A SURVEY OF THE TEACHING OF READING
IN ENGLISH IN FOUR PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN
BONDO DIVISION, SIAYA DISTRICT.

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DECLARATION.

"This Research Project is my original work and has not been presented for a Degree in any other University".

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To the teachers of reading in English in Primary Schools in Kenya who make tremendous effort in tackling a subject area in which they themselves may not have been well trained.
TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>List of Tables</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>List of Appendices</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acknowledgements</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:0 Background to the Problem</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:1 Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:2 Purpose of the Study</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:3 Significance of the Study</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:4 Basic Assumptions</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:5 Limitations</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1:6 Definition of Significant Terms</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:0 Introduction</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:1 Methods of Teaching Reading</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:1.0 The Alphabetic Method</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:1.1 The Phonic Method</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:1.2 The Syllabic Method</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:1.3 The Whole Word (Look 'n' Say) method</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:1.4 The Sentence Method</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:1.5 Mixed (Eclectic) Methods</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:2 Word Attack Skills</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2:3 The Teaching of Intensive Reading</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF TABLES:

TABLE: 1. Statistical Data of the Area of Study.. 54
TABLE: 2. Survey Schools and their Year of Establishment .................................. 54
TABLE: 3. Teachers' Familiarity with the Methods of Teaching Reading ...................... 59
TABLE: 4. Teachers' Assessment of Pupils' Ability to use Word Attack Skills .... 61
TABLE: 5. Teachers' Attendance at Refresher Courses ........................................... 64
TABLE: 6. Teachers' Opinion about the Teaching of Reading in English ...................... 65
TABLE: 7. Teachers' Reasons for the Difficulty of Teaching of Reading in English .... 66
TABLE: 8. Teachers' Reasons for Lack of Class Libraries ....................................... 93
TABLE: 9. Teachers' Choice of Pupils' Reading Materials ........................................ 96
LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX ONE: A Sample of a Dyslexic Child's written work ......................... 123
"
TWO: Questionnaire ......................... 124
"
THREE: Observation Schedule .............. 132
"
FOUR: Reading Ability Record Card ...... 137
"
FIVE: Diagramatic Intellectual Support for a beginner with phonic method ......................... 138-140
"
SIX: Seven other Lessons observed .... 141
"
SEVEN: Sample Lesson from P.P.E.C. for Std. III Teacher's Copy ............. 142.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1:0 BACKGROUND TO THE PROBLEM.

Reading is one of the four basic language skills that our Curriculum emphasises right from Pre-primary. Literature is available to support the fact that the language arts are complementary (Pappas, 1970; Pearson, 1980). Growth and development in one specific area of the language arts will produce accompanying results in the other skills. Since reading usually precedes writing, it should follow that fluency in the former affects the level at which one will perform in writing.

Written work of some candidates of Kenya Certificate of Education (C.P.E.) and today, Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (K.C.P.E.), especially the composition, shows that a great number of our primary school leavers hardly develop basic literacy skills. The 1982 C.P.E. Newsletter states that out of 350,000 candidates who sat the exam, 20,000 produced work which clearly proved that their "road" to
illiteracy was quite evident. The candidates were unable to spell common words such as because, outside, way, happen, hungry etc. Characteristics of compositions in this category confirm the fact that the writers are unable to process language symbols - spoken and written. The disorder, dyslexia, is characterised by poor motor coordination, reversal of letters, misplacement of syllables, omission of letters.

That our school leavers should come out with this poor literacy development is sad because reading today is second only to the spoken word as a means of

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1See Appendix ONE for a sample of the 20,000 compositions that scored up to 2 marks out of 40. Many were worse than this sample.

2There is controversy whether this disorder is a result of brain damage or simply the outcome of dormant or undeveloped learning centres in the brain (Jordan, D.R., 1972). In this study, dyslexia is taken to mean the inability to process language symbols - both spoken and written. Effective teaching can correct the disorder (Miles, 1974). See also p.
The "do-it-yourself" manuals and the instructions on domestic items and medicine packets make it imperative that all our school leavers be able to read (Pappas, 1970). In the world of work, there is practically no "good" job for illiterate people:

"Being literate, especially knowing how to read, is required of a driver, a carpenter, a shoe-maker, a mechanic, a butcher, a tailor, and other trades."
(Maina Mungai, 1978).

These are the jobs that the newly introduced 8 - 4 - 4 system of Education puts at the centre of its emphasis. Success in these tasks and indeed in today's world depends on the ability to read and write. Illiterate people are often totally ignorant of the larger world around them and lead "blinkerled lives" (Maina, M. 1978).

The place of reading in the life of the school child cannot be underestimated either. The Syllabus states in its introduction that at the end of the

Primary English Course, all pupils are expected to have acquired a sufficient command of English in spoken and written form to enable them to:

"communicate freely, follow subject courses and textbooks, and read for pleasure and information." p.47.

To evaluate the abilities of the pupils at the end of Primary Eight, the reading skill is largely used because all the K.C.P.E. papers require that a candidate is able to read the items with understanding before correct responses can be given. Reading in this case is a tool subject. Without it a child finds himself backward in most other school subjects.

One other factor that strengthens the need for effective instructional practices in reading is that reading disability produces in most cases personality maladjustment so that the normal mental health cannot be maintained if there is failure in reading. (Schonell, 1946; Anderson & Dearborn, 1952). Murray & Downes (1955) put it succinctly that:

"The child who cannot read is considered, and considers himself, different from the rest of the community who can read. The loss of social
prestige is often compensated for by delinquency, generally bad behaviour, and rejection of all book learning .......

The rejection is often followed by backwardness, followed by absenteeism which, in turn, tends to make the child's difficulties greater.

These factors call for more concerted efforts in our schools in order to better the pupils' learning outcomes. Failure to maximise the opportunity of achieving basic literacy by the end of their formal education is denying the pupils the basic reasons why they go to school. The greatest misfortune is that most teachers consider the teaching of reading difficult. Such teachers think that reading means going over a series of comprehension questions (usually the factual type) sometimes with multiple choice at the end of every passage "read" in class. When these exercises are well planned and preceded by genuine intensive study of the passages involved they can be a source of advancement in reading. Quite often, however, they are time fillers when the teacher is away or unprepared.

Such practice may not be universal. Even where teachers use the same methods, there are other
individual qualities peculiar to each teacher which may lead to differences in teaching outcomes. Such individual qualities may include personality make-up, knowledge of child development, the clarity with which goals of the reading programme are expressed, teaching techniques including use of materials, the ability to use and interpret the results of various types of testing procedures and ability to create rapport with the pupils, among others. (Pumfrey, 1977).

Since children have very little control over how these factors can be brought to play in an instructional situation, it is a study of what teachers do that can quite explicitly reveal what goes on in our schools.

However, central reading skill in English may be to the successful coverage of our curriculum, studies so far done are on methods of teaching of reading in Mother-tongue (Ki-Embu: Muciri, 1984) and a partial treatment of the methods in Kiswahili (Ipara, 1986). Except for these two, none of the studies reviewed has treated any aspect of the teaching of reading in English in Kenya which takes into account the instructional practices, and to ascertain
whether the claim of the falling standards of literacy ability of our school leavers could be the result of inappropriate teaching procedures.

It is with this background that this study was initiated: to record the practices in the field, using teachers as the subjects, and provide a basis for future research on reading in English.

1:1 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The survey sought to find out the approaches used in the teaching of reading in English in primary schools in Bondo Division, Siaya District. Being the medium of instruction in upper primary, English language becomes the greatest tool of learning for the primary school child. The survey used the terms teaching of reading, or instructional practices in reading, or approaches in teaching reading quite interchangeably every time to include all of the following:

(i) methods of teaching reading;
(ii) assessment of pupils' reading levels and readability levels of materials;
(iii) methods of word attack skills;
(iv) exposure of pupils to varieties of reading materials.
PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Specifically, the research aimed at finding out:

1. whether the teachers use recommended methods of teaching reading;

2. whether teachers assess pupils' reading levels and keep records which form the basis for improvement strategies;

3. whether the readability of materials used is matched to pupils' reading levels;

4. whether remedial teaching is programmed for backward readers;

5. whether teachers are knowledgeable about "word attack" skills;

6. whether teachers prepare long term English language schemes of work and lesson plans which cover both intensive and extensive reading;

7. whether teaching aids are used and their appropriateness to the methods.
SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Reading is a language skill which helps the pupils to study independently across the school curriculum. It is a path to new experiences. Even routine mechanical work requires the reading of some material such as regulations, travel guides and manuals. Government effort in creating awareness to combat disease and ignorance would be successful if our society developed reading abilities. It is partly due to this that Kenya Government has spent large sums of money in literacy programmes.

The Government effort would be worthless if the level of literacy attainment of those who "drop-out"

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4See literature on Literacy Campaigns:


The Government of Kenya had employed 9,000 full and part time officers to combat illiteracy by the end of 1984. A total of £3.5 million was allocated for Adult Education in 1982-83 Financial Year alone.
of school at the end of the primary cycle is considered (see appendix ONE). It would appear that unless something is done, the Adult Education syndrome is here to stay. Every year our schools will be releasing semi-literate pupils to the community. These semi-literates soon become illiterate and join Adult classes. And so the need for educating adults to read may become a permanent problem.

This realisation has, however, not provoked researchers to do an in-depth study on the teaching of reading in English in Kenyan Primary Schools. Earlier studies have not treated methods of teaching reading and reading attainment in English as central to the success of syllabus coverage. (Wario, 1981; Obuya-Deya, 1980; Obondo, 1984; Wegesa, 1985).

Because English is the medium of instruction, it is becoming urgent that studies are undertaken to evaluate the instructional techniques in the subject so that teachers are constantly reminded of the reasons why pupils terminating their formal education at Primary eight should be fluent in both spoken and written forms of the language. To do this, a survey of this nature, taking stock of the current practices,
is useful to form a spring board for future decision making.

It is the hope of the researcher that teaching points and problems in reading which are highlighted in this project will go a long way in enriching the practices of teachers, supervisors, trainers and policy makers in the field who may need to use it. Although the survey covered four primary schools in Bondo Division, the issues raised may reveal similar happenings in other schools in the whole Division because the four educational zones of Bondo were represented.

1:4. BASIC ASSUMPTIONS.

The survey was undertaken with the assumptions that:

(a) the selected schools, having been established for periods not less than 20 (twenty) years, have accumulated enough reading materials and have both class and school libraries;

(b) the responses elicited by the questionnaire and what was observed in class would reveal
the practice of teachers in their day-to-day teaching of reading;

(c) the length of practice in the field has a positive effect in the teaching of reading;

(d) teachers' awareness of the methods of teaching reading implied that they could use these methods during their actual classroom teaching;

(e) teachers who plan for both intensive and extensive reading expose the children to all the reading skills;

(f) teachers who read extensively outside their normal class work "encourage" their pupils to do the same.

1:5 LIMITATIONS

A survey of this nature would have required time and money if it had to cover many schools and a wider scope to enhance its validity and degree of applicability. The three months during fourth term which were available for this study were far from being enough. To collect data, analyse it and assemble the report before
4th September, 1987 meant that the survey had to be narrowed. Financial constraint further limited the extent to which the study could go.

Information was sought from four (4) schools, one from each zone, and the survey involved 30 teachers in Bondo Division. The researcher observed 10 lessons being taught in classes 3, 5 and 7 in the sample schools. The study concentrated on the teaching techniques in helping children to read. Pupils' performance as a result of the use of a method was, however, outside the scope of the study. A comparative survey that would have looked at cause and effect of the teaching techniques would have required a lot of time and standardized instruments to measure the change which would have occurred when one particular method was used.

For these reasons the outcomes must be used with caution. The small sample rules out general applicability in the whole of Siaya District. Moreover, the study is an attempt to record the practices in the sample schools. A critical analysis of why one teacher used one method instead of another has not been done.
DEFINITION OF SIGNIFICANT TERMS

Only terms which have not been made clear elsewhere in this report are defined in this section.

READING: Many definitions abound about what reading is:

"... reading is the art of reconstructing from the printed page the writer's ideas, moods and sensory impression."  
(Latham, W. 1968).

"Reading is the extraction of meaning from written words and symbols conveying an author's message".  
(Friedman, M, & Rowls, M.D., 1980).

Guided by the two definitions above, we shall take reading to mean the art of reconstructing or extracting meanings which begins by sounding words, but must progress from "barking" at the symbols to thoughtful levels which allow for further application of the reader's prior knowledge to what is read.

DYSLEXIA: Defective reading (Money, 1962). A dyslexic reader is characterised by reversal of letters, omission of letters, misplacement of syllables, skipping of
words along a line, sometimes addition of non-existent words, poor memory of sounds in sequence and/or poor motor coordination. In this report, these characteristics are believed to occur in the 'writing' of a child because errors of this nature should be corrected by a fluent reader. The investigator has, therefore, presented in appendix ONE a sample of a child's written work to exemplify dyslexic children in our schools.

**BACKWARD READER:** A child who cannot cope with the material at his age level given same conditions of instruction and opportunities. Specialists in reading reckon there are differences in intellectual ability which will affect the speed at which a child grasps a new process, the amount of repetition required to learn new material, and the complexity of the tasks he can accomplish at a given age. (Clark, M.M. 1970).

**REMEDIAL READING:** Instruction planned with intent of correcting the problem(s) diagnosed in children's reading.
READABILITY: "In the broadest sense, readability is the sum total (including interactions) of all those elements within a given piece of printed material that affects the success which a group of readers has with it. The success is the extent to which they understand it, read it at optimum speed and find it interesting". (Dale and Chall, 1948). Specifically, one may consider vocabulary and sentence structures, concepts covered, text layout and print type, illustrations etc. as factors which affect readability.

SIGHT VOCABULARY: The words the child knows instantly on sight. No analysis is necessary because they are "read" instantly. (Friedman and Rowls, 1980).

READING SKILLS: A short list as presented my Munby (1978) can, at a glance, show what skills we are referring to:

(i) Reading for exact meaning;
(ii) Reading for implied meaning;
(iii) Reading for relationship of thought;
(iv) Reading for the gist of the text;
(v) Reading for required information.

These may further be divided into sub-skills.

