

**TEACHING LITERATURE TO ENGLISH SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNERS IN
BOTSWANA PRIMARY SCHOOLS: EXPLORING IN-SERVICE EDUCATION AND
TRAINING TEACHERS' CLASSROOM PRACTICES**

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Declaration

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Dedication

To Ross, Judy, Keke, Theo and Lele, for their love, support and patience.

Abstract

Primary school level is where the love for reading and understanding of literature starts, and for the teachers to succeed in the teaching of reading and literature they need to display certain habits and practices in their English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms. This study was conducted to determine the reading experiences, habits and literature teaching practices of in-service teacher trainees in primary schools in Botswana. The literature depicts reading extensively and developing a passion for reading as indispensable conditions for the successful teaching of literature. The study further explored the Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) of in-service teacher trainees, in order to gain insight into the curriculum for Colleges of Primary Education (English language/Literature studies), and its impact on the teaching of reading and literature to ESL pupils.

This study utilized a qualitative approach and case study research design, including questionnaires, interviews, documentary data and lesson observations to answer the following overarching question: What role (if any) does literature play in the studies and classrooms of in-service English language teacher trainees? Data were collected by means of a questionnaire, interviews, lesson plan analyses and classroom observations. Analysis involved coding and classifying data, by identifying themes and patterns in the data. The findings indicate that the source of knowledge base, in this context, the Colleges of Education curriculum, did not lay a foundation for a solid knowledge base. This is with regard to in-service teacher trainees' PCK, which taught literature without students reading the literary texts. This anomaly denied the trainees an opportunity to apply critical thinking in analysis of texts, and by extension they failed to see the significance of fostering critical thinking and an appreciation of reading in their ESL pupils. The data further reveal that the teachers are frustrated by a lack of resources for leisure reading in the schools, which adversely affects not only their efforts to inculcate a culture of reading, but also a positive attitude towards reading and teaching of literature at primary school level. The study concludes that an appreciation for literature starts very early on in the teaching of literacy, whether literacy is developed in Setswana or in English. The study points out that in teaching literature to primary school pupils, teachers in addition to the requisite PCK must also exhibit certain reading habits and practices of their life-world in their classrooms.

Opsomming

Die liefde vir lees en waardering vir letterkunde begin in die laerskool. Indien onderwysers leesonderrig en begrip van letterkunde suksesvol wil onderrig, moet hulle sekere leesgewoontes en –praktyke in hulle Engels Tweedetaal klasse volhou. Hierdie studie is onderneem in Botswana met laerskoolonderwysers wat besig was met 'n voortgesette opleidingsprogram. Die doel was om die leeservarings, -gewoontes en die onderrig van letterkunde van hierdie onderwysers te ondersoek. Die literatuur toon aan dat uitgebreide leesprogramme en die ontwikkeling van 'n liefde vir lees 'n onontbeerlike voorwaarde is vir die suksesvolle onderrig van letterkunde. Die studie het ook Shulman se *Pedagogical Content Knowledge* (vakinhoudskennis vir onderrig) gebruik as 'n lens om hierdie onderwysers se kennis te toets in die lig van die kurrikulum wat gevolg word by Kolleges vir Laerskoolonderwys (Engels taal- en letterkunde studies) om die invloed daarvan op die onderrig van lees en letterkunde aan Engels tweedetaal leerlinge te bepaal.

Die studie het gemengde metodes gebruik binne die navorsingsontwerp van 'n gevallestudie deur vraelyste, onderhoude, analises van lesplanne en klaskamer waarnemings deur te voer in 'n poging om die volgende vraag te beantwoord: Watter rol, indien enige, speel letterkunde in die studies en klaskamers van Engels, tweedetaal laerskoolonderwysers wat besig is met 'n voortgesette opleidingsprogram? Die data is geanaliseer deur middel van kodering en identifisering van temas en kategorieë. Die bevindinge wys duidelik dat die beginpunt van hierdie onderwysers se inhoudskennis, in die geval die Kolleges van Onderwys kurrikulum, nie 'n goeie basis lê vir die ontwikkeling van *Pedagogical Content Knowledge* nie, omdat letterkunde onderrig is sonder dat studente-onderwysers hoegenaamd die letterkunde tekste gelees het. Hierdie situasie het verhoed dat studente-onderwysers die geleentheid benut het om kritiese denke toe te pas in die analise van tekste en as gevolg daarvan, kon hulle ook nie die belangrikheid van hierdie vaardighede in hulle eie Engels tweedetaal leerders se ontwikkeling sien nie. Die data toon dat onderwysers gefrustreerd is met 'n gebrek aan hulpbronne in die vorm van ontspanningsliteratuur in die skole. Hierdie toedrag van sake lei daartoe dat hulle pogings om 'n leeskuilte te vestig gekortwiek word en dat leerders dus nie 'n positiewe instelling teenoor letterkunde en lees op laerskoolvlak ontwikkel nie. Die studie kom tot die slotsom dat die waardering vir letterkunde baie vroeg begin wanneer geletterdheid onderrig word, ongeag of dit in Setswana of in Engels plaasvind. Die suksesvolle onderrig van letterkunde op laerskool is afhanklik daarvan dat onderwysers die nodige *Pedagogical Content Knowledge* ontwikkel saam met gesonde leesgewoontes en -praktyke in hulle lewens en klaskamers.

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Finally, a resounding thank you goes to BOCODOL and all my colleagues who have all contributed in their own way, no matter how small. Your encouragement and support mean so much to me.

To God be the Glory!

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CLARIFICATION OF TERMS

The various acronyms used in this thesis are listed below. In addition, I will use the terms in a particular way:

BGCSE – Botswana General Certificate in Secondary Education

COSC – Cambridge Overseas School Certificate

DPE-DE – Diploma in Primary Education by distance education

ESL – English as a Second Language

In-service teacher trainees/ teachers used synonymously to refer to the sample population of the study

INSET Curriculum – used to train teachers in Teacher Training Colleges

JC – Junior Certificate

JCE – Junior Certificate Examination

literature – refers to reading materials in general and literature genres (poetry, short stories, drama and novels)

Literature – refers to the subject that is offered at senior secondary school and tertiary level

MAPEP – Title of a core text used to teach English language through pictures in Botswana Primary schools

PCK – Pedagogical Content Knowledge

PSLE – Primary School Leaving Certificate

PTC – Primary Teacher’s Certificate

Pupils – refers to learners in primary schools

RNPE – Revised National Policy on Education

Students – learners in secondary schools/Tertiary level

CHAPTER 1: CONTEXT, PROBLEM SETTING AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Reading extensively and developing a passion for reading have been shown to be indispensable conditions for the successful teaching of literature. This current study explored the impact of the strategies employed by the in-service teacher trainees in terms of their content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) as they teach literature to primary school Standards 1 to 7 pupils. This study was also aimed at determining the reading experiences, habits and literature teaching practices of in-service teacher trainees in primary schools in Botswana. This is underpinned by an investigation into the extent to which literature is integrated and appreciated in the English language studies component of the INSET curriculum, as well as the impact of the curriculum on the teaching and reading of literature to English as Second Language (ESL) pupils. Primary school level is where the love for reading and understanding of literature starts. Therefore, the school curriculum requires that teachers focus explicitly on the development of reading and comprehension skills.

