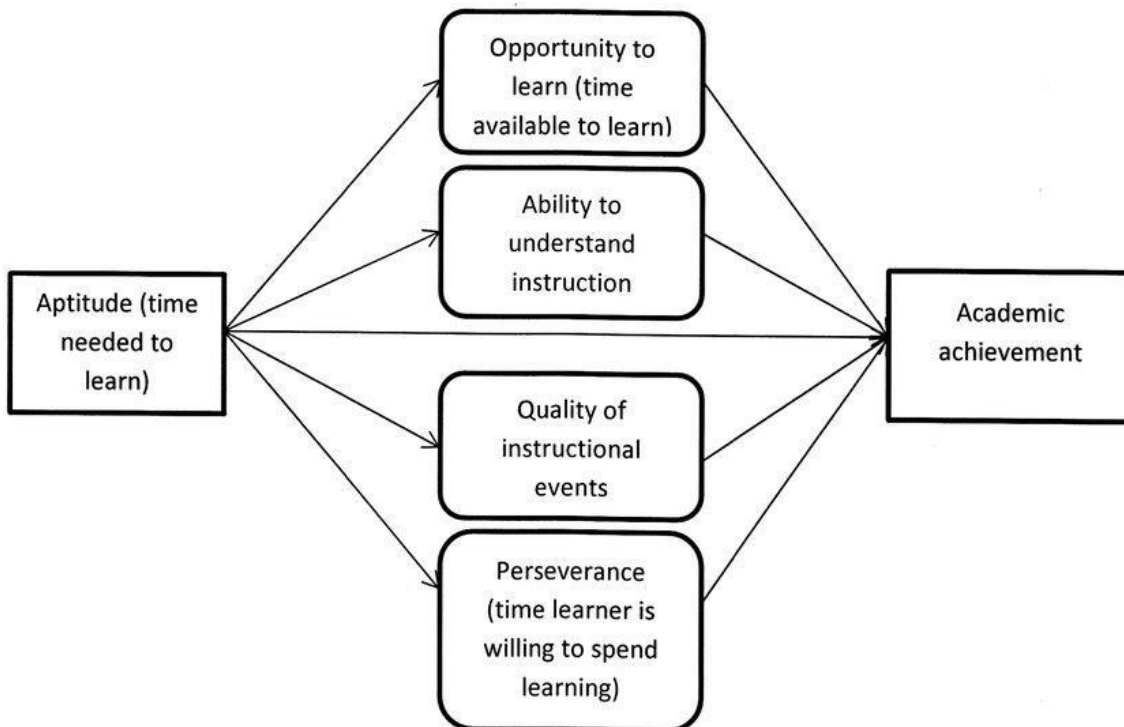
2.4.2 School learning

According to August and Hakuta (1997), school learning can be summed up as the process by which learners obtain literacy and subject-matter expertise in a classroom setting. Learning in school is a social as well as a cognitive activity; one that is shaped by the connections between learners and educators, as well as among learners. In other terms, it is the process of learning information, a subject, or skill through instruction (Kelly, 2022). In an attempt to identify specific factors associated with reading difficulties in learners in South Africa, one may utilize aspects of Carroll's Model of School Learning (1963) - five classes of factors to explain variations in school learning. Three of these classes are associated with time (aptitude, opportunity to learn, and perseverance), while the other two are related to achievement (quality of instruction and ability to understand instruction) (Carroll, 1989). In the original work,

Carroll (1963) asserts that learning is a result of the learner's motivation to learn, aptitude, ability to learn, and the value of education provided to a learner. Carroll groups motivation and availability of resources under the heading 'time spent in learning', whereas 'time needed to learn' refers to a person's aptitude, capacity for learning, and the quality of educational experiences (Carroll, 1989). When the quality of education and ability to grasp is below equivalent, the amount of time it takes to learn increases (Carroll, 1989). In other words, mastery is determined by the ratio of time learners invest on learning activities to the overall duration of time they require. As depicted in Figure 2, time spent on learning is equivalent to the minimum value of three variables; (i) opportunity, or the amount of time learners are willing to spend actively engaging in reading activities, (ii) perseverance, or the amount of time learners are willing to spend actively engaging in reading activities, and (iii) aptitude, or the amount of time required to learn under ideal instructional conditions (van Staden, 2010).

Figure 2

Carroll's model of school learning (1963)



Carroll's approach states that the function of time and its correlation to learning rate and achievement by explaining why learners perform differently in managing a given task (Creemers & Kyriakides, 2006). Carroll (1963) defines aptitude as the capability to achieve

desired levels of academic accomplishment given sufficient time, whereas opportunity to learn is defined as the quantity of time available for learning within a school curriculum (van Staden & Bosker, 2014). School learning is also transformed into a concept of instructional time, in which purposeful attempts to educate, or the length of time available for instruction are considered (van Staden & Bosker, 2014).

At the classroom and school level, time and opportunity can be distinguished between effectively used time and accessible opportunity (Kyriakides & Creemers, 2003). Bos (2002) notes that, at the classroom level, time and opportunity are available, whereas at the learner level, practical time and chance to learn are available. At the classroom level, three components can be identified in terms of instructional quality: educator behaviour, grouping strategies, and curricular resources. According to Bos (2002), an effective narrative can be created by combining numerous qualities from each of these three components. Considering that factors on learner accomplishment are multi-level in nature, isolated qualities are ineffective (Kyriakides & Creemers, 2003). A learner's self-perception develops in response to patterns of success or failure with learning tasks (Chapman & Tunmer, 2003). For instance, learners who feel less capable of finishing reading tasks are more inclined to give up, engage in off-task behaviour, or avoid the task entirely. The study of Wallner-Pachon (2009), as cited by van Staden & Bosker (2014), who refers to the process of 'reading socialization,' resonates with research linking learner-related characteristics with low success. The learner's school, home, and peer group are significant socialization environments, and each of these influences the learner's motivational traits, such as reading accomplishment, reading self-concept, as well as reading attitude (van Staden & Bosker, 2014).

Turner (1995) describes cognitive engagement and motivation as deliberate, self-regulated uses of high-level procedures, like connecting ideas, planning, judging, paying attention, and monitoring. At any level, reading requires motivation, and reading attitudes have a significant impact on comprehension and reading engagement (van Staden & Bosker, 2014). Positive reading attitudes, according to Schraw and Bruning (1999), lead to greater motivation and improved comprehension of what is read.

2.5 Models of reading process

According to Ghanaguru et al. (1998) and de Debat (2006), reading strategies are the reader's actions towards reading challenges that help them attain comprehension. Ediger (2004) is of

the opinion that educators must be proficient in the teaching of reading since there is content for the learner to read in every subject, irrespective of grade level. Behind Ediger's (2004) relatively simple assertion, however, lies a considerably multifaceted understanding of what it takes to be a good educator. Reading instruction has shifted in past years from whole-word approach through phonics to direct instruction, and then to whole-language instruction methods, as defined by Stahl (1998). O'Sullivan (2003) adds bottom-up (for example, look-and-say) and top-down reading (such as extensive reading, use of context and pictorial clues instruction methodologies) to the list. Educators can facilitate learning by adopting the bottom-up model, the top-down model, and the interactive model (Fahriany, 2015).

2.5.1 Bottom-up model

According to de Debat (2006), the bottom-up model is a process that pays more attention to building basic skills of letter-sound relationships, syllables, and written words. The reader starts by identifying symbols then sets these symbols into clusters. Thus, words are constructed and then formed into sentences (Li et al., 2007). The process of reading is linear as readers decode writing word by word and connect the words into sentences. Rule and Land (2017) assert that teaching reading according to this model is through using alphabetic and syllabic processes, in which learning letters, matching them with sounds, and merging them to create words. Information is obtained and sorted out, starting with the smallest linguistic units, and followed by linking letters, words, phrases, and sentences (Ling, 2011). This model allows the reader to read the words in a text without being able to understand. However, the reader relates their background knowledge to the information they find in the text. Readers who lack background knowledge experience difficulty in developing strong comprehension skills (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

2.5.2 Top-down model

This model is based on the learner's capacity to analyse new written material and finding a connection with their background knowledge (Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). Hlaethwa (2013) further postulates that this model is a reader-based model, as the reader uses with their personal knowledge, experiences, and culture when they interpret written words. Therefore, when reading, notions, ideas, and perspectives that the learner holds generate new information. Landsberg et al. (2011) and Fahriany (2014) further explain that the learners' prior knowledge effects their comprehension of the reading source. The decoding skills thereafter assist in establishing whether the meaning the learner has developed is suitable or not. According to

Landsberg et al., (2011), learners are taught the skills to find whole words and read silently. Readers then become cognisant of the phonemes and letter-sound relationship as they read. In this view, reading is linking information in the text to the knowledge the reader has when reading and is not merely obtaining meaning from the text. Therefore, reading in this regard, is an interchange between the text and the reader (de Debat, 2006).

2.5.3 Interactive model

According to (Ling, 2011), the term interactive is defined by the collaboration between the bottom-up and the top-down process skills for reading. According to Landsberg et al. (2005), the interactive model became prevalent due to the short falls of the bottom-up and the top-down models. Hlaithwa (2013) suggests that the application of both models enhances the teaching and learning of reading.

Landsberg et al. (2005) note that reading in the interactive model is text-driven and concept-driven. This model upholds the view that the learner alternates their focus between the breaking down of letters and words and reading comprehension. Li et al. (2007) further explains that the learner employs the top-down model when engaging with text that is familiar and the bottom-up model when reading text that is not familiar. As the learner's capabilities improves, the focus is primarily on reading comprehension and very little attention is paid to word recognition and alphabet analysis (de Debat, 2006 & Fahriany, 2014).

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter is a synthesis of literature from different sources that provided research findings applicable to this study. An overview of reading was highlighted as well as the role of psycholinguistics in reading and the cognitive processing in reading. The literature review also provided an overview of reading difficulties in addition to factors that exacerbate reading difficulties, and factors that affect school learning. The study further elaborated on the models of reading process such as the bottom-up model, top-down model and the interactive model. In addition, the Schema theory was used to guide this study in addition to the existing literature.

Chapter 3:

Research methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the methods and procedures undertaken to achieve the objectives of the study. This chapter is presented in subsections that seek to explain the methods used by the researcher to obtain the data relating to constructs that are used in literature when referring to reading difficulties and strategies that educators adopt to assist learners with reading difficulties. The research approach and paradigm are discussed, as well as the research design that encompasses the sampling method, and data collection method (Petty et al., 2012). At the end of the chapter, ethical considerations pertaining to the study, and the trustworthiness of the study are discussed.

3.2 Research approach

This study employed a qualitative research approach, which aims to provide explanation and clarification of the research. The qualitative approach was deemed suitable for this study since it gave the researcher the opportunity to examine, interpret, and categorise the information from secondary data sources. According to Hennink et al., (2011), qualitative research is a broad phrase that refers to a variety of approaches. Through the use of particular instruments such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, observation, content analysis, and visual approaches, qualitative research examine human experiences in great detail (Hennink et al., 2011). The Internet offers new tools and locations for conducting qualitative research based on online sources especially in a time of media convergence, mediated identities, redefined social borders, and the transcendence of geographical boundaries (Markham 2010).

Jackson (2011) notes that in 2011, the United Nations recognised Internet access to be a fundamental human right due to the pervasive nature of the Internet in modern life. Jowett et al. (2011) emphasize the possibilities of online or Internet-mediated research for social science academics, given the importance of the Internet in people's lives. Researchers increasingly use the Internet to examine more universal human experiences and behaviour. Morison et al. (2015) adds that websites devoted to online research like Psychological Research on the Net (<http://psych.hanover.edu/Research/exponent.html>), Online Psychology Research (<http://www.onlinepsychresearch.co.uk/>), and the Social Psychology Network's directory of

Online Social Psychology Studies (www.socialpsychology.org/expts.htm), clearly demonstrate that psychology researchers have embraced the Internet as a research tool.

3.3 Research paradigm

Terra Blanche et al. (2006) argue that the primary aim of interpretive analysis is to offer rich narrative. Researchers who embed their qualitative studies in the interpretivist paradigm, search for understanding, insights, and experiences that may be presented by the sources used to reveal subjective reality (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). In other words, researchers provide a detailed account of the context, communication and procedures pertaining to the phenomenon of study. This paradigm places emphasis on harnessing and stretching the power of everyday communication and expression, to assist with the presentation and comprehension of the phenomenon under study (Terra Blanche et al., 2006). In this study, the researcher places emphasis on the use of schemas when teaching learners reading skills, and the constructs that are used in literature when referring to reading difficulties. In other words, the researcher seeks to explore the strategies identified in literature to assist learners with reading difficulties.

A single phenomenon can have multiple interpretations, according to interpretivists. They adhere to a relativist ontology, as opposed to being reduced to a single fact that can be verified through measurement. Instead of seeking to generalize the results to the entire population, the interpretivist paradigm allows the researcher to better understand the phenomenon and its complexities from various social contexts (Pham, 2018). In order to avoid bias in only looking at the study from a South African context, the researcher's role was to try to understand the various ways that people see and experience the world through various contexts and cultures (Pham, 2018). In this regard, the researcher took a representative sample from a range of sources to show multiple realities about the strategies that educators employed to assist learners with reading difficulties. The epistemological assumption of this paradigm is that reality is inter-subjective, (how do we know the truth/reality). In other words, reality varies from person to person since it is built subjectively in connection to experiences and the social environment in which a person lives (Creswell, 2013). The researcher was interested in interpreting and understanding the sources from various perspectives; thus, the interpretative paradigm was best suited for the study (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008). The researcher's responsibility was to investigate the nature of reality regarding reading difficulties as it was experienced or explained by the sources (ontology), drawn from their constructs and personal experiences (epistemology).

3.4 Research design

Research design, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), is the method used to carry out the study, including how, when, and from whom the study's data will be collected. It is the overarching strategy for how the study is organised, what happens to the sources, and the data gathering techniques used. Creswell (2014) defines research design as a special characteristic that is a clear sequence of actions used to gather, identify, investigate, and analyse the research course and sources, as well as to acquire data and draw conclusions about a research problem. The fundamental goal of a research design is to establish a strategy to present plausible evidence to the research questions and to convey findings that are considered credible. For this research, the exploratory design was employed, focusing on secondary data sources. According to Mudau and Ncube (2018), the study design helps the researcher choose the participants and data collection methods. Van Wyk (2012) also notes that when a researcher adopts the exploratory research design, they must define the limits of the environment in which the issues, opportunities, or circumstances of interest are likely to exist, as well as pinpoint any significant elements or characteristics that might be present and pertinent to the study.

In 2020, life was interrupted by the COVID-19 pandemic (Teti et al., 2020). Beyond disrupting work, socialising, vacationing, education, and healthcare, Lobe et al., (2020) notes that due to the lockdown, the acquisition of in-person data collection was restricted. Consequently, the researcher conducted research based on secondary data sources. Several authors (Adom et al., 2020; Hall et al., 2021; Lathen & Laestadius, 2021) have discussed the resulting technical modifications, practical and ethical considerations relating to online secondary data sources (Keen et al., 2022). Widespread networking facilitates the exchange of high-calibre papers, including scholarly data and information, and the simplicity of posting multimedia content on the Web. E-research is now possible in both industry and academia, owing to the Internet and other cutting-edge communication technologies like speech recognition software, email systems, internet telephony, and others. Websites and web pages can serve as independent sources of data for qualitative research (Bryman, 2004). If cyberspace is considered a physical location, ethnographic studies of the Internet, as observed by Bryman (2004), may be possible. The Internet has also made it possible to conduct online surveys, focus groups, and interviews for the purpose of gathering data (Sigh & Burgess, 2007). As a result, this research mainly utilizes online secondary data. The researcher looked at internet content that was either textual or visual (i.e., videos), and sometimes both. Online content offers publicly accessible, low cost (or free) data pools that are simple to obtain and analyse.

3.4.1 Sampling procedures

Non-probability sampling refers to selecting a sample according to the researcher's judgment, rather than random sampling of the sources, to ensure that the sources meet the specified criteria (Durrheim, 2006). Some non-random sampling techniques are convenient, accidental, haphazard, availability, snowball, deviant case, sequential, theoretical, purposive sampling, and quota sampling (Creswell 2014). In this study, purposive sampling was deemed appropriate, as the researcher selected sources that could best present information to achieve the objectives of the study (Etikan & Bala, 2017). It was important for the researcher to select sources that would provide sufficient and specific information about the phenomenon of study. The researcher focused primarily on sources on educators that teach reading, as well as sources that provided information on learners experiencing reading difficulties.

3.4.1.1 Inclusion and exclusion criteria

For this study, qualitative sources identifying reading difficulties were used. The researcher used search terms such as: learners with reading difficulties, reading ability, teaching reading, and reading strategies. Sources on reading disorders that have been diagnosed were excluded. The researcher collected sources from documents provided by the Department of Basic Education (i.e., National Reading Strategy) to get an understanding of how the Department of Basic Education plans to accommodate reading into the learners' classroom experience, some of the constructs used in documents when referring to reading difficulties, and strategies identified in the documents to assist learners with reading difficulties. The researcher also collected sources from videos on the internet (from reputable sites such as national news) and peer reviewed articles (from 2010-2019) to gather information from various points of view (McKenzie, 2018).

3.4.1.2 Data sources

For this study, the researcher employed multiple data collection methods, as data was collected from a variety of videos, textual source (peer reviewed articles) and various documents and policies of the Department of Basic Education. The sources were obtained from YouTube, and database such as Google Scholar, Sage, University of KwaZulu-Natal library, Sabinet, and EBSCOhost. The data focused on the magnitude and consequences of reading difficulties: what research has revealed about successful instruction, as well as the different practical activities educators can engage with learners in the classroom. The researcher arranged, organised, and transcribed the collected data into these themes.