**EDUCATIONAL ZONE:** An administrative grouping of schools under an Assistant Schools Inspector (A.S.I.).
CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 INTRODUCTION.

A lot has been published about the methods of teaching reading. However, very little has been done by way of research to evaluate the use of these methods in our schools. In this chapter we shall review the situation of teaching reading in English in Kenya today before we discuss what experts in this area say about the instructional programmes in reading.

Research locally available on reading has shown how these methods are being used in the teaching of Mother-Tongue (Ki-Embu: Muciri, 1984) and Kiswahili (though partially: Ipara, 1986). Except for these two, no studies reviewed have treated the teaching of reading in English so as to take into account the instructional procedures with the aim of showing whether the recommended methods are effectively being used in Kenyan schools today.

Reading is a form of communication. It is successful only when the reader knows both the facts that are represented and the way in which the writer feels about these facts (Bowers, 1957). In this respect the reading process appeals to both cognitive and affective domains. A satisfactory plan for a reading lesson cannot be evolved until careful consideration is given both to the
intellectual process of acquiring meaning and to affective interpretation. In this study we intend to consider the intellectual aspect only. It is for this reason that we have defined reading purely as a thinking skill, although the interpretation of the message involves the reader's past experiences which includes his emotional life.

A look at the studies so far undertaken in the area of reading reveals that the researchers' sole purpose was to help improve reading instruction so that pupils may read with understanding.

Wario, H. (1981) studied "Reading Attainment and its Relationship to some School Conditions" and concluded that school buildings and material classroom condition, size and location of the school, availability of reading materials and library facilities, among others, have an effect on the reading attainment of the pupils. Wario did not define what he meant by "attainment" in his study, but one could equate it with "ability" which would mean the level at which the pupils can read with maximum understanding. The study, however, was unable to give proof that experience of the teachers, methods used and provision for backward readers influence reading ability. Due to many factors complicating his study, Wario concentrated on the child's school conditions, leaving out family background, child's mental
attributes, sex, deficiencies in vision, emotional and personal adjustment, maturation, motivational and personality factors, some of which would have required laboratory control.

Obuya-Deya (1980) surveyed the effect of Certificate of Primary Education (C.P.E.) English language comprehension testing on the development of reading ability in the Primary Schools. His findings were that classroom teaching and testing practices tended to follow quite closely the pattern of the final examination from year to year; that the passages used in the final examination had no relationship whatsoever with the reading levels of the children because they were difficult. He concluded that the manner in which this paper had been tested in the final examination "significantly affected the development of reading ability in the Primary Schools in Kenya."

He noted particularly the lack of assessment of the readability of the passages used in the classroom and in the examination, a factor which he thought had a serious negative impact on the reading habits of the Primary school children. The comprehension exercises did not present reading to the pupils as a pleasureable activity. Successful teaching of reading should help pupils to further their reading - the extension of experience. This is the time when the child is encouraged
to read extensively other books which deal with related topics (Bowers, 1957). Because the C.P.E and classroom testing passages were beyond the reading abilities of the pupils, they (pupils) could not be motivated to read on their own. Reading would in this case be a task for passing exams only. This is what Obuya-Deya referred to as "negative habit."

Apart from this anomaly, Obuya-Deya did not observe how these difficult passages were being taught in the classroom. Other limitations with the study are that it was confined to two urban schools and concentrated on one aspect of reading instruction, that is comprehension.

Obondo (1984) identified and evaluated the existing practices in parental involvement in the teaching of reading in selected primary schools (std.1) in Nairobi, Southern Division. Involvement was taken to mean the degree in which the parents are committed to a "collaborative supportive relationship" with the child's teachers in school. This is expressed in terms of provision of reading materials, helping the child with homework, teaching the child to read at home (even though this is done without the awareness of the recommended methods), and parents' acknowledgement and acceptance of themselves as the child's most important 'teachers'. Such involvement would set the pace for
effective teaching of reading since the child's background provides positive reading readiness.

Obondo's finding was quite interesting because in many cases parents were not aware of their involvement even when they (parents) were involved and teachers never encouraged them even though they (teachers) knew the usefulness of such involvement. The study might have been more helpful if as well as considering interest of parents and help given to children, parents were also made aware of contribution they could make in providing material assistance. We say this because the availability of reading materials and library facilities have an effect on development of reading (Wario, 1981) and parents' efforts can be geared towards this. That it was done in Nairobi and covered only one educational zone was in itself limiting as the researcher herself has pointed out.

Wegesa's investigation (1986) of the concepts of reading held by secondary school teachers has brought to light what might be the case with primary teachers as well. Concepts here refer to what reading as a skill is taken to be by teachers. Latham (1968) argues that what a teacher thinks reading entails will determine the aims, methods and assessment techniques he (the teacher) employs during the teaching of reading. According to Wegesa,
76% of his respondents had a narrow view of reading restricted to literal comprehension (answering factual questions after passages have been read without any further follow-up activities based on those passages). This concurred with Obuya-Deya's study (1980).

However, unlike the primary school teachers, Wegesa's subjects were in the main not trained to teach reading because the secondary school teacher training syllabus has not isolated reading as an important subject area. Primary school teachers, on the other hand, undergo a course which treats the four basic language skills in order of: listening, speaking, reading and writing. And the Primary Teachers Examination set by Kenya National Examinations Council annually tests the knowledge of trainees in reading skill. Whether this knowledge is retained and used by the teachers, or whether the knowledge of what reading as a skill is all about leads to efficient classroom performance in the teaching is worth finding out. Mere reliance on what others (Latham, 1968) say may not be satisfactory. Wegesa admits that he did not observe his respondents in their classrooms.

Although the studies so far reviewed have looked at certain aspects of reading as a skill in the process of learning, none of them has studied the teaching of reading in English that takes into account the methods used, enabling skills involved, assessment techniques, and materials used in the instructional process. The remaining part of this chapter will discuss these issues. Since the subject area is broad, the treatment has been divided into sub-sections as follows:

2:1 Methods of Teaching Reading;
2:2 Word Attack Skills;
2:3 Teaching of Intensive Reading;
2:4 Teaching of Extensive Reading;
2:5 Assessment of Pupils' Reading ability and Readability Levels of Materials;
2:6 Conclusion.

2:1 METHODS OF TEACHING READING

The varied learning styles of pupils determine the methods most suitable for them. Some children are able to learn quite readily by deduction (using contextual clues), while others need more intellectual support and will progress better in situations presented by the phonic
method\(^2\), where the bulk of the thinking is done for them (Pearson, 1981). On the other hand teachers may have their own preferred ways of teaching children to read, and there does not seem to be one way which is better than any other as we shall show shortly. Each method has its advantages and shortcomings. Because it is their duty to help all children to read, teachers are expected

"to monitor each child's progress, identify his strengths and weaknesses and to provide suitable work accordingly."

Suitability of remedial work given to children must take into account the methods which would best help to

\(^2\)For details see section on phonic approach. Phonic method provides the child with aids of isolating letters and letter groupings, especially when colours are used to represent certain sounds. And so after learning to read eat and big the child can proceed to read beat. Stories can also be derived to help in the association of the sound and the letter. Thus "s" is associated with the hiss of a snake, "g" with the growl of the dog, "f" with the look of a feather, and so on, (Bowers, 1957). See also, appendix five for such intellectual support.
correct the problems of an individual child or group. As Bowers (1957) argues, the child must recognize the words on the printed page quickly and accurately before he combines them into phrases and sentences in such a way that he understands what the writer is saying (p.170). It is due to the importance of recognition of words as a basic skill in reading as a thinking activity that we shall spend time in a lengthy discussion of the methods that lead to it.

Early methods of teaching reading may be divided into two groups:

(i) those which approach the teaching of reading through initial emphasis on the elements of the words and their sounds as aids to word recognition;

(ii) and those which approach it through the use of words or larger units, and lay emphasis on the meaning of what is read. (Gray, 1969).

The first methods are defended on the ground that by learning the elements of words and acquiring skill in combining them into larger units, pupils develop accuracy and independence in word recognition and become acquainted with the form and structure of the language with the result that time is saved later (see advantages of alphabetic, phonic & syllabic methods).
The second group has been supported by two arguments:

First, that since reading is a thought-getting process, use should be made from the beginning of meaningful material, with emphasis on the development of a thoughtful reading attitude. It must consist of words and sentences which convey meaning. Use can be made of picture clues initially and later context and syntactic clues (see later). Learning to read thus becomes an interesting, enjoyable and rewarding process and progress is greatly hastened.

Secondly, as psychologists have demonstrated that children recognise things and ideas as wholes, more or less vaguely at first, proceeding gradually to the recognition of details, the second group does not contradict the natural way in which the child first perceives the world around him. It is for these two arguments that "whole word" and "sentence" methods have been preferred to precede "phonics" because the last requires a basic sight vocabulary before pupils can meaningfully use it. Bowers (1957) subscribes to this view when she states:

"basic vocabulary of sight words makes it possible for the pupil to gain further knowledge of phonic and structural analysis clues and their uses." p.216.
It assumes that familiarity with the forms and names of letters helps the pupils to recognise and pronounce words (Gray, 1969). In learning such a word as cat for example, the pupil repeats the names of the letters c-a-t, until he guesses (senses) the pronunciation of the word, or until he is told what it is.

Some teachers have used the alphabetic method without realising it. Bright (1968) presents a case of the successful use of this method when he says:

"... when we had learnt to write "n", "p" and "e", I couldn't resist seeing if they could read hen and pen, and as we added new letters we were able to write sentences and, almost by accident, we had broken the back of the reading problem."

(emphasis mine) p.116.

The chief objection to the alphabetic method is that the names of the letters do not always indicate the pronunciation of words. The arduous and meaningless repetition often establishes a permanent dislike for reading. Furthermore, since the child learns and repeats the letters before he recognises their function as component elements of words, he is not able to apply them properly. He needs to know gradually the function of "s" at the end of a word — whether
indicating plural or third person singular of a verb; he needs to know the function of "-ing" in certain words and distinguish them from others as in "king" and "sing" etc.

Although it is the naming of the letters as a means of learning to read that has fallen into disfavour, no teacher, of course would deny that children should learn the letter names at some stage (Wilkinson, 1971) because

"If a child cannot tell letters apart it is futile for the teacher to teach him words." (Durell, 1956).

Words are composed of letters. Recognition of letters and ability to name them aids in remembering word shapes and structures.

2:1:1 THE PHONIC METHOD

The word "phonic" comes from a Greek word phone, meaning sound (Pearson, 1981). This method focuses on the individual sounds, the phonemes, which comprise a word. It should not be confused with "phonetics" which is the scientific descriptive analysis of speech. (Horner, 1972; Friedman & Rowls, 1980).

In this method, the sequence of teaching activities is based largely on logical considerations. In the
initial stage the forms and sounds of the letters are taught, as a rule the vowels first (Gray, 1969). After the vowels, the consonants are introduced in some prescribed order and their sound combined with each of the vowels. For example, after they have learnt the four letters a, i, t and p, the children should be able to read seven English words: at, it, tap, pit, pat and pip (as a name), and as they advance in reading, be able to read the word apt. (Pearson, 1981).

The use of this method has several advantages:

(i) It develops ability to "sound" the letters of any new word (once the basic sounds have been mastered) and "sound" it by blending the component sounds. (Huey, 1912).

(ii) It is a systematic and progressive approach to teaching reading.

(iii) Children taught by this method master spelling thoroughly because they deal with elements of a word and not the whole appearance of the word. (Horner, 1972).

(iv) It is carefully graded and complete with respect to the phonetic elements. (Gray, 1939).
However, many shortcomings have been pointed out by experts on the teaching of reading. Pearson (1981) states that the assumption of mastery of letter sounds is not that easy. In English not all letter groupings represent one sound. In response to this problem, Pappas (1970) recommends that children need to develop an understanding of how the phonetic elements of the language function in printed words, rather than learning to respond in a stereotyped fashion to certain combinations of letters. Perhaps this is why others (Wandera, 1978) have contended that phonic reading can only be introduced when the child's vocabulary is large enough to include many words that have phonically regular spelling. Horner (1972) enumerates several other disadvantages, chief among them being:

(i) phonic teaching with its insistence on phonic build up leads to boring drilling of symbols and sounds;

(ii) skill in the mechanics of reading is often gained at the expense of meaning;

(iii) words and phrases are often presented out of context and so are meaningless to children;
(iv) Many of the child's everyday oral vocabulary cannot be taught phonically - use of contextual clues which add meaning to the words are essential.

Some of these disadvantages can be a source of frustration to the child. And as Schonell (1946) points out, phonic method may produce "word callers." It must also be mentioned that sound blending is not all that there is to reading because no pronunciation of individual sounds builds up exactly into the pronunciation of the whole word (Wilkinson, 1971).

2:1.2 THE SYLLABIC METHOD

The purpose of syllabifying a word is to break it into its components so as to pronounce it. Like other linguistic approaches, syllabication is only applicable when children have reached a reading age of eight years\(^3\). The assumption is that pupils will have acquired enough sight vocabulary on which syllabication can be based. For example, fa-ther can lead to far-mer, rul-er (two syllable words).

The use of syllables is preferred to that of letters because many consonants can be pronounced accurately only in combination with vowels. This method is admirably suited to Kiswahili and most other African languages (Gray, 1969). Although syllables are identifiable in English, the clustering of consonants makes it difficult to an elementary reader to master its use.

Even this method has limitations and advantages similar to the phonic method, the most serious disadvantage being that children become "word callers" instead of readers when it is used solely.

2:1·3 THE WHOLE WORD (LOOK 'N' SAY) METHOD

This is the first of the second group of methods which lays emphasis on meaning of what is read. The method is based on the assumption that children see words as wholes and that when these words are put into meaningful sentences pupils will find enjoyment and so be motivated to go on reading. (Horner, 1972). It further assumes that each word has certain characteristics with which it can be remembered. Often pictures, objects and demonstrations accompany the words in establishing meaningful associations. At the same time, attention is directed to details of words, such as syllables and letters and their sounds (Gray, 1969). Other cues
important in whole word method are shape and length of the word. Pearson (1981) expresses surprise that children sometimes learn to read longer words faster than shorter ones!