The teaching of English language is often very instrumental internationally. This research study presents a reasoned argument on how English language is essential as a medium of instruction and a global language, the status and benefits of which are enhanced further by its integration with literature as it is taught in the ESL classroom. In-service teacher trainees should serve as the primary source of the pupils' comprehension of the subject matter, and should possess a positive attitude towards reading and teaching literature.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The research project was undertaken against the background of my experiences as a lecturer for the Diploma in Primary Education by Distance Education (DPE-DE) English Studies. I have, through my interaction with students at secondary and tertiary level for more than 20 years, observed a number of problems that have explained the lack of appreciation of their English Studies at Diploma level. The following concerns influenced me to venture into this current study:

- Teacher trainees generally seem to have a low level of proficiency in English, which is aggravated by the limited use of technology and dependence on traditional methods of teaching.
- The majority have a Junior Secondary Certificate, which means that they have not accessed foundational studies in literature as a separate subject, as is the case at Senior Secondary Level. This situation is not helped by the study of prescribed literature texts that have been on the syllabus for more than 10 years and are likely to have become boring and monotonous for the lecturer, and presumably for the teacher trainees too.
- Poor reading culture, for some teacher trainees (both in the conventional and the distance education set-up), is evident in the lack of enthusiasm to acquire copies of the prescribed literature texts.
- The study centres for distance education students are under-resourced and at times overstretched in terms of material, infrastructure and human resources. Teacher Training College students need to manage their in-service studies and family commitments, which usually results in frustration and failure to complete their studies.

The context for this research is that of in-service teacher trainees who have acquired their Diploma in Primary Education by Distance Education. These teachers are in Botswana Primary schools and are involved in the teaching of English language and literature to pupils who learn English as a second language (ESL). The teachers teach different grades that range from Standard (Grade) 1 to 7. At the end of Standard 7, the pupils sit for a Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE), from which they start their three-year junior secondary school level, which commences with Form 1. At the end of Form 3, the students sit for a Junior Certificate Examination (JCE), for them to qualify for entry into senior secondary school, Forms 4 to 5.

This study investigated in-service teacher trainees for the Diploma in Primary Education by Distance Education, specifically for English studies. The study sought to understand the reading behaviour/habits of these students who are studying Literature in English, to explore their perceptions of the subject, and the impact of their studies on their pupils. It is important to note that primary education sets out the basic foundation for all other levels of educational development. This places great responsibility on the primary school teacher to develop versatile and holistic learners. It is necessary to take into account that the primary school level is the stage at which love

of reading in any language starts for a child, and if it is not acquired effectively, it will adversely affect the pupils' passion for reading and, by extension, appreciation of studying literature in the future. Even though the children start reading in their mother tongue, for instance Setswana in this current study, the literacy skills and positive attitude to reading will transfer to English. Research has also identified a certain calibre of teachers, who, according to Rasey (2009:2) are referred to as 'aliterates'. These are "capable readers who choose not to read." Do we have such teachers amongst our selected research population? These teachers would typically advise the parents of their pupils to read daily to their children, whilst they as teachers would fail to take their own advice. My own personal experience has been that teachers' personal reading habits do have an impact on instructional practices. These will be reflected in in-service teacher trainees' classroom decisions with regard to reading and writing lessons. Teachers with a negative attitude towards reading will perpetuate the same feeling in their classrooms. Applegate and Applegate (2004:555) refer to this as the "Peter Effect", referring to Peter in the Bible who could not give the beggar what he himself did not have. Thus, teachers with positive reading experiences are likely to share that joy of reading with their students.

1.3 THE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The theoretical framework that I found relevant to this study is that of Shulman (1986) with regard to Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK). Shulman's perspective is focused on the strength of subject matter that teachers acquire in their training, and how they translate that subject knowledge into the knowledge required for teaching the subject. In other words, content knowledge is not sufficient for a teacher and may not effectively transform into instructional material. Teachers may have content knowledge but fail to teach it successfully. The explanation of this theory's relevance to the current study is also presented in this chapter, and the outcome of this study assisted in evaluating the DPE-DE in-service teacher trainees in terms of employing Shulman's theoretical framework to determine what they lack in their teaching. The study also investigated the strength of the subject matter that they have acquired in their training and how they articulate their knowledge in teaching literature to their ESL pupils in primary schools.

The study ascertained the availability of resources to support the acquired knowledge base and how the teachers utilised these resources. The in-service trainees' strategies and classroom practices are also brought to the fore. According to Shulman (1987:9),

[t]he teacher of English should know English and American prose and poetry. Written and spoken language use should be familiar with the critical literature that applies to particular novels or epics that are under discussion in class. Moreover the teacher should understand alternative theories of interpretation and criticism, and how these might relate to issues of curriculum and of teaching.

I understand this to mean, for example, that the teacher who is teaching a play written by Shakespeare should have knowledge of the Elizabethan age for him/her to understand the background that influenced the themes under discussion. Teaching as a learned profession, I agree with Shulman, therefore dictates that teachers should be part of a “scholarly community”. The teacher must keep abreast with research innovations that take place in the field of teaching. He or she must not only understand the structures of the subject matter, but, as Shulman emphasises (1987:9) “[t]he teacher must also have a broad liberal education that serves as a framework for old learning and as a facilitator for new understanding”. The teachers, for instance, need to be able to situate the text in their particular context and approach it from a feminist or an African literature perspective, and know how to link this to the prescriptions of the curriculum.

Although we may not necessarily agree with the necessity of liberal education, which is related to imparting general knowledge that develops intellectual abilities, rather than the development of specific skills, we can agree with Shulman’s view (1987:7) that “[t]eaching necessarily begins with a teacher’s understanding of what is to be learned and how it is to be taught”. He continues to emphasise that teaching proceeds through a number of activities in which the students are accorded instructions and opportunities for learning. Ultimately, teaching concludes with new understanding by both the teacher and the students.

1.4 POLICY BACKGROUND TO TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT IN BOTSWANA EDUCATION POLICIES

The significance of primary education is supported by the National Commission on Education Botswana (1977:53), which states that “primary education is the foundation on which further learning is based and opens up to the young person a range of opportunities for further study and work which are closed to the uneducated.” It is therefore vital that primary school teachers should be well trained to develop the envisaged child holistically. Educational developments in Botswana are attributed to two policies based on the findings of the Presidential Commissions of 1976 and

1993. *Education for Kagisano for 1977*, also known as *National Policy on Education*, was the first policy that focused on increasing access to education. The main aim of the policy review was to widen the accessibility of education to a much wider section of the population, thus improving on the pre-independence education system that restricted access to quality education to the privileged few. It emphasised access mainly to basic education and in lieu of its adoption, educational opportunities were significantly expanded as was evidenced by the increase in enrolment between 1979 and 1991. According to Tau and Thutoetsile (2006:19), the number of primary schools increased to 700 from about 500. On the other hand, the number of secondary schools increased from 23 to 230 during the same period. Teacher training colleges increased from 2 to 6, whilst vocational institutions were introduced in most of the major population centres.

The second policy evolved from another National Commission appointed by the Botswana Government in 1992. The Commission was tasked with reviewing the entire education system and providing advice on how it could be made responsive to the needs and aspirations of Botswana in view of the country's complex and everchanging social and economic status. The policy referred to as the *Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE)* was adopted in 1994 and advanced more qualitative improvements of the education system. As an answer to RNPE Recommendation 100(a), the government of Botswana raised the minimum qualification for primary school teacher certificate (PTC) holders from certificate to diploma level. Justification was that teachers holding diplomas would add more value to the quality of education in the country.