Below are tables providing an overview of each source employed in the research:

Table 3*Peer reviewed articles*

	Year	Title	Author	Synopsis
1.	2015	The Effect of Pre-Reading Activities on the Reading Comprehension Performance of Ilami High School Students	Azizifar, A., Roshani, S., Gowhary, H., & Jamalinesari, A.	This document provided information on (1) learners' comprehension skills before and after the implementation of two pre-reading activities, namely guessing reading content from pre-reading questions and vocabulary definition: and (2) learners' attitudes towards the implementation of the two pre-reading activities.
2.	2016	Understanding Reading and Reading Difficulties Through Naming Speed Tasks: Bridging the Gaps Among Neuroscience, Cognition, and Education.	Al Dahhan, N. Z., Kirby, J. R., & Munoz, D. P	This document posits that the neurological, cognitive, and educational accounts of reading can be integrated to offer the possibility of a paradigm shift in the comprehension of reading development and reading difficulties. Name speed tasks were utilized as the foundation for the analysis, since they offer a "microcosm" of the processes involved when reading, which is a good place to start for bridging the gaps between different domains. Naming speed tasks were used to examine how combining cognitive psychology with neuroimaging methods, guided by educational theories, can deepen the understanding of learning and instruction, and possibly reveal the neural markers

				of reading problems that may have been hidden from view earlier in development.
3.	2010	The effect of nursery rhymes On English First Language (EFL) children's reading ability	Baleghizadeh, S., & Dargahi, Z.	In this article, the authors make the case for how employing nursery rhymes in language lessons might improve learners' reading skills. The authors also illustrate how learners' early exposure to nursery rhymes and the growth of their phonological abilities are closely related. It is conceivable that exposure to nursery rhymes would have a good impact on children's reading because such abilities are linked to how successfully learners learn to read.
4.	2011	Classroom misbehaviour is predictable and preventable	Landrum, T., J., Lingo, A., S., & Scott, T., M	This article postulates that when educators regard misbehaviour as predictable, controllable, and managed through instructional tactics, the chances of success with challenging learners are increased.
5.	2018	Analysing English First Additional Language teachers'	Madikiza, N., Cekiso, M. P., Tshotsho, B. P., & Landa, N.	This article analyses how English First Additional Language educators comprehend and use reading strategies in their classrooms. The report also revealed that the majority of educators only used a few reading techniques that they

		understanding and implementation of reading strategies		themselves were familiar with, thus, restricting the ability of learners to experiment with different reading strategies. The study also showed that some educators focused primarily on conventional reading techniques that did not help understanding.
6.	2016	Reading Comprehension in South African Schools: Are Teachers Getting It, and Getting It Right?	Pretorius, E. J., & Klapwijk, N. M	The article reviewed recent South African research on classroom comprehension instruction, interviewing educators to learn how they see themselves as readers, what their teaching environment is like, and what they claim to be doing to promote reading in their classrooms; then comparing these responses to ANA results from their respective schools.
7.	2018	Predominant factors contributing to low reading abilities of pupils at Elsie Lund Basic School in the Tamale Metropolis, Ghana	Mohammed, I., & Amponsah, O.	This article set out to identify the main causes of the low reading proficiency among learners at Elsie Lund Basic School in Tamale Metropolis, Ghana. The analysis of the data revealed the following to be the factors causing learners' low reading abilities: their lack of confidence to practice reading in class, the educators' and parents' lack of motivation to foster the learners' interest in reading, the absence of pre-reader books in the school and at home, the absence of a library, the educators' lack of knowledge regarding the phonemic awareness strategy of

				teaching reading, the absence of reading clubs, and the absence of reading competitions.
8.	2019	Foundation Phase teachers' experiences with instruction in the mother tongue in the Eastern Cape	Cekiso, M., Meyiwa, T., & Mashige, M.	This article investigates the alleged advantages of using mother tongue when instructing Foundation Phase learners. The article examines the experiences of isiXhosa (one of South Africa's indigenous languages) educators in particular, and it describes the results of using isiXhosa in classroom instruction at the FP (Grades 1–3).

Table 4*DBE documents/textual sources*

	Year	Title	Author	Synopsis
1.	2008	National Reading Strategy.	Department of Basic Education	This report provides the reader information about the DoE's goals for addressing South Africa's growing reading crisis. Plans, recommendations, and directions on how to teach reading to learners are given to educators in this report. It also serves as a monitoring tool with the intention of raising South African learners' reading proficiency levels.
2.	2011	National Guidelines for responding to learner diversity in the classroom through curriculum and assessment policy statement policy document.	Department of Basic Education	This document goes into detail on how the school curriculum is one of the biggest obstacles to learning. Additionally, it emphasizes how learning obstacles emanate from a variety of curriculum-related factors that include content, language, classroom organization, teaching methodologies, pace of instruction, time allotted for curriculum completion, teaching and learning support materials, and assessment. As a result, this document demonstrate how crucial it is to maintain diversification in the delivery of the curriculum in order to give all learners access to learning in response to the variety of learner requirements in the classroom. The document includes principles that are intended to give educators, principals, and subject

				advisers guidelines and approaches for addressing the diversity of learners in the classrooms.
3.	2011	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS) Policy Document Grade R-12.	Department of Basic Education	This is a comprehensive Curriculum and Assessment Policy document developed for each subject to replace Subject Statements, Learning Programme Guidelines, and Subject Assessment Guidelines in Grades R-12.
4.	2014	Policy On Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS).	Department of Basic Education	The document elaborates the framework for standardising the processes for identifying, evaluating, and providing programs for all learners who need extra support to increase their involvement and inclusion in school. The National Curriculum Statement (Grades R–12) was used as the framework for the publication, which focused on how to manage and facilitate teaching and learning processes for learners who encounter learning barriers (such as reading difficulties). It also demonstrated how the SIAS is consistent with other DBE’s practices that help school administrators, educators, districts, and parents.

Table 5*Video sources*

	Year	Title	Website	Interviewees	Synopsis
1.	2012	The Adolescent Literacy Crisis	www.AdLit.org	<p>Prof. D.D: Ph.D. Professor in the department of special education. He is also the director for the centre for research on learning.</p> <p>Dr. M.R: Former high school principal and associate director at the High School Services National Associate of Secondary school Principals.</p> <p>K.G: A reading specialist at TC Williams High</p>	<p>Duration: 11 minutes, 55 seconds</p> <p>An expert panel analyses the extent and effects of the adolescent reading crisis, as well as what the most recent research on effective instruction has to say.</p>

				School in Alexandria Virginia.	
2.	2012	Reading out loud to older students	www.ColorinColorado.org	M.L.B: English Language Learner (ELL) High School educator	Duration: 1 minute 24 seconds An educator in a classroom explains why she reads aloud to them.
3.	2008	TEAM Schools (KIPP) - Careers - Read Aloud	www.Kippnj.org	L.B: 6th grade reading educator at TEAM School's second middle school, Rise Academy.	Duration: 2 minutes, 2 seconds A sixth grade reading educator discusses on impressive learner development.
4.	2013	Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners	www.india.oup.com	Dr R.M: ELT expert and educator trainer	Duration: 6 minutes, 40 seconds This video illustrated the educator-learner interactions that occur in classrooms on a daily. The approach of silent reading, which is less popular in classrooms than reading aloud is described in this video. An ELT expert elaborates on the significance of pre-reading exercises and suggests a suitable reading procedure.

5.	2017	Module Four: Phonemic Awareness: What classroom activities can promote phonemic awareness?	www.wvi.org	M.P: Literacy Programme Specialist	Duration: 4 minutes, 38 seconds This video shows direct instruction and learner involvement during phonemic awareness tasks in a classroom context. It shows an educator assisting learners in recognising specific letters and the sounds they correspond with, as well as blending, rhyming, and segmenting words and phonemes.
6.	2017	Module Four: Phonemic Awareness: What classroom activities can promote phonemic awareness?	www.wvi.org	Class teacher	Duration: 4 minutes, 38 seconds Through direct instruction and learner involvement, this video illustrates phonemic awareness exercises in a classroom situation. It shows an educator assisting learners in blending, rhyming, segmenting words and phonemes as well as in helping them recognise specific letters and their related sounds.
7.	2018	Vuma - Inspire a love of reading	Classroomsolution.co.za	Vuma Representative	Duration: 3 minutes, 18 seconds

					This film presents the Vuma reading education program, which includes original stories written in the local language. This reading instruction package, which has been developed for teaching and assessing reading in this phase, is intended for learners in the Foundation Phase. The initiative has improved the lives and reading engagement of both educators and learners utilising the program, as shown in the video.
8.	2016	Help children to love reading	www.dgmt.co.za	K.P: Owner of reading class	Duration: 7 minutes, 4 seconds In this video, various women express how they established reading classes for learners in the community. They receive resources from Nalibali.
9.	2022	78% of SA primary school learners cannot read to understand.	www.newzroomafrika.tv	G.K: CEO, National Education Collaboration Trust.	Duration: 6 minutes, 25 seconds This video is on the CEO of the National Education Collaboration Trust discussing the DBE's launch of the One Million Storybooks Project aimed at addressing the lack of reading resources.

10.	2019	Reading Skills Crisis in South Africa	www.enca.com	Prof. J.C: Director of the Literacy Development Research Unit in CPUT	Duration: 9 minutes, 53 seconds This video reveals that among many factors, the educational curriculum and educator competence are contributing factors to the reading skills crisis in South Africa. The video talks about the importance of storytelling as a means to initiate reading skills.
11.	2021	School Libraries Promote reading and build libraries	www.enca.com	L.N: The Bookery representative SB: eNCA reporter	Duration: 6 minutes, 32 seconds The interviewee discusses the importance of reading and libraries, and the initiative called the Bookery that set up school libraries.
12.	2019	Learning in South African multilingual classrooms	www.britishcouncil.org	I.M: Grade 4 Sepedi Educator at Emasangweni Primary School Teaching for All Representative	Duration: 4 minutes, 49 seconds This video promotes the importance of valuing all children and educating them equally – inclusive education. It posits that all learners can learn

					without barriers, particularly linguistic barriers within the classroom context.
13.	2020	234. Physical Barriers to learning	www.fundawande.org	Funda Wandé Representative	Duration: 2 minutes, 53 seconds This video educates on the importance of good eyesight in learners, as poor vision can hinder a learners' reading skills development. The video also educates on important signs of short sightedness and long-sightedness educators can observe in learners.
14.	2022	Literacy remains a major challenge in South Africa	www.sabcnews.com	L.M: Morning Live news reporter	Duration: 18 minutes, 26 seconds The South African National Book Week and International Literacy Day are two related occasions that the host, Leanne Manas and two interviewees, observe in September. The discussion is based on the PIRLS (2021) report, public statistics, and South Africa's literacy crisis.

15.	2021	How to solve the literacy crisis in South Africa Solving reading with help2readSA	www.youtube.com	Z.M: help22readSA Literacy tutor	Duration: 20 minutes, 39 seconds The host and the interviewees discuss factors affecting literacy, the importance of being able to read particularly in the foundation phase and how the organisation help2readSA is contributing towards helping learners in the community and the literacy crisis in South Africa ta large.
16.	2013	The state of literacy teaching and learning in the foundation phase	www.sabcnews.com	Dr S.S: Chief Director at the National Education Evaluation and Development Unit	Duration: 6 minutes, 16 seconds The video provides information based on research on the state of literacy teaching and learning in the lower grades, compiled by the interviewee. The interviewee emphasizes the need to provide support to educators in order to ensure that learners receive quality reading skills from their educators.
17.	2018	South Africa: Teacher training project improves	www.africa.cgtn.com	G.K: CEO, National Educational Collaboration Trust	Duration: 3 minutes, 9 seconds This video shows the results of a nationwide campaign to improve the standard of instruction in

		quality of pupils' literacy			public primary schools. The video shows how the initiative improves learners' reading abilities.
--	--	-----------------------------	--	--	--

3.4.2 Data collection

For qualitative research, data may be collected by means of instruments like interview schedules and focus groups focusing on a phenomenon or a behaviour checklist that includes observations about a specific phenomenon. (Gratton & Jones, 2004). Eight peer-reviewed articles and 17 interviews were gathered from various video sources were also used. Additionally, the researcher used document analysis. Creswell (2014) defines document analysis as the examination of either public documents, such as newspapers, meeting minutes, and official reports, or private documents, such as letters, emails, diaries, and personal journals. Document analysis, according to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), is the examination of written or printed records of historical events, such as letters, diaries, journals, newspapers, and regulations. The conclusions reached through the study of textual sources and interviews are supported by documents. Four DBE policy documents and reports that were pertinent to the study's goals were used.

A data recording form was utilized to assist the researcher organise the data effectively and helped to save time by making data classification less laborious. A data recording form is a methodical tool for gathering and processing data (Frey et al., 2001). It helped the researcher gather, process, and interpret data from the various data sources. Hessing (2015) says that presenting a data collecting form motivates the researcher to gather pertinent data. Questions posed by the researcher to the interviewees or experts in the field were in the format of the data collection form (see Appendix A). The researcher used McKee's (2001) six steps to textual analysis to describe, interpret and understand the content found in the sources. The researcher first expanded, defined, and discussed each word that had been used to structure the research title to create a conceptual understanding of the study. The researcher focused on the research objectives of the study by further explaining them and the importance of each objective in this study. Thereafter, the researcher gathered all the relevant sources used to answer the research question. The selection of the source was based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria set by the researcher. The researcher collated the data from the South African sources in relation to international sources. The researcher once again examined the data sources in relation to the collated data (see appendix A) and identified explicit and implicit constructs embedded in the sources.

3.4.3 Data analysis

Corbin and Strauss (2008) define analysis as the process of exploring something in order to

develop interpretations about what it is and its function. They also say that data analysis is a science in that the researcher employs techniques to solve analytic issues and develop an explanation from the data gathered. Thematic analysis (TA), employed in this study, is a technique for identifying, examining, and interpreting patterns of meaning (also known as "themes") in qualitative data (Terry et al., 2017). The smallest analytical units are called codes, and they are used to record intriguing aspects of the data that may be (possibly) relevant to the study issue. Codes serve as the building blocks for themes, which are (bigger) patterns of meaning supported by a common organising principle. Themes offer a structure for compiling and presenting the researcher's analytical findings. The goal of TA is to discover and analyse significant, but not necessarily all, elements of the data in relation to the research topic. The researcher's subjectivity is regarded as essential to the analytical process. Analysis begins with familiarization, as coding is viewed as an organic, adaptable process that necessitates close attention to the data. The idea is that, by immersing oneself in, or repeatedly engaging with, the material, coding improves (i.e., develops depth and goes beyond the obvious surface level) (Clarke & Braun, 2017). In this study, the themes were created after the coding process, rather than before. They are the product of the analytical process. Terry et al. (2017) posits that theme development and coding are subjective and interpretive processes.

TA incorporates a six-stage analytic process. The keyword "phase" is used to emphasize how TA, like the majority of qualitative research methods, is not a wholly linear process. Instead, it is iterative and recursive, with frequent switching between the various phases by the researcher (Terry et al., 2017). Data familiarization is the first stage of TA, where the researcher becomes acquainted with the transcribed information. This required the researcher to examine the transcripts while taking note of the pertinent information actively and critically. In the second stage, the researcher created codes to further immerse herself in the data and lay the foundation for analysis (Clarke & Braun, 2017). As the coding process continued, the researcher identified patterns and similarities in the data. Prior to transitioning from coding to theme construction in the third phase, the core themes that indicated shared concepts across the sample were found by analysing the codes from each transcribed interview.

The fourth phase involved reviewing prospective themes. The researcher considered the richness of the themes and looked for alignment between them and the study topics. The significance of the themes was reconsidered, which prompted the researcher to pose the following queries: Do they address the research questions? Do they reveal the ideas of the

interviewees? Can these themes inform readers about the setting that shapes the interviewees' viewpoints on the subject being studied? The researcher had to spend much time reading through the transcripts of the interviews for this study, which made it necessary to discard some of the themes which showed little overall importance in the dataset (Clarke & Braun, 2013). The sixth and last phase, preparing the report, involved constructing the full report using a variety of methodologies and questions to aid the process of identifying and labelling themes.

3.5 Trustworthiness

Numerous frameworks exist to guarantee the integrity of qualitative research. In contrast to quantitative research, where the data is statistical and objective, the terms validity and reliability are understood differently in a qualitative research study (Maxwell, 2008). Research quality standards are a crucial component that must be followed in order to fulfil the research's predetermined goal (Leech, 2007). The researcher established the trustworthiness of the study by ensuring that the outcomes and interpretations were a reflection of the data. The trustworthiness of the findings is assessed using four criteria: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability (Kalu & Bwalya, 2017).

3.5.1 Credibility

Credibility refers to the manner in which the methodology is employed in relation to the sources used to derive the researcher's findings (Bauer et al., 2014). This is to demonstrate that the research was done in a manner that gives accurate account of what is being investigated (de Vos, 2005). In order to ensure credibility of the research, the researcher selected applicable to this study. In this study, credibility was established by providing support for the findings from a variety of sources. Wilson (2014) defined sample triangulation as the use of various study designs and methodologies to enhance credibility. As a result, this study used a variety of data sources to ensure that the research was credible. These included video recordings of expert interviews and peer-reviewed articles on the topic, considered credible and verified. These complemented document analysis of selected DBE documents.

3.5.2 Transferability

According to Lodico et al. (2006), transferability is the level of comparison by the reader between the researcher's study site and other sites. It is therefore, evaluated by viewing the depth of the descriptions provided in the research. In other words, how effectively the results apply to situations outside the study is referred to as transferability (Marshall & Rossman,

2014; Noble & Smith, 2015). It has been stated that all worthwhile studies must generate some concepts and findings with broad applicability (Kalu & Bwalya, 2017). The richness of the data and depth are of primary interest, as well as ensuring that the conclusions may be transferable or have some value when applied to different contexts, circumstances, or people (Houghton et al., 2013). As such, the researcher documented all proceeding throughout the research process to ensure detailed results are provided. The limitations of the sampling technique led to research finding that are not generalizable but transferable.

3.5.3 Dependability

According to Houghton et al., (2013) and Kalu and Bwalya (2017), dependability is defined as the consistency of the research results and the researcher's effort to take into account any altering conditions in the phenomenon under study, the design, or methodology, as necessary. Dependability refers to the consistency of the findings if the study was to be replicated by another researcher (Silverman, 2000). The researcher provided a detailed report of all data collection and analysis that took place during the research process. Terre Blanche et al. (2006) state that dependability is based on whether an external reader is certain that the outcomes of the research have indeed been researched as stated in the report. Although the use of secondary data has advantages discussed in section 3.4, there were also disadvantages, such as no control over how the material is presented (phrasing and framing) in each source. While the researcher was looking for more particular features of reading difficulties, the data source occasionally offered a broader perspective (Vartanian, 2011).

3.5.4 Confirmability

Confirmability refers to the degree to which the results could be corroborated by others (Trochim, 2006). Confirmability describes the procedures used by the researcher to show that conclusions are drawn from the data, not from their own biases (Anney, 2014). The researcher worked under the supervision of a research supervisor/lecturer who guided and assisted with the research process. The sources used in this study are freely available where one wishes to confirm the findings.