The advantages in using this method have been broadly expressed:

"...attention in reading is focused from the beginning on the meaning of what is read, thus cultivating a thoughtful reading attitude and keen interest in reading as a source of pleasure and information; the learning of words as wholes before their elements are singled out corresponds closely with the way most children and adults normally learn visual forms." (Gray, 1969, p.84).

But these strengths do not make the "look - and - say" method the best one for teaching children to read. There are drawbacks which militate against it. It often fails to equip the child with skills of "attacking" new words and therefore retards reading. Children have to rely on their memory which is often inadequate where words appear similar in shape and length, for example, 'book' and 'look' = 📚. Furthermore, some of the words cannot be presented with picture or demonstration associations. How does one teach is? Is it possible to draw a picture to correspond to the word of, or can one demonstrate 'of'?
Whatever the limitations, teachers find the "look - and - say" (whole word) a convenient method because labels and captions on items in the classroom often augment the teacher's effort. It seems to go hand in hand with oral approach of teaching language in direct situations (context). What is named in print is used in speech and the picture, object or activity represented is put before the child at the same time. In a classroom environment, sentences such as "This is a book" with the object book presentend at the same time and the word (book) immediately written on the blackboard dominate the practice in Kenyan schools.

2:1-4 THE SENTENCE METHOD

To overcome the discrepancies that bedevilled the whole word method, the sentence method was devised. Whereas words carry meaning, sentences convey messages. (Pearson, 1981). This method argues that the sentence, and not the word or letters, is the true unit in language, expressing whole thoughts which are units of thinking. (Huey, 1972).

It should be noted, however, that this is an extension of the "look - and - say" method in that sentences are made up of words and in order to read the sentences the child has to read words (Pearson, 1981). Its advantages, therefore, are those of the whole word.
But it goes a little further because the function words can easily be presented using this method. Research is available to support the fact that if function words are taught using phonic or other methods without applying them in sentences, their orthographic identities may be mastered without children learning the semantic/syntactic identities of such words (Ehri & Wike, 1980). This point underscores the need for mixed (eclectic) methods because no method appears comprehensive on its own.

2:1:5 **MIXED (ECLECTIC) METHODS.**

No single method is free from shortcomings. A good teacher would be one who applies mixed methods so that all the sensory channels and learning styles of the pupils are catered for. Where the whole word is used pupils must make sentences using the words taught. They must be equipped with the methods of decoding the word by use of phonic clues among others. And at a later stage, the dictionary provides the child with the syllables of the word so as to syllabicate appropriately whenever there is need. And obviously words are made up of letters - the alphabet is basic in all methods of reading. This is the essence of the "eclectic" methods: application of two or more methods in teaching children how to read, usually beginning with wholes and following with those emphasising the elements of the word.
WORD ATTACK SKILLS

The task of the teacher is to help the child to be an independent reader who can advance without anybody's guidance. To do this pupils must have certain skills of "unlocking" new words which they come across as they read on their own. A child who "reads" out a word but cannot understand the meaning of what he "reads" is wasting his time and will soon stop trying (Klein (ed.), 1972). Pappas (1970) puts it simply that:

"A child who pronounces words and "barks" at print without realising the meaning for which the words stand does not read." p.22.

Each method discussed above has with it certain inbuilt clues of "guessing" the meaning of a new word. However, unless the inbuilt skills are given prominence, with individual teacher giving guidance in the process of "unlocking" new words, the clues may not be used at all.

Labels may differ, but experts in teaching reading are agreed on what constitutes "word attack skills." (Pappas, 1970; Hafner and Jolly, 1972; Duffy and Sherman, 1973; Friedman and Rowls, 1980; Pearson, 1981; Dechant, 1982). The list includes:

(i) Context clues:

(a) Syntactic clues - the position of a word in a sentence,
(b) Semantic clues - meaning as derived from the paragraph, passage or sentence;

(c) Picture clues.

(ii) Structural clues:
(a) prefixes;
(b) suffixes
(c) root;
(d) other inflectional forms, for example, plural, comparison, adverb etc;
(e) parts of compound words;
(f) parts of contractions.

(iii) Phonic clues:
(a) initial letters;
(b) final letters;
(c) letter groupings - consonant clusters as in spread, street and digraphs as in laugh, through.
(d) Syllabication e.g. big-ger, black-board.

(iv) Visual clues:
(a) shape of word (pattern);
(b) length of word;
(c) letter composition.

(v) Dictionary clues.
This is one area which has revealed the misconception that teachers have about the teaching of reading. It is essential that the classroom teacher knows what reading is, for his idea of what reading involves determines how he teaches it. (Hafner 1972).

The teacher who knows that reading is a thinking skill follows certain steps that not only make work easier for the pupils, but also provide them with clues to tackle issues and ideas in the passage being read.

First there is the preparation for reading which helps to build a background for what is to be read and to develop ideas (concepts) necessary for understanding and appreciating the story. New vocabulary is dealt with in the context in which they appear in the passage. Pupils are guided to make sentences using the new vocabulary within the new experience to be gained from the passage. And before the teacher guides them through the reading, pupils' interest must be aroused by the study of pictures in the passage, the topic may be discussed and questions leading to the understanding and enjoyment of the story put across. Pupils must have something to think about (look for in the reading) as they read. Otherwise they will not concentrate. (Bowers, 1975).
The second step is guided silent reading. The word attack skills discussed above can be applied to enhance comprehension as pupils are guided to read intensively (Quaintance, 1972). Oral comprehension check follows at the stages determined by the teacher. This will depend on the level of the class. For Lower Primary, a paragraph would be enough for intensive study. As they move towards the upper grades in primary school a whole story could be read before it is studied.

The third step in the reading plan is designed to give further practice in the specific abilities which will assist the child to become a more efficient reader. Several purposes are involved for one to become an efficient reader. As Fonocciaro (1958) states, intensive reading demands that the text be studied to:

(a) recognise the main idea or purpose of a paragraph;
(b) see relationship among facts;
(c) grasp sequence of ideas and predict outcomes;
(d) draw conclusions from what is read.

Bowers (1957) gives a much longer list of the interpretative abilities. She puts "reading to recognize emotional reaction and to evaluate the text read" among the abilities that an efficient reader must develop.
When the study leads to the attainment of these goals then the reader is able to communicate with the writer both emotionally and intellectually. By skillful questioning and discussion the teacher guides the pupils to "read between the lines" to achieve these goals while he (the child) interprets what he reads in the light of his own experience and to some extent acquire the emotion, feeling or mood which the writer seeks to convey. It is in this light that we shall consider the reader to be reading thoughtfully and reading as a thinking skill. Evidence\(^4\) is now available to show that pupils rarely follow what they read because they are never guided to think through the reading material. Commenting on the pupils' performance in the exam, the 1981 C.P.E. Newsletter stated that:

"Perhaps most important is that pupils must develop the ability to read with understanding. In answering comprehension questions, many candidates simply look for an answer that repeats some of the words in the passage."

P.19 (emphasis mine).

\(^4\)The Kenya National Examinations Council research division annually evaluates the candidates' responses to ascertain the interpretative abilities of pupils on the passages set. The findings are reported in Newsletters sent to schools.
But it is the meaning of what is said that is important, not the exact words. In short, pupils are not guided to use the interpretative skills. Teachers concentrate on literal meaning, and even this aspect is not done well, otherwise pupils would not play safe with choosing of the alternatives offering same words in the passage, even where they are obviously inapplicable.

Apart from answering questions to evaluate comprehension of what is read, passages used for intensive reading should lead to the development of other skills. This can be done by planning follow-up activities based on the passage: pupils may make a picture dictionary of the new words; prepare a story for reading to an audience guided by the experiences in the story studied; dramatize the story; retell the story in their own words; draw the characters described in the story etc. This increases pupils participation and ensures pleasure and enjoyment. (Pappas, 1969). The mastery of specific story content and vocabulary rather than the reading for total enjoyment of the whole story has tended to narrow the reading development. In many cases

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Refer to appendix on observation schedule for details of follow-up activities of reading. In this case reading is a means to development of other language skills.
comprehension exercises of the formal type have been overemphasised to the extent where each page of text is followed by a large number of questions and exercises which have turned the reading lesson into a complex and often pointless quiz.

Details cannot be given here of the usefulness of the follow-up activities in enhancing comprehension and enjoyment. However, reading aloud must be singled out. Specialists in reading argue that reading aloud is good in ensuring correct pronunciation, enunciation, intonation, stress patterns and phrasing. (Williams, 1973; Wandera, 1978; English Syllabus (Primary), 1986. Syllabus for Teachers Colleges (English), 1986).

Reading aloud should not take the form of reading around the class. Pupils should be discouraged from using their fingers to point at each word. Care should be taken so that parts of the story are selected for specific purposes of reading aloud:

(i) Reading to find answers to questions;
(ii) Reading the conversations of characters in the story;

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See Safari English Course teachers' guides
(iii) Reading parts that show moods
(sadness, happiness, excitement etc);
(iv) Reading the part preferred.
(Bowers, 1957).

The disadvantages if reading aloud is not programmed well are many. Schonell and Richardson (1958) claim that the early introduction of too much oral reading can lead to the development of many inefficient reading habits such as vocalization, which slows down the speed of reading and comprehension. Pappas (1969) lists several of these shortcomings:

(i) no allowance is made for individual differences (where one text is used for whole class);

(ii) children are subjected to a number of tensions as they wait for their turn;

(iii) the large number of interruptions leads to frustration and irritation of the better (fluent) readers - the story line is broken and its pace altered by slow readers;

(iv) the constant emphasis on pronunciation and word skills tends to make comprehension of secondary importance in the minds of pupils.
Faced with a situation where materials are lacking, most Kenyan Primary School teachers tend to be caught up in programming reading aloud without making efforts to overcome these disadvantages. It is common to find many pupils crowded around one text and reading in a sing-song voice. The result is that reading ability is slowed and in many cases simply undeveloped.

2:4 THE TEACHING OF EXTENSIVE READING

Extensive reading can be said to be the fourth step of a well planned reading programme. Bowers (1957) calls it "the extension of experience", when pupils are encouraged to read extensively in other books which deal with related topics they have studied in intensive reading. This may be started as early as possible. The teacher can read short stories to pupils so that they appreciate the fact that books are a source of pleasure and enjoyment. As they become independent readers pupils should be encouraged to make good use of their free time by venturing into story books and subject texts for enjoyment and gathering information.

In its introduction, the English Syllabus (1984) states that at the end of the course pupils should have acquired ability to

"communicate freely, follow subject courses and text-books,"
and read for pleasure and enjoyment." (emphasis mine).

If this aim is to be achieved, the teachers must expose children to a lot of reading materials within and outside the school. How effectively this is done will depend on whether they (teachers) realise the usefulness of library lessons\(^7\) and their skills at conducting such lessons.

The advantages brought about by library work cannot be underrated. Artkinson (1980) includes opportunity to help backward readers, pupils learn at their own pace, they are made to realise that books are a source of pleasure and knowledge, and the fact that structures learnt in class are revised in different situations as some of the immediate contributions of a library lesson. If well conducted, pupils are introduced to mechanics of reading such as silent reading for speed, good posture and positive attitude towards books.

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\(^7\)Primary school syllabus recommends that a minimum of two lessons per week be devoted to library work. This is the only way that pleasurable reading can be inculcated into young children. In Primary Schools library lessons largely represent extensive reading.
Teachers' concept of a library is important because there is a tendency not to programme library lessons under the pretext that books are not available. Current views (Pearson, 1981, Artkinson, 1980) are that from magazines and newspapers, dedicated teachers can establish good class libraries. Cut-outs of stories, puzzles, riddles, and other language activities are pasted on cardboard for durability. These can then be stocked in a safe place for use during library lessons.

When money is available and the task of buying readers is left to the teacher, he should purchase books which are within the pupils' interest and language ability (see later). The point of interest was underscored recently when the top K.C.P.E. candidate said:

"I first of all check what is written on the cover. If I find a book does not interest me, I do not bother reading it. I go to other interesting books."

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8 Magazines and newspapers now known for producing work for children's work in Kenya are: all the Sunday papers, Rainbow and PichaDithi.

If such sentiments are not honoured, then we are likely to find situations where large libraries are established without good use being made of materials stocked.

Literature on establishing and running class libraries is available to those who take the challenge. It should be emphasised that if pupils are not exposed to books so that they read extensively, then the skills gained in intensive reading are not utilised.

2.5 ASSESSMENT OF PUPILS' READING ABILITY AND READABILITY LEVELS OF MATERIALS.

Correct instructional practice in reading involves:

(i) assessment of the materials which pupils are supposed to read;

(ii) assessment of whether the pupils are benefiting from the instruction.

In the first place, the teacher should know that the syntactical complexity of a book can frustrate pupils thereby eroding their interest because they may realise they are not following the stories.

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Knowledge of the readability levels of the books ensures that their selection for a given child or class of children can be much more systematic, with less chance of inappropriate purchases (Gilliland and Merrit, 1972).

The second reason for the assessment is tied to the first one because the class teacher should constantly engage in informal diagnosis of pupils' reading difficulties, making modifications to the experiences that the pupils encounter to

"prevent cumulative language deficit and reading failure and guarantee individual... treatment." (Pumfrey, 1977).

Formulae for the assessment of readability of books are numerous: Fry, 1968; McLauglin, 1969; and Gunning, 1952 are just examples. But the demands they put on the teacher are such that one would be advised to use personal experience and syllabus word lists. In any case, in his own environment the teacher is best placed to tell the needs of his pupils. Certain common principles must, however, be applied in order to arrive at correct decision. The teacher may have to consider:

(i) how well the pupils understand the words and phrases leading to relating the ideas to their own experience;
(ii) the speed at which the material can be read with optimum understanding;

(iii) the motivational factors which encourage the pupils to continue reading.

(Bowers, 1957).

As for the assessment of pupils' reading levels, there are no less than ninety (90) test types. A word of caution is, however, necessary. Testing reading is not the same type of operation as measuring height or weight. Reading is a complex skill involving many processes so we must be sure that we know which part of the skill we are evaluating (Ross, 1978).