With respect to staff development for teachers, the commission recommends that 104 (para 10.6.6): "Existing Primary Teachers Certificate (PTC) holders should be offered opportunities to upgrade their qualification to Diploma level through either full-time or part-time study". (1994:47). Furthermore, Recommendation 104(b) of RNPE, mandated all (PTC) holders to be upgraded through part-time studies. Therefore, as stated by Sikwibele and Mungoo (2009:2), the first cohort for the Diploma in Primary Education by distance mode enrolled in December 1999. This should be viewed as one effort by the Botswana government to initiate teacher professional development for its primary school teachers.

The targeted Primary School Teacher Certificate holders were spread out through all parts of the country and the Diploma in Primary Education was offered by distance mode because they could not be taken away from classrooms to attend training in a conventional setup. This was an option

for practising teachers to gain access to education of a higher level for self-advancement and to improve on the quality of Primary Education.

The population sampled for this study was teacher trainees who were also on target for upgrading from a primary school teacher certificate holder to diploma-level qualification. They completed their studies through studying by distance mode. This was a response to RNPE's recommendation 104 (para 10.6.6), as stated above.

1.4.1 Teacher Professional Development

The selected population under study for this project involved in-service teacher trainees for the Diploma in Primary Education by Distance Education (DPE-DE).

In this section of the chapter, the focus is on in-service teacher training as a learning opportunity for teacher professional development. The section also highlights the educational policies of the Botswana government.

In Botswana's Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MOE &SD) in-service training is viewed as the development of the competencies of a practising teacher, officer or school manager. This view is shared by the Department of Teacher Training and Development (TT&D) and the National In-service Teacher Education Policy Framework (2010:18). The policy further emphasises a constant need to survey and identify training needs in order to close the existing gaps in the education system: "The identified needs will build impetus to the development of training program that will target performance and achievement gaps that exist in the schools" (*ibid.*)

This policy as an initiative of the MOE & SD aims at providing a guide to the delivery of the continuing professional development of teachers. Education is the primary agent of transformation towards sustainable development, and when a country places a high premium on teachers and their continued professional development it can be benchmarked against countries that are regarded as top performers in terms of offering quality education. Botswana's efforts to offer quality education are echoed in the rationale of the National In-service Teacher Education Policy Framework (2010:7) which states, "Develop a teacher you develop a nation".

It is worth noting that teaching is a dynamic field, and therefore requires development of teachers in terms of both content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Shulman (1986:8) views teacher knowledge as follows:

- a) Content knowledge, which are the facts, concepts, generalisation and structure of discipline.
- b) Content pedagogical knowledge, as the explanation, demonstration, and presentation of instructional strategies with clarity and efficiency.
- c) Curricular knowledge which is the array of instructional materials, reinforcement devices and teaching aids.

In-service training therefore equips prospective teachers with the required skills and knowledge to address change in the education system and particularly to renew their pedagogical content knowledge and general content knowledge. In the case of the students in this case study, this last point is particularly important, since teachers (particularly those with a JCE) have not studied literature at school level and therefore need substantial development and renewal of content knowledge in the field of literature studies. The in-service training has to equip the teacher trainees with the requisite PCK and enable them to effectively teach reading and literature to their ESL pupils.

An additional reason why teachers have to be trained and be compliant with these dynamics is that they are currently faced with rapid technological advancement together with easy access to increased and sophisticated social networks. In-service activities will therefore enable them to cope with and embrace these new challenges. Teachers should be equipped with information technology skills that enable them to follow up issues and discussions with their students through social networks like Facebook and Twitter. They may also adopt new innovations for teaching, like E-learning.

Botswana recognises the significance of in-service training of teachers to address curriculum changes at all levels of the education system. It is one of the few countries that still sponsor teachers for in-service education in the form of either distance, part-time or full-time training opportunities. The Ministry of Education and Skills Development is responsible for the sponsorship of in-service education and training of teachers, which include distance learning.

Like many governments in the world, Botswana has found it important to address the call by United Nations to value basic education as a human right and a key to development. By opening

up equal educational opportunities and access to education to its citizens, the government of Botswana has embraced distance learning as an alternative mode of delivering education.

In Botswana, all children are guaranteed 10 years of basic education, thus creating the need for more qualified teachers to achieve quality basic education. The 10 year basic education consists of seven years of primary education, and three years of junior secondary schooling. The 10 years of basic education and the in-service training of teachers to upgrade their qualifications are meant to underpin the socio-economic development goals as stipulated in Botswana's Vision 2016, of creating an educated, informed and prosperous nation through part-time and lifelong learning.

Other African countries also follow the route of distance education. In Uganda, distance education is also used to upgrade teachers. Binns and Otto (2006:32) state that distance education became popular in Uganda in the 1980s when the National Resistance Government liberalised the economy and social services. This gave rise to the establishment of more private schools, which created job opportunities and encouraged many to train as teachers through the mode of distance education.

According to Binns and Otto (2006:32), the pioneer institution for the delivery of teacher education in Uganda was Kyambogo Teacher Training College, which currently has been given university status and is now known as the Kyambogo University (KYU). Table 1.1 shows information with regard to teacher training status in the country and KYU.

Table 1.1: Country and Kyambogo University information

INDICATOR	UGANDA/KYU
Size of country*	236,000sq km
Population*	24,700.000
Literacy level**	62%
GNP per capita**	\$320
Percentage untrained teachers	In 1998, 55% of primary school teachers were qualified to required academic level
Language of instruction	English
Institution starts DE for teacher education	1957
Motive for establishment	Teacher training pre- and in-service
Single or dual mode	Dual
DE courses offered	Diploma in Education, Primary, External (DEPE), Diploma in Special Needs Education, External (DSNEE)
Number of students doing DE programmes	5026
Technology	Print-based and audio (planning use of SMS/text messaging)
Student support	Three two-week face to face sessions during vacations, including some coursework assignments

Source: * UNESCO EFA year 2000 assessment country report

** World Bank 2002

Table adapted from Binns and Wrightson (forthcoming)

The table showcases efforts by the government of Uganda to upgrade their teachers' training through distance education and hence impact on the quality of education. As in Botswana, this government realised that a qualified teacher would mean opening up access to education for the children and also improve on the quality of education itself.

1.4.2 The significance of Teacher Professional Development

Teacher professional development is a central goal of education, for teachers require assistance in order to gain classroom experience, work with a mentor and study further to develop or enhance their knowledge and skills. In addition, they need to keep abreast with developments in their field.

Richter, Kunter, Klusmann, Lüdtke & Baumert (2011:1) investigated the different learning opportunities that are usually taken up by teachers in the course of their career. The authors cite “in-service training as an example of formal learning opportunity, and teacher collaboration and the use of professional literature as two examples of informal learning opportunities”. The formal learning opportunity, in-service training, was found to be more popular and used most frequently by “[m]id-career teachers, whereas informal learning opportunities showed distinct patterns across the teaching career, specifically, indicate that older teachers show reduced involvement in in-service training”. (2011:1). In my view, older teachers would not be keen to further their studies, for some would be due for retirement whilst others are restrained by family commitments. From my experience as a teacher educator, teachers who are sponsored by the Botswana government to further their studies are entitled to their full salary only in the first year of their study leave, and they earn half of their salary in subsequent years. This arrangement explains the reluctance of some teachers to take up professional development.

1.4.3 Conditions for Professional Development

Professional development initiatives do not always enjoy a lofty reputation. My own experience as a teacher, teacher educator and teacher observer agrees with Richardson (1998:1) that teachers change all the time. This view refutes arguments that teachers do not change and resist change. In terms of my experiences I have to agree with Richardson (1998:2) when he further argues that teachers will engage in change that they initiate themselves, and will resist change suggested by others, “When change is advocated or demanded by another person, we feel threatened, defensive, and perhaps rushed. We are without the freedom and the time to understand and to affirm the new learning as something desirable, and as something of our own choosing”.