3.6 Ethical consideration

The norms that regulate a researcher's conduct so that participants are respected, and their needs are met, as stated by a communal discipline and followed by communities of researchers, are known as research ethics. Avoiding harm in research, informed consent, and ensuring

confidentiality are all examples of ethical conduct (Gratton & Jones, 2004). It is the responsibility of the researcher to adhere to the ethical guidelines (Foxcroft, 2011). For this study, the researcher ensured that all necessary ethical issues were considered prior to conducting and analysing any secondary data. Firstly, permission to conduct research was requested and granted from the Ethics Committee. Ethical considerations regarding secondary data entail acknowledging all ownership of primary data by referencing information accurately, as the primary data was not collected by the researcher (Tripathy, 2013). Tripathy (2013) maintains that additional usage and analyses are acceptable if the secondary source is freely available on credited Internet websites, books, and newspapers. Nonetheless, the source must be cited by the researcher. Due to this, the researcher made an effort to use secondary sources from reliable research websites, and each source was cited in the reference list. The researcher made sure the information from sources was accurate, satisfied the inclusion criteria, and was pertinent to the study's goals. The researcher was careful not to decontextualise information to render the analysis of information inappropriate. All secondary data would be stored for a duration of 5 years after the study is completed as some online resources had been copied in the event that they may be removed from the website. These copies would be stored in a safe place away from unofficial retrieval, unintentional damage and/or loss. Sources that are hardcopies would be stored in a locked cabinet, and softcopies in files with passwords (Tripathy, 2013). All findings of the study will be used for the developmental input of improving the value of reading within the DBE. The major beneficiaries of this study would be the educators of grade 1-12 learners, and the curriculum developers. This dissertation will be available upon completion in the University of KwaZulu- Natal library (Pietermaritzburg campus).

3.7 Conclusion

Chapter three centred on the methodology that was adopted for this study. The qualitative approach, interpretive paradigm and a thematic analysis design appeared to be the most suitable methodology for this study, as the findings were not to be generalized, but used to deepen the body of knowledge related to this topic. The following chapter focuses on the analysis of the data through the lens of the schema theory in relation to the phenomenon of the study.

Chapter 4: Data presentation and analysis

4.1 Introduction

The review of the data provided is discussed in this chapter, focusing on the two key research questions: (i) what are some of the constructs used in literature when referring to reading difficulties, and (ii) which strategies are identified in literature to assist learners with reading difficulties. This chapter further aims to analyse the evidence provided in the data sources, to determine whether the findings are related to the research questions. The data was analysed using thematic analysis to abstract meaning. The themes that emerged from the sources were identified by the researcher using the research questions as guides.

4.2 RQ1: What are some of the factors that exacerbate reading difficulties in learners?

When the various codes that pervaded the data set were identified, the researcher started reading through the codes and analysing them further because some of the codes overlapped. An example is the one that described reading as a challenge that was so widely perceived that it was labelled as a global crisis. A few of the data set's codes made mention of various barriers that make reading difficult. The following themes were generated in relation to research question 1: Reading difficulties: Language development and barriers to reading; and Relationship between scholastic deficiency and problem behaviour: A chicken-or-the egg conundrum.

4.2.1 Theme 1: Reading difficulties: Language development and barriers to reading

There are many different ways to describe learners who struggle to learn to read. Although reading difficulties that are more severe or persistent are often referred to as dyslexia, other phrases including poor reading, reading problems, reading difficulties, low reading abilities, are sometimes used in place of them (Al Dahhan et al., 2016). While the construction of 'reading difficulty' may take many forms in this day and age, four interviewees expressed the following:

South Africa has been, has marked 25 years of democracy and strides have been made in many areas, but when it comes to reading skills, the country is facing a crisis. South Africa ranked last out of 50 countries in the 2016 progress in international reading literacy study.

(Reading skills crisis in South Africa, Reporter, 0:01-0:23)

It is a crisis. It has been going on for a while. It is a crisis in terms of numbers. At least 30%, depending on the study, students, are reading below proficiency. That in terms of future graduation, employment implications, the productivity of our country and so forth, is enormous. However, on a personal level for each student that is not at grade level and above, it is a personal crisis that I don't think any of us can fully appreciate, unless we personally have experienced that.

(The Adolescent Literacy Crisis, Prof D.D, 1:42 – 2:21)

Dr. M.R echoed that the challenges with reading were persistent, and prevalent all over the world:

Well, I think about a whole group of students. I walked into one school, and I was doing my first literacy assessment findings, and 74% of our kids were at more than two years below grade level; and another school, a third of our students were more than three years below grade level. So, many students couldn't read their texts books. We couldn't treat all of the patients. A child that has a reading problem, is equivalent to someone who is critically ill in hospital, and if we can't do anything for them from an educational standpoint, they're not going to make it.

(The Adolescent Literacy Crisis, Dr. M.R, 3:38 – 4:16)

Similarly, G.K stated:

The part about the use of 'crisis' is that it's not going as quickly as possible but the other part that I don't like is if it's something that we can't deal with, you know. So, there is a challenge in reading. We've got quite a considerable number of kids who can't read. For many, and I did come across a couple in the past- you know- weeks who will read the text, but you can see that they're not understanding what they're reading.

(78% of SA primary school learners cannot read to understand, G.K, 2:233 – 2:58)

Teaching for All representative emphasized the importance of mother-tongue instruction:

Children develop ideas about the world through language. They also express their understanding through language. So, language is crucial to learning. Research clearly shows that children learn best in a language that is familiar to them. It therefore follows that children learn better in their home language. The average South African classroom is, however, multilingual. Home languages are generally used from Grades R to 3, after this, there is often a sudden switch to English. However, the majority of learners do not have the English proficiency needed to learn in this language. Most of the learners, they are from indigenous language backgrounds and then when they come to Grade 4, all the subjects are being done with English, and that transition to Grade 4 when they now must be doing everything in English, that's when we experience some problems. You'll find that they skip vowels, or else some of them, they skip consonants. The language used for instruction can be a big barrier to inclusivity, affecting learners' progression throughout their basic education. This, especially applies to children from disadvantaged backgrounds.

(Learning in South Africa's multilingual classrooms, Teaching for all representative, 0:05-1:25)

G.K agreed:

The issue of language counts because these learners use their African languages, their mother tongue on a daily basis so I suppose if they were able to read first and foremost in their mother tongue it will be easy for them to connect the sounds that they read out from the written word to the meanings that sit behind those sounds.

(78% of SA primary school learners cannot read to understand, G.K, 3:04 -3:28)

Another factor, related to language development is that the lack of books written in the mother tongue affects teaching and learning activities (Cekiso et al., 2019). The Bookery representative, L.N elaborated on this and shared the following:

That is one of the challenges that we face, we have seen that through our looking for resources and looking for material that only about ten percent or just less of books and children's books are published within their own mother

tongue.

(School libraries Promote reading and build libraries, L.N, 2:48 -3:10)

This view is supported by L.M, who said:

According to Stats SA's general household survey, about 47 of South African Children have never read a book. Never read a book! Just try and swallow that, that is just an awful statistic to even think about.

(Literacy remains a major challenge in South Africa, L.M, 0:18 – 0:31)

The Funda Wande Representative highlighted the issue of intrinsic barriers to learning such as hearing loss and poor eyesight:

A child needs many abilities to succeed in school, and one of those is good vision. A child's eyes are always in use when looking at the board, when watching the teacher or when writing at their desks. It is important to address any vision problems early on because as they progress in school, the size of printing schoolbooks becomes smaller and the amount of reading time increases. If not addressed early on, children who struggle will avoid reading. They will try and work but show lower levels of comprehension and experience discomfort and short attention spans. We are often focused on preparing our lessons and managing the classroom but need to ensure that we take time to identify and support any children who are presenting symptoms of poor eyesight, or some learners may struggle with reading, and this is not because they cannot be able to read but it's because they have problems with their eyes. I'll take you through some important signs you can spot in five- to nine-year-old children: short-sightedness means you struggle to see far, objects long-sightedness affects the ability to see nearby objects, you may be able to see objects in the distance but struggle to focus on objects that are close to you.

(Physical Barriers to Learning, Funda Wande Representative 0:18-2:27)

Among multiple factors that are barriers experienced by learners when reading include access to resourced libraries. eNCA news reporter postulated:

If you like me and you love reading, you probably have fond memories of getting lost in a wonderful book as a child. Sadly, though access to a library and a treasure trove of books is a privileged and not the norm... it's a privilege. It's not the norm and that's the reality for our country's children. It should be though; it should be the norm. There's much to be done in this regard only a quarter of public schools in this country have a library.

(School libraries | Promote reading and build libraries, S.B, 0:00-0:23)

Z.M added that competent librarians in schools can have a positive impact on learners' literacy learning:

I think we lack resources; we only have one library and it's really far from my community and you know Khayelisha is the most populated place, and we have a lot of children that they want to read, and they have that drive in them they really want to learn but there's no resources including at schools. You'll see that the books that we have in our school, they are more for the grade six or grade five, not only for the foundation phase and which is one huge factor that we're dealing with right now we don't have resources.

(How to solve the literacy crisis in South Africa| Solving reading problems with help2readSA, Z.M, 2:08- 2:50)

4.2.2 Theme 2 - Relationship between scholastic deficiency and problem behaviour: The chicken-or-the egg conundrum

While the exact nature of the relationship between scholastic deficits and problem behaviour is uncertain, what is certain is that each influences the other in a reciprocal way (Landrum et al., 2011). In agreement with this view, Dr M.R emphasized that learners with challenging behaviours are more likely to have academic deficits in reading.

Well, I've always said that kids would rather be bad than embarrassed. Many times, these kids act out, they don't come to school or when they are at school, we have behaviour problems. They can't get recognition in their classrooms; think about going to work every day and not being able to do what you're being asked to do and by law you are required to be there.

(The Adolescent Literacy Crisis, Dr M.R, 4:17- 4:41)

Dr. M.R further elaborated that:

In my experience in two diverse high poverty high schools, we found that a significant number of our learners could read functionally but not academically. They are reading at an elementary level, they could read words, but they could not comprehend their textbook.

(The Adolescent Literacy Crisis, Dr. M.R, 1:21 – 1:38)

The same is reflected by another interviewee:

I have an amazing student and she entered the sixth grade as an early fourth grade reader and she's a brilliant thinker but didn't have the reading tools so she could access so much just if you talk to her about something but if you gave her the book, she was so much slower. She spent so much time being frustrated about the kinds of books that we were giving her. The level of what she was going it was fluency, and it was comprehension and just felt like nothing was happening and all of a sudden, I mean she started off the year as an early fourth grade reader and is now testing on an early 7th grade level which is growth that is unheard of! For me, it's just one of the most energising and rewarding things that I could ever experience as a teacher. There are times where it does feel like magic, where you're testing a kid, and you know things that weren't moving are suddenly just off the chart's... growth. It's so much they put in, an incredible amount of hard work... they're in school longer. We have a bunch of different cornerstone store, a breeding program that they just get every single day but there's not a magic formula they just get up every day and they work hard and it's what makes this kind of growth possible.

(TEAM Schools (KIPP) - Careers - Read Aloud, L.B, 0:00 – 1:54)

4.3 RQ 2: Which strategies are used by educators to assist learners with reading difficulties?

A connection between reading challenges, academic deficiencies, and problem behaviour was

also discovered in the literature. Three themes were found in regard to the second study question as the researcher examined the interview transcripts in light of the video interviews, textual sources, and the document analysis. The significance of learners being sufficiently prepared for the reading class was mentioned in some publications. Educator competence and interventions, as well as resources and external stakeholders were frequently cited as important in relation to the strategies adopted by educators.

4.3.1 Theme 3 - Learner preparation: Sparking curiosity and enthusiasm

Azizifar et al (2015) asserts that non-linguistic issues such as lack of enthusiasm and interest may contribute to learners' difficulties with reading comprehension. Additionally, an educator who begins a reading lesson by instructing learners to read the material and then answers the questions is unlikely to inspire them. One participant shared the following:

Before we begin, it is very important to say what teaching reading is not, if a teacher goes into a classroom and asks children to open the books and read a text, there is no teaching going on, she is testing the pupil's ability to read.

(Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners,
Dr R.M, 0:29 – 0:47)

Azizifar et al. (2015) notes that, an educator who begins their reading session by providing learners with a cause to read, and some preparation can pique their interest in the subject.

Educator trainer, Dr R.M stated:

So how do we teach reading? The first thing we have to do is prepare the children for the text they are going to read. In Oxford gate way reader three lesson 17 there is a poem by Tagore it involves a child who cannot understand why you cannot just catch the moon in your hands because it looks so small. It is very important to establish the idea of perspective that something far away looks very small but the same thing up close looks much bigger. You can see this is done in the text by offering two pictures (demonstration). There is a picture of a cat in front of the house and because the cat is far away it looks very small, then there is another picture with the cat much closer, so that it looks very big its head is covering half the house. So once the children

have looked at this, they are then in a position to understand the concept which is in Tagore's poem, and it will make understanding the text that much easier.

(Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners,
Dr R.M, 1:46 – 2:59)

Dr R.M added that educators can help learners understand what they are reading by providing background information, as this allows them to learn new things and recollect old ones, thus, enhancing their reading experience:

This is the purpose of the pre-reading task so the first way of preparing the children or scaffolding the reading process is through visuals and particularly in the early books the teacher should discuss the pictures that accompany the text before starting reading.

(Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners, Dr
R.M, 3:01 – 3:17)

Azizifar et al. (2015) emphasizes that teaching new vocabulary is effective if it is merged with both the learner's pre-existing knowledge and other pre-reading activities, intended to develop background knowledge of the text. ELT expert and teacher trainer indicated:

Another way of preparing children to read is by getting them to think of some of the vocabulary items that are likely to appear in the text. In Oxford gateway reader 3 lesson 9, the story is about a circus coming to town with a very special elephant. In order to prepare the children for reading the story, the pre reading activity is 'have you ever been to a circus?' 'What things might you hear at the circus?' 'List five things?' 'What things might you see?' 'List five things. Here we are trying to elicit in advance some of the key words that the children will meet in the text itself.

(Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners, Dr
R.M, 3:20 – 4:02)

The data sources also emphasized the importance of partnered reading, independent reading, group reading, and group-led reading, among other reading requirements. Dr RM

further noted that:

Pre-reading activity can be made much more effective if the children are encouraged to discuss their answers in pairs or in small groups before answering the questions in the class. This provides them with the possibility to interact and improve their fluency and it also helps build up the confidence of some children who might be less willing to speak aloud. It is even better if the teacher asks the pupils to note down some of their answers as they are performing the task, in this way the teacher can walk around the classroom and see very easily which groups are performing the tasks simply by looking at the writing that they have done.

(Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners, Dr
R.M, 4:07 – 4:55)

The data sources also indicated that acquiring vocabulary was a complex process. A great deal of vocabulary development occurs indirectly, for example, through conversations, through being read to, or through independent silent reading. They highlighted the importance of educators promoting opportunities for teacher-learner and learner-learner talk in the classroom, as well as to teach vocabulary and vocabulary learning strategies explicitly.

Dr R.M posited that:

It is important that the children learn to read texts silently and efficiently and we recommend the following procedure: first the teacher reads the text aloud slowly and clearly while the class follows silently in the books, second, then the teacher asks the pupils to read the text again silently and then complete the first post reading question read write question one working in pairs or small groups, thirdly, the teacher then goes over the answer with the pupils, fourthly, the teacher then proceeds through the other questions read write questions two onwards in the same way.

(Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners, Dr
R.M, 4:55 – 5:41)

The data sources also point out that it is crucial to read aloud to learners frequently and have them practice picking appropriate books at the foundation phase. Group reading is a term that refers to a teaching strategy in which the educator reads aloud to the entire class. Large books, posters, or overhead projects are frequently used (DBE, 2011). When participating in group reading, CAPS advises that learners be exposed to decoding skills, comprehension vocabulary development, and text structures (DBE, 2011). English High School educator, L.B concurred:

I think that it's important to read out loud to older students because you need to model the fluency for them, and I try to read out loud frequently so that they can see the enthusiasm. I try to read slowly if someone is talking and they're angry -I'm going to talk like this [emphasis on speech projection] and it kind of freaks them out for a second but they see that oh that's how the person's supposed to talk because it said Scrooge said angrily. I think that sometimes we forget that older students need to hear reading aloud and if it's done effectively, it can really benefit them because they can model that. Today in class, one of my students was reading out loud and the last sentence he said was 'humbug, I say humbug', and he just started read it 'humbug, I say humbug' and if you're very careful and kind about asking them to read it again you might say do you really think that Scrooge just said 'humbug, I say bah humbug? no how did he say it 'Oh miss he was angry and he was mad'. Try and read it again but with that feeling behind it, and they do. They respond and they're receptive to that criticism and they try and mimic the way that you would do it.

(Reading out loud to older students, M.L.B, 0:00 – 1:22)

Traditional reading strategies, which include summarising, also help learners who present with reading difficulties (Madikiza et al., 2018). Dr R.M indicated:

If appropriate at the very end, the teacher can ask pupils to read the text aloud once they have completed all the questions and are very familiar with the text, in order to find specific bits of information. It is important that the children learn to begin how to summarize a story or a poem to say what the story or poem is about. There is always a question... ask

them to choose the sentence that best summarizes the story. Such repeated practice is necessary if we want to build up the skill of summarising.

(Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners, Dr R.M, 5:41

– 6:24)

Azizifar et al. (2015) posit that learners' ability to read extensively and frequently influences whether they develop into a learner who appreciates and benefits from reading. Furthermore, educators could give activities that encourage learners to read, that are appealing, and that learners may enjoy reading. Reading specialist, K.G, added:

In the high school level, we can dip in what the student is interested in and get them hooked on a topic and most of that is non-fiction, we find that the kids can start seeing a glimmer of hope.

(The Adolescent Literacy Crisis, K.G, 5:18 – 5:29)

Baleghizadeh and Dargahi (2010) stipulate that learners would most likely learn the sounds of the language by way of games, nursery rhymes, and rhythmic activities. Two interviewees shared the same sentiments:

There are important activities that you can carry out as a teacher to promote student's phonemic awareness in the classroom. These activities will help children understand that language is made up of sounds, and that these sounds can be identified, isolated, manipulated, and categorised.

(Module Four: Phonemic Awareness: What classroom activities can promote phonemic awareness?, M.P, 0:16 – 0:35)

As an extension of letter sounds, I also have the students make letter cards on their own, or with a partner. There is a large variety of Phonemic Awareness activities I use in my class. These are great for teaching students to identify and then practice individual letter sounds.