When a test has been administered, the results should be well recorded for appropriate action. The teacher may need to provide the correct text, group pupils according to their abilities or provide pupils with activities that will enable the pupils to read fruitfully.

11 A large number of reading tests can be found in Pumfrey, D.P.; READING: TESTS AND ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES, Hodder and Stoughton, 1976; pp.45-47.

12 See appendix for a sample of a child's reading ability record card. Such cards are useful should another teacher take over the class.
The methods discussed in this chapter need not bind the teachers of reading in English. Within the limits of his discipline the language teacher can be his own theorist. (Saporta, 19). If he finds that his pupils can start using the phonic skill as early as the age of six because their pre-primary preparation provided a basic sight vocabulary required, there should be nothing to stop him to wait until children get to standard two. This is why Williams (1973) states that the method a teacher uses may not matter so long as it is the best in the teacher's and pupil's situation.

Whatever methods used pupils should be guided to use the word attack skills because independence in reading becomes urgently necessary for those who may terminate their formal education at the end of the primary school cycle. The use of the dictionary should not be ignored. As Gray (1969) says:

"In reading passages that contain new words and concepts or refer to things and activities that lie beyond his range, the reader often experiences real difficulty."

p.69.

The dictionary can be a useful tool to an advanced reader in such circumstances.
Although we have stated that the choice of the method lies with the teacher, as much as possible schools should try to develop a common policy in a given situation so that the methods chosen are used in such a way that they reinforce rather than contradict each other.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3:0 AREA OF STUDY

At the time of the study, Bondo as an administrative division had just been divided into Bondo and Rarieda Divisions following the work of the Electoral Commission set up by His Excellency the President. Educationally, the two had for a long time functioned as divisions. The present status coincidentally makes Bondo both an administrative and educational divisions in Siaya District.

The division is divided into four (4) educational zones:
TABLE: 1. STATISTICAL DATA OF THE AREA OF STUDY.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ZONE</th>
<th>SCHOOLS</th>
<th>PUPILS</th>
<th>TRAINED TEACHERS</th>
<th>UNTRAINED TEACHERS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AMOYO</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>4719</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USIGU</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7990</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NYAKASUMBI</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>8608</td>
<td>178</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NYAN'GOMA</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5695</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>27'013</td>
<td>563</td>
<td>297</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These statistics remained the same during the study. The four zones were covered in the study with one school from each.

3:1 SAMPLE

The selected schools must have existed for more than twenty years.

TABLE: 2. SURVEY SCHOOLS AND THEIR YEAR OF ESTABLISHMENT.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ZONE</th>
<th>SCHOOL</th>
<th>YEAR ESTABLISHED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>AMOYO</td>
<td>BARKOWINO</td>
<td>1938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USIGU</td>
<td>USENCE</td>
<td>1938</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NYAKASUMBI</td>
<td>BONDO</td>
<td>1954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NYANG'OMA</td>
<td>UYAWI</td>
<td>1940s</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In each school, all the teachers of English filled in questionnaires (see appendix TWO) which were administered by the investigator. In all 30 teachers were involved.

The investigator observed 10 lessons in classes 3, 5 and 7 on the teaching of reading in English. Absence of two teachers in one school reduced the target of 12 by 2 lessons.

3:2 METHOD OF DATA COLLECTION

The selected schools were informed about the intended survey in May, 1987 by the researcher who then talked to the teachers of English. The second visit in June involved programming of the lessons to be observed. An observation time table for each school was drawn up during this second visit.

The third visit took place in July. Questionnaires were administered. The respondents filled in the questionnaires in one room with the researcher supervising. What the respondents did not know, they were told to leave blank.
Notes were made of the lessons observed. Although the researcher had prepared observation schedules (see appendix THREE), they were found impracticable because only a few of the items included were observable in the ten lessons. Such items were not used in the way the researcher expected. For example, while reading aloud was expected to be a follow up activity, the teachers used it as the basis for intensive reading. The schedules were therefore abandoned and records made of the lessons as they were being taught.

Informal interviews were conducted at the end of each lesson to elucidate points which had not been made clear by both the questionnaire and the observations.

The researcher expected to observe 24 reading lessons: 12 of the intensive type and 12 of the extensive type. In the four schools all teachers thought a reading lesson was only of the intensive type using the basic class texts - Progressive Peak English Course for Lower Primary, and Safari English Course for the Upper, except in standard four and eight where 8-4-4 system of education has introduced new texts. Since only the intensive type of reading was programmed in the schools, the scheduled observations were reduced from 24 to 12.
The absence of two teachers in one school reduced the lessons to 10. The ten lessons were deemed satisfactory to corroborate the questionnaire responses which were further clarified by the informal interviews.
CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION.

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Data analysis and interpretation has been done in four sections:

4.1 Teachers' familiarity with the methods of teaching reading and word attack skills;

4.2 Teaching of Intensive Reading;

4.3 Teaching of Extensive Reading;

4.4 Assessment of pupils' reading levels and readability of the materials used.

Issues raised by the questionnaire, observation and informal interviews have all been included in this chapter to satisfy the objectives set out in chapter one page 8.

4.1 TEACHERS' FAMILIARITY WITH THE METHODS AND WORD ATTACK SKILLS.

The study assumed that teachers' awareness of the methods of teaching reading implied that they would use
these (methods) during their actual classroom teaching (Chapter 1 p.12). The questionnaire responses revealed that only 26.67% of the sample was familiar with the methods discussed in Chapter II section 2:1.0 to 2:1.5 (pp.28-36). There was, however, no indication that years of service increased a teacher's awareness of such methods.

TABLE 3*. TEACHERS' FAMILIARITY WITH THE METHODS OF TEACHING READING.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YEARS OF EXPERIENCE AND TRAINING</th>
<th>NUMBER</th>
<th>FAMILIAR WITH METHODS</th>
<th>NOT FAMILIAR WITH METHODS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNTrained</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trained:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 YEARS</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 &quot;</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 &quot;</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 &quot;</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21- ABOVE</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The eight (see Table 3 above) teachers who were

*All the tables from now on are based on the findings from the questionnaire. See Appendix TWO for the items analysed.
familiar with the methods did not show awareness of the fact that the 'whole word' (Look and say) is useful for beginners because young children "recognise things and ideas as wholes, more or less vaguely at first, proceeding gradually to the recognition of details" (Chapter II p.27). They (the eight) gave no order of sequence in the methods they preferred when teaching. Most of them thought that the phonic method should be used during the first few weeks when children go to school.

Table 3 continues to show that those who had taught for 16 years and above did not have any idea about the methods of teaching children reading. Whether this was an indicator of the nature of training in those years remained unresolved. Surprisingly, one untrained teacher listed the methods (see Chapter II pp.28-36). Surprising because the respondent had not even attended any refresher course. On being interviewed, he stated that he had been reading books on the teaching of reading in preparation for admission to a college. No further follow up was done because his class was not one of the observation classes.
### Table 4. Teachers' Assessment of Pupils' Ability to Use Word Attack Skills:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLASS</th>
<th>NUMBER OF TEACHERS</th>
<th>CONTEXT</th>
<th>STRUCTURAL</th>
<th>PHONIC</th>
<th>DICTIONARY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>T: UN-T.</td>
<td>CLUES</td>
<td>CLUES</td>
<td>CLUES</td>
<td>CLUES</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4 -</td>
<td>✔xxx</td>
<td>xxx</td>
<td>✔✔✔</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2 1</td>
<td>✔xx</td>
<td>xxx</td>
<td>x ✔</td>
<td>xxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4 -</td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td>xxx</td>
<td>✔✔✔</td>
<td>xxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>4 1</td>
<td>xxxxxx</td>
<td>✔xxxx</td>
<td>✔✔✔✔</td>
<td>xxxxxxxx</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>3 2</td>
<td>✔✔✔xx</td>
<td>✔xx ✔</td>
<td>✔✔xx</td>
<td>xxxxx✔</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1 1</td>
<td>✔x</td>
<td>✔✔</td>
<td>xx</td>
<td>✔x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>3 1</td>
<td>xxxxx</td>
<td>✔xxx</td>
<td>✔✔x</td>
<td>xx✔x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>3 -</td>
<td>x✔✔</td>
<td>✔x</td>
<td>xxx</td>
<td>✔/x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**KEY:**

- **T** - Trained Teachers.
- **UN-T** - Untrained Teachers.
- ✔ - Use of skill.
- X - Skill not used at all.
- **NB.** The first mark (✔ or x) corresponds to subsequent marks under each skill.
COMMENT ON TABLE 4.

Teachers' choice of the "word attack" skills which their pupils could use independently showed that either they were not familiar with these skills or it was a further confirmation of the inefficient instructional practice in reading in English. It was the researcher's feeling that the teachers did not understand what was meant by "word attack skills" because of the anomaly in teachers' judgement of the pupils' ability to use these skills. A child who can use the dictionary clues usually would be able to use the other three skills. Dictionary clues involve the use of both phonic and structural analysis. And context clues are useful in verifying the use of a word even when dictionary meaning is given.

Taking class six teachers as an example, table 4 shows that one of the teachers indicated on the questionnaire that his pupils could use all the skills except the phonic clues. It is unlikely that a child who can use structural analysis cannot apply phonic skills. For example, by the time he recognises and isolates prefixes and suffixes, determining the roles played by such affixes, he is already using some phonic skill.
If they were familiar with these skills then the anomaly can be described as inefficient instructional practice observed in the classrooms. In class one, it would be expected that pupils should rely more on picture clues than on phonic ones. The theory behind this assertion states that by standard one pupils' average age is seven, an age when they are not likely to have learnt enough sight vocabulary to aid the use of phonic skills (see Chapter II. p.31). Of the four class one teachers in the sample only one indicated in the questionnaire that his pupils could use context clues.

As they approach the end of the primary school cycle it is expected that pupils should be fluent readers capable of using all the word attack skills to ensure independence in reading. Information given in Table 4 indicates that this is not so.
### TABLE 5: TEACHERS' ATTENDANCE AT REFRESHER COURSES:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPERIENCE AND TRAINING</th>
<th>NOT ATTENDED</th>
<th>ATTENDED</th>
<th>TOTAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UNTRAINED</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TRAINED:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-5 YEARS</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 &quot;</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15 &quot;</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20 &quot;</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-Above</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**COMMENT ON TABLE 5.**

The Table shows that teachers who have been in the field longest had not been given an opportunity to do refresher courses. Out of the 8 respondents who had taught for 16 years and above only 2 had attended such a course. The researcher was surprised to find that those who had left training five years ago had more access to refresher courses organised in the Division. Whether this latter category confused the induction courses, organised by the Assistant Schools Inspectors.
to welcome them to the Division upon posting, with refresher courses was not verified.

TABLE 6: TEACHERS' OPINION ABOUT THE TEACHING OF READING IN ENGLISH.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OPINION</th>
<th>NUMBER</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>76.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easy</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not answered</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Most of the teachers (23) thought that teaching of reading was difficult. The twenty three were further asked to give reasons why teaching of reading in English was difficult. They stated reasons for the difficulty in different ways: (see table 7)
### TABLE 7: TEACHERS' REASONS FOR THE DIFFICULTY OF TEACHING OF READING IN ENGLISH

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>η</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Lack of materials, eg books charts etc.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Spelling difference between English and Mother-Tongue/Kiswahili.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Poor foundation at the lower levels and at home.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Confused.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Parents' demand to promote pupils to next grade even when they should repeat.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Large number of pupils.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. No response.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>23</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**COMMENT ON TABLE 7.**

Those categorised as confused gave reasons which contradicted their opinion in table six. While they indicated in an earlier item that the teaching of reading in English was difficult, their reasons applied...
for those who thought it (the teaching) was easy.

Although the reasons in this table (7) may appear genuine, some of them can easily be overcome by a little dedication among teachers and efficient instructional practice. A teacher who is the master of his situation and who has been in the field for a long time should be able to accumulate a large stock of reading materials from cut-outs. It is possible for a teacher to make simple reading materials from stories from children's sections and other stories of interest from Sunday Newspapers. Children's magazines like Rainbow and Picha Dithi provide good reading material for children of all levels of the Primary School.

The second difficulty may be the result of the use of mother-tongue or Kiswahili as medium of instruction in upper classes (see 4.2 of this Chapter). Pupils find it difficult to switch from one language to another. Teachers should stick to the language policy which states that a language lesson should be taught in the language in question. At the lower classes reference may be made to the mother-tongue equivalent for concepts and meaning which cannot easily be explained to the pupils. Such reference must also be
few. At the upper levels languages should not be mixed.

The third difficulty may be a lack of common policy in language instruction. Even parents need to be guided on what help they can give the pupils at home so as to enrich the pupils' experiences at school. While all teachers thought that each teacher should be free to use methods he/she thinks best in his/her situation, this should not be taken to mean a freedom to use any procedure while teaching children to read in the same school. The approaches were not harmonised for the good of the pupils.

As for the large numbers of pupils, effective grouping would reduce the strain on teachers, especially when group leaders are used to guide other pupils in the activities programmed by the teacher. There was very little evident use of grouping technique even where textbooks were few and could only be read by pupils in groups.

The fifth reason presents a major difficulty because parents want their children to get through the primary cycle as soon as possible. The best a teacher can do would be to organise remedial work
for backward pupils without resorting to making them repeat. Teachers did not programme remedial work for the backward readers because there was no time for it.

4.2 TEACHING OF INTENSIVE READING

Included in this section are three sample lessons out of the ten observed by the researcher. At the end of each lesson, a brief analysis has been attempted. An outline of the other seven lessons has been presented in appendix six. It would have been repetitive to present all of them in this section because a similar pattern was common to them:

(i) the objectives were either non-existent or simply unspecific for those who planned their lessons;

(ii) the lessons were either of wide content or dragged on for more than the time allocated;

(iii) the new words were taught as the reading progressed;

(iv) pupils were not given an opportunity to use the new words in sentences of their own so that they may be able to use them in situations similar to those of the passages read;
(v) reading aloud was used as a basis for intensive reading and not as follow up activity with specific points to be gained.

LESSON 1 STD. III.

Number of pupils 24.
Number of textbooks 10.
Text: Progressive Peak English Course.
'New Friends' pp.32-34.
Lesson plan: Not available.
New words listed and their pronunciation.