I have witnessed teachers trying out new ideas, especially in Literature lessons that I have observed. However, there is research that finds teacher autonomy in the classroom debatable. Richardson (1998:3) suggests that “[t]he sense of teacher autonomy, must be broadened beyond the individual teacher to the group of teachers who are working overtime, with a given student or set of students”, Richardson (1998:4) furthermore has observed that innovations that engage teachers for several hours or days in a workshop usually are unlikely to be implemented by the teachers, and produce limited follow-up activities. My experience vouches for this argument, for

the workshop attendees in some instances fail to cascade the innovation, simply because they lack the confidence to make presentations in front of their colleagues.

Griffith (1986:12), on the other hand, argues that some training models result in significant and limited changes; requirements for training models are summarised below:

- The training process should be school-wise and content specific;
- Principals (or programme directors) should be supportive of the process and encouraging change;
- The training should be long term, with adequate support and follow up;
- The training process should encourage collegiality;
- The training content should incorporate current knowledge obtained through well-designed research;
- The process should include adequate funds for materials, outside speakers, and substitute teachers to allow teachers to observe one another.

An effective training model for a teacher's professional development should take all stakeholders on board. It should be supportive and encourage change, as well as be knowledgeable of school policies that support coherent professional development. The training should involve all teachers in a given school or programme, to promote collegiality, and ensure that the content includes current development or knowledge emanating from research. Above all, there must be sufficient time and resources to address the intended professional development. Data in Chapter 4 of this study show whether the conditions for professional development that are proposed in this section are reflected in the professional development of the in-service teacher trainees sampled in the research study.

1.4.4 Teacher Attitudes towards Professional Development

Torf and Sessions (2009:2-3) advance a number of reasons to explain a lack of enthusiasm by some teachers to take up professional development initiatives. They point out that teachers have criticised some initiatives as “faddish and lacking a research base”. Others have stated that they are “[i]mpractical, unsupported by school-district policies and practices, and delivered by professional development providers with limited or non-existent classroom experience”.

Furthermore, Torf and Sessions (2009:3) have also indicated how the number of years of teaching experience impedes on professional development initiatives. “Teachers grew markedly more supportive of professional development in the first two years of teaching, followed by a steady decline in attitudes over the next seven years”. I do recall expressions from other teachers that substantiate this observation. Teachers in their first two years of teaching would regard themselves as ‘still fresh from college’ and therefore ready to engage in further studies. This is not evident in later years, for then they would ‘feel rusty’ (in terms of academic studies) and unwilling to engage in in-depth studies for a higher qualification. This reluctance to take up further studies presumably, denies the in-service teacher trainees opportunities to benefit from a boost in their content knowledge and to keep abreast with current developments and knowledge in their field of study.

1.4.5 The use of Distance Education for Professional, In-service Teacher Development

According to Sikwibele and Mungoo (2009:2), distance education can be defined as “planned and regular educational provision where there is distance between the instructor and the learner”. They point to the following as features of the concept:

- a) Absence of a teacher
- b) Use of mixed media in teaching and learning
- c) Correspondence
- d) Independent learning
- e) Possibility of face-to-face meetings with tutors

Distance education has advantages and disadvantages for professional development. In this section of the discussion I first highlight the advantages.

Distance education is convenient for it does not take the teacher away from the classroom, because the teachers learn as they work. It reaches teachers in remote areas and thus allows training of more people. Kamau (2009:2) points out that, despite the limited facilities at teacher training colleges, distance education has a “multiplier effect”, because it adds qualified teachers to the numbers graduated through the pre-service model. In addition, it is learner-centred and accords the students opportunity to be in control of the pace and learning style. The nature of the flexibility entailed in distance education has proved its potential in training and continually retraining teachers within short time periods.

The benefit of distance learning or open and distance learning (ODL), the term used by the Southern African Development Community (SADC), has not gone unnoticed and is mentioned in the SADC Regional ODL Policy Framework (2012:13) in which it is mentioned as

...one of the education sub-sectors where open and distance learning has been extensively used. Open and distance learning has been used to train unqualified primary school teachers, upgrade under-qualified teachers as well as upgrading teachers with diploma qualifications to degree level qualifications

The contribution of ODL to teacher training has not only been acknowledged for the quality of education delivery in the SADC region, but it has also contributed significantly to the reduction in the shortage of teachers in the member states.

Disadvantages for distance education mainly involve the physical remoteness or distance between the instructor and the learner that is associated with this kind of professional development. Mulkeen A, Chapman.D, Dejaeghere.J, Leu.E. (2007:54 aptly note concerns that have been raised about the effectiveness of distance learning courses as a learning experience. They argue that the distance between the students and the lecturers provides the students with minimal contact with the lecturer. Despite the fact that they learn at their own pace and in their own space, distance education leaves the student feeling isolated. In addition, if in-service teacher education is not managed well, the trainees tend to use it as a gateway to improve their qualifications and salaries, and not “[a]s a crucial opportunity to improve the quality of their teaching”.

1.4.6 DPE-DE Administrative Constraints

Kamau (2009:7) points out that the success of distance education teacher programmes hinges on collaborative efforts between various stakeholders at the institutional, national, regional and international level for optimal utilisation of limited resources. Botswana bears testimony to collaborative efforts, because in-service teacher trainee support is provided at three Colleges of Primary Education, where the trainees have the opportunity to interface with tutors in residential sessions scheduled during primary school vacations. These colleges also offer the conventional diploma, and are affiliated with the University of Botswana (UB), which is responsible for quality assurance structures, procedures and processes governing the assessment of work and external moderation of examinations. The Ministry of Education and Skills Development (MOE&SD,

through the department of Teacher Training and Development (TT&D) in liaison with regional centres, nominates and sponsors eligible teachers for the programme. The programme was run in collaboration with the Center for Continuing Education (CCE) until 2010 when Botswana College of Distance and Open Learning (BOCODOL) took over. At international level, organisations such as United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and the Commonwealth of Learning (COL) have facilitated workshops on the development of materials and learner support.

However, the two-week residential support that is organised during the school vacation has proved to be insufficient for the students to consult their tutors and write an end-of-module examination in the second week. The mounting pressure that characterises the training process has in some cases forced students to drop out. On the other hand, the tutors are full-time employees of the Colleges of Education, where their responsibility is to lecture to the conventional students, the majority of whom are pre-service trainees. The lecturers would therefore tend to treat tutoring in the distance education DPE as a part-time job and the heavy workloads and lack of time experienced by in-service trainees could be attributed to delays by tutors in setting and marking assessment work.

Other challenges faced by the in-service students are attributed to situational barriers such as juggling the demands of their studies, work and home. Research by Sikwibele and Mungoo (2009:5) quotes one female who explained the problem:

We had a lot of work, you don't have time to read, when you are from work, you are tired, you have to do the housework and then after that you are tired, there is no time to read. When you come here [residential session], the time is very short we just read at the same time [as] writing exams, the time was just too short for us to study, that is why we fail exams.

These experiences of the students do not support the training models for teacher professional development suggested by Griffith (1986:12) mentioned earlier in the chapter, in sub-section 1.4.3. I would like to observe that the frustrations expressed by the students makes it clear that there is a lack of support from the programme directors, that the training is not long term, and is void of adequate support and follow-up as advocated by Griffith. The students feel subjected to pressure

due to the very short period of time allocated to a residential session in which they are tutored and expected to complete tests and examinations. The training sessions do not seem to encourage collegiality, because the students' complaints indicate that they go through the training process in isolation and in an environment with insufficient resources, and these are not good circumstances in which to determine and remedy teachers' PCK needs.