(Module Four: Phonemic Awareness: What classroom activities can promote phonemic awareness? Class Teacher 1:26 – 1:46)

After students have mastered identifying individual letters and sounds, we can move to blending two or more sounds together.

(Module Four: Phonemic Awareness: What classroom activities can promote phonemic awareness? Class Teacher, 2:10 – 2:19)

There are also activities that focus on highlighting syllables using clasps and word that sound the same or different by rhyming.

(Module Four: Phonemic Awareness: What classroom activities can promote phonemic awareness? M.P, 2:47 – 2:57)

As a teacher, it is important that you have an array of these activities to draw on. While they may seem like simple exercises, they play an important part in developing phonemic awareness in your classroom especially for students with reading difficulties”

(Module Four: Phonemic Awareness: What classroom activities can promote phonemic awareness? M.P, 3:34 – 3:51)

4.3.2 Theme 4 - Teacher development, policy implementation and liaising external stakeholders

The Screening, Identification, Assessment and Support (SIAS) policy has the specific objectives of: (1) identifying the barriers to learning encountered, (2) identifying the support requirements resulting from those barriers, and (3) developing the support program that must be in place to address the impact of the barrier on the learning process. To improve the delivery of the National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (2011), the SIAS policy is designed in a way that ensures educators and schools are aware of the assistance requirements of all learners. The goal of the SIAS is to evaluate the type and amount of support needed in classrooms and schools, to maximize learners' engagement in the learning process. It describes a procedure for determining each learner's unique needs in relation to the contexts at home and at school, in order to determine the type and quantity of additional support required. It describes the procedure for facilitating access to and delivery of this support at various levels. This policy defines the procedure to be followed in identifying and addressing learning impediments that affect specific learners throughout their academic careers through a set of forms. It details the obligations of educators, supervisors, district-based support teams, and parents/caregivers (DBE, 2014),

The Chief Director at the National Education Evaluation and Development Unit was in

agreement with the policy, and indicated that:

We are finding in terms of our evaluation is that our teachers need a lot of support in order to ensure that our learners are able to read.

(The state of literacy teaching and learning in the foundation phase, Dr S.S, 0:42
– 0:52)

G.K indicated that:

I know teachers are at the forefront of teaching the technical aspects of reading, so teachers have to actually take this complex process of reading by teaching kids how to decode written text into sound sounds that they understand. I must say I've come across teachers who are doing it very well, and they're teachers who actually don't know how to do it and they need support. The NCT in partnership with the DBE has taken up taken about 110 000 teachers and school managers through a program called 'Primary School Reading Improvement Program' which teaches the technical aspects of how they should teach the learners how to read. So, we're getting there but as we know as per the old adage 'practice makes perfect' for both the teachers as well as the learners.

(78% of SA primary school learners cannot read to understand, G.K, 5:18-6:16)

Professor of Education, Prof. J.C added that:

During a teacher training experience our professors are seeing a marked difference between the private schools and the public schools when it comes to some of the research that is taking place out there. There is a big divide between the two, but I think the resources, the class sizes, many of the private schools do not follow the CAPS curriculum. They follow their own curriculum, and it allows them time to have these discussions which is not happening in the mainstream schools. In the mainstream schools as teachers are being very limited by this curriculum that is very demanding, they get inspectors to come or subject advisors to come in and check what they are doing and have they done these skills on these particular days and also the teachers are teaching to the tests rather than actually developing these literacy skills or thinking skills and that is a very big gap in the mainstream schools but in the private schools they have access to that.

(Reading skills crisis in South Africa, Prof. J.C, 4:51-6:43)

According to the National Reading Strategy (2008), one of the strategies suggested by the Department of Education to address the reading crisis is for all schools (particularly primary schools) to set aside an additional half-hour each day to "Drop All and Read." This initiative aims to foster a reading culture in the classroom and at the school. Everyone, including learners, educators, the principal, and support staff, should be seen reading for pleasure for 30 minutes each day. If learners enjoy reading, their literacy levels will rise, and their learning capacity will increase. In this regard, Dr. M.R posited:

Well literally, schools that are failing can be transformed. It will take several years to do that but with literacy focus, because it is the gate way skills and I call it 'thee gate way skill' – improving literacy improves your performance in every subject area including math. With the school wide focused efforts, it has to be school wide, the student has to be immersed in every class with good literacy strategies as an intercell part of the instruction. With that a school can literally turn around... this means that every teacher has a role, every person in that school, including the principal. Now the roles are different, you have a literacy coach, you have reading teachers, you have social studies, science, maths teachers and they all have a role. Their role is to teach the language of their content area, not to be reading teachers but to teach the language of their content area.

(The Adolescent Literacy Crisis, Dr. M.R, 8:58 – 9:17)

The Professor in the department of special education noted that:

It is following some of the things we know best about good educational practice and if we will capture those particular principals and understand what's unique about our school and where we going to be adopting this because every school has its own unique needs, unique personality, we can make some changes.

(The Adolescent Literacy Crisis, Prof D.D, 10:22 – 10:45)

Grade 4 Sepedi educator, I.M, shared the same view:

The language used for instruction can be a big barrier to inclusivity, affecting learners' progression throughout their basic education. This especially applies to children from disadvantaged backgrounds. Language supportive learning is a way of addressing this problem. This requires an understanding of how to use scaffolding strategies to support learning through breaking up learning into manageable chunks. This approach requires an understanding of what learners can do, and what they may have difficulties with. Scaffolding strategies involve an understanding of learners and their current learning needs, and these strategies support meaning and understanding in achievement and meeting learning outcomes.

(Learning in South Africa's multilingual classrooms, I.M, 1:16- 1:59)

Mohammed and Amponsah (2018) posit that many educators have a limited understanding of how to teach reading skills. Pretorius & Klapwijk, (2016) say, regardless of the debates concerning theories of change in the classroom, it is strongly advised that educators be made aware of and trained in frameworks that place a special emphasis on explicit comprehension instruction and modelling. In agreement with this view, Mr. G.K expressed that:

We have picked up that a good proportion of our teachers and the subject advisors who are supposed to support them technically and otherwise, do not have a good training on the teaching of reading, we then designed instruments and tools that aim to improve their competence in the teaching of reading.

(South Africa: Teacher training project improves quality of pupils' literacy, G.K,
0:50 – 1:13)

The DBE added:

Teachers are key to the successful teaching of reading. Teacher training, development and support are therefore a key pillar of the National Reading Strategy. The Department of education will provide teachers with a manual on reading strategies. This manual will contain practical guidelines and strategies for teaching reading in Grades R-6.

(DBE, 2008, p. 15)

Over the years, various comprehension instruction frameworks, that include particular instructions on reading comprehension training, have been established. For example, Concept-oriented Reading Instruction, Reciprocal Teaching (Guthrie, 2004), Transactional Strategy Instruction (Hedgcock & Ferris' 2009) take on intensive reading. The Four-pronged comprehension strategy framework developed by McNamara, Ozuru, Best and O'Reilly (2007), to name a few. More locally, Klapwijk (2015b) developed a framework for reading comprehension instruction for use in South African classrooms, with the goal of giving educators structure.

In addition, Teacher Guidelines on strategies to address the strengths and weaknesses revealed by the Systemic Evaluation will be distributed to all schools. The Early Grade Reading Assessment provides teachers with a tool for assessing the reading competence of the learners, as well as a range of other resources. The Department will also develop and maintain a catalogue of appropriate Learning and Teaching Support Material for the General Education and Training band; this will include material for teaching and supporting reading.

(DBE, 2008, p. 15)

In light of the above extract, one may argue that educators are unlikely to develop the questioning skills and discussion strategies that encourage attentive reading by groups of learners without instruction and experience (Pretorius & Klapwijk, 2016). In this regard, the National Reading Strategy (2008, p.15) stipulates that:

To support teacher development, accredited training courses in strategies for teaching reading will be offered at tertiary institutions. These courses will enable teachers to earn credit points in accordance with the South African Council for Educators (SACE) requirements for continuous professional teacher development. Teacher development programmes in reading strategies, for both pre-service and in-service teachers, will focus on the pedagogy of reading, and give special guidance for teaching reading in mother tongue. The Advanced Certificate Education (ACE) in school leadership will offer training in the management of the curriculum and reading programmes.

The DBE outlined those who will be involved in supporting educators to teach reading:

District curriculum officials will provide further support. These curriculum officials will be specially trained in reading strategies. They will help teachers by mediating the reading material and other resources that will be made available to teachers. Family literacy programmes will help parents to support their children in their reading. Families are encouraged to take responsibility to ensure that reading continues even after the bell has rung for the end of the school day (DBE, 2008, p. 15-16).

Teacher librarians can also play an important role in improving the reading engagement and subsequent literacy outcomes of struggling readers, as the National Reading Strategy (2008, p. 17) states:

There is no doubt that a good learning and text-rich environment in schools encourages children to perform better. Teachers need adequate resources for the teaching of reading. The Department has mounted a “Drop All and Read” campaign in which Grade R and Grade 1 learners are provided with personal story books and bags. They can take these books home to read, enjoy and experience the pleasure of possessing their own books. Good readers need access to good reading material. Learners need access to appropriate reading books throughout the school year, and they should be able to take books home in order to practise reading. Magazines and other materials can also enrich the reading experience and encourage the whole family to engage in reading. The Department is organising campaigns to provide schools with good reading materials – books, magazines and even comics! The Department has already provided packs of 100 reading books (called the “100 Story Books Campaign”) to schools in disadvantaged communities to support classroom libraries. Other schools are expected to set aside funds to ensure that teachers are able to create library or reading corners in their classrooms. The Intermediate Phase classes in 2000 schools will be receiving reading books written by teachers in the ITHUBA Writing Project

Businesses and other organizations who intend to support the National Reading Strategy can help by giving some of the selected resources to schools, offering rewards, and showing an interest in the work of educators and learners at specific schools (DBE, 2008). Two interviewees mentioned initiatives such as Vuma and Nalibala.

VUMA is a truly South African reading solution developed by Pearson to inspire a love of reading and improved learner's comprehension. Being at school should be a fun learning experience. VUMA brightens up the classroom with colourful resources making learning to read and adventure they want to follow each day.

(Vuma - Inspire a love of reading, 0:48 – 1: 19)

VUMA reading program is used in classrooms around South Africa and provides teachers with a practical solution to assess monitor and support teaching reading in the foundation phase. VUMA is developed specifically for South African children written in natural and age-appropriate language available for English first additional language as well as Afrikaans, IsiXhosa, IsiZulu and Sepedi home languages. It takes learners through a step-by-step process to improve reading with understanding.

(Vuma - Inspire a love of reading, 2:13 – 2:43)

Nal'ibali is a nationwide reading-for-fun initiative. It aims to inspire and establish a reading culture in South Africa, so that learners read, write, and share stories in all of the local languages. Reading class owner noted:

We use supplements every Tuesday. Nalibala delivers books for us to use. In the supplement you get story corner, you get two books. For me I wanted a reading club, but I had no idea, so when I went to the first workshop, I saw there is nothing that is difficult is just for you to tap into their level, you need interact with them and remembering that I was also a child, and you can never go wrong by always involving yourself in children because they had a future.

(Help children to love reading, K.P, 3:06 – 3:40)

4.4 Conclusion

This chapter analysed some of the constructs used in literature when referring to reading difficulties, and strategies identified in literature to assist learners with reading difficulties. The findings were discussed through the themes that addressed the research questions.

Chapter 5:

Discussion and conclusion

5.1 Introduction

According to Allen (2017), the section of a research study known as a discussion is where researchers offer their findings that address the primary research questions. The interpretations of the results, limitations of the study, recommendations for additional research, and conclusion are all included in this chapter. In this study, the researcher placed emphasis on interpreting constructs that are used in literature when referring to reading difficulties and explored the strategies that are identified in the data set to assist learners with reading difficulties.

5.2. Factors that exacerbate reading difficulties in primary school learners

The meaning attached to reading difficulties may vary. However, some constructs appear to be repeated in several contexts. The findings of the present study show that the term reading difficulties is often constructed along the framework of a psycholinguistic perspective, a cognitive perspective, a sociocultural perspective, as well as a socioeconomic perspective. Within these views, reading difficulties are understood as resulting from a variety of variables and their limitations, such as phonological processing. A lack in any of these manifests as comprehension challenges (Swanson & Siegel, 2001; Torgesen, 2000). Furthermore, limitations in higher-order processes like integrating textual information, forming inferences, and employing metacognitive strategies, are also linked to the reading difficulties (Cain et al., 2000). In other words, learners with reading difficulties have been constructed as those who struggle to read words correctly and proficiently, decode phonological and syntactic information, draw on vocabulary and background knowledge, recall what has been read, and understand the purpose for reading, in order to construct meaning during the act of reading (Cain et al., 2000; & Sweet & Snow, 2003). According to Lesaux and Kieffer (2010), there is a wide range of causes of reading difficulties, and many poor readers possibly struggle with both introductory and higher-order skills.

To understand new information and knowledge, readers are required to activate existing schemata. Reading difficulties, as viewed through the lens of schema theory, can be conceptualised as lack in activation of relevant schema. These schema allow readers to

make predictions about what might happen. According to this perspective, schema are linked to prediction, which is based on prior experience and knowledge. When learners of all levels read something, they attempt to connect their prior knowledge to the content of the material they are reading (Lesaux & Kieffer, 2010).

Regardless of the variety of variables of reading difficulty, whether introductory skills or higher-order comprehension processes; the skills linked to good reading abilities are supported by language knowledge and language-processing ability. For instance, language-processing and vocabulary skills are engaged for reading words with fluency and efficiency; working memory for text reading is linked to prior knowledge with the words and structures. In order to make inferences, the learner must first grasp the textual indications that point to them. Only until a partial propositional text base has been constructed, is it possible to employ reading strategies. Thus, for any learner with limited language and prior knowledge, the reading process can be difficult. This is especially true for learners who are faced with the problem of reading in a second language, as they are more likely than their native-speaking counterparts to experience reading difficulties. (Lesaux & Kieffer, 2010).

The observation that learners who score in the lowest percentiles in one or more reading tasks are experiencing reading difficulties, is common across definitions (Ferrer, et al., 2010; Francis et al., 2005). Reading proficiency in a second language is likely to involve skills that are distinct from those necessary for word recognition in a first language (Geva et al., 2000; Lesaux & Siegel, 2003), in a second orthography, the concept of reading difficulty is debatable. From a practical standpoint, in some countries, educators and parents often target learners with the lowest second-language reading scores as being vulnerable to reading difficulties (McBride-Chang et al., 2011).

Hassan and Dweik (2021) conducted research to identify some of the reading comprehension difficulties that learners experience. The goal of the study was to gain insight on the factors that contribute to comprehension difficulties. The findings revealed a wide range of factors that contributed to reading comprehension difficulties. These factors that influence a learner's capacity to read have been identified within the following categories: personal, linguistic, curricular, and resource-related factors, all of which affect a learner's ability to read (Hassan & Dweik, 2021). Reading difficulties can emanate from

cognitive and neurological factors, as well as from environmental factors (i.e., the learner's home, school, social, and cultural environments). Difficulty in reading can also be associated with emotional factors, as well as to language factors that influence a learner's reading performance (Caldwell et al., 2013).

5.2.1 Personal factors

Reading comprehension problems can be caused by a learner's attitude, which includes, but is not limited to, a lack of enthusiasm, a lack of reading habit, anxiety, and frustration (Hassan & Dweik, 2021). An educator in the video source [TEAM Schools (KIPP) - Careers - Read Aloud] indicated that, although English may be of interest to learners, second language speaking learners can struggle with reading comprehension. It is also possible that learners lack the habit of reading and have negative attitudes. The learner's feelings (anxiety and frustration) and their influence on their knowledge of the text during reading comprehension tasks, should be considered.

From a cognitive perspective, information-processing theories are crucial in the study of children's reading development. Verhoeven and Siegel (2011) posit that children's word reading and reading comprehension processing can be hampered by information-processing elements. Therefore, a learner's difficulty in reading can be connected to the learner's intrinsic cognitive processing. Cognitive processing refers to the mental processes that a learner goes through while reading, such as auditory processing, memory capacities, language-related abilities, and visual processing. The data sources consulted indicated that educators focus on language development, and analysis of the content to create meaning for learners, thus, enhancing their memory. According to Alloway et al. (2009) and Swanson et al. (2009), working memory aids learners in activating prior information about a topic, while reading or interpreting the meaning of a word based on context clues. When it comes to context clues in the text, English reading texts can be difficult to comprehend as texts lack contextual information that could assist learners anticipate the interpretations of unfamiliar terms. Similarly, learners' reading comprehension difficulties are caused by lack of prior knowledge about a text topic. Learners who are exposed to novel reading topics about which they have no prior knowledge may struggle to comprehend texts (Hassan & Dweik, 2021). Background knowledge is frequently mentioned as an important aspect in comprehending a reading text (Childs, 2008; Pang et al., 2003; Biancarosa & Snow, 2004; Wutthisingchai, 2011). As it relates to meaning breakdown, Childs (2008)

believes that learners' prior understanding of the text promotes success in comprehension and learning. One of the educators in the video source [Vuma - Inspire a love of reading] indicated that the use of colourful big books when reading, aids learners to retain the content. In this regard, Schuet et al., (2008) propose that paying attention is a prerequisite for efficient reading. Attentional top-down control of visual information processing and saccadic eye movements are important in reading.

On the other hand, Blachman et al., (2004) caution that poor readers are generally labelled as 'angry, disinterested, and lacking in self-discipline'. They further posit that educators in classrooms frequently have negative interactions with learners who experience reading difficulties and thereby pay less attention to low achievers. Hence, low-achieving learners rarely read enough to improve their reading skills. Failing readers, especially those who have a continuous experience of difficulty, may have emotional challenges that prevent them from becoming proficient readers. As a learner progresses from Foundation Phase into Intermediate Phase and onto Senior Phase, emotional difficulties tend to worsen. It might be difficult to tell whether a reading problem is the consequence of emotional issues that have arisen as a result of the reading difficulty. When learners have difficulty reading, they react in a variety of ways. Even though some poor readers appear to have little indications of emotional expressions, many show a wide range of emotions (Caldwell et al., 2013).