8.50 A.M.
Teacher: What am I?
(silence).
What am I?
Pupil: I am a boy.
Teacher: Not you, I (Teacher touched his chest). (T)
Say "You are a man".
Pupil: You are a man. (P)
T: (pointed at a girl) class, what is she?
Class: You are a girl.
T: Say "She is a girl".

Class: she is a girl.

The teacher wrote "pretty" on the blackboard. He used blue chalk, visibility was largely reduced.

T: Say "pretty" (He pronounced it/priti/)

Cl: /priti/.

T: Adhiambo is a pretty girl.

Cl. Adhiambo is a pretty girl.

The teacher sketched a figure on the blackboard (bb). He wrote "feathers" underneath the sketch which looked like a bird. He asked the pupils to say "feathers".

T: (pointed at the sketch) These are feathers.

There are two wings here. And this is its beak.

Pupils (Pls): (Silence).

Teacher wrote "colours" on the bb.

T: This is a yellow piece of chalk.

This colour is yellow.

Class say "That colour is yellow."

Cl: That colour is yellow.
Other words followed the same pattern: grey, dull, bright, beak. Teacher wrote some sentences which had the new words and asked pupils to read after him:

Yellow is a bright colour.
The bird has dull feathers.
A bird has one beak.

9.02 A.M.

The teacher told pupils to open their books at page 32 (New Friends).

T: What can you see?
P: Two birds.
(Same question pattern and answer continued).
T: Who can come and touch one of the things we have learnt in the picture?
A pupil touched the picture of a bird and said "feathers". The teacher acknowledged with a word of praise.
T: Now listen. I will read and at the end you will answer some questions.

After he had read two paragraphs the teacher asked pupils in turn to read aloud. Reading by the children
The teacher corrected every time and a whole line containing the word misread was repeated.

9.08 A.M.

Oral questions on the part read.

T: Which bird has a pretty colour?
A pupil pointed to a picture in the teacher's copy.

T: Which one had a bright colour?
A pupil pointed to the teacher's copy.
There were a few more factual recall questions.

9.10 A.M.

T: Take out your books and do this exercise.
(He wrote the exercise on the bb using same blue chalk).
The exercise was from pupils' text as worked out by the teacher.

B.B Find the missing letters and complete the sentences:
1. Mary saw a p--tty bird in a tree.
2. A bird has one b--k.
3. Gr--y is a dull colour.
4. A male weaver bird has green and yellow thers on its _________.

9.21 A.M.

On discovering that pupils were not filling in the blanks, the teacher stopped them and told them to write the letters left out in place of the gaps.

9.27 A.M.

Writing continued. Teacher went around the class marking and guiding where necessary.

9.33 A.M.

Lesson ended. The teacher did not lead pupils to correct the work. He realised he had gone over the time.

ANALYSIS OF LESSON I

The teacher did not plan his work to take into account pupils' ability to master the new words as listed in the guide before efficient reading could
be done. There was no evident personal initiative to use the guide with regard to pupils' reading level. According to the guide (see appendix seven) the work should have taken no less than three lessons.

While in one lesson children were supposed to read pages 32 and 33 of the pupils' book, the teacher took them through to page 35. Pages 34 and 35 had other new words which should have been taught before these pages could be understood by the pupils. The lesson took 43 minutes yet the work was still rushed considering so much was covered and a great deal of it was beyond the pupils. Not that the guide should have been strictly followed, but the teacher should have broken the reading into portions for intensive study while at the same time giving each part of the lesson enough time for effective participation by the pupils.

According to the guide, each part of the lesson should take a lesson of its own. Part one should have dealt with the new words which pupils would encounter in the part of the passage to be read. Part two, the lesson on reading, would have followed
a pattern similar to the one below:

(i) A quick review of the new words taught in the lesson for preparation to reading;

(ii) A study of the picture about the story to be read. Background information presented about the story so that the concepts presented in the story are made workable for the pupils.

(iii) Silent reading, followed by analysed reading, preferably in portions to allow for intensive study of certain parts as deemed necessary by the teacher; guided comprehension questions to help pupils interpret the passage being read;

(iv) Practical work to consolidate what has been read. This may take the form of follow-up activities (see appendix Three) or written work as pupils individually answer one or two questions on the passage. Other activities may follow in the subsequent lesson(s).

Where the exercise was on word completion as the
one in this lesson, a little spelling practice and flash-card drill would have enhanced the mastery of the new words. The drill would include correct pronunciation of the words. In any case this was to be done a lesson earlier. The teacher did not use pupils' experience in this lesson. For example, what they knew about birds and feathers was not brought into the lesson. The exercise would have been meaningful if the words were used in sentences generated by the pupils themselves.

Pupils' written work showed that they had some difficulty with the task before them. It was as if they had not been given this type of exercise before. There was no example given so that they could be certain about what they were required to do. The majority copied the questions as they were on the board. Errors of spelling, punctuation, omission, and spacing were numerous. Note also that while the instruction required the pupils to fill in the missing letters, the fourth item asked them to write a whole word. It was difficult to believe that pupils who could not read words like "said", "dry" and "flew" correctly could read and understand "weaver" in the last item. In fact "weaver" was among the new words
listed in the guide but which were not taught. Others were kind, aunt, male, female, nests, build, use, easy and clever.

For the most part, the teacher went ahead with the lesson as if pupils were fluent readers and needed no help from the teacher. When intensive reading could have been done using word attack skills (see Chapter II, pp.37-38), the teacher resorted to questions about pictures:

T: Which bird has a pretty colour?
A pupil pointed to a picture in the teacher's text.

T: Which one has a bright colour?
A pupil pointed to the teacher's copy.

However, it was observed that the teacher tried to help pupils with the meaning of some of the new words by using questions based on the picture in the text. His tenses were varied (see the two questions above). Although the pictures were small and the pupils had a few copies, the teacher insisted that the pupils look at his copy.

During the reading aloud which was the basis for
comprehension and intensive study, several errors were made by the pupils. Apart from faulty reading already mentioned, pupils often phrased badly, repeated words several times before the correct pronunciation could be produced, words were skipped and attention drawn to these resulting in repetition of a whole line in which the word was skipped. The result was that interruptions interfered with the flow of the story.

LESSON 2 STD V

Number of pupils: 45.
Number of texts: 14.
Text: Safari English Course, Book 2 pages 120-123.
Lesson plan: Available.
Aim: "Reading a story from their books".
Topic: Things aren't always what they look like.
Teaching Aids: Picture in Pupils' book.

9.27 A.M.

Teacher explained in Dholuo: "When you see somebody along a road you cannot always tell the job such a person does." Questions were asked to find out whether pupils agreed with that explanation. Some pupils thought it was possible to tell whether one is
a policeman by looking at his clothes.

T: Turn to page 120. What can you see in that picture?

Pls: (Silence).

T: (Translated in Mother-tongue).

Pls: (chorus) A man (in English).

T: Yes we can see a man. How is he dressed?

Pls: (Silence).

T: (Translated in Mother-tongue).

Pls: A suit.

T: Say "He is wearing a suit/ʃuːt/"

P: He is wearing a suit. (pronunciation like that of teacher).

T: Is that all?

Pls: (Silence).

T: (Translated "Is that all" in Mother-tongue).

The lesson continued in that order.

T: Can we tell what this man in the picture does by looking at his clothes?

Pls: (After translation) No.

T: Yes, we cannot tell.

9.30 A.M.

T: Let's read silently to discover what the man in the picture does.
The teacher read to three girls who had two books in front of them but were apparently not making any progress. They were the big girls in the class.

9.42 A.M.

T: We stop there. Those who have not finished will not be able to do so even if we give them some more time.

Oral questions from the teacher's guide were read out to pupils, eg.

1. What was the man who got off the bus wearing?
2. What was he carrying?
3. Who came out of the house nearby?
   (see teacher's book 2 term 2 p.30).

9.42 A.M.

The lesson ended, having taken a total of 49 minutes instead of 35.

ANALYSIS OF LESSON 2

The lesson objective was not clear. It was not possible to tell whether the reading was for comprehension
or not. It was apparent that the teacher grouped the pupils and that the backward readers were on their own. However, when they were read to, their faces showed disapproval that they should be read to. None of them could read "suit", "came" and "what". Because the groups were not distantly spaced, the other pupils murmured in their reading to overcome the teacher's voice which rose as he continued to read to the three girls. Apart from murmuring, the pupils used their fingers to follow the lines of print. This definitely slowed them down and added to the slow pace which the lesson took later.

Lesson planning did not take into account the length of the passage and pupils ability to read it at maximum speed with comprehension. The teacher aimed at completing the whole passage (pp.120-123) in total disregard of the pupils' slow speed of reading. When he stopped the reading to ask comprehension questions he did not care whether those who had not finished reading the passage would participate meaningfully or not.

Twelve minutes used to read three and a half pages of a basic class text could not guarantee maximum
comprehension. This was revealed in pupils' inaccurate responses to factual recall questions. It was difficult to tell whether the new words had been introduced during the previous lessons as recommended by the teacher's guide because the lesson started off with reading without giving introductory reference to the new words which normally precede the picture study (Chapter II pp.39-45). Since no other activities took place between the reading and the questions it was possible some pupils did not follow the passage. It would be expected that when reading is done in portions (paragraphs) with leading questions and analysis, pupils are able to concentrate and follow the trend of the story being read.

Throughout the lesson the teacher made several translations of the sentences he directed to pupils into Dholuo. Aware that mother-tongue equivalent of the English forms would be made available, pupils kept quiet every time a question was asked and only responded when the mother-tongue translation was offered.

Translation from English to mother-tongue was a common practice in all the sample schools. If the
translations were used in the presence of the investigator, an outsider, it was evident the teachers usually use Dholuo as medium of instruction in total disregard of the official policy which states that English be used as the medium of instruction in the upper primary classes.

The use of two languages during the reading in English can only retard development in pupils' reading. No wonder the teachers gave difference in spelling of the two languages as one of the difficulties of teaching reading in English (sect. 4.1. Table 7p). Note also that the teacher's mother tongue influence on pronunciation was being imposed on the pupils. He did not bother to correct the mispronunciation of "suit"; he assumed that his pronunciation was the correct one.

LESSON 3 STD. VII.

Number of pupils: 35.
Number of texts: 17.
   p. 89-92.
Lesson plan: Available.
Teaching Aid: Picture in Pupils' book.
Objective: "Guide the pupils to read an extensive story and their (sic) answer comprehension questions."

Topic: "I go to school".

8.30 A.M.

The teacher was busy writing the date. The class had assumed an "official" and rather tense mood. The teacher, as a way of introduction, talked about experience of pupils during the first days at school:

T: How did you feel like when you first came to school?

P: I was afraid of other pupils.
T: Somebody else?
P: I was playing with other children.
T: (Explaining). Majority of the children are afraid when they first come to school.

8.33 A.M.

T: Turn to page 89 and read silently to get what it feels like in a new school.

8.36 A.M.

Teacher moved up and down the classroom; movement
was rather purposeless.

8.45 A.M.

T: How many of you have completed the reading?

A few pupils put up their hands)
Those who have not finished have four more minutes.

8.48 A.M.

T: Everybody has finished. Any word you could not tell its meaning? (sic).

P: What is the meaning of the word 'tears'?

T: Spell it.

(The pupil spelt the word).

T: It is /tiːs/. Class.

(Pupils repeated after the teacher).

T: Who knows the meaning of the word 'tears'? A pupil explained: "They are drops of water coming from our eyes when we cry."

T: Yes, you've got it right. Any other question?

P: What is the meaning of 'whizz'? 

T: Spell it. (The pupil did so). Who has a ruler? (The teacher then demonstrated the meaning of the word by whizzing a wooden ruler in the air.)
All oral questions were from Safari Teacher's Guide. Response were often in incorrect English. For example:

T: What were the younger boys made to do?
P: They were collected the cut grass.
T: No. That sentence is wrong. Who can make it better?
P: They were made to collect the cut grass.
T: That's correct. Another answer would be "They were collecting the cut grass".

How did the master teach the new boys to stand and sit when he ordered them to?
P: By beaten their heads with stick.
T: Who can correct that statement?
P: By beating their heads with a stick.
T: Yes, but is that what the story says?
P: Their hair has been shaved (sic).
T: Their heads had been shaved clean in preparation for starting school.
9.16 A.M.

T: Compare 1949 school life and today's. How was school life in 1949 different from life in school today?
P: (Silence)
T: (Seeing that the comparison was not being successful he abandoned the question). Anyway, time was running out and soon he had to stop.

9.21 A.M.

T: We shall stop there for any questions, Anybody with a question?
P: What is the meaning of "wriggle"?
T: Explained: How many of you have seen the movement of a snake on grass? (Pupils put up their hands. The teacher then explained to them that the movement is called wriggling).
Any other question?
P: What is the meaning of "awkward"?
T: Something bad.
P: What is the meaning of "deafening"?
T: Something making us not to hear. It is from the word deaf.
Because we are running short of time, you can check the meanings of the other words from the dictionary.

9.25 A.M.

The Lesson ended having lasted 55 minutes.

ANALYSIS OF LESSON 3.

This was an example of a lesson which was planned even though the planning was in a hurry as evidenced by the error in the objective (see above). A look at the teacher's guide, book four, term 2 page 27, showed that the teacher tried to follow the statements in the guide quite closely. From the questions asked by pupils it was clear that the new words in this passage had not been taught in the previous lesson as the guide indicates. The list of new words included urged, stubborn, rhythm, pinched, wriggled, compost heap and whizzing. If these were taught during a lesson in preparation for reading (p.24-26 of the guide) pupils would not have had the difficulties they had with the passage.

The teacher's attempt to correct pupils' responses which were almost always incorrect was very
poor. Occasionally he provided a correct version without telling the child involved why his answer was unacceptable. Since he had the guide he read the correct responses from it without telling pupils the page from where such responses could be got. For example, when a child said "Their hair has been shaved clean", the teacher read a complete response correcting the tense at the same time without drawing pupils' attention to the error. He chose to abandon the questions whose answers were not included in the guide, and yet these were the only type of questions which could test pupils' ability to interpret the passage (page 28 of the guide).