1.5 THE STATUS OF LITERATURE AS A SUBJECT IN THE BOTSWANA EDUCATION SYSTEM

English has assumed a double role as the medium of instruction and as official language in Botswana schools from the primary level to tertiary education. At Primary and Junior Secondary level (ages 7 to 16), English language and literature are not taught as separate subjects, as the two subjects complement each other. The approach is to offer Literature in language teaching. The teaching of Literature mainly focuses on enjoyment of texts read, and the overall language development of the child, with less emphasis on details of literary criticism. Generally, the aim is to promote a reading culture in the pupils by giving them an opportunity to develop their interest in reading. At senior secondary level (ages 17 to 19), Literature in English is offered as an optional subject, and students at this level usually are encouraged to have passed their English language examination at JC level with grades between A and C to gain access to the subject as an elective.

The Senior Secondary education in Botswana builds onto the three-year Junior Secondary level. The end of Senior Secondary education marks entry into tertiary education, depending on the results achieved in the final examination for the Botswana General Certificate in Secondary Education (BGCSE). By building onto the basic education programme, senior secondary means progression in promoting the all-round development of an individual. Furthermore, the philosophy of the senior secondary curriculum stipulates that "The government's goal for education is to provide for life-long education which prepares Botswana for the transitions from a traditional afro-based economy to the industrial economy that the country aspires to" (Curriculum Blueprint Senior Secondary Programme, 1997:2). This philosophy is further altered in the Long Term Vision for Botswana for the year 2016. It is hoped that Botswana by the year 2016 will be "An educated and Informed Nation" (Long term Vision for Botswana, 1997:5).

In the Senior Secondary School syllabus for Literature in English (1998:i), justification for the inclusion of Literature in the curriculum is to build on the ten-year Basic Education programme

with particular attention to the development of an all-round individual. Furthermore, Literature in the curriculum is meant to allow students to develop a positive self-image (who am I?), and an understanding of concepts of the communities to whom they belong (cultural and national identity). Literature further enhances reading widely, and by cultivating a reading culture, Botswana students will be able to participate in developing the “Educated and informed Nation” that is envisaged in the Long term Vision for Botswana 2016.

We need to note here that Literature when offered at Junior Secondary level provides a foundational base for students at Senior Secondary level, and this was proved true when Literature in English as a subject was excluded from the curriculum in 1988, with the introduction of the two-year Junior Secondary programme, which replaced the current three-year JC programme. Instead, Literature in English was offered as an optional subject at Senior Secondary level. The reasons for excluding Literature, as I gather from the report on a National Conference on Literature in Language Teaching (October 1993), were political ones with economic implications (Report on National Conference on Literature in Language Teaching, 1993:1). For instance, government had to scale down free basic education from ten years to nine years. Generally, the decision was informed by a lack of understanding of the role of literary works in appealing to all sections of society, and that Literature could be used as a powerful weapon by society in favour of or against the existing social structure. For the pupils, in addition to improving on their acquisition of the English language, studying Literature develops fluency in language use and builds vocabulary. According to Malaba (2006:13),

Literature enables us to explore our lives and circumstances; it pinpoints the challenges of our times and can help us to engage, either philosophically or in more concrete ways, in endeavors to ameliorate our societies. It also has great therapeutic value, in terms of recreation and can enhance our appreciation of languages.

In my view, by harnessing Literature, Botswana’s wealth of different languages and cultural traditions would be recognised, supported and strengthened within the education system. The curriculum developers of the time seem to have lacked understanding of the significance of literature studies in the education system.

The two-year Junior Secondary level was in existence from 1988 to 1996, and during that period Literature in the curriculum could be declared dead. This was evident from the dwindling numbers of students in Senior Secondary schools that opted for the subject. Some schools in the same period could not register any students for the Literature in English final examinations in a particular year. The subject was rated as a ‘failing’ one, and some teachers discouraged their students from choosing the subject.

These experiences with regard to Literature as a subject brought into question the quality of teaching of the subject, and especially to DPE-DE students, some of whom were without the necessary foundation to teach the subject at the junior secondary level, because of being trained to teach the subject to pupils at the foundational level of education, the primary school level. At the primary school level, the teachers’ focus, particularly at lower primary, leans more towards teaching reading and cultivating a love of reading in the pupils. At junior secondary level (some of the in-service teacher trainees had gone that far in their secondary education), the teaching of literature is not offered apart from English language, as is the case at senior secondary education level. The DPE-DE trainees are therefore faced with the mammoth task of laying a proper foundation for literary studies. The burden on the primary school teachers presumably becomes worse in an era where there is a gap in the curriculum that does not offer Literature at all at junior secondary level.

The decline of literature at secondary level is not a local problem only, but has been experienced world-wide. For example, in Singapore they have a similar experience as Botswana; as recently as in 2015 the news headline in *The Straits Times* focused on “Fewer Literature students a worrying trend”. Pearl Lee (2015), the author of the article, attributes the fall in the popularity of Literature to students who view the subject “as difficult to score highly in, and that it has little practical value”. Some students mentioned the selection of texts, which they found “unappealing to teens”. One student is reported as follows:

New Town secondary school student Wayne Lee, 16 opted for Geography Instead of Literature because “[W]e read Shakespeare’s *The Merchant of Venice* In Secondary 2 and it was so tough. I had to translate each page into modern English, I decided not to study Literature after that.

Lee further argues that the inclusion of William Shakespeare at least once for each year of the examination, leads to a lack of cultural representation, especially, as he points out, local literary texts usually are allocated 10% inclusion in the curriculum.

Mohammed (2015:91) cites a number of reasons that were advanced by respondents to questionnaires that he administered on ‘The Decline of Literature’. He posed the question “What do you think are the main reasons that some people do not read literature?” It was an attempt to find answers for the decline of literature through the lens of the public and the ordinary readers. The following were some of the reasons expressed by the participants:

- Lack of time
- The impact of technology on people’s lives
- The lack of advertising

The situation at school level has serious implications for the study of literature at tertiary level, and this can be seen in reports on the provision of literature courses at this level. Research studies by different scholars published in *The Study and Use of English in Africa* (Malaba 2006: xiii), have made reference to the “[c]entrality of Literature to the curricula of universities in Africa. In the context of dwindling funding, restructuring of academic disciplines, literary studies are becoming more and more marginalized under various themes”.

My involvement with the Literary Studies at tertiary level was necessitated by my studies at Master’s level on developments in the curriculum and the impact on the teaching and learning of Literature in English in Botswana Senior Secondary Schools. My interest in the area of literature was prompted by my experience as a teacher/lecturer of the subject since 1986. On completing their senior secondary school studies, students acquire a Botswana General Certificate in Secondary Education Certificate (BGCSE). This secures them a place at tertiary level, and they end up at the University of Botswana, Faculty of Humanities. In instances where the students choose to study languages and literature, they tend to struggle because of being exposed to in-depth studies in Literature for the first time. This is because they have no background in literature from the secondary level at which the subject is offered as an option or is not offered at all.