Findings of the present study [234. Physical Barriers to learning] indicate that physical aspects such as hearing, and vision are also vital. Little or temporary hearing loss can have a significant impact on learning to read, learners should be tested for auditory acuity, or the ability to hear sounds. The skill to interact with or identify words is not the same as auditory acuity. A minor decrease of hearing capacity can have a significant impact on reading skills. A hearing loss makes it difficult to communicate with educators and classmates, and the learner struggles in class. The learner would not be able to hear particular sounds and learning phonics would be challenging. Vowel sounds may be challenging with a low-frequency hearing loss (500–1500 Hz); consonant sounds that continue, such as /s/, /z/, /j/, /v/, /th/, /sh/, and /ch/, may be difficult with a high-frequency hearing loss (2000–4000 Hz). Hearing loss has the most damaging effect in that it limits regular language development. When learners' hearing is impaired, they are unable to communicate in ways that are important for appropriate language development and

acquisition. Their vocabulary, grammar, and verbal thinking processes are underdeveloped, and their language skills may be insufficient to learn higher-level reading. (Caldwell et al., 2013). The capacity to see well is essential for reading, and visual impairment impedes the acquisition of reading skills. The reading teacher is concerned about a variety of visual impairments. Myopia, hyperopia, astigmatism, binocular vision issues, and colour perception are all examples of vision impairments. Near-sightedness, often known as myopia, is the inability to see objects at a distance. Although myopia is not strongly linked to reading difficulties, a learner with myopia may have difficulty seeing objects such as chalkboard writing (Lerner & Johns, 2012). Hyperopia, often known as, farsightedness, is the inability to see objects well up close. Thus, reading is done at a close distance. Hyperopia can impair one's ability to read. The blurring of vision caused by imperfections in the surface of the cornea is known as astigmatism. Binocular vision difficulties can produce blurry vision as well as fatigue in the reader, which can make reading difficult. As a result, learners with reading difficulties should be checked for visual issues (Solan, 2004).

5.2.2 Linguistic factors

Language is a multifaceted system that connects the oral forms of listening and speaking with the written forms of reading. Learners gain competence in one form of language while also gaining insight and experience in the fundamental language system, which they can apply to learning another form of language (Caldwell et al., 2013). Reading and writing require a knowledge base, which oral language provides. In the same way, writing practice enhances reading and oral language. Reading difficulties can also be exacerbated by oral language difficulties, as children with delayed speech and language development frequently struggle to read (Alyousef, 2015).

Reading is reliant on a learner's ability to communicate and absorb thoughts through oral language. Therefore, reading is dependent on language development. Caldwell et al. (2013) postulate that some learners who struggle with reading have underlying linguistic issues. The data sources (Madikiza et al., 2018) demonstrate that the lack of vocabulary proficiency among learners hinders their reading capacities, and present difficulties to educators when teaching reading strategies to learners. Reading comprehension difficulties are partly due to a variety of language-related variables. These factors are largely linked to vocabulary in some way. In a study by Hassan and Dweik (2021), learners reported they

did not have adequate vocabulary to understand texts since they did not understand English. Biancarosa and Snow (2004), Nezami (2012), Alkhaldeh (2012) and Iqbal et al. (2015) echo that learners' weak pronunciation inhibit their comprehension of literature hence, some learners may have difficulty recognising words that are constructed from familiar words. Therefore, a lack of vocabulary appears to be one of the primary causes of reading difficulty (Cain et al., 2000).

Bilingual education (BE) is a method of instruction practiced in the Netherlands. It applies to contexts in which learners who are linguistically in the minority are taught in the majority's language (Admiraal et al. 2006). "Submersion" is the term for this method. Its goal is to help learners gain proficiency in a language that may be foreign to them but is used in everyday life beyond the school context. It could also reference "immersion," in which a foreign language is used as the medium of education, such as one that is not spoken in the larger culture. Learners' low reading and writing abilities are exacerbated by instructions given in a language they do not understand (Admiraal et al., 2006).

In South Africa, learners should begin learning in their home language in school until they reach grade 3. In grade 4, the medium of instruction for all subjects shifts from African languages to English, for the majority of learners. Despite the inclusive provisions of the 1997 language-in-education policy, some schools have inappropriate language policies that do not accommodate learners' language needs. They do not acknowledge that learners, particularly those in primary schools, have the right to be educated in their home language (Howie et al., 2011).

English language learners (ELLs) are learners who are acquiring English as a second language. Today, one out of every five learners live in a home where they speak a language other than English. Consequently, they have not yet mastered the English language, ELL frequently struggle with reading (August & Shannahan, 2006; Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006). Language abilities can be grouped into the following categories and are directly associated with academic accomplishment: accurate language usage, language comprehension vocabulary, correct sentence synthesis, and reading (Tlale, 2021). Learners who are unable to communicate effectively in the classroom are at risk of experiencing difficulty when reading (Department of Education, 2008). This has an impact on a learner's reading capacity. The level of linguistic development of a learner has a

significant impact on their potential to read. For ELL, reading in English is a significant challenge. They may be able to communicate in English orally, but mastering the written language and reading, takes a long time (Sullivan, 2011). Linguists distinguish four systems in spoken language: phonology (sounds), morphology (meaningful parts inside words), syntax (grammatical features of language), and semantics (meaning) (the vocabulary of language). Learners with reading issues may struggle with one or more of these linguistic systems (Caldwell et al., 2013).

5.2.3 Curricular and resource Factors

According to Hassan and Dweik's (2021), learners struggle to understand English-language texts due to insufficient reading strategies, and lack of reading skills. Learners who have not received reading comprehension training are at risk of not comprehending texts. Reading comprehension instruction can be supported by a variety of teaching approaches, and effective reading comprehension skills and strategies must be emphasized. Alkhaldeh (2012) states that educators' malpractices in teaching reading comprehension, as well as a lack of co-operative learning in reading instruction, contribute to learners' comprehension issues.

One of the video sources [The Adolescent Literacy Crisis] indicated that textbook content can be a source of reading comprehension difficulty. Some reading difficulties are exacerbated by some reading materials that are not of interest to learners, and that do not represent the learners' experiences. As confirmed by the DBE (2008), South African schools are under-resourced in terms of libraries, with the majority of them being devoid of books. Some schools are poorly equipped, overcrowded, and in urgent need of refurbishment. The implementation of the National Curriculum Statement is hampered by overcrowding and deteriorating classrooms (NCS). The DBE (2008) also acknowledges that reading will always be challenging at schools with big learner-to-educator ratios, poor physical conditions, and unsuitable teaching and learning resources, as well as schools without libraries or print-rich settings.

All the data sources used in the present study affirm that learners who have more exposure to books and additional language materials have better chances at learning to read than learners who have had limited reading experiences. Another factor that contributes to low performance as identified in one video data source [How to solve the literacy crisis in South

Africa | Solving reading problems with help2readSA and School libraries | Promote reading and build libraries] is inaccessibility to high-quality reading resources. Books for reading and basic teaching aids are among the many materials lacking in South African schools. South Africa faces numerous problems related to literacy. Naidoo et al. (2014) say it is rare to come across a school with a completely developed library. South African schools are typically under-resourced in terms of libraries, and most of the libraries are devoid of books. That denies learners the opportunity to read and benefit from a print-rich environment. Learners in these circumstances struggle to achieve reading levels that are comparable or equal to those of their peers and feel inferior when they fail to perform at the desired level (Tlale, 2021).

The other factors mentioned in the data sources that may obstruct a learner's reading performance include class size, lesson time, and the available learning tools, such as dictionaries and the internet. Large class sizes and short lesson time may contribute to learners' reading difficulties (Hassan & Dweik, 2021). According to the Southern and East Africa Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (SACMEQ) (2011), the educator-to-learner ratio and class size have a significant impact on teaching and learning. Smaller class sizes allow for more interaction between the educator and the learner, enhancing the teaching and learning experience (Naidoo et al., 2014).

5.2.4 Socioeconomic factors

Environmental factors are linked to reading difficulties, because learners exist and develop in a variety of surroundings, each of which has a significant impact on the learner's learning goals and skills. The learner's home environment, school environment, and cultural context are factors to consider as they all have an impact on a learner's ability to read. Learners' reading difficulty can be attributed to external factors such as the social environment. The textual sources highlighted that many households are devoid of books or other essential reading material. Additionally, the video source [School libraries | Promote reading and build libraries] acknowledges that African language books are hard to come by, and learners are unable to read in their own language. A number of schools lack books, and even when the books are available, they are sometimes not grade equivalent. According to the South African Reading Strategy (DoE 2008a), the language of school resources (such as books and posters) is not the same as the learner's home language (Naidoo et al., 2014).

The learner's first environment lays the groundwork for significant cognitive development. Parents can promote emotional well-being and academic stimulation in the home. Learners' reading comprehension skills are compromised when they do not read at home (Torres, 2019). According to De Leon (2009), exposing a learner to reading materials has a significant impact on their reading habits and interests. Hence, parents can help their children develop a passion for reading by encouraging them to read. Parents who read, become role models for their children. Parents and guardians who are illiterate may not have the competence to inspire their children to read by sharing books with them, supporting them to complete homework, or interacting with their educators (Torres, 2019). Some families are able to rise above their struggles and generate warm, supportive environments that foster scholastic learning. Generally, children born into poor or unstable households are in danger of performing poorly in scholastic setting (Caldwell et al., 2013).

5.3. Strategies identified in literature to assist learners with reading difficulties

Ping (2014) posits that pre-reading strategies/activities are critical for learners' later success academically. For that reason, educators and early childhood care providers must employ enough and developmentally appropriate learning resources, as well as different strategies that appeal to learners' interests. In agreement Silinskas et al. (2012) and Kim and Quinn (2013) note that pre-reading activities equip struggling readers with the extensive and required knowledge they need to arrange their activities and grasp the things they are about to read. Thus, in this view, pre-reading exercises identify and evoke background knowledge, as well as the objective(s) for reading, and the skills set required to deal with the content and structure of the resources (Suggate et al., 2013).

The data sources [Azizifar et al. 2015 and Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners] in the present study also emphasized the importance of pre-reading strategies as among the most important techniques for introducing learners to reading, assisting learners who are less proficient when reading text, and maintaining their interest in reading resources. The sources also suggest that educators should plan and provide pre-reading activities that stimulate learners' interests. The findings showed that pre-reading activities entail providing learners with the basic and crucial text information, stimulate their desire to read text, and keep them in a reading environment during their formal learning stage regardless of whether or not they have reading difficulties. The data sources noted that learners must create schemata and develop associations between new

knowledge and what they already know. The interviewees in the video sources viewed reading as a collaborative effort between the learner's prior knowledge and the text, whereby successful comprehension necessitates the ability to connect textual resources to one's own experiences. The data sources pointed to various options for enhancing the learners' schemata in the classroom, including the use of visuals, discourse, vocabulary pre-teaching, pre-questioning, and previewing. These suggested pre-reading activities identified in the data sources, activate past knowledge, which improves both language one and language two reading skills (i.e., EFL).

Johnson (1980), as cited in Chang (1990), conducted a study on how vocabulary and background information influenced English second language learners' ability to read proficiently. The findings revealed that content schemata was more beneficial than formal schemata in improving learners' reading skills. However, it improves learners' reading proficiency regardless of the type of schemata engaged. The data sources in the present study advocated the use of pre-reading activity, particularly for culturally loaded texts, to help readers combine what they already know with what they did not know. The data sources [DBE, 2011] also placed emphasis on differentiated exercises based on the learner's strengths and reading challenges. According to the interviewees in the video sources, educators need to keep track of each learner's progress and adapt lessons as needed, while also encouraging creativity and discovery in areas where learners are struggling.

The data sources also viewed reading as a form of entertainment able to inspire one's imagination and inventiveness. A teacher in the video source [Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners] highlighted that individuals who read a book, are able to visualize the context, and keep mentally active. This also helps in developing the readers' creativity and encourages curiosity and critical thinking. When reading, the brain makes new connections that are created from new ideas and knowledge obtained while reading. Reading is therefore, an integrative process that involves one's affective (i.e. feelings and emotions) and perceptual (i.e. visual) domains. The affective domain includes the reader's feelings and emotions. For instance, if the reader has adverse feelings about a phenomenon, these feelings will influence how they interpret the content presented. The reader's feelings can also influence the choice of sources to read (Aina et al., 2011).

Reading may also be viewed as a tool of self-improvement as one acquires advanced knowledge on various topics. It further affords the reader the opportunity of balancing objective and subjective arguments and develop ways of self-thinking and independent judgment (Lazutina et al., 2016). Adhering to literacy systems which encompass instructional strategies helps learners acquire reading skills and knowledge. Other essential factors to consider include how learners learn to read as well as how learners read. This can also be viewed from an interdisciplinary field of psychology and linguistics in which language behaviour is observed, referred to as psycholinguistics (Tunmer & Nicholson, 2010).

5.3.1 Psycholinguistic strategies for improving reading

Afflerbach and Pearson (2008) note that a strategy in education refers to a systematic plan, monitored and adapted consciously, to improve one's performance in learning. According to *Teaching Reading in the Early Grades* (2008), reading strategies can be viewed as procedures that can be employed to assist learners to resolve difficulties they encounter when reading.

5.3.1.1 Phonemic awareness

Phonemic awareness shapes the reading progress of a learner. Educators need to be cognisant of this and be well capacitated to teach reading using phonemic awareness (Point, 2004). The teaching of phonemic awareness is facilitated through auditory activities (Tindall & Nisbet, 2010). Educators can develop and increase phonemic awareness through the use of poems, rhymes, and songs within the classroom (Tindall & Nisbet, 2010). In agreement with Point (2004), the data sources suggested that educators use the following strategies within the classroom to teach learner phonemic awareness:

- i. Educators may focus their phonemic awareness lessons around activities such teaching learners to pay attention to mouth movement when saying different words. This allows the learner to identify, segment and count different phonemes when pronouncing words. The educator needs to place emphasis on noticing how the tongue and lips are positioned, and how they move when pronouncing words.

- ii. Educators can also use spelling activities to enhance learner's phonemic awareness. The educator can instruct the learners to listen for single phonemes and spell the words. When the learner is able to align letters to phonemes, teaching segmenting becomes easier for the educator and further advances the learners capacity to recognise unknown words.
- iii. The educator can work with learners in small groups as opposed to one-on-one teaching. Learners learn phonemic awareness by listening and observing other learner's responses and the feedback learners receive from the educator.

5.3.1.2 Phonics

Teaching phonics is meant to assist learners to understand and utilize the alphabetic principle. The principle asserts that the interaction between letter combinations (graphemes) and individual speech sounds (phonemes) is systematic. Effective strategies to teach phonics to learners empowers the learners to use these interactions to read fluently and quickly. Learners can use phonics to assist their memory in recalling, applying guidelines and generalising of letter-sound correspondence. Learners that acquire reading instruction early in their academic journey are predicted to become more proficient readers than those who were begin later (Point, 2004). Teaching phonics systematically entails that learners are taught to pronounce words by matching sounds to letters and blending the sounds. This enhances comprehension and influences word recognition (Point, 2004). Teaching phonics enables the learner to read connected text. The learner advances from recognising letter-sound correspondence to employing those interactions to read decodable connected text. Further to this, as highlighted in the data sources, phonics can effectively be taught in small groups, and in one-on-one settings.

5.3.1.3 Fluency

All the data sources were in favour of educators developing learners' fluency by creating space where learners can read as much as they desire and read text from other subject areas however, ensuring that that the text is grade level appropriate. Learners can exercise independent silent reading and repeated reading. The educator also interacts with the learners as they read, providing feedback and responses. The educator can additionally model to the learners what a fluent reader sounds like by reading to them or by having an audio of a story that learners can listen to while reading, or by letting the learner listen to

a classmate deemed a fluent reader at their grade level (Point, 2004).

5.3.1.4 Vocabulary

In the video source [Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners], the interviewee stated that educators can give learners words with their appropriate definition to enhance their reading. Thus, suggesting that the development of a reader's vocabulary can be nurtured by exposing the reader to words that are separate from their existing vocabulary. The educator can discuss a new word, provide definitions, teach learners how to use a dictionary, and encourage learners to construct sentences that contain the word in ways that make sense (Tindall & Nisbet, 2010).

5.3.1.5 Comprehension

Common comprehension strategies effective in developing learners' comprehension of text include using background knowledge and creating questions (Point, 2004). All the peer reviewed articles assert that background knowledge is used effectively by readers who have grasped the skills to establish or create associations between the notions presented in the text. If a reader does not have sufficient background knowledge, they may experience difficulty responding to questions, and also be unable to remember important information from the text.

Proficient readers use questions to maintain their focus as they read or align the information in the text to their background knowledge. Questioning can further assist the reader guess ahead the information that they have not read in the text (Tindall & Nisbet, 2010). When a reader asks themselves questions in the midst of reading or post-reading, they are able to evaluate themselves and foresee comprehension difficulties early. All the data sources reviewed in this study support question and answer sessions as a way to strengthen the readers' understanding and increase their enjoyment of reading. The data sources suggested that creating and sharing a knowledge base through small group teaching enabled group members to learn from other learners' background knowledge. A learner with extensive experience and interaction with text is able to share that with other learners.

5.3.2 Schema activation and reading strategies

There are multiple strategies that have been identified in literature as best practice implemented by educators to assist learners with reading difficulties. Traditional reading strategies that promote reading include scanning, skimming, guessing what will happen or

predicting, visualising, identifying the most important ideas and restating them on their own and summarising, to name a few. However, reading strategies can be taught in different stages; the actual reading (pre-reading), while-reading (during reading) and after-reading has taken place (after reading). (Madikiza et al, 2018). According to Cho & Ma (2020), in the pre-reading stage, strategies including goal setting for reading and analysing the text's structure covered, activating background knowledge, connecting important concepts, and note taking while identifying and resolving comprehension difficulties, are confined to the while-reading stage. In the post- reading stage re-reading the sentences, skimming and summarising the paragraphs are included. Zhang (1993) categorized reading strategies into four types: cognitive, compensation, memory, and test-taking strategies. Cognitive strategies involve activating background knowledge, previewing, predicting, and self-questioning. Compensation strategies include identifying vocabulary, drawing inferences, and making connections. Memory strategies comprise visualising, determining importance, skimming, scanning, summarising, synthesising, and evaluating. Test-taking strategies involve reading questions and answering and eliminating incorrect choices from a multiple-choice list (Cho & Ma, 2020).

5.3.2.1 Linguistic Schema

A learner's current formation of linguistic knowledge and language ability is referred to as their linguistic schema (Cailing, 2016). Al Asmari and Javid (2018) posit that, in order to decode and comprehend a written document, linguistic schema are crucial as they serve as the basis for other schemata. When teaching reading comprehension, educators should focus on developing their learners' basic grasp of the language, enhancing their linguistic schema, and building a strong basis for future understanding and comprehension (Jian-ping & Li-sha, 2016).