As the lesson developed it was evident that the teacher was using certain "word attack skills" (Chapter II, p.37-38). By use of context clues he explained the meaning of the word "wriggling"; he tried to give the meaning of "deafening" by stating that the word is formed from the word "deaf" (root word): structural analysis; and at the end of the lesson he referred pupils to the dictionary. However, it would have been expected that lines in which these words appeared should have been read aloud so that correct meaning is presented as they were used. No other methods of teaching reading in English discussed in chapter II were noted since pupils read on their own.
USE OF TEACHING AIDS IN THE LESSONS OBSERVED.

Another drawback for these lessons as observed by the researcher was the total lack of use of teaching aids, even where pupils' initiative could be used to prepare them. A class five teacher was found hard pressed to explain to pupils the meaning of a "birthday card"! The picture in pupils' book could very easily have been reproduced by the same class during an arts lesson. Alternatively, picking a card from a pack of his old stock would have provided him with an immediate object to use in class.

The same thing applied to the standard three teacher whose lesson has been presented in this chapter as lesson one. Feathers are commonly found in the homes where pupils come from. It was a weak attempt at explaining an easily obtainable object.

The classrooms were bare; there were no charts displayed to give evidence that aids had been used; neither were there nature corners, centres of interest nor book corners. One major reason given was that there were no shutters for the windows and doors. But
even where these were not a problem, the teachers were content with using the textbook pictures.

In one instance a teacher in standard three opted to use flash cards, perhaps because she was preparing a special lesson for the researcher. The cards were brown and the writing was in red ink. The words were all written in capital letters and these were not consistent in shape. In short, the flash cards did not motivate the pupils to learn the new words.

4.3 TEACHING OF EXTENSIVE READING.

Out of the 30 respondents, only 4 (13.33%) indicated in the questionnaire that they had established class libraries. A spot check made the investigator doubt the credibility of these teachers because they could not make their libraries available to the researcher. They explained that the books were borrowed by pupils and that they were due back only on certain days of the week. No records of borrowings were immediately available. None of these teachers had included library lessons in their instructional programmes, adding further doubt. The
10 lessons observed being taught were of intensive type despite the researcher's prior arrangement with the teachers to programme extensive reading if they had any.

The reasons given for which the libraries were not part of the instructional programme are shown in the table below:

**TABLE 8: TEACHERS' REASONS FOR LACK OF CLASS LIBRARIES.**

No of respondents 30.
Libraries available: 4 teachers.
Libraries not available: 26 teachers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>REASON</th>
<th>( \eta )</th>
<th>Out of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. There is no money to buy readers.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Children do not have time to read</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The classroom is not safe for storage of books.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I have not found it necessary in my situation.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Any other</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

NB. The item (see appendix Two) required teachers
to tick as many reasons as affected their situations. The table (8) shows that reasons one and three were most commonly ticked.

However practical reasons one and three may appear to be, they do not warrant lack of libraries. In any case class readers need not be kept in the classrooms when the school is not in session. They can be put in a box and taken to the school office or a teacher's house when they (readers) are not being used. And according to experts (Chapter II p.47) there are many ways of establishing a class library without necessarily having to buy readers; cut-outs from Sunday Newspapers and children's magazines have already been referred to (p.67).

It is noteworthy that the whole sample (30) thought that pupils had ample time to read because none of the respondents chose the second option of this item in the questionnaire as a reason for not establishing a class library (see table 8).

The study's assumption that teachers who read outside their normal class work "encouraged" their pupils to do the same was not justified (Chapter 1 sect. 1.4 (f) p.12). Out of 30 teachers, 26 (86.67%)
did not have class libraries, but 18 (60%) indicated that they read at least a book in a month. The investigator thought that if the 60% of the sample read during their private time as they indicated, meaning that they find reading valuable, then an equivalent percentage would have made at least some effort to establish reading corners for their pupils, however rudimentary such corners would have been. Alternatively, they would have obtained suitable books to read to the pupils or tell them (pupils) interesting stories they (teachers) had read. There was no evidence that any of these was attempted.

4.4 ASSESSMENT OF PUPILS' READING LEVELS AND READABILITY OF MATERIALS.

Satisfactory information was not available to deduce whether teachers assessed pupils' reading and readability of materials used in the process of teaching reading. Lack of libraries already ruled out possibility of personal initiative among teachers to choose materials for their pupils. The teachers used basic class texts recommended by the syllabus. The texts were used page after page and without proper planning
that can take into account pupils' ability to comprehend the language involved (Chapter 4; sect. 4.2).

Despite the unavailability of libraries and evident lack of planned lessons with clearly stated objectives which cater for children's ability, 23 out of 30 teachers indicated in the questionnaire that they did some assessment of materials before they chose the texts for pupils' use (see table 9). Lessons observed were not pupil centred and quite often the content to be covered was not specifically stated for one to assess pupils' level of attainment.

TABLE 9: TEACHERS' CHOICE OF PUPILS' READING MATERIALS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>BASIS OF CHOICE</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Out of</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Following Syllabus recommendation</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. From books read during teacher's primary school education.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. According to pupils' interest.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. According to teacher's assessment of pupils' reading levels.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Undecided.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
N.B: Respondents were allowed to tick as many alternatives as they used.

COMMENT ON TABLE 9.

Only six teachers (20%) thought that pupils' interest was useful in deciding what materials should be used by pupils. Choice of materials was broadly taken to include the passages read in class, teaching aids and class readers. The ten lessons observed did not seem to concur with teachers' response to the questionnaire item. The lessons (see 4.2 of this chapter) showed that the teachers did not assess pupils' attention span and their pupils' ability to comprehend what was being taught as the lessons progressed.

When interviewed on the methods they used for assessing pupils' reading levels and readability of materials, all the teachers (30) did not know that there were tests available for measuring such levels. They said they were not trained to judge whether a passage was within the reading levels of their pupils. That to them was the work of syllabus writers and those who recommended the use of materials. Assessment to them meant evaluating at the end of each lesson on reading whether pupils had comprehended a passage by
giving pupils a series of comprehension questions, usually of the factual recall type (see 4.2 of this Chapter).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FORM OF RECORD</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Percentages.</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>43.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades (eg. A.B.C.).</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comments.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All the above.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No records kept.</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

COMMENT ON TABLE 10.

While 80% admitted that they kept pupils' reading records, none produced such records. The only records available were for end of term marks and other test scores in the course of the term. It was difficult
to ascertain how percentage scores could reveal a child's reading difficulty. A sample of a child's reading progress record presented in appendix 4 has the advantage of specifically showing what remedial work would be required for a child at each stage. Table 10 shows that two teachers (6.7%) were using comments, even though a record card formed from such comments was not available in the four schools where this survey was undertaken. Perhaps this further confirms the fact that no assessment of pupils' reading levels is done in these schools.
CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS
FOR FURTHER STUDY.

5.0 AN OVERVIEW.

This study was undertaken with the major purpose of finding out whether reading in English is being taught effectively and take into account such areas as the following among others:-

(i) the methods discussed in Chapter II, section 2.1 of this study (pp.24-36);

(ii) enabling skills (pp.37-38);

(iii) assessment of pupils' reading levels and readability of materials, etc. (p.24).

It was the view of the researcher that if reading is taught well, pupils would become fluent readers capable of communicating with the writer both emotionally and intellectually as they read, among other purposes, to:

(a) recognise the main idea or purpose of what is read;
(b) see relationship among facts;
(c) grasp sequence of ideas and predict outcomes;
(d) draw conclusions from what is read (pp.40-41).

These abilities would help the pupils to study on their own across the curriculum thereby covering some sections of the syllabuses without having to wait for the constant guidance of the teachers.

In order to collect data useful for arriving at conclusions about the instructional practice in reading, seven specific objectives were set out (Chapter 1, p.8). Some basic assumptions (pp.11-12) were listed to guide the outcomes of the study especially for information which the researcher thought would not have been forthcoming in a simple survey such as this one. Both the objectives and the basic assumptions have been used to draw the conclusions and make recommendations for further research as presented in this Chapter.

5.1 CONCLUSIONS FROM THE FINDINGS:

While describing the findings in the previous Chapter, some pertinent conclusions have already been
made with regard to the objectives and basic assumptions of the study (pp.68-69,74,75). In this Chapter some of these have been brought together and others added so as to give an overall view of the conclusions drawn. The following is a list of the conclusions made:

( i ) The teachers attempt to use the methods discussed in Chapter II (pp.24-36) was haphazard as they failed to vary the practice drills so that the skills (pp.40-41) could become part of pupils' reading habit. Teachers told pupils to read or say monotonously after them the words and sentences which sometimes were written on the blackboard (Chapter IV, section 4.2, pp.70-72). Eight teachers (26.67%) who indicated in the questionnaire that they were aware of the methods did not show that they were at grips with these and that they could use them in a classroom situation (p.59). The ten lessons observed being taught revealed a shallow use of these methods giving further impression that the pupils could not have benefited much from such practice (Chapter IV, section 4.2; pp.24-36 and Appendix Six).
(ii) Evident attempt by the teachers to use
the word attack skills (Chapter II, pp.37-38)
rarely went beyond helping pupils to pronounce
the words. Apart from two teachers who
tried to give the meanings of words after
silent reading (Chapter IV, lessons 2 and 3,
pp.78-79), no teacher provided practice
drills which could not only prepare pupils
to pronounce the words, but also to spell
them accurately through flash card drills
or spelling games, make sentences using the
new words in various ways to master contex-
tual application and vary practice drills.
For example, they could have applied the
words in role play, language games and
simulations, etc. Their responses in the
questionnaire showed that they were unclear
about these skills. Where they indicated
awareness of the skills, it was in such a
way that the supposed knowledge contradicted
the general practice (p.62).

(iii) Except for the pictures in pupils' books,
teaching aids were hardly used contrary to
the guides' recommendations (Appendix seven
and guides for std. 5 and 7). Flash cards
used were in capital letters and colour of cards and ink used reduced visibility. Exposure time was short and there was no attempt to use them in a variety of ways to arouse pupils' interest.

(iv) Teachers rarely prepare long term English language schemes of work and lesson plans which cover both intensive and extensive reading. None of the four lessons which were planned (out of the ten observed) had a clear objective. The objectives were not pupil centred and content to be covered not stated in clear terms. There was no evidence of regular planning. It was concluded that the plans available were meant for the researcher since there were no schemes from which such plans were derived. Of the ten lessons observed none was in extensive reading. Reasons advanced for lack of extensive reading were very flimsy (p.93-94).

(v) No records were kept of pupils' progress and weakness in reading (Appendix four). Such records would be passed on to the teachers in upper grades to be used as a basis on
which to start instruction. However, availability of these records should not exonerate the teachers in upper grades from administering diagnostic tests to ascertain pupils' entering behaviour so that the grouping takes into account pupils' abilities. Although the course books used have been written with the users in mind in terms of class and age levels, teachers should be advised that peculiar conditions under which a particular group of pupils learn may determine the ease or difficulty with which they will read and understand a given text. It is in this context that the assessment of pupils' reading levels and records kept are useful; to help teachers know whether pupils are gaining from the reading instruction given to them. That the texts used were those recommended for the classes observed could not be a clear indicator that the pupils coped with the language levels of these books. Pupils' difficulties, which could have been recorded in the reading progress cards were revealed in the errors of pronunciation, phrasing and stuttering (p.73 & 146). Pupils generally took long to finish the
passages during silent reading which were characterized by interruptions from the teacher and murmuring among pupils themselves (p.73).

(vi) The study revealed that the length of establishment of an institution had nothing to do with the accumulation of the reading materials such as basic class texts, teaching aids, magazines, supplementary readers and library books. Although the sample schools had existed for more than twenty years (table 2. p.54) they had no library books, no stock of used teaching aids evident, the basic class texts were very few and pupils who were lucky to sit on desks had to squeeze themselves.

(iii) The study was unable to prove that a teacher's length of practice has a positive effect in the teaching of reading. It revealed that those who had taught for sixteen years had no idea about the methods discussed in Chapter II (table 3, 59). Since those who indicated in the questionnaire that they were aware of these methods were not observed using such methods during the classroom lessons, it was not possible to confirm their ability to effectively use such methods. It
was also not possible to tell from the questionnaire responses whether those who had taught for more than sixteen years had not been given training similar to that given to those who had taught for less than sixteen years.

(iii) The study's assumption that teachers' awareness of the methods of teaching reading implied that they would and could use these during their actual classroom teaching was not justified. There was no time to follow all the 26.67% of the respondents who indicated in the questionnaire that they were familiar with the methods. However, there was a general vague attempt to use the methods discussed in Chapter II among the lessons observed, which included some lessons taught by those in the 26.67% category.

(ix) Since 60% of the sample indicated that they read outside their normal class duties, the researcher thought they could have "encouraged" their pupils in some way to read extensively (Chapter 1, section 1.4 (f), p.12). This was not so because teachers wrongly equated
availability of libraries with extensive reading. They were unaware that extensive reading included such practices as telling pupils stories suited to their interests, and reading parts of interesting stories to children. Such practices can motivate pupils to desire to read because they reveal to the pupils that books are a source of knowledge and pleasure.

(x) No remedial teaching was programmed for backward readers. The majority of the teachers aimed at getting through the basic texts which had been made difficult by the reduction of English language periods from six to five in lower, and ten to seven for upper. Pupils who were slow at silent reading of the passages for comprehension were not given an opportunity to finish them before an oral comprehension check was done. In any case interruptions, such as mispronunciation and wrong phrasing (p.73) etc., often interfered with comprehension. The result was that pupils appeared frustrated when they failed to provide correct responses because they had not comprehended the passages.
The data revealed by the questionnaires, the observations and the informal interviews confirmed that pupils were not being exposed to all the reading skills which would be possible when both intensive and extensive reading are programmed. The word attack skills were haphazardly applied in an uninteresting way with the teachers showing lack of understanding of these skills because they often concluded the practice drills after pupils had only repeated the words and sentences monotonously after the teachers, often in a chorus. Reading aloud which was characteristic of all the lessons observed did no more than produce "word callers" incapable of communicating with the writer emotionally and intellectually (p.41). Even the intensive reading was not done thoroughly with thoughtful guiding questions to challenge and arouse pupils' interest so that they could interpret what was read in the light of their own experiences. Such practices, together with a total lack of extensive reading lessons, meant that most of the skills remained uncovered.
5.2. DISCUSSION OF THE CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions made in the preceding section have several implications for successful coverage of the primary school curriculum, especially in schools where the whole procedure of teaching reading in English has been haphazard.