A number of studies on the challenges facing Distance Learning and Teacher Education in Botswana have been undertaken (Kamau & Selepeng-Tau 2007; Sikwibele & Mungoo 2009). Studies on the benefits of literature in language teaching for learners and society in general are available too (Cha & Ham, 1991; Bottino, 1999; Crystal, 1997; Carter, 2007; Cairney, 2011). My motivation for researching this topic is two-fold:

1. I have noticed a gap in studies that address the role of Literature in English studies for in-service teacher trainees, particularly the DPE-DE in Botswana Colleges of Education;
2. There is a gap between the upper primary phase and the senior secondary phase where literature is not taught in depth for three years. This means that the teaching of literature as a separate subject at junior secondary school level is critically important for learners to develop both a love of reading and an appreciation for literature that will sustain them throughout junior secondary school.

It is critical that, despite the lack of literature studies in some levels of education, teachers should be effectively trained to teach literature well. Both training and implementation should be equipped adequately with the requisite skills and resources.

1.5.2 The role of Literature in the In-service Teacher Education Curriculum

As pointed out above, one of the problems with the teaching of literature at school level is the preparedness of teachers. In studying the role of literature in in-service language teacher education programmes, my project included investigating the reading patterns of the teacher trainees, in order to gauge the reading passion that is dictated by the reading of literary texts. These texts are prescribed because they involve the development of analytical skills and encourage interaction with the characters they read about. These texts are also complex and are meant to equip learners with the ability to unravel the multiple layers of meaning found in the text. The Curriculum for Diploma in Primary Education (2009:76) stipulates that the English course aims at

producing teachers whose spoken and written English is of high standard and will be good models for their learners... and sufficiently grounded in the English language and Literature teaching methods and ...strategies as a second language to learners of diverse abilities, social, cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

The importance of literature in a society cannot be underestimated. According to Cairney (2011:9), and I agree with him,

Literature is not just about story; it is about life and one's world. It can act as a mirror to enable readers to reflect on life's problems and circumstances; a source of knowledge; a means to peer into the past, and the future; a vehicle to other places; a means to reflect on inner struggles; an introduction to the realities of life and death; and a vehicle for the raising and discussion of social issues.

I therefore argue that it is important that teachers of literature should display not only a love of teaching the subject, but should also have a passion for reading extensively to the extent that they, in their teaching of Literature, successfully "[o]pen up worlds not normally available to be experienced first-hand by children". It is without doubt that, if the teachers become avid readers, there is the possibility that their pupils will copy their behaviour and ultimately possess a love for reading and for studying literature.

The inclusion of literature in the L2 curriculum is a concern not only in Botswana, but worldwide. Different scholars have advocated for the inclusion of literature in the L2 curriculum: Smit (2009:84) argues that literature assists "to promote greater tolerance for cultural differences" for both the learners and the teachers. Hernandi (2002:30) argues that, besides promoting cultural tolerance in both the ESL learner and the ESL teacher, "Literature...promotes students' creativity, since the end goal of studying literature is not only admiration of Literature; it is more a "transfer of imaginative energy from the Literature to the student" (McKay 1982:531). Furthermore, the student's interaction with the literary texts will improve reading proficiency, which further contributes to a student's academic and occupational objectives. Smit (2009:83) emphasises that literature

... is full of real life language in different situations, which can provide a variety of models of communication. The study of literature thus teaches the ability to interpret discourse which can be applied inside, as well as outside the learning situation, and in a range of language uses both literary and non-literary.

In the African context, Malaba (2006:3) advocates for the centrality of Literature in the curriculum of universities in Africa. He argues that literary studies play a pivotal role in "defining human

values” and therefore deserve funding and support similar to that given to science and technology. Malaba (2006:13) further opines that

Literature enables us to explore our lives and circumstances; it pinpoints the challenges of our times and can help us to engage, either philosophically or in more concrete ways, in endeavors to ameliorate our societies... and can enhance our appreciation of languages.

For the purposes of this study, then, Literature is understood to refer to creative and fictional texts that are complex, and require analysis and interpretations that are aligned to our lives and perspectives. In terms of my study and the curriculum requirements that I discuss later, texts at primary schools would include literature for small children including poems, rhymes, songs, stories and role playing. It is crucial, though, that the texts cater for the different reading levels of the pupils, who at primary school level are developing reading fluency. My understanding of Literature is derived from the authors that I have discussed in the previous paragraphs. Literature is perceived not just as a story; its complexity is that it is about life and one’s world. Readers of Literature need to treat it as a mirror through which they can reflect on life problems and circumstances. On the other hand, teachers should teach Literature effectively so that it affords their pupils not only the experience of “new worlds”, but also enhances their tolerance of cultural differences.

Apart from life lessons derived from Literature, I vouch also for its improvement of pupils’ reading and language proficiency. Literary texts use real-life language in different contexts, which pupils can adopt in their varied models of communication, either inside or outside the learning environment.

Therefore, the current study explored the perceptions about literature held by in-service teacher trainees who specialise in English language studies in Botswana Primary School Teacher Training Colleges, the end qualification of which is the Diploma in Primary Education (DPE). One finding from this study was that at DPE-DE level, the majority of the students (67%) as reflected in Table 1.2, below, do not have any background in literature studies from senior secondary school. They have a Junior Certificate Education (JCE) qualification and a Primary School Teaching Certificate (PTC). At JC, as mentioned above, studies in Literature are basic and focus more on the enjoyment of the texts that are read. Offering DPE-DE was a response to government policy that dictated that all Primary school teachers be upgraded to a diploma level in order to improve on the quality of Primary Education. Table 1.2 illustrates entry qualifications of English Studies learners for the 2008 cohort in one of the Colleges of Education. (See the Research sample below).

Table 1.2: Entry qualifications of the 2008 DPE-DE cohort

	L/NO	GENDER	QUALIFICATION
1	003	F	JCE
2	014	F	COSC
3	017	F	JCE
4	018	F	JCE
5	094	F	JCE
6	744	F	JCE
7	753	F	COSC
8	769	F	JCE
9	787	F	COSC

The Cambridge Overseas School certificate (COSC) qualification is equivalent to the Botswana General Certificate in Secondary Education (BGCSE) that students attain at the end of their Senior Secondary studies. The nomenclature changed when Botswana localised its senior secondary education final examinations. The JCE (Junior Certificate in Education) is the qualification that is attained at the end of junior secondary level, ending the ten years' universal education. This qualification is an entry requirement for the two-year senior secondary level, which culminates with the BGCSE/COSC examination. In total, a child in Botswana should have gone through the twelve-year education system prior to qualification for tertiary education.

1.5.3 The ODL Programme for English Language Teachers

Curriculum entry requirements

The entry requirements for the DPE programme are stipulated as follows in the curriculum (2010: 77):

Category I: Candidates with a minimum of BGCSE or its equivalence with at least credits in two subjects and a pass in English.

Category II: Candidates who shall be between 25 and 35 years of age on the day of registration may be selected on the basis of relevant work experience and should have credits in at least two subjects and a pass in English at BGCSE or its equivalence.

Students selected for Category I usually are enrolled for the conventional setup which mainly comprises pre-service applicants. Category II targets the in-service trainees and they get the distance education delivery mode. It should be noted that a pass in English is a requirement for all applicants.

For studies in English, the course consists of language and linguistics, literature and language teaching methodologies. The course rationale, as stated in the curriculum (2010:76) “[i]s to [produce] teachers whose spoken and written English is of high standard and will be good models for their learners”. The aim is for the teachers to be “[s]ufficiently grounded in English language, literature and language teaching methods to enable them to select and grade materials that are sensitive to gender and other emerging issues” at the end of their training. In order to heighten personal and professional development, the course incorporates theory and practice and encourages research and lifelong learning.