Educators need to focus more on helping learners' vocabulary expand as the most fundamental component of language is vocabulary; the more words a learner knows, the simpler it is to comprehend reading content (Xue, 2019). Without a broad vocabulary, reading, listening, interpreting, and speaking may become difficult tasks for the learner. A proficient reader can use the linguistic schema at his disposal. In contrast, learners who do not have adequate linguistic schemata are unable to comprehend linguistic information, let alone activate the formal and content schemata associated with the context. (Cailing, 2016). The video source [Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young

Learners] noted that educators encourage learners to master sentence structures and analyse lengthy, complex phrases. It would, not only be a waste of time if learners cannot examine them and translate the sentences word for word, but also challenging for them to comprehend the message. It is necessary for educators to develop learners' grammatical skills. Learners can only utilize their grammatical knowledge to examine sentence structures and word meanings in order to comprehend the complete text and respond to questions once they have mastered their grammatical knowledge (Xue, 2019).

5.3.2.1 Content schema

Learners' prior knowledge of the world or their understanding of the content covered in the text is content schemata (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). Content schemata is built on a foundation of topical knowledge, cultural familiarity, and learners' prior understanding of the subject. Reading comprehension is directly correlated with content schemata, according to Al-Issa's (2006) review of published research. Familiarity with the subject matter improves comprehension (Al Asmari & Javid, 2018). Content schemata, which comprises conceptual knowledge or information about a certain topic and how certain events relate to one another, is typically culture specific. In some cases, content schemata can fill up the gaps left by linguistic schemata and enhance compositional content. In fact, a learner's content schemata is all of the knowledge they have learned from their entire life through direct and indirect experience (Maftoon & Babamiri, 2011). Each learner has a different schema because of the experiences they have had throughout life.

Promoting remembering and creating related schemata before reading is crucial for learners of English as a second language, for them to overcome the major comprehension issues. These strategies are labelled as, schema-based schema building activities (Bergendorf, 2006), background knowledge activation (Strangman et al., 2003), or simply as pre-reading strategies (Ajideh, 2003). The most significant stage amongst the three stages (pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading) for building schema is the pre-reading stage (Carrell, 1988; Al-Issa, 2006; Rokhsari, 2012). It may be noted that pre-schema building strategies aid learners in making predictions and inferences, as well as processing the information they acquire from reading texts, to comprehend it. Strategies that build schema in the pre-reading stage include brainstorming, pre-questioning, and previewing (Ho & Truoc, 2019). According to Cho & Ma (2020), in the pre-reading stage, strategies including goal setting for reading and analysing the text's structure that are

covered, as well as activating background knowledge, connecting important concepts, and note taking, while identifying and resolving comprehension difficulties are confined to the while-reading stage. In the post-reading stage, re-reading the sentences, skimming and summarising the paragraphs are included. Zhang (1993) categorised reading strategies into four types: cognitive, compensation, memory, and test-taking strategies. Cognitive strategies involve activating background knowledge, previewing, predicting, and self-questioning, while compensation includes vocabulary identification, drawing inferences, and making connections. Memory strategies comprise visualising, determining importance, skimming, scanning, summarising, synthesising, and evaluating. Test-taking strategies involve reading questions and answering and eliminating incorrect choices from a multiple-choice list (Cho & Ma, 2020).

The textual source [National Reading Strategy (2008)] indicated that educators who allow learners to read magazines, newspapers and watch news in the modicum of instruction could aid learners acquire more content schema. Learners can routinely engage in speech and debate tournaments as well as read classic literature, to help them build their cultural reserves (Xue, 2019).

5.3.2.3 Formal Schema

Formal schemata is described as the organising and grammatical elements of a written text. It is therefore, a text's macrostructure, which requires the understanding of various discourse styles, such as figures of speech and the variations in writing styles. (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983). The data sources [peer reviewed articles] indicate that learners will find it easier to comprehend information (such as titles, words, pictures, tables, and pictures) and activate formal schemata, if the style and writing pattern of a piece are familiar to the learner. Additionally, every writing has a clear communication goal, whether it is to describe a person, an item, a behaviour; or to persuade others through discussion. Finding the author's main idea and comprehending the author's goal are made much easier if learners quickly and clearly understand the structure of different genres. The logic informs the content and style arrangements and also the discourse's schematic structure (Cailing, 2016). The learners' schemas differ due to variations in the structural and organizational representation of texts. Newspapers or stories might activate a different set of schema than poetry or a scientific text (Jafri, 2017). As such, oral reading should continue to be a valued and encouraged modality of reading in primary school children in order to

enhance comprehension. Learners establish more control over their reading when they begin reading aloud to themselves. Oral reading, according to Prior et al. (2011), allows continued scaffolding by others and improvement in learners with reading difficulties.

Differentiated instruction allows all learners to access the same classroom curriculum by tailoring entry points, learning tasks, and results to each learner's needs (Hall, et al., 2003). In other words, differentiation is responsive instruction, tailored to fit the needs of each individual learner, accomplished by concentrating on the way learners learn. The focus is on the results or demonstrations of their learning, the learning setting, or the information they are learning (Watts-Taffe et al., 2012).

Tomlinson and Imbeau (2010) state that differentiation is based on the modification of four elements:

- content - knowledge, understanding, and skills that learners acquire.
- process – how learners learn the content or attempt to make sense of it.
- product – learners demonstrate what they have learned over a long period of time in terms of knowledge, understanding, and abilities.
- affect/learning environment - how learners' attitudes and emotions affect their learning.

When differentiating content, the teacher in the video and textual sources [Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners, Reading out loud to older learners, and DBE, 2008, 2011)] indicated that reading alone or with a partner, listening to a book on tape or online, participating in group demonstrations, participating in small- group instruction, or participating in online research, are all ways that learners might learn new knowledge and ideas. They also noted that educators can provide appropriate scaffolding when working with content to cater for the needs of individual learners.

The teacher in the video source [Strategies for Teaching Reading 1: Teaching Reading to Young Learners] suggested that differentiating instruction involves having learners try to figure things out on their own, ask questions, and make mistakes to encourage them to read with understanding (process). The DBE sources also indicate that educators can engage in differentiation through varied timelines and criteria for completing assessments (product). All the data sources highlighted that learners' emotions

and feelings, shaped by past experiences, influence their responses to current situations, and have an impact on how they view themselves, as well as how motivated they are to learn, how effectively they work with others. Thus, necessitating educators to establish an environment that is conducive to learners for all learners to read material that appeals to their interests (affect). As such, all the data sources [textual and video] acknowledged that the differentiation of instruction was largely dependent on the educators understanding of learners needs and interests.

Tatum (2011) adds that differentiated instruction is essential for recognising diversity. Ethnicity, race, language, and socio-economic status are important categories of diversity, where power and privilege dynamics can come into play when selecting reading materials in the classroom. Educators must consider that learners bring a variety of valuable cultural and linguistic backgrounds to school, which may or may not be identical to those of the educator or other learners in the class (Terry & Connor, 2012). When differentiation is considered in this light, the educator's position as a knowledgeable decision maker becomes even more important. These findings suggest that effective differentiation is not only attained in research-based instructional strategy. Rather, it can be achieved through the choices that educators make, depending on their knowledge of the reading process; a thorough understanding of their learners; examination of a variety of research-based successful instructional strategies; and the competence to identify models, materials, and strategies that are appropriate for specific learners as they participate in specific reading acts (Watts-Taffe et al., 2012).

5.4 Limitations of the study

The study is not without limitations as the study is qualitative in its stance and is embedded in the interpretive paradigm which centres on the researcher as the subjective interpreter of data contained in the documents and audio sources. This limits the generalizability of the findings, because the construction of reading difficulties might be different, and views about strategies that are used to assist learners with reading difficulties may vary. Another limitation is the small sample size used by researcher which may increase the chances of sampling bias within the study (Collings, 2006; Ford et al., 2001; Hestick & Perrino, 2009).

5.5 Recommendations

The researcher recommends the following:

- Future research is recommended for this study.
- There is a growing concern in educator professional development as a strategy to support the skills learner need to be proficient readers. Hence, educators are

recommended to be motivated to improve their professional qualifications.

- Retraining of all educators to guarantee that instruction and learning are of the highest calibre.
- Schools should have adequate physical resources, including libraries and teaching and learning aids, as well as qualified and competent human resources.

5.6 Conclusion

This study sought to explore the factors that exacerbate reading difficulties, and the strategies identified in literature to assist learners with reading difficulties. Relevant literature that provided some insight into this topic was discussed. The schema theory proved useful in capturing the meanings and experiences conveyed in the data sources. The findings of the present study confirm that reading cannot be taught in one way, as there are multiple reading strategies that can be used to accommodate different learners. As such, educators are recommended to improve their professional qualifications and reflect on themselves as lifelong learners who network with other professionals through reading workshops, conferences, and trainings. In order for the educator to be able to monitor the learners' reading performance, they need to distinguish whether their teaching methodology yields improvements in learners reading proficiency.

References

- Aaron, P. G., & Joshi, R. M. (1992). *Reading problems: Consultation and remediation*. Guilford Press. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01026921>
- Abidin, M. J., & Mohamad, J. Z. (2000). Test-taking strategies, schema theory and reading comprehension test performance. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 237-243.
- Adom, D., Osei, M., & Adu-Agyem, J. (2020). COVID-19 Lockdown: A Review of an Alternative to the Traditional Approach to Research. *Research Journal in Advanced Social Sciences*, 1, 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.58256/rjass.v1i.107>
- Afflerbach, P., Pearson, P. D., & Paris, S. G. (2008). Clarifying Differences Between Reading Skills and Reading Strategies. *The Reading Teacher*, 61(5), 364–373. <https://doi.org/10.1598/rt.61.5.1>
- Ahmadi, M. R., & Gilakjani, A. P. (2012). Reciprocal Teaching Strategies and Their Impacts on English Reading Comprehension. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(10). <https://doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.10.2053-2060>
- Aina, A. J., Ogungbeni, J. I., Adigun, J. A., & Ogundipe, T. C. (2011). Poor reading habits among Nigerians: The role of libraries. *Library philosophy and practice*, 1.
- Ajideh, P. (2003). Schema theory-based pre-reading tasks: A neglected essential in the ESL reading class. *The reading matrix*, 3(1), 1-14.
- Al Dahhan, N. Z., Kirby, J. R., & Munoz, D. P. (2016). Understanding reading and reading difficulties through naming speed tasks: Bridging the gaps among neuroscience, cognition, and education. *AERA Open*, 2(4), 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2332858416675346>.
- Al Asmari, A., & Javid, C. Z. (2018). Role of content schema in reading comprehension among Saudi EFL students: EFL teachers' perspective and use of appropriate classroom strategies. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 8(4), 96-105. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v8n4p96>.]
- Al-Issa, A. (2006). Schema Theory and L2 Reading Comprehension: Implications for Teaching. *Journal of College Teaching & Learning (TLC)*, 3(7), 41-48. <https://doi.org/10.19030/tlc.v3i7.1700>

- AmericanGraduateDC. *The Adolescent Literacy Crisis*. (2012, May 1).
 Www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from
https://youtu.be/Bxh_F8lQ87A
- An, S. (2013). Schema Theory in Reading. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies*, 3(1),
 130-134. <https://doi:10.4304/tpls.3.1.130-134>
- Anderson, R. C., & Pearson, P. D. (1984). A schema-theoretic view of basic processes in
 reading comprehension. *Handbook of reading research*, 1, 255-291.
- Anney, V. N. (2014). Ensuring the quality of the findings of qualitative research: Looking
 at trustworthiness criteria. *Journal of emerging trends in educational
 research and policy studies*, 5(2), 272-281.
- Anderson, R. C. (2018). Role of the reader's schema in comprehension, learning, and
 memory. In *Theoretical Models and Processes of Literacy* (pp. 136-145).
 Routledge.
- August, D., & Hakuta, K. (1997). Improving schooling for language-minority children.
- Ausubel, D. P., Novak, J. D., & Hanesian, H. (1968). *Educational psychology: A cognitive
 view* (Vol. 6). New York: holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Azizifar, A., Roshani, S., Gowhary, H., & Jamalinesari, A. (2015). The effect of pre-
 reading activities on the reading comprehension performance of Ilami High
 School students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 192, 188-194.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.06.027>
- Bailey, M., Hall, C., & Gamble, N. (2007). Promoting school libraries and schools library
 services: problems and partnerships. *English in Education*, 41(2), 71–85.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1754-8845.2007.tb00818.x>
- Baleghizadeh, S., & Dargahi, Z. (2010). The effect of nursery rhymes on EFL children's
 reading ability. *New England Reading Association Journal*, 46(1), 71-75.
- Bantwini, B. D. (2010). How teachers perceive the new curriculum reform: Lessons from
 a school district in the Eastern Cape Province, South Africa. *International
 Journal of Educational Development*, 30(1), 83–90.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2009.06.002>
- Bantwini, B. D., & Diko, N. (2011). Factors Affecting South African District Officials'

- Capacity to Provide Effective Teacher Support. *Creative Education*, 2(03), 226–235. <https://doi.org/10.4236/ce.2011.23031>
- Bean, R.M. (2004). *The reading specialist: Leadership for the classroom, school and community* (2nd ed.). New York. The Guilford Press.
- Beech, J. R. (2005). Ehri's model of phases of learning to read: a brief critique. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 28(1), 50–58. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9817.2005.00252.x>
- Beckman, P. (2002). *Strategy Instruction*. ERIC Digest.
- Bergendorf, K. (2006). College Reading: English for Academic Success. *TESL Reporter*, 39, 2-2.
- Bertram, C., & Christiansen, I. (2014). Understanding research. *An introduction to reading research*. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Blackwell, R., & Laman, S. (2013). Strategies to Teach Sight Words in an Elementary Classroom. *International Journal of Education*, 5(4), 37-47. <https://doi.org/10.5296/ije.v5i4.4024>
- Blanche, M. T., Blanche, M. J. T., Durrheim, K., & Painter, D. (Eds.). (2006). *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*. Juta and Company Ltd.
- Bransford, J. D. (2004). Schema activation and schema acquisition: Comments on Richard C. Anderson's remarks. In R. B. Ruddell, & N. J. Unrau (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (5th ed.) (pp. 607-619). Newark, DE: International Reading Association, Inc.
- Bransford, J. D., & Johnson, M. K. (1972). Contextual prerequisites for understanding: Some investigations of comprehension and recall. *Journal of Verbal Learning and Verbal Behavior*, 11(6), 717–726. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0022-5371\(72\)80006-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0022-5371(72)80006-9)
- British Council Sub-Saharan Africa *Learning in South Africa's multilingual classrooms*. (2019, September 5). www.youtube.com. <https://youtu.be/m5EzoBQv4>
- Broom, Y. (2004). Reading English in Multilingual South African Primary Schools. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 7(6), 506–528. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050408667828>

- Bruner, J. (1985). Child's Talk: Learning to Use Language. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy, 1*(1), 111–114. <https://doi.org/10.1177/026565908500100113>
- Bryman, A. (2004). Qualitative research on leadership: A critical but appreciative review. *The Leadership Quarterly, 15*(6), 729–769. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.09.007>
- Cailing, Q. I. N. (2016). A Schema–Theory Based Study on the Improvement of the College Students' English Writing. *Studies in Literature and Language, 13*(2), 34-42. DOI:10.3968/8753
- Cain, K., Oakhill, J., & Bryant, P. (2000). Investigating the causes of reading comprehension failure: The comprehension-age match design. *Reading and Writing, 12*(1), 31-40. <https://doi.org/10.1023/a:1008051414854>
- Cain, K. (2007). Syntactic awareness and reading ability: Is there any evidence for a special relationship? *Applied Psycholinguistics, 28*(4), 679–694. <https://doi.org/10.1017/s0142716407070361>
- Caldwell-Harris, C. L. (2021). Frequency effects in reading are powerful – But is contextual diversity the more important variable? *Language and Linguistics Compass, 15*(12), 1-17. <https://doi.org/10.1111/lnc3.12444>
- Carstens, A. (2016). Designing linguistically flexible scaffolding for subject-specific academic literacy interventions. *Per Linguam, 32*(3), 1-12 <https://doi.org/10.5785/32-3-690>
- Colorin Colorado. *Reading out loud to older students*. (2012, February 7). www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/tVk6kjFq734>
- Carroll, J. B. (1963). A Model of School Learning. *Teachers College Record: The Voice of Scholarship in Education, 64*(8), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1177/016146816306400801>
- Carroll, J. B. (1989). The Carroll Model. *Educational Researcher, 18*(1), 26–31. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0013189x018001026>
- Castles, A., Rastle, K., & Nation, K. (2018). Ending the Reading Wars: Reading Acquisition from Novice to Expert. *Psychological Science in the Public Interest, 19*(1), 5–51. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1529100618772271>

- Cartwright, K. B., Bock, A. M., Coppage, E. A., Hodgkiss, M. D., & Nelson, M. I. (2017). A comparison of cognitive flexibility and metalinguistic skills in adult good and poor comprehenders. *Journal of Research in Reading, 40*(2), 139–152. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9817.12101>
- Cekiso, M. (2017). Teachers' perceptions of reading instruction in selected primary schools in the Eastern Cape. *Reading & Writing, 8*(1), 1-8. <https://doi.org/10.4102/rw.v8i1.158>
- Cekiso, M., Meyiwa, T., & Mashige, M. (2019). Foundation Phase teachers' experiences with instruction in the mother tongue in the Eastern Cape. *South African Journal of Childhood Education, 9*(1), 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.4102/sajce.v9i1.658>
- CGTN Africa. *South Africa: Teacher training project improves quality of pupils' literacy.* (2018, April 23). www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/v3r347jq78w>
- Chaka, C. (2015). An investigation into the English reading comprehension of Grade 10 English first additional language learners at a senior secondary school. *Reading & Writing-Journal of the Reading Association of South Africa, 6*(1), 1-7. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4102/rw.v6i1.62>
- Chall, J. S., & Jacobs, V. A. (2003). The classic study on poor children's fourth-grade slump. *American educator, 27*(1), 14-15.
- Chapman, J. W., & Tunmer, W. E. (2003). Reading difficulties, reading-related self-perceptions, and strategies for overcoming negative self-beliefs. *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 19*(1), 5–24. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10573560308205>
- Chevalier, N., & Blaye, A. (2008). Cognitive flexibility in pre-schoolers: The role of representation activation and maintenance. *Developmental Science, 11*(3), 339–353. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-7687.2008.00679.x>
- Cho, Y. A., & Ma, J. H. (2020). The Effects of Schema Activation and Reading Strategy Use on L2 Reading Comprehension. *ENGLISH TEACHING, 75*(3), 49–68. <https://doi.org/10.15858/engtea.75.3.202009.49>
- Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2013). Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for beginners. *Successful Qualitative Research, 1-400.*

- Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2017). Thematic Analysis. *The Journal of Positive Psychology, 12*(3), 297–298.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/17439760.2016.1262613>
- Cofu, D. P. (2013). An exploration of reading strategies implemented by teachers teaching isiZulu home language in grade 1 (Doctoral dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal).
- Cowan, N., Elliott, E. M., Scott Saults, J., Morey, C. C., Mattox, S., Hismjatullina, A., & Conway, A. R. A. (2005). On the capacity of attention: Its estimation and its role in working memory and cognitive aptitudes. *Cognitive Psychology, 51*(1), 42–100.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cogpsych.2004.12.001>
- Creemers, B. P. M., & Kyriakides, L. (2006). Critical analysis of the current approaches to modelling educational effectiveness: The importance of establishing a dynamic model. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement, 17*(3), 347–366. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09243450600697242>
- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches* (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. SAGE publications.
- Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2008). Strategies for qualitative data analysis. Basics of Qualitative Research. *Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory, 3*(10)
- Corbin, J. M., & Strauss, A. (2008). Elaborating the analysis. Basics of qualitative research: *Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory, 195-228.*
- Cummins, J. (2011). The intersection of cognitive and sociocultural factors in the development of reading comprehension among immigrant students. *Reading and Writing, 25*(8), 1973–1990. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-010-9290-7>
- Cunningham, A. E., Nathan, R. G., & Raheer, K. S. (2010). 12 Orthographic Processing in Models of Word Recognition. *Handbook of Reading Research, Volume IV, 259.*
- De Debat, E. V. (2006). Applying current approaches to the teaching of reading. *English teaching forum, 44*(1), 8-15.