First, failure to maximise the opportunity to achieve basic literacy by the end of their formal education is denying the children one of the very basic reasons why they go to school (Chapter 1, p.5). It has already been argued that reading is important for correct evaluation of pupils' abilities at the end of primary eight where they do a terminal examination (p.4). However, since it would seem that the whole procedure of teaching reading from primary one to eight is riddled with certain serious malpractices (Chapter IV, pp.69-90 and appendix six), the evaluation of the terminal examination may not be relied on totally because in the event of not comprehending the questions, the pupils may be left with only one option: that of guessing the possible correct responses especially when the examination is so heavily geared towards multiple choice items, not only in language, but also in other subjects. Teachers can ensure that pupils learn techniques of
answering comprehension questions by insisting on production of some answers in pupils' own writing. This would be the only genuine way of detecting fundamental difficulties of the children. Choral answers at the end of passage studied are not enough.

Secondly, over dependence on the teacher's guides has led to a situation where the teachers see no need of showing initiative in the use of the course books and other materials within the school environment as suggested by the same guides (Introduction to P.P.E.C. Bk.3, p.1). For the majority of the teachers the guides have taken the place of the schemes and lesson plans. In an attempt to be like their upper primary counterparts who either follow the safari guides slavishly or think they follow them by holding them in their hands, the lower primary class teachers, for the most part where the guides are being used, find themselves covering a lot of work (Lesson 1, pp.74-75). Unlike the upper primary guides, the Progressive Peak English Course books for the teacher are divided into parts and the details of the content for some of the parts should be added by the individual teacher (Introduction, p.1. P.P.E.C.)
Cramming of too much work and other misuse of the guides result in pupils being unprepared for language in upper primary classes. Because the upper primary teachers make no effort to correct the situation, pupils complete the primary school cycle at best as semi-literates (Appendix one).

Thirdly, it must be pointed out that corrective measures for these malpractices need not begin at a national level. The study revealed that refresher courses had not been organised frequently for the teachers of reading in English (Chapter IV, table 5). The investigator would like to suggest that these courses can begin at the school level with language teachers organising themselves into a panel so that they identify similar skills which can be taught in the different languages, e.g. Kiswahili, Mother-tongue and English. Teachers' Advisory Centres may be consulted when courses have to involve the whole zone. It is the view of the researcher that the teaching of reading in Mother-tongue can augment the effort of the English teachers if right skills are isolated for instruction. For example, early language arts such as auditory perception, left-right eye movement, oral competence, visual perception and memory skills can be introduced by Mother-tongue teachers. This might
avoid the basic problems such as reversal of letters, skipping of words, repetition of words and general mispronunciation which was observed in the lessons (pp.69-90).

Apart from making use of themselves in the panels in the schools, the teachers may make use of experts from Teachers' Advisory Centres (TACS) or lecturers from colleges. It is also possible that teachers graduating from colleges may still be fresh and could give practical lessons during their induction courses. From the school level, the Assistant Schools Inspectors may also organize zone courses at the TACs. However, such courses would have to draw from the teachers' experiences as those in the field know the practical difficulties found in their situations because the problems stated by the majority in the sample may not be the same everywhere (p.100).

Other points to be considered during these refresher courses would include planning for a reading lesson which would cover lesson procedure and remedial work.

It has been stated that for most teachers the guides have taken the place of schemes and lesson plans (p.104). This should not be the case. Teachers should
start planning by first reading the guides a head of time so that they see how much has to be taught within the limited time available. The schemes should be written so that the content is divided in manageable units, taking into account pupils' ability. The lessons in the guide books should not be treated as they are. Every teacher should be able to assess the level of his pupils and make decisions whether to add some work to (or reduce) the content prepared in the guide (Introduction, P.P.E.C. Std. III, P.1). Working as a panel, the teachers of reading in English should make recommendations which should be adhered to by all.

When the schemes have been written, each teacher would then plan the lessons following the procedure suggested in Chapter IV (p.76). This procedure ensures that reading is taught in an interesting way to the children. Experiences of the characters, in stories read in class are meaningless if they are not interpreted in the light of the pupils' own experience. The child's thinking skills can only be enriched by his emotions evoked by the story being read. Where extensive reading is ignored, pupils are denied the opportunity of utilising their reading skills to derive pleasure from books. The teachers should also be helped during the refresher courses to practise how to help pupils apply
higher order interpretative skills (Chapter II, p.40-41). Lessons observed showed that teachers concentrated on factual recall questions most of the time (pp.81,86).

Finally, remedial teaching in reading should form part of correct planning. Errors made by pupils in the ten lessons observed (Chapter IV, pp.69-90 and appendix six) clearly indicated that most pupils required special instruction in order to avoid the recurrence of such errors. After every measurement of pupils' reading ability a record card (Appendix Four) should be up-dated so that purposeful remedial instruction is planned taking into account the pupils' abilities and weaknesses. When reading difficulties evident in these lessons are not corrected, a very serious backwash effect is evident because as they terminate their formal primary education, such pupils soon become illiterate and increase society's burden of erradicating illiteracy (Chapter 1, p.9-10).

5.3. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.

In pointing out the faults in the instructional techniques in teaching reading in English, this study has arrived at some conclusions which cannot be used
alone to effect improvement of instruction in our schools. Further research is necessary to clarify issues before correct decisions can be made.

From the overall data collected the following came out unsatisfactorily answered and therefore require further research:

1. It would be useful to find out why the teachers found difficulty in using the few methods which they attempted to use.

   (a) Were they constrained by the difficulties expressed by the majority? (table 7, p.66).

   (b) Were they unable to compromise with the otherwise overcrowded timetables?

2. There is need to study further whether the years a school has been in existence has anything to do with the accumulation of materials (teaching aids, basic class texts, supplementary readers, library books etc).

   (a) What role is played by head teachers in ensuring availability of materials acquired?
(b) Could Parents-Teachers Associations be involved in general maintenance of materials?

(c) Are the headteachers given special training on the ways of preventing losses or destruction?

3. There is need to find out whether trainee teachers are being exposed effectively to the techniques of teaching reading.

Does the teacher's length of time in teaching profession positively affect his performance?

4. A comparative study between the schools with well stocked and well used libraries and those without would reveal if there is any contribution libraries can make towards the development of reading abilities of children.

5. Research is needed to prepare groundwork for standardized reading tests which would establish national targets at which all reading instructors should aim.
BIBLIOGRAPHY


One day the woman was hungry
Show the woman go to he Nairobi
I went to make your I come to
Nairobi I went to this. The woman
Saw her I go to read and he I
go to the bus to the village
I went to go to Nairobi the ton
Say mama let her money the woman
Say I forgotten that money
the ton Say wake outside Kapisa
The woman say wake I went
to Nairobi before the many at
the six from the ton say 0
Okay he drive go to thru at
The Nairobi show he woman go
down her the old woman 9
go to the ground make the
sit he there on the ground
I was the bus go the woman
at the one hours and the to
P.M. he will had to get
for many show many people's
the peoples say I wanted the
Road he woman say yes I will
because he you cont all people's
bless I wont them the police care
her mama wat he haben the
Old Woman the woman go
to town I was and have
Then the woman go to the
house and he say bonne the
man in the house say yes
As you can see, this candidate is barely literate in English. He lacks the basic grammatical skills. He cannot spell the most basic words:

- *hangery* instead of 'hungry'.
- *wait* instead of 'wait'.
- *the tan* instead of 'turn boy' (in a bus).
- *haben* instead of 'happen'.
- *pandroom* instead of 'bedroom'.
APPENDIX TWO

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY TEACHERS OF ENGLISH
IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN BONDO DIVISION, SIAYA DISTRICT.

NOTE: 1. ATTEMPT ALL ITEMS.
2. DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME ANYWHERE ON THIS BOOKLET.
3. INFORMATION GATHERED MAY BE USED TO IMPROVE READING INSTRUCTION IN BONDO DIVISION.
YOUR TRUTHFULNESS WILL HELP THE RESEARCHER TO MAKE USEFUL CONCLUSIONS.

PART ONE

i) Class being taught ........................................
ii) Number of pupils on the register ......................
iii) Number of pupils present ..............................
iv) Average age of pupils ..................................
v) Sex of teacher ...........................................
vi) Year trained .............................................
vii) College in which trained ..............................
viii) Grade of teacher (e.g. P₁, P₂ etc) ...................
ix) Years of service ........................................
x) Years in present Station .................................
xi) Total periods per week 

xii) Other Co-curricula activities engaged in

PART TWO

SECTION A

1. List the methods you have found useful in your teaching of reading.

2. What order of preference do you use with the methods you have listed in 1 above:

3. Give reasons why some of these methods are appropriate for beginners in the teaching of reading.
4. Each teacher should be free to use the methods he/she thinks best in the classroom.

YES          NO

5. I find the teaching of reading
   (a) EASY
   (b) DIFFICULT

6. Give reason(s) which support(s) your choice in either of the alternatives in five (5) above.

   ..................................................
   ..................................................
   ..................................................
   ..................................................
   ..................................................

7. Tick the "Word Attack" skills which your pupils can now use independently.

   Context clues

   Phonic clues

   Structural clues

   Dictionary clues
8. Approximately what percentage of your class can use all the "word attack" skills in (7) above.

9. I HAVE/HAVE NOT attended a refresher course on the teaching of reading for the last five years. (Delete what is NOT true).

10. If the answer in nine (9) above is "I HAVE", indicate the kind of course you attended.

   (i) In-service

   (ii) Workshop

   (iii) Seminar

   (iv) All the above

SECTION B

11. Have you established a class library?

   YES

   NO
12. I HAVE NOT established a class library because:

(i) there is no money to buy readers;
(ii) children do not have time to read;
(iii) the classroom is not safe for storage of books;
(iv) I have not found it necessary in my situation. (Tick as many as you agree with)
(v) Any other reasons ..................

13. Are pupils allowed to carry home the library books they have borrowed?

YES

NO

14. Pupils are NOT allowed to carry library books home because:

(i) they don't find time to read at home;
(ii) they keep all their books at school;
(iii) they may damage the books;
(iv) they may lose the books;
(v) the books are too few to be borrowed by all the pupils.
(Tick as many as apply in your situation).
15. Are you a member of a public library?

   YES

   NO

16. How many books, apart from the text you use in your lesson preparations, do you read in a month?

   ................................................

17. I DO NOT read other books apart from the texts I use in my teaching because:

   (i) there is no public library in Bondo;

   (ii) I have too many lessons to allow time for leisure reading;

   (iii) the only free time I have I devote to helping backward readers among my pupils;

   (iv) our school has no novels.

   (v) Any other reason (s) ........................

   ................................................

   ................................................

   ................................................
(18) I choose pupils' reading materials:–

(i) following syllabus recommendations;
(ii) from books I read during my primary school education.
(iii) according to pupil's interest;
(iv) according to my assessment of pupils' reading levels.

(Tick as many as you use).

19. What method do you use for assessing readability of materials if point (iv) in eighteen (18) above is one of your policies?

20. Do you keep records of pupils' reading progress?

YES

NO

21. If 20 above is YES, in what form?

(i) Percentages

(ii) Grades (eg. A, B, C etc)
(iii) Comments (e.g. has phonic knowledge, can use context clue etc)

(iv) All the above

22. Give reason(s) why a teacher should keep reading records of his pupils?
1. Did the teacher allow pupils time for follow-up activities such as:

(a) Choral reading;
(b) Reading aloud;
   (i) individually;
   (ii) as groups;
(c) Complete sentence based on reading done;
(d) Individual silent reading;
(e) Answering oral questions on the part read;
(f) Writing a short summary on the part read;
(g) Formulating questions to be answered by classmates;
(h) Drawing pictures to illustrate new words/events/concepts on the part read;
(i) Rewriting the story changing parts, for example, dialogue into indirect; personal pronouns from masculine to feminine etc.
(j) dramatization;
(k) Recitation;
(l) Selecting key sentences which illustrate characteristics or ideas;
(m) Finding synonyms or/and antonyms of new words;
(n) Using new words in original sentences;
(o) Relating, orally or in writing, a similar personal episode.

2. Were there any other activities not listed above?

3. What action did the teacher take when pupils murmured during silent reading?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(i) Encouraged them to read silently;</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Totally unconcerned about it;</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) Rebuked them.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. (i) Did the teacher have a book corner in the classroom?

| (ii) Were there cut-outs from local magazines and old newspapers in the book corner? | YES | NO |
5. (i) Did the teacher use teaching aids?

(ii) Were reading charts used when reading materials were not enough?

(iii) Did the teacher use flash-cards to teach new words?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

6. Indicate other teaching aids used in the course of the lesson.

...........................................................................
...........................................................................
...........................................................................
...........................................................................

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

7. (i) Did pupils have enough space for comfortable reading?

(ii) Did the teacher help pupils when they had difficulty as the reading was in progress?

(iii) Did he group the pupils?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
(iv) Did he give special attention to the backward readers? | YES | NO |
---|---|---|
(v) Were there enough comprehension, texts for all the pupils? |
(vi) The teacher assigned faster readers some task when they completed the passage being read ahead of the rest? |

8. What methods of teaching reading did you observe during the lessons?

(a) Whole word (Look and say) |   |
(b) Sentence |   |
(c) Phonic |   |
(d) Alphabetic |   |
(e) Syllabic |   |
(f) Eclectic methods |   |
(g) Any other Explain. | ![Explain](https://via.placeholder.com/150)
9. (i) Was there a class library?

(ii) Were the library books appropriate to the pupils' reading levels?

(iii) There was a school library for all the pupils.