English language teachers are trained in a context where the English language continues to enjoy a privileged status over indigenous languages in Botswana as well as in the wider global context (see Chapter 2 for a full discussion). English has gained significant importance in the field of education and functions as a medium of instruction across the curriculum. That is why the emphasis of the DPE-DE curriculum rationale above is to produce teachers who are competent in their subject knowledge and teaching methods of English language and literature.

1.5.4 The challenge of teaching literature

Literature and the experience of the author indicate that the teaching and the learning of English language at Junior Secondary level has its own challenges. Therefore, some in-service trainees for DPE-DE bring difficulties to their studies that adversely affect their learning. One example is poor performance in English, as highlighted by Adeyeni and Kalane (2011:120), who quote recommendations and observations stated in the annual report of the JC English Exam in 2001, 2004, 2005:

- (i) Teachers (should) expose learners to varied reading materials and topics in order to enhance their creativity, develop vocabulary and generally enhance language acquisition and learning.

It was also noted (in the 2004 report) that “[a] considerable number of students did not understand some questions in the Literature paper before rushing to answer them and thereby, lost points.” In the context of this study, some of these in-service trainees (study sample) were part of the JCE learners who failed to be exposed to varied reading materials and ‘struggled’ with answering their Literature exam paper. It is likely that they transferred negative experiences with literature to their classroom decisions, which may also include lack of encouragement for their pupils to read widely. With regard to teaching Literature the Three-year Junior Secondary School syllabus (2010:v) stipulates that “The syllabus integrates language and literature which was seen as complementary... Literature can be used as the base for reading and writing instruction in the classroom.” This is proof that there is no in-depth study of literary texts at junior secondary level, as is the case at senior secondary level.

The effectiveness of teaching English language at Primary school level in Botswana was scrutinised recently in *Midweek Sun* (March 11 2015: 4), one of the local newspapers. Rachel Raditsebe, the writer of the article, argues that the Ministry of Education has accepted that poor standards of English literacy in primary schools are “[l]argely to blame for the continued decline in performance results of Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) and Junior Certificate Examination (JCE)” (See Appendix A). The Coordinator of the Department of In-service Teacher Training and Development, one of the attendees at a recent workshop on ‘English Literacy Across Lower Primary Schools’, corroborated Raditsebe’s view by stating that the ministry, following a nationwide study, noted in shock “[t]hat English was not taught effectively at Standard One and Two”. In addition, the Coordinator emphasised that English is an all-important subject, and therefore vital to pupils’ ability to read English well in order to succeed in other subject areas. The objective of the above-mentioned workshop was to develop teaching materials for Standards One and Two in order to improve teaching practices in primary schools. The materials were to be more inter-active and learner-centred with a lot of emphasis on reading. With the concern at Ministry level, the current study could not have come at a more appropriate time.

The development of materials planned for in the workshop was the result of evidence that teachers teaching standards One and Two at primary schools are finding it difficult to teach reading and literature (See Appendix A). Therefore, in the context of this study, the teachers have a problem

in translating teacher content knowledge into pedagogical strategies for primary school pupils, which is what Shulman (1987) calls PCK.

In addition to investigating the in-service teacher trainees' reading habits and practices, this study also ascertained the availability of resources that would facilitate extensive reading by both the teachers and their pupils. A passion for reading will build language proficiency and may guarantee love of teaching and learning Literature for both the teachers and their pupils. That is why the emphasis of the DPE-DE curriculum rationale is to produce teachers who are competent in the subject knowledge and teaching methods of English Language and Literature. That is why, as pivotal to this study, data were collected to determine the strategies that the teacher trainees used in their study of Literature in their professional development, and the investigation likewise was on the strategies that the teacher trainees employed in their quest to inculcate a culture of reading in their pupils at primary school level.

1.6 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The aim of this study was to investigate the reading experiences, habits and practices of Primary School in-service teacher trainees in order to assess the extent to which Literature is integrated in the English studies component of the school curriculum and is appreciated by their learners.

The outcomes of the study, which are discussed in detail in Chapter 5, should advance important recommendations for both local and universal curriculum developers responsible for in-service training and the professional development of primary school teachers.

The overarching research question is: What role (if any) does literature play in the studies and classrooms of in-service English language teacher trainees?

The study sought to provide answers to the following **sub-questions** from the findings of the research:

- 1.1 What are the literature requirements for in-service teacher trainees who are upgrading their qualifications for English language teaching?
- 1.2 What are trainees' attitudes towards literature as a subject?
- 1.3 What are the reading patterns of the teacher trainees?
- 1.4 What strategies do the teacher trainees employ to inculcate the love of literature

and a culture of reading in their lessons?

1.5 To what extent do teacher trainees exhibit Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) in their teaching of literature to ESL learners?

The next sub-section presents a brief overview of the methodology followed for the study. The details are discussed in Chapter 3.

1.6.1 Research design for the study

This study adopted the case study research design because it focused on a specific cohort of students and a specific subject of study. Punch (2009:119) strongly advocates for a case study because “It has a holistic focus, aiming to preserve and understand the wholeness and unity of the case”, whilst Creswell (2003:15) explains that case studies allow the researcher to conduct in-depth study of a programme, event, a process or one or more individuals. In this study, the focus was on the 2008 cohort for the Diploma in Primary Education by Distance Education (DPE-DE) in-service teacher trainees in Botswana Colleges of Primary Education. Creswell (2003:15) reiterates that “The case(s) are bounded by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time.” This case was bound by the year of commencing studies, which was 2008. All the students specialised in Languages (English and Setswana). For studies in English, the course consisted of language and linguistics, literature and language teaching methodologies. The course rationale, as stated in the curriculum (2010:76), “[i]s to [produce] teachers whose spoken and written English is of high standard and will be good models for their learners”.

In order to have multiple sources of evidence, qualitative data were collected from a variety of sources. Interviews, documentary data resources and lesson observations were used. Although a questionnaire can normally be seen as providing quantitative data, the questions were open-ended and can be described as yielding qualitative data. Ultimately, the data that were collected for answering the research questions helped in defining the holistic nature of the case study. These techniques made it possible for triangulation of the various data sets. According to Creswell (2009:181), qualitative research enables the researcher to be highly involved in the actual experiences of the participants. That is why I opted for semi-structured one-on-one interviews as a data collection tool for this method. The tool enabled me to determine the teacher trainees’ experiences, habits and practices in their interaction with Literature studies at Diploma level.

Punch (2009:144) describes the interview as “the most prominent data collection tool in qualitative research. It is a very good way of accessing people’s perceptions, meaning, definitions of situations and constructions of reality”.

In studying the role of literature in the in-service language teacher education programme, this study investigated the reading patterns of the teacher trainees, in order to gauge the reading passion that dictates the reading and teaching of literature texts. I also observed lessons taught by the teacher trainees and collected documentary data in the form of lesson plans, in order to provide a window into the Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) that the trainees have acquired from their studies. These data also reflected the strategies that the in-service teacher trainees employed in their teaching and reading of literature to their ESL pupils. Agree (1998:2) states that “Good grasp of content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and understanding students’ interests and needs are some of the requirements needed to teach literature competently.” Therefore, data were analysed to ascertain whether the in-service trainees acquired adequate knowledge of the subject matter in their studies, and whether they transformed it effectively into instructional material.

1.7 Theoretical point of departure

Teachers of English and of English literature in general, require a particular attitude towards reading, and to reading literature in particular. Not only do they have to know and understand the literature, they have to teach it effectively. The theoretical framework that I have found relevant to this study is that of Shulman (1986) on pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). He points out that there is a difference between the knowledge that an academic in literature requires and the knowledge that a teacher needs on the same topic.