- De Witt, M., Lessing, A., & Lenayi, E. (2008). An investigation into the state of early literacy of preschool learners. *Journal for Language Teaching*, 42(1), 38-47. <https://doi.org/10.4314/jlt.v42i1.6098>
- Department of Education. (2010). *Guideline for inclusive education and training*. Pretoria: Department of Education.
- Department of Basic Education. (2011). *National Guidelines for responding to learner diversity in the classroom through curriculum and assessment policy statement policy document*. Pretoria: Department of Education
- Department of Basic Education. (2011a). *Curriculum and Assessment Policy statements*. publishing details & doi number missing
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2008). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Strategies of qualitative inquiry* 1–43. Sage Publications, Inc.
- DG Murray Trust. *Help children to love reading*. (2016, April 7.). [Www.youtube.com](http://www.youtube.com). Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/19KdijJav9o>
- Du, J. (2019). Application of schema theory in college English listening teaching. In *2019 5th International Conference on Social Science and Higher Education (ICSSHE 2019)*, 489-493. Atlantis Press.
- Duke, N. K., & Carlisle, J. (2011). The development of comprehension. In *Handbook of reading research*, 199-228. Routledge.
- Durrheim, K. (2006). Research design. *Research in practice: Applied methods for the social sciences*, 2(1), 33-59.
- Ediger, M. (2004). Psychology of lesson plans and unit development. *Reading Improvement*, 41(4), 197.
- eNCAR *Reading skills crisis in South Africa*. (2019, June 9.). [Www.youtube.com](http://www.youtube.com). Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/EmKDpYhUFL0>
- Etikan, I., & Bala, K. (2017). Sampling and Sampling Methods. *Biometrics & Biostatistics International Journal*, 5(6), 215–217. <https://doi.org/10.15406/bbij.2017.05.00149>
- Fahriany, F. (2014). The role of awareness in second language development. *Journal on*

English as a Foreign Language, 4(1), 37-40.

- Francis, D. J., Fletcher, J. M., Catts, H. W., & Tomblin, J. B. (2005). Dimensions affecting the assessment of reading comprehension. In *Children's reading comprehension and assessment* (pp. 387-412). Routledge.
- Ferrer, E., Shaywitz, B. A., Holahan, J. M., Marchione, K., & Shaywitz, S. E. (2009). Uncoupling of Reading and IQ Over Time: Empirical evidence for a definition of dyslexia. *Psychological Science*, 21(1), 93–101. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797609354084>
- Fesi, L., Makeleni, S., & Duku, N. (2020). Factors affecting the teaching of reading comprehension: a case of grade 3 isiXhosa home language learners. In *Proceedings of EDULEARN20 Conference*, 6(7), 8922-8931.
- Fillmore, L. W., & Snow, C. E. (2000). What teachers need to know about language
- Fitzgerald, J., & Shanahan, T. (2000). Reading and Writing Relations and Their Development. *Educational Psychologist*, 35(1), 39–50. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep3501_5
- Fleisch, B. (2008). *Primary education in crisis: Why South African school children underachieve in reading and mathematics*. Juta and Company Ltd.
- Florit, E., & Cain, K. (2011). The Simple View of Reading: Is It Valid for Different Types of Alphabetic Orthographies? *Educational Psychology Review*, 23(4), 553–576. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-011-9175-6>
- Foorman, B. R., & Connor, C. M. (2011). Primary grade reading. In *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 136-156). Routledge.
- Foxcroft, C. D. (2011). Ethical Issues Related to Psychological Testing in Africa: What I Have Learned (So Far). *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture*, 2(2). <https://doi.org/10.9707/2307-0919.1022>
- Funda Wande 234. *Physical Barriers to learning*. (2020, September 11). www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/PL2gVDUPSIs>
- Gee, J. P. (2004). *An introduction to discourse analysis: Theory and method*. Routledge.
- Ghafar Samar, R., & Dehqan, M. (2012). Sociocultural theory and reading comprehension:

The scaffolding of readers in an EFL context. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 2(3), 67-80.
<https://doi.org/10.5861/ijrsl.2012.183>

Ghanaguru, S, Liang, N. H., & Kit, N. L. (2010). An initial study of reading problems and strategies: an educator's perspective. *IPBA Journal*, 3(1): 17-38.
<http://aps.emoe.gov.my/ipba/rdipba/cd1/article56.pdf>. [15/09/2010].

Ghanaguru, S., Liang, N. H., & Kit, N. L. (1998). An initial study of reading problems and strategies: A teacher's perspective. *IPBA Journal*, 3(1), 1-19.

Gilakjani, A. P., & Ahmadi, M. R. (2011). A Study of Factors Affecting EFL Learners' English Listening Comprehension and the Strategies for Improvement. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(5), 977-988.
<https://doi.org/10.4304/jltr.2.5.977-988>

Gilakjani, A. P., & Ahmadi, S. M. (2011). The Relationship between L2 Reading Comprehension and Schema Theory: A Matter of Text Familiarity. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology*, 142–149. <https://doi.org/10.7763/ijiet.2011.v1.24>

Goldenberg, C. (2020). Reading Wars, Reading Science, and English Learners. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 55, 131-144. <http://doi:10.1002/rrq.340>

Gratton, C., & Jones, I. (2004). Analyzing data II: Qualitative data analysis. *Research methods for sport studies*, 217-227.

Guthrie, J. T. (2004). Differentiating instruction for struggling readers within the CORI classroom. In J. T. Guthrie, A. Wigfield, & K. C. Perencevich (Eds.), *Motivating reading comprehension: Concept Oriented Reading Instruction* (pp. 1–24). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Hall, J., Gaved, M., & Sargent, J. (2021). Participatory research approaches in times of covid-19: A narrative literature review. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 20, 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1177/16094069211010087>

Hall, T., Strangman, N., & Meyer, A. (2003). Differentiated instruction and implications for UDL implementation. *Wakefield, MA: National Center on Accessing the General Curriculum*. Retrieved July 29, 2010.

- Hassan, I. J., & Dweik, B. S. (2021). Factors and challenges in English reading comprehension among young Arab EFL Learners. *Academic Research International, 12*, 18-30.
- Hayes, D. A., & Tierney, R. J. (1980). Increasing Background Knowledge through Analogy: Its Effects upon Comprehension and Learning. *Technical Report No. 186*.
- Hedgcock, J. S., & Ferris, D. R. (2018). *Teaching readers of English: Students, texts, and contexts*. Routledge
- Hlalethwa, B. D. (2013). Reading difficulties experienced by learners in the foundation phase in inclusive schools in Makapanstad (Doctoral dissertation, University of South Africa).
- Hoadley, U. (2012). What do we know about teaching and learning in South African primary schools? *Education as change, 16*(2), 187-202.
- Holmes, J., Gathercole, S. E., & Dunning, D. L. (2010). Poor working memory: impact and interventions. *Advances in child development and behavior, 39*, 1-43. <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-374748-8.00001-9>
- Houghton, C., Casey, D., Shaw, D., & Murphy, K. (2013). Rigour in qualitative case-study research. *Nurse Researcher, 20*(4), 12–17. <https://doi.org/10.7748/nr2013.03.20.4.12.e326>
- How to solve the literacy crisis in South Africa | Solving reading problems with help2readSA*. (n.d.). www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from https://youtu.be/_DJ8gN0BB0I
- Howie, S., Venter, E., van Staden, S., Zimmerman, L., Long, C., du Toit, C., Scherman, V., & Archer, E. (2007). Progress in International Reading Literacy Study PIRLS 2006: *Summary Report: South African Children's Reading Literacy Achievement Report*. Centre for Evaluation and Assessment (CEA)
- Howie, S. J., Van Staden, S., Tshele, M., Dowse, C., & Zimmerman, L. (2012). *PIRLS 2011: South African children's reading literacy achievement report*. Centre for Evaluation and Assessment (CEA).
- Hugo, A. (2011). Foundation Phase teachers: The “battle” to teach reading. *Journal for Language Teaching, 44*(2), 133-150.

<https://doi.org/10.4314/jlt.v44i2.71795>

Jowett, A., Peel, E., & Shaw, R. (2011). Online Interviewing in Psychology: Reflections on the Process. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 8(4), 354–369. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14780887.2010.500352>

Kalu, F. A., & Bwalya, J. C. (2017). What Makes Qualitative Research Good Research? An Exploratory Analysis of Critical Elements. *International Journal of Social Science Research*, 5(2), 43-56. <https://doi.org/10.5296/ijssr.v5i2.10711>

Hennink, M., Hutter, I., & Bailey, A. (2020). *Qualitative Research Methods*. SAGE.

Kane, M. J., & Engle, R. W. (2002). The role of prefrontal cortex in working-memory capacity, executive attention, and general fluid intelligence: An individual-differences perspective. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 9(4), 637–671. <https://doi.org/10.3758/bf03196323>

Keen, S., Lomeli-Rodriguez, M., & Joffe, H. (2022). From Challenge to Opportunity: Virtual Qualitative Research During COVID-19 and Beyond. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 21, 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1177/16094069221105075>

Klapwijk, N. M. (2015). EMC2= comprehension: A reading strategy instruction framework for all teachers. *South African Journal of Education*, 35(1), 1-10. DOI:10.15700/201503062348

Kuşdemir, Y., & Bulut, P. (2018). The Relationship between Elementary School Students' Reading Comprehension and Reading Motivation. *Journal of Education and Training Studies*, 6(12), 97-110. <https://doi.org/10.11114/jets.v6i12.3595>

Landrum, T. J., Scott, T. M., & Lingo, A. S. (2011). Classroom Misbehavior is Predictable and Preventable. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 93(2), 30–34. <https://doi.org/10.1177/003172171109300207>

Lathen, L., & Laestadius, L. (2021). Reflections on Online Focus Group Research with Low Socio-Economic Status African American Adults During COVID-19. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 20, 160940692110217. <https://doi.org/10.1177/16094069211021713>

- Lazutina, T. V., Ovsyannikova, O. A., Zhukova, A. M., & Prokofeva, I. V. (2016). Education of the Individual by Means of Art. *International Journal of Environmental and Science Education*, 11(17), 10071-10080.
- Lesaux, N. K., & Siegel, L. S. (2003). The Development of Reading in Children Who Speak English as a Second Language. *Developmental Psychology*, 39(6), 1005–1019. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.39.6.1005>
- Lesaux, N. K., & Kieffer, M. J. (2010). Exploring Sources of Reading Comprehension Difficulties Among Language Minority Learners and Their Classmates in Early Adolescence. *American Educational Research Journal*, 47(3), 596–632. <https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831209355469>
- Li, P., & Clariana, R.B. (2019). Reading comprehension in L1 and L2: An integrative approach. *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, 50, 94–105. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jneuroling.2018.03.005>
- LI Jian-ping, & ZANG Li-sha. (2016). The Application of Schema Theory to English Reading Teaching in Junior High School. *Sino-US English Teaching*, 13(1), 14-21. <https://doi.org/10.17265/1539-8072/2016.01.003> .
- Li, X. H., Wu, J., & Wang, W. H. (2007). Analysis of schema theory and its influence on reading. *US-China foreign language*, 5(11), 18-21.
- Linck, J. A., Osthus, P., Koeth, J. T., & Bunting, M. F. (2014). Working memory and second language comprehension and production: A meta- analysis. *Psychonomic bulletin & review*, 21(4), 861-883. <http://dx.doi.org/10.3758/s13423-013-0565-2>
- Lodico, M. G., Spaulding, D. T., & Voegtler, K. H. (2006). *Methods in Educational Research: from Theory to Practice*. Jossey-Bass.
- Lodico, M. G., Spaulding, D. T., & Voegtler, K. H. (2010). *Methods in educational research: From theory to practice* (Vol. 28). John Wiley & Sons.
- Lobe, B., Morgan, D., & Hoffman, K. A. (2020). Qualitative Data Collection in an Era of Social Distancing. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 19. Sagepub. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406920937875>

- Madikiza, N., Cekiso, M. P., Tshotsho, B. P., & Landa, N. (2018). Analysing English First Additional Language teachers' understanding and implementation of reading strategies. *Reading & Writing, 9*(1), 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.4102/rw.v9i1.170>
- Manyike, T. V., & Lemmer, E. M. (2010). English reading and writing performance of Xitsonga-speaking Grade 7 learners in township schools: A case study. *Per Linguam, 26*(1). <https://doi.org/10.5785/26-1-12>
- Markham, A. N. (2016). *Ethnography in the digital internet era*. Denzin NK & Lincoln YS, Sage handbook of qualitative research, Thousands Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, 650-668.
- Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2014). *Designing qualitative research*. Sage publications.
- Maxwell, J. A. (2008). *Designing a qualitative study, 2*, 214-253. The SAGE handbook of applied social research methods.
- McBride-Chang, C., Chung, K. K. H., & Tong, X. (2011). Copying skills in relation to word reading and writing in Chinese children with and without dyslexia. *Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 110*(3), 422–433. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jecp.2011.04.014>
- McMillan, J. H., & Schumacher, S. (2010). *Research in Education: Evidence-Based Inquiry*. MyEducationLab Series. Pearson.
- McNamara, D. S., Ozuru, Y., Best, R., & O'Reilly, T. (2007). The 4-pronged comprehension strategy framework. *Reading comprehension strategies: Theories, interventions, and technologies*, 465-496.
- McKee, A. (2001). A beginner's guide to textual analysis. *Metro Magazine: Media & Education Magazine*, (127/128), 138-149.
- McVee, M. B., Dunsmore, K., & Gavelek, J. R. (2005). Schema Theory Revisited. *Review of Educational Research, 75*(4), 531–566. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543075004531>
- McVee, M. B., Gavelek, J. R., & Dunsmore, K. L. (2007). Considerations of the Social, Individual, and Embodied: A Response to Comments on “Schema Theory Revisited.” *Review of Educational Research, 77*(2), 245–248. <https://doi.org/10.3102/003465430301677>

- Merga, M. K. (2019). How do librarians in schools support struggling readers? *English in Education*, 53(2), 145–160.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/04250494.2018.1558030>
- Mgqwashu, E. M., & Makhathini, B. (2017). Transforming primary school teachers' perceptions of the 'place' of teaching reading: the role of Reading to Learn methodology. *The Independent Journal of Teaching and Learning*, (12)1, 30-49.
- Millin, T. J. (2015). Reading to Learn: A literature review within a South African context. *Stellenbosch Papers in Linguistics*, 44(0), 105–124.
<https://doi.org/10.5774/44-0-170>
- Mini Bilinguals. *Strategies for Teaching Reading 1 Teaching Reading to Young Learners*. (2016, June 19). Www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/KV07uX9DVnY>
- Ministry of Education. (2004). *Supporting Student Successful Literacy, Grade 7-12. Effective Practices of Ontario School Board*. Queen's Printer for Ontario. ISBN 0-7794-6359-504-102.
- Miyake, A., Friedman, N. P., Emerson, M. J., Witzki, A. H., Howerter, A., & Wager, T. D. (2000). The Unity and Diversity of Executive Functions and Their Contributions to Complex "Frontal Lobe" Tasks: A Latent Variable Analysis. *Cognitive Psychology*, 41(1), 49–100.
<https://doi.org/10.1006/cogp.1999.0734>
- Module Four: Phonemic Awareness: What classroom activities can promote phonemic awareness?* (n.d.). Www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/9babWRRyFdo>
- Mohammed, I., & Amponsah, O. (2018). Predominant factors contributing to low reading abilities of pupils at Elsie Lund Basic School in the Tamale Metropolis, Ghana. *African Educational Research Journal*, 6(4), 273–278.
<https://doi.org/10.30918/aerj.64.18.071>
- Morison, T., Gibson, A. F., Wigginton, B., & Crabb, S. (2015). Online Research Methods in Psychology: Methodological Opportunities for Critical Qualitative Research. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 12(3), 223–232.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14780887.2015.1008899>