(iv) Were the books well stored?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>9. (i) Was there a class library?</th>
<th>YES</th>
<th>NO</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(ii) Were the library books</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appropriate to the pupils' reading levels?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iii) There was a school library for all the pupils.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(iv) Were the books well stored?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Explain condition of books as observed. e.g. neatly stored; covered; order of classification in terms of ability etc.

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APPENDIX FOUR

READING ABILITY RECORD CARD.

CLASS ..................................................
NAME ..................................................
AGE ..................................................

Word Attack skills:
(i) Context clue knowledge ......................
(ii) Phonic clue knowledge ......................
(iii) Structural analysis .........................
(iv) Dictionary clue knowledge .................

Levels of understanding:
(i) Factual ...........................................
(ii) Inferential ......................................
(iii) Evaluative .....................................
(iv) Predictive ......................................
(v) Relationship ....................................

Speed of reading and fluency ....................
........................................................................

Types of errors made (e.g. mispronunciation,
substitution, addition, reversal, omission repetition,
ent) ....................................................
........................................................................

Remedial Treatment Required ....................
........................................................................
Figure 6. This is Lesson 1 in a primer. A picture representing a word beginning with the sound of the new letter appears in the column on the far left. In the next column the letter is drawn over the picture in such a way as to show resemblance between the shape of the object and the letter. The third column presents the printed word in which the new letter figures. In the fourth column attention is drawn to the new phonetic element. Vowels are presented alone. Consonants are presented with a previously learned vowel. The fifth column is for practice in combining familiar elements.

Frank C. Laubach, *The each one teach one method (1950 supplement to Teaching the world to read) . . . a complete set of lessons in the Swahili language . . .*. New York, Committee on World Literacy and Christian Literature, 1951, p. 1.
Figure 5. This is the first of 50 pages of primer text. It is designed to facilitate the learning of the forms and sounds of four vowels through onomatopoeic picture association. The script as well as the printed forms of the letters are given. The nature and arrangement of the pictures make for variety and interest.

México. Instituto de Alfabetización en lenguas indígenas. Cartilla nahua-espasaol...
Helping Children Develop Skill in Phonic Analysis

Have the children open their books to page 16 and name the capital and lowercase letters. Explain that some words in the story have the sound g usually stands for. Tell the children to listen for a /g/ word in this sentence:

1. Mother stopped to look at her flower garden.

Let someone name the word (garden). Have the children find the picture of the garden. Ask, "Do you hear /g/ in garden? Now look at the word below the picture. The word is garden. Do you see g in garden? Point to g in the word."

Write garden on the board and let someone circle g. Point out that g stands for /g/ and have the children say "/g/ in garden."

Follow a similar procedure with the other pictures; use the following sentences:

2. Mother saw a nose pressed to the gate.
APPENDIX SIX

SUMMARY OF SEVEN OTHER LESSONS OBSERVED.

LESSON IV STD III.

Lesson plan: Not available.

Teaching Aids: Picture in pupils' book.


Total time taken 47 minutes.

Number of pupils: 59

Number of texts: 12

Class organization: rows; no attempt made to group the pupils to share the texts available.

Method of teaching: reading aloud around the class.

Oral questions of factual recall type asked with teacher sometimes using wrong tense: "How many people doesn't know where the answer is from?" Reading was not dramatized to bring out meanings of words such as "dust" (vb); objects like shelves, duster, trousers and shirts could have been presented to pupils. No word attack skills used nor specific methods of teaching of reading in English discussed in Chapter II noted.
LESSON V STD III

Lesson plan: Available.

Objective: The child should acquire reading skills to enable him to use correct pronunciation.

Teaching Aids: Flash cards written in capital letters: THIS, THAT, RICH, POOR.

Lesson: Oral Practice - preparation for reading.

The teacher however, concentrated on reading of the words and sentences in which the words were used on the blackboard.

Time taken: 32 minutes.

When words and sentences had been read pupils copied the sentences into their books.

Text: New Friends.

LESSON VI, STD V.

Lesson plan: Not available.

Number of Pupils: 46

Number of texts: 6

Teacher's guide: Available.

Teaching aids: None used.


Topic: In a Dispensary - Exercises in preparation for reading.
Teacher - untrained, and used Dholuo most of the time although the guide was in English.

Time: Between 11.35 - 12.10 P.M.

The reading was on a conversation practice. This should have been a dramatised reading so as to practise phrasing and dialogue. No methods and word attack skills used during this lesson.

LESSON VII, STD V.

Lesson plan: Available.

Objective: "At the end of the lesson pupils will have enjoyed the story".

Text: Safari Course, Book 2 p.82-84.

Number of textbooks - 30.

Number of Pupils - 39.

Time: 9.36 A.M. - 10.25 A.M.

Procedure used:

(i) Picture study.
   - Background information attempted.

(ii) Pupils read silently; teacher moved from desk to desk interrupting instead of assisting pupils with difficulty.

(iii) Reading aloud to ensure that everybody
went through the story as the teacher explained later on selection was made of parts to read aloud.

(iv) Comprehension questions as presented in the guide book.

(v) Pupils are told to draw a flamingo on a small card later during their own time.

Teaching aids: Picture in Pupils' book.

LESSON VIII, STD VII.

Lesson plan: Available.

Objective: "Pupils will be able to read the story about "THE RAIN CAME", from Safari Course Book 4. page 128-130 Pupils Book".

Procedure:

- No background information to help pupils understand the concepts in the passage.
- No picture study.
- No reference made of the new words which ought to have been done earlier.
- Teacher gave pupils no help during the reading aloud. No purpose for reading stated before pupils started reading.
- Oral questions, mainly factual recall type as presented
in teacher's guide. The teacher accepted some sentences from pupils which were obviously incorrect: "She felt sorrowfully".

Time: Between 11.05 A.M. - 11.45 A.M.

LESSON IX, STD VII.

Lesson plan: Not available.
Teacher's guide book available and extensively followed after the reading had been done by the pupils.
Teaching aids: Picture in Pupils' Book.
Time: 11.05 A.M. - 11.52 A.M.
Pupils were given twenty minutes to read the story. The teacher meanwhile marked the exercise Pupils did earlier moving from desk to desk. This disturbed the Pupils while reading. At the end of the reading, questions from the guide were orally answered one after the other.

LESSON X STD V

Lesson plan: Not available.
Teacher's guide: Available.
Topic: A class photograph.
Text: Safari Course Book 2 p.110-
Number of Pupils: 28
Number of textbooks: 10.

Procedure:

(i) New words: Picture, children, photograph, camera, dumb, comb, blind bottom. Spelling practice for the new words.

(ii) Reading the passage aloud with interruptions. Several errors made of pronunciation and phrasing:

- during read as /daring/
- there " " /thei/
- smile " " /smile/
- soon " " /soːn/
- film " " /flɪm/
- seen " " /sin/

explained read as /eksplained/

(iii) Oral questions as in teacher's guide.

(iv) Teacher wrote a few on the blackboard. Pupils copied the questions instead of answering them.

Teaching aid: An old class photograph taken by the teacher in another school; pictures in pupils' book.
PART ONE (WRITING)

1. Introduce the adjective interesting. Draw a simple picture without any details, e.g., the outline of a house, on the blackboard. Say That's not a very interesting picture. I'll make it more interesting. Add a number of details, e.g., a door and windows, somebody looking out of a window, flowers in the garden, a tree beside the house, somebody hiding and looking out from behind the tree. Say Now it's an interesting picture. Get pupils to draw interesting pictures, i.e., ones with lots of details.

2. Round off the use of the new adjectives by calling upon pupils to tell you short stories about people who are clever, stupid, kind, unkind or busy, about activities that are safe or dangerous and about places that are tidy or untidy. Make the comment, where applicable, That's an interesting story.

PART TWO (READING)

The only new reading item on pages 30 and 31 of New Friends is slow. Since pupils have already read slowly, this will not prove to be a difficulty. There are no new types of exercises on these pages. When pupils do Exercise B as a written exercise, get them to write out all ten words in five pairs of opposites.

PART THREE (WRITING)

Using the pictures or models of a busy road drawn or made by pupils in stage 2, get them to contribute sentences for a class composition entitled A Busy Road.

LESSON TWENTY

Teaching Items

beak /bi:k/, feather /ˈfeðə/, kind (noun) /ˈkaind/, nest /nɛst/, weaver /ˈwiːvə/, wing /ˈwɪŋ/
female /ˈfeməl/, male /ˈmeɪl/ 
build /bɪld/, built /bɪlt/, fetch /fɛtʃ/, flown /flɔʊn/, weave /ˈwiːv/

Preparation

Try to obtain a large picture of a pair of birds, one male and one female, perched by their nest (stages 1 and 4). You will also need T.K.K. Wallcharts Nos. 5 and 6 (stage 2). If there is no long grass growing around the school, bring some into the classroom (stage 5).

Teaching Notes

PART (ORAL WORK)

1. Revise the use of the word bird and introduce the new words wing, feather and beak. Use a large picture if you have one. If not, refer pupils to the picture on page 32 of New Friends. Get pupils to repeat the new words and to use them in such sentences as That's its beak/wing. That bird's got bright/dull feathers. It's got a grey beak.
2. Introduce the new nouns kind and weaver. Point to T.K.K. Wallchart No. 5 and say Here are two different kinds of animals. Point to the two animals in turn and say This animal is called a cow and this animal is called a goat. Conduct the exchanges What kind of animal is this? A cow. Yes, and what kind of animal is this? A goat. Use the same procedure for talking about the dog and the cat on Wallchart No. 6, using the word kind frequently. Get pupils to point to animals on the chart and to ask each other What kind of animal is this? Now point to the chicken on Wallchart No. 6 and conduct the exchange What kind of bird is this? A chicken. Next get pupils to look at the picture on page 32 of New Friends and say Look at these two birds. They're both the same kind of bird. They're called weavers. What kind of bird are they? Prompt the answer Weavers. if necessary.

3. Pupils will have noticed that the weaver birds in the picture have not got feathers of the same colours. Get pupils to talk about this now in such sentences as This one's got bright feathers and this one's got dull feathers. This one's got a yellow head and black feathers on its face. This one's got some white feathers on its front. Explain that They're the same kind of bird, but one's male and the other one's female. The one with bright feathers is male. The one with dull feathers is female. Explain the meaning of the new words male and female in the usual language of instruction. Explain that boys, men, fathers, etc. are male and that girls, women, mothers etc. are female. Check that the new words are understood in such exchanges as John, are you male or female? I'm male. Mary, are you male, too? No, I'm female.

4. Introduce the new word nest by pointing out the one in your big picture, one of those in the picture on page 35 of New Friends or, better still, a real nest if there is one near the school or on your Nature table. Get pupils to repeat the new word and to use it in such sentences as Birds lay eggs in nests. Now introduce the verb build, and its past tense form built, in such sentences as Most kinds of birds build nests. A pair of birds built this nest. They built it with pieces of grass. Conduct such exchanges as What do birds do? They build nests/lay eggs. Do all birds build nests? Do chickens build nests? No, they don't. Do weavers build nests? Yes, they do.

5. Introduce the new word weave. Ask Do you know how weavers build their nests? A pupil may be able to form some kind of answer, e.g. Yes, they put pieces of grass together. Say Yes, they put them together like this. (Demonstrate by putting the outstretched fingers of one hand through those of the other.) They weave pieces of grass together. They're called weavers because they weave their nests. Shall we try to weave nests?

Introduce the new word fetch by sending pupils outside to fetch long pieces of grass. (If there is none outside, some pupils must fetch the grass you have placed somewhere, e.g. in a corner of the room.) Use sentences such as Go into the playground and fetch some grass. Fetch some long pieces. Get some long grass and bring it back here. Please fetch it. When pupils return, try to get them to use the new words in such exchanges as Where did you get this grass? I fetched it from the playground. What are you going to do with it? I'm going to weave a nest. Why are some birds called weavers? Because they weave their nests. Pupils will find that it is difficult to weave nests, even with a pair of hands, and will probably decide that Weavers are clever birds. They weave nests with their beaks. You will find that nests will hold together fairly well if mud is used as well as grass.

6. Revise the use of the verb fly and its past tense form flew. Introduce the past participle form flown. This verb is best used as you are actually observing birds around the school in such sentences as Those little birds fly very quickly. One flew into the tree. Can you see it? Oh, it has flown away. It's on the ground. Where is it now? It has flown away.
PART TWO (READING)

New Reading Items in *New Friends*
Page 32
pretty, feathers, wings, beak, grey, dull
Page 33
kind, aunt, male, female, weavers, weave, nest, build, use, easy, clever

Make sure pupils can say the vowel sound correctly in aunt, /aː/, and build, /ɪ/. The vowel sound in kind, of course, is /aɪ/, the same as that in the verb wind, read in *Read With Us*, and not /i/ as in the noun wind read on page 15 of *New Friends*.

PART THREE (WRITING)

Show pupils a large picture of a pair of birds or refer them to the picture on page 32 of *New Friends*. Get them to contribute to a class composition entitled *Birds*, using some of the new words introduced in Part One of this Lesson.

LESSON TWENTY-ONE

Teaching Items

Past Perfect

I got there at six o'clock, but he had (he'd) gone.
\[\text{I got 'd at 'siks 'klok, bat hi: 'had (hi:d) 'gon.}/\]

Had he gone to the market? /'had hi: 'gon 'tō 'dô 'ma:kit?/

Yes, he had. /'jes, hi: 'had./

everybody /'evri 'bodi/, everything /'evri 'θiŋ/

everywhere /'evri 'wɛə, nowhere /'noʊ 'wɛə/
gone /'gən/

after /ə:'fə/ before /bi:' fo, / (conjunctions)

Preliminary Note

The Past Perfect tense is formed by had plus the past participle form of the main verb, e.g. 'He had gone.' In the spoken language had is very often contracted to 'd when following a pronoun subject, e.g. I'd, he'd, we'd, you'd, they'd. It is suggested that you start off by using, and getting pupils to use, the full forms, e.g. 'I had.', and gradually introduce the contracted forms in oral practice. For convenience, the contracted forms only will be used in the following notes.

Teaching Notes

PART ONE (ORAL WORK)

1. Revise using the past tense by getting pupils to talk about their early morning activities in such exchanges as Juma, what time did you get up this morning? I got up at six o'clock. What did you do after