Shulman’s (1986:5) theoretical framework proposes that “[t]eachers need pedagogical knowledge, deep knowledge of the subject itself, and knowledge of curricular goals and available materials”. The teachers in this current study, furthermore have different backgrounds with regard to literature studies. Some hold the entry qualifications of the Botswana General Certificate in Secondary Education (BGCSE) that includes Literature Studies as an optional subject, whilst others hold the Junior Certificate in Education (JCE), which excludes literature studies (see sub-section 1.5.2). Shulman underscores the importance of thorough teacher education by pointing out that “[t]he person who presumes to teach subject matter to children must demonstrate knowledge of that

subject matter as a prerequisite to teaching” (Shulman, 1986:5). The implication of the disparity in teaching qualifications of the teacher trainees is that teachers with the JCE do not have the requisite content knowledge of literature on which to build pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) to teach their subject, and literature in particular, properly. That is why they need to study literature as well as the methodology for teaching literature in their in-service programme.

Shulman’s (1987:10) argument is based on examining content and its role in instruction. He conducted case studies with beginning high school teachers investigating the strength of subject matter that they had acquired in their training and how it translated into the knowledge required for teaching the subject in the late 1980s.

Shulman divides Teacher Knowledge into major categories under General Pedagogical Knowledge with special reference to the broad principles and strategies of classroom management and organisation that appear to transcend subject matter:

- Knowledge of learners and their characteristics
- Knowledge of educational contexts ranging from the workings of the group or classroom, the governance and financing of school districts, to the character of communities and cultures
- Knowledge of educational ends, purposes and values, and their philosophical and historical grounds
- Content knowledge
- Curriculum knowledge, with particular grasp of the materials and programmes that serve as “tools of trade” for the teachers
- Pedagogical content knowledge, the special amalgam of content and pedagogy that is uniquely the province of teachers, their own special form of professional understanding.

According to Shulman (1987:8), these categories highlight the significance of content knowledge and its place with regard to a larger landscape of professional knowledge for teaching. The first four categories emphasise the general dimensions of teacher knowledge that were central to teacher education programmes at the time. The last three categories are content specific and represent what Shulman referred to as the “missing paradigm in research on teaching”. Shulman (1986:6) draws a distinction between content and pedagogical process.

He points out that one either knows content, and pedagogy is secondary and unimportant, or one may know pedagogy, and is not held accountable for content. Shulman (1986:8) sums up his view in: “Mere content knowledge is likely to be as useless pedagogically as content free skill”. From my experiences as a teacher and teacher educator, I have to agree with Shulman that content knowledge may not be effectively transformed into instructional material, which may be due to the teacher’s incompetence or may be compromised by deficiencies in prior education, in other words a lack of background studies on the subject matter prior to training.

Furthermore, Shulman’s concept is articulated through responses to the following questions: (Shulman, 1987:1)

- What are the sources of the knowledge base for teaching?
- In what terms can these sources be conceptualised?
- What are the processes of pedagogical reasoning and action?
- What are the implications for teaching policy and educational reform?

Shulman emphasises that the answers to these questions will enhance the understanding of educational practitioners, scholars and policymakers with regard to how teachers are to be trained and evaluated.

1.7.1 Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK)

The in-service trainees investigated in this research study needed to have specific knowledge that resulted in effective teaching through classroom decisions or strategies that they employed to impart knowledge of literature. In teaching subject matter, the trainees required pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), which, according to Shulman (1987:8), is significant in showing the difference between the content specialist and that of the pedagogue. He defines PCK as:

...the most useful forms of representation of those ideas, the most powerful analogies, illustrations, examples, explanations, and demonstrations – in a word, the most useful ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others... . Pedagogical content knowledge also includes an understanding of what makes the learning of specific topics easy or difficult: the conceptions and preconceptions that students of different ages and backgrounds bring with them to the learning of those most frequently taught topics and lessons. (Shulman, 1986:7)

In view of this definition, the trainees' teaching had to involve students in the exchange of ideas. They needed to work towards grasping and comprehending an idea themselves, before "[t]he idea is shaped or tailored until it can in turn be grasped by students" (Shulman 1987:13).

Bausmith and Barry (2011:26) emphasise the importance of a focus on learning the subject matter in Teacher Professional Development programmes, because "[p]edagogical content knowledge includes teachers' understanding of how students learn, or fail to learn". It is, imperative, therefore, that teachers employ varied strategies in order to develop their PCK according to the needs of their students. This is stressed by Shulman (1987:9) when he points out that teachers serve as the primary source of student comprehension of subject matter. This responsibility requires of the teacher to possess a depth of understanding of the structures of the subject matter, and a positive attitude towards what is being taught and learned.

Whether content knowledge is indeed imperative for teaching has been investigated in a few studies. Ball, Thames and Phelps (2008:390) focused on the teaching of mathematics, investigating the work that teachers do in teaching mathematics. Their argument is based on Shulman's theory, that teaching requires a special kind of content knowledge.

Ball *et al.* (2008:395) define "mathematical knowledge for teaching" as the kind of knowledge required to carry out the work of teaching mathematics. To elaborate on this definition, they (*ibid.*) emphasise that "[t]eaching involves showing students how to solve problems, answering students' questions and checking students' work". It is clear that these actions require an understanding of the content of the school curriculum. Furthermore, Ball *et al.* (2008:397) reiterate that teaching does not only involve identification of an incorrect answer, but that teaching requires also the ability to point out the source of a mathematical error. The argument is that mathematical tasks "[r]equire significant mathematical knowledge, skill, habits of mind and insight" (2008:398). This argument underscores Shulman's theory when he advocates for curricular knowledge within pedagogical content knowledge. For instance, teachers at secondary level should be aware of how mathematical topics they teach are related to mathematics taught at primary level, in order to link up with the lower level. Therefore, it is pertinent that teachers know the subject that they teach, to place themselves in a position that will empower them to help pupils learn the content.

This study, therefore, will explore the impact of the classroom decisions made by the in-service teacher trainees in terms of their content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge as they teach literature to their pupils. The focus of the study is on teachers and their training on the teaching of reading and literature to ESL pupils in Botswana Primary schools. It investigates the strategies that teachers employ to foster personal growth and to develop analytical minds. The study will besides exploring the PCK of in-service teacher trainees, also gain insight into the curriculum for Colleges of Primary Education and its impact on the training of the teachers. This current study will not investigate the learning theories and the way in which children become literate.

According to Andrews (2003:83) the arguments advanced by Shulman that teachers need to display subject matter knowledge in their teaching, are also applicable to the teaching of English as a second language teaching (L2). Andrews emphasises that “[k]nowledge of subject matter (knowledge about language) is only one type of language knowledge required of the L2 teacher: language proficiency (knowledge of language) is also crucial”. Andrews (2003:86) further advocates for Teacher Language Awareness (TLA), to define a teacher who is aware of the learners developing inter-language, and of “[t]he extent to which the language content of material lessons poses difficulties for students”. This underpins Shulman’s view that it is pertinent for teachers to know the subject that they teach to place themselves in a position that will empower them to help pupils learn the content.

On the other hand, Freeman (2002:1) in his discussion paper examines how teacher learning and teacher knowledge have been conceptualised since 1975, with regard to English language teaching. His paper (Freeman 2002:3) is premised on a number of themes that focus on: how teachers learn content and teaching