- Naafan, K. J. (2018). *Developing reading strategies to improve upon reading culture among upper primary pupils of Malshegu Kidz Active Foundation School in Tamale, Northern Region, Ghana* (Doctoral dissertation, University for Development Studies, Tamale).
- Naidoo, U., Reddy, K., & Dorasamy, N. (2014). Reading Literacy in Primary Schools in South Africa: Educator Perspectives on Factors Affecting Reading Literacy and Strategies for Improvement. *International Journal of Educational Sciences*, 7(1), 155–167. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09751122.2014.11890179>
- Nassaji, H. (2002). Schema Theory and Knowledge-Based Processes in Second Language Reading Comprehension: A Need for Alternative Perspectives. *Language Learning*, 52(2), 439–481. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00189>
- Nel, C. (2011). Classroom assessment of reading comprehension: how are pre-service foundation phase teachers being prepared? *Per Linguam: A Journal of Language Learning*= *Per Linguam: Tydskrif vir Taalaanleer*, 27(2), 40-63.
- Nel, C. (2011). Classroom assessment of reading comprehension: How are preservice Foundation Phase teachers being prepared? *Per Linguam*, 27(2), 40-63. <https://doi.org/10.5785/27-2-107>
- Newzroom Afrika. *78% of SA primary school learners cannot read to understand*. (2022, September 2.). [Www.youtube.com](http://www.youtube.com). Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/AFo4XtFkd7c>
- Ngwenya, M. D. (2004). *The imaging technique as learning support for educationally disadvantaged learners in the secondary school, to improve reading comprehension* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pretoria).
- Nicholson, T. W., & Tunmer, W. E. (2010). Reading: The great debate. In *Educational psychology: Concepts, research and challenges* (50-64). Routledge.
- Noble, H., & Smith, J. (2015). Issues of Validity and Reliability in Qualitative Research. *Evidence Based Nursing*, 18(2), 34–35. <https://ebn.bmj.com/content/18/2/34>
- O'Reilly, T., Wang, Z., & Sabatini, J. (2019). How much knowledge is too little? When a lack of knowledge becomes a barrier to comprehension. *Psychological Science*, 30(9), 1344–1351. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0956797619862276>

- Paratore, J. R., Cassano, C. M., & Schickedanz, J. A. (2011). Supporting early (and later) literacy development at home and at school. *Handbook of reading research*, 4, 107-135.
- Paris, S. G., & Lindauer, B. K. (1976). The role of inference in children's comprehension and memory for sentences. *Cognitive psychology*, 8(2), 217-227.
- Palinscar, A. S., & Brown, A. L. (1984). Reciprocal Teaching of Comprehension-Fostering and Comprehension-Monitoring Activities. *Cognition and Instruction*, 1(2), 117–175. https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532690xci0102_1
- Pearson South Africa. *Vuma: learning to read with confidence*. (2019, May 3). [Www.youtube.com](https://www.youtube.com). Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/ggvebjUDQfo>
- Petty, N. J., Thomson, O. P., & Stew, G. (2012). Ready for a paradigm shift? Part 1: Introducing the philosophy of qualitative research. *Manual therapy*, 17(4), 267-274. doi:10.1016/j.math.2012.03.006
- Petty, N. J., Thomson, O. P., & Stew, G. (2012). Ready for a paradigm shift? Part 2: Introducing qualitative research methodologies and methods. *Manual therapy*, 17(5), 378-384. doi:10.1016/j.math.2012.03.004
- Pham, L. T. M. (2018). *Qualitative approach to research a review of advantages and disadvantages of three paradigms: Positivism, interpretivism and critical inquiry*. University of Adelaide.
- Pinnell, G. S., & Fountas, I. C. (2010). Research base for guided reading as an instructional approach. *Scholastic: Guided reading research*.
- Point, L. (2004). A closer look at the five essential components of effective reading instruction: A review of scientifically based reading research for teachers. *Naperville, IL: Learning Point Associates*.
- Pressley, M. (2002). Effective Beginning Reading Instruction. *Journal of Literacy Research*, 34(2), 165–188. https://doi.org/10.1207/s15548430jlr3402_3
- Pressley, M. (2002). Metacognition and self-regulated comprehension. *What research has to say about reading instruction*, 3, 291-309

- Pretorius, E. J., & Currin, S. (2010). Do the rich get richer and the poor poorer?: The effects of an intervention programme on reading in the home and school language in a high poverty multilingual context. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 30(1), 67-76.
- Pretorius, L., & Klapwijk, N. (2016). Reading comprehension in South African schools: Are teachers getting it, and getting it right? *Per Linguam*, 32(1). <https://doi.org/10.5785/32-1-627>
- Pretorius, E. J., & Machet, M. P. (2004). The socio-educational context of literacy accomplishment in disadvantaged schools: Lessons for reading in the early primary school years. *Journal for Language Teaching*, 38(1). <https://doi.org/10.4314/jlt.v38i1.6027>
- Pritchard, R. (1990). The Effects of Cultural Schemata on Reading Processing Strategies. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 25(4), 273-326. <https://doi.org/10.2307/747692>
- Rademeyer, R. A. (2009). Age-reading error matrices for *Merluccius paradoxus* and *M. capensis*.
- Roberts, T. A., Christo, C., & Shefelbine, J. A. (2011). Word recognition. In *Handbook of reading research* (pp. 229-258). Routledge.
- Rosado, N., & Caro, K. G. (2018). The Relationship Between Lexis and Reading Comprehension: A Review. *English Language Teaching*, 11(11), 136-147. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v11n11p136>
- Rule, P., & Land, S. (2017). Finding the plot in South African reading education. *Reading & Writing*, 8(1), 1-8. <https://doi.org/10.4102/rw.v8i1.121>
- Ruterana, P. C. (2012). *The making of a reading society: Developing a culture of reading in Rwanda* (Doctoral dissertation, Linköping University Electronic Press).
- SABC News. *Literacy remains a major challenge in South Africa*. (2022, September 8). www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/19RH-ZQGeGc>
- SABC News. *The state of literacy teaching and learning in the foundation phase*. (2013, May 8). www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/95s8C7iYVcw>

- Sadoski, M., & Paivio, A. (2007). Toward a Unified Theory of Reading. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 11*(4), 337–356. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10888430701530714>
- School libraries | Promote reading and build libraries.* (n.d.). www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/xgEGFXQSTg8>
- Sebole, L. L., Khoza-Shangase, K., & Mophosho, M. (2019). The reading comprehension of Grade 5 Setswana-speaking learners in rural schools in South Africa: Does home language matter? *Per Linguam: A Journal of Language Learning= Per Linguam: Tydskrif vir Taalaanleer, 35*(3), 59-73. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5785/35-3-844>
- Salem, A. A. M. S. (2017). Scaffolding Reading Comprehension Skills. *English Language Teaching, 10*(1), 97-111. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v10n1p97>
- Schraw, G., & Bruning, R. (1999). How Implicit Models of Reading Affect Motivation to Read and Reading Engagement. *Scientific Studies of Reading, 3*(3), 281–302. https://doi.org/10.1207/s1532799xssr0303_5
- Singh, M., & Burgess, S. (2007). Electronic data collection methods. In *Handbook of research on electronic surveys and measurements* (pp. 28-43). IGI Global.
- Siyothula, A. (2019). Reading for understanding: An investigation into teachers' reading comprehension strategies in grade three isiXhosa home language classrooms in the Western Cape. (Dissertation, University of Western Cape)
- Spaull, N. (2013). Poverty & privilege: Primary school inequality in South Africa. *International Journal of Educational Development, 33*(5), 436–447. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2012.09.009>
- Stahl, K. A. D., Flanigan, K., & McKenna, M. C. (2019). *Assessment for reading instruction*. Guilford Publications.
- Swanson, H. L., & Siegel, L. (2011). Learning disabilities as a working memory deficit. *Experimental Psychology, 49*(1), 5-28.
- Sweet, A. P., & Snow, C. E. (Eds.). (2003). *Rethinking reading comprehension*. Guilford Press.
- Tatum, A.W. (2011). Diversity and literacy. In S.J. Samuels & A.E. Farstrup (Eds.), *What research has to say about reading instruction* (4th ed., pp. 424–447). Newark,

DE: International Reading Association.

Taylor, N. & Taylor, S. (2013). Teacher knowledge and professional habitus. In N Taylor, S van der Berg & T Mabogoane (eds.) *Creating effective schools*. Cape Town: Pearson Education, pp. 201- 232.

TEAM Schools (KIPP) - Careers - Read Aloud. (n.d.). www.youtube.com. Retrieved December 1, 2022, from <https://youtu.be/GFQoytahPiE>

Terry, G., Hayfield, N., Clarke, V., & Braun, V. (2017). *Thematic analysis*. The SAGE handbook of qualitative research in psychology, 2, 17-37.

Terry, N. P., & McDonald Connor, C. (2012). Changing Nonmainstream American English Use and Early Reading Achievement from Kindergarten to First Grade. *American Journal of Speech-Language Pathology*, 21(1), 78–86. [https://doi.org/10.1044/1058-0360\(2011/10-0093\)](https://doi.org/10.1044/1058-0360(2011/10-0093))

Teti, M., Schatz, E., & Liebenberg, L. (2020). Methods in the Time of COVID-19: The Vital Role of Qualitative Inquiries. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 19, 160940692092096. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1609406920920962>

Thanh, N. C., & Thanh, T. T. (2015). The interconnection between interpretivist paradigm and qualitative methods in education. *American journal of educational science*, 1(2), 24-27.

Tindall, E., & Nisbet, D. (2010). Exploring the Essential Components of Reading. *Journal of Adult Education*, 39(1), 1-9.

Tlale, L. D. N. (2021). Reading Challenges Confronted by Learners in Inclusive Primary Schools. *Ilkogretim Online*, 20(1),1051-1061. <https://doi.org/10.17051/ilkonline.2021.01.93>

Tomlinson, C. A., & Imbeau, M. B. (2010). *Leading and managing a differentiated classroom*. Ascd.

Torgesen, J. K. (2000). Individual Differences in Response to Early Interventions in Reading: The Lingering Problem of Treatment Resisters. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, 15(1), 55–64. https://doi.org/10.1207/sldrp1501_6

- Torgesen, J. K. (2002). The Prevention of Reading Difficulties. *Journal of School Psychology, 40*(1), 7–26. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0022-4405\(01\)00092-9](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0022-4405(01)00092-9)
- Tripathy, J. P. (2013). Secondary data analysis: Ethical issues and challenges. *Iranian journal of public health, 42*(12), 1478.
- Trochim, W. (2006). Qualitative validity. *Socialresearchmethods. net*.
- Turner, J. C. (1995). The Influence of Classroom Contexts on Young Children's Motivation for Literacy. *Reading Research Quarterly, 30*(3), 410-441. <https://doi.org/10.2307/747624>
- Turner, J., & Paris, S. G. (1995). How literacy tasks influence children's motivation for literacy. *The reading teacher, 48*(8), 662-673.
- UNESCO. (2017). More than one-half of children and adolescents are not learning worldwide. *UIS Fact Sheet No. 46*.
- van Keer, H., & Verhaeghe, J. P. (2005). Effects of explicit reading strategies instruction and peer tutoring on second and fifth graders' reading comprehension and self-efficacy perceptions. *The Journal of Experimental Education, 73*(4), 291-329.
- van Staden, S., & Howie, S. (2012). Reading between the lines: contributing factors that affect Grade 5 student reading performance as measured across South Africa's 11 languages. *Educational Research and Evaluation, 18*(1), 85–98. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13803611.2011.641270>
- van Staden, S., & Bosker, R. (2014). Factors that affect South African Reading Literacy Achievement: evidence from prePIRLS 2011. *South African Journal of Education, 34*(3), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.15700/201409161059>
- van Wyk, B. (2012). Research design and methods Part I. University of Western Cape. [PowerPoint slides]
- Verbeek, D. C. (2010). Teaching reading for meaning: A case study of the initial teaching of reading in a mainstream South African school (Doctoral dissertation, University of KwaZulu-Natal).
- Verhoeven, L., Reitsma, P., & Siegel, L. S. (2011). Cognitive and linguistic factors in reading acquisition. *Reading and Writing, 24*(4), 387–394.

<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11145-010-9232-4>

- Wallner-Paschon, C. (2009). Home environment, motivational characteristics in reading, reading activities and gender: How do these factors interact and affect reading literacy of primary school students? Findings from PIRLS 2006. In ECER Conference, Vienna, Austria.
- Wamala, R., & Seruwagi, G. (2013). Teacher Competence and the Academic Achievement of Sixth Grade Students in Uganda. *Journal of International Education Research (JIER)*, 9(1), 83–90. <https://doi.org/10.19030/jier.v9i1.7503>
- Walqui, A. (2006). Scaffolding Instruction for English Language Learners: A Conceptual Framework. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 9(2), 159–180. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13670050608668639>
- Widmayer, S. A. (2004). Schema theory: An introduction. Retrieved December 26, 2004.
- Wilson, V. (2014). Research Methods: Triangulation. *Evidence Based Library and Information Practice*, 9(1), 74. <https://doi.org/10.18438/b8ww3x>
- Watts-Taffe, S., Barbara Laster, B., Broach, L., Marinak, B., McDonald Connor, C., & Walker-Dalhouse, D. (2012). Differentiated instruction: Making informed teacher decisions. *The Reading Teacher*, 66(4), 303–314. <https://doi.org/10.1002/trtr.01126>
- Winter, J. S. (2013). Is Internet Access a Human Right?: Linking Information and Communication Technology Development with Global Human Rights' Efforts. *The Global Studies Journal*, 5(3), 35–48. <https://doi.org/10.18848/1835-4432/cgp/v05i03/40853>
- Yildirim, K. (2013). Fluency-based skills of reading and their relations with reading comprehension in Turkish elementary school children. *International Journal of Academic Research*, 5(2), 134–139. <https://doi.org/10.7813/2075-4124.2013/5-2/b.20>
- Zhang, Z. (1993). Literature Review on Reading Strategy Research.
- Zhao, X., & Zhu, L. (2012). Schema Theory and College English Reading Teaching. *English Language Teaching*, 5(11), 111–117. <https://doi.org/10.5539/elt.v5n11p111>

Appendix A: Data Recording Form

Source description

Type of source: _____

Name of source: _____

Date published/retrieved: _____

Author: _____

Research questions and sub-questions

Research question 1: What are some of the constructs that are used in literature when referring to reading difficulties?

Sub-questions

1. How is the term reading difficulties defined?

2. How can learners presenting with reading difficulties be identified?

Research question 2: Which strategies are identified in literature to assist learners with reading difficulties?

Sub-questions

1. How can learners with reading difficulties be assisted to accomplish reading tasks?

2. What interventions can be provided by the department of education or schools to equip educators with the necessary skills to assist learners with reading difficulties?

3. What teaching resources can be used by educators to assist learners with reading difficulties?

Data recording table for analysis

Data source		What are some of the constructs that are used in literature when referring to reading difficulties?		Which strategies are identified in literature to assist learners with reading difficulties?		
Author	How is the term reading difficulties defined?	How can learners presenting with reading difficulties be identified?	How can learners with reading difficulties be assisted to accomplish reading tasks?	What interventions can be provided by the department of education or schools to equip educators with the necessary skills to assist learners with reading difficulties?	What are the teaching resources that can be used by educators to assist learners with reading difficulties?	
Date						
Published/retrieved						
Type of source						
1.						
2.						

Appendix B: Turnit in Report

Exploring the strategies used by educators in public schools to teach learners presenting with reading difficulties

ORIGINALITY REPORT

11 %	10 %	3 %	%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

PRIMARY SOURCES

1	repository.up.ac.za Internet Source	1 %
2	hdl.handle.net Internet Source	1 %
3	uir.unisa.ac.za Internet Source	1 %
4	www.researchgate.net Internet Source	1 %
5	files.eric.ed.gov Internet Source	1 %
6	www.pearsonhighered.com Internet Source	1 %
7	docplayer.net Internet Source	1 %
8	ulspace.ul.ac.za Internet Source	1 %
9	cscanada.net Internet Source	<1 %

10	doi.org Internet Source	<1 %
11	www.tandfonline.com Internet Source	<1 %
12	www.savap.org.pk Internet Source	<1 %
13	www.youtube.com Internet Source	<1 %
14	ir.physiciansweekly.com Internet Source	<1 %
15	vital.seals.ac.za:8080 Internet Source	<1 %
16	eprints.uny.ac.id Internet Source	<1 %
17	www.academypublication.com Internet Source	<1 %
18	Phajane, Masello Hellen. "Traditional Method of Teaching Reading", Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences, 2014. Publication	<1 %
19	awej.org Internet Source	<1 %
20	acikbilim.yok.gov.tr Internet Source	<1 %

21	sutir.sut.ac.th:8080 Internet Source	<1 %
22	tml.nul.ls Internet Source	<1 %
23	researchspace.ukzn.ac.za Internet Source	<1 %
24	Catherine McBride-Chang, Phil D. Liu, Terry Wong, Anita Wong, Hua Shu. "Specific Reading Difficulties in Chinese, English, or Both", <i>Journal of Learning Disabilities</i> , 2011 Publication	<1 %
25	link.springer.com Internet Source	<1 %
26	rw.org.za Internet Source	<1 %
27	www.scielo.org.za Internet Source	<1 %
28	p2m.oicrm.org Internet Source	<1 %
29	"Language learning and teaching - theory and practice", <i>Language Teaching</i> , 2008 Publication	<1 %
30	Usha Naidoo, Karunanidhi Reddy, Nirmala Dorasamy. "Reading Literacy in Primary Schools in South Africa: Educator Perspectives"	<1 %

on Factors Affecting Reading Literacy and Strategies for Improvement", International Journal of Educational Sciences, 2017

Publication

31	repository.bilkent.edu.tr Internet Source	<1 %
32	adoc.tips Internet Source	<1 %
33	Klapwijk, Nanda. "Teachers' own use of reading strategies: Does it transfer to their teaching?", Language Matters, 2016. Publication	<1 %
34	Nophawu Madikiza, Madoda P. Cekiso, Baba P. Tshotsho, Nhlanhla Landa. "Analysing English First Additional Language teachers' understanding and implementation of reading strategies", Reading & Writing, 2018 Publication	<1 %
35	www.gencourt.state.nh.us Internet Source	<1 %
36	cdn.loot.co.za Internet Source	<1 %
37	theses.gla.ac.uk Internet Source	<1 %
38	Sam Keen, Martha Lomeli-Rodriguez, Helene Joffe. "From Challenge to Opportunity: Virtual	<1 %

Appendix C: Ethical Clearance Certificate



13 January 2023

Andile Angelique Mkhize (214514336)
School of Applied Human Sc
Pietermaritzburg Campus

Dear AA Mkhize,

System ID number: 00019771

Project title: A textual analysis of strategies used by educators to teach learners presenting with reading difficulties

Amended title: Exploring the strategies used by educators to teach learners presenting with reading difficulties

Degree: Masters

Approval Notification – Amendment Application

This letter serves to notify you that your application and request for an amendment received on 07 November 2022 has now been approved as follows:

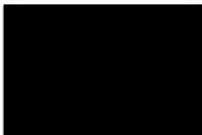
- Change in title

Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form; Title of the Project, Location of the Study must be reviewed and approved through an amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

Best wishes for the successful completion of your research protocol.

Yours faithfully



.....
Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)

/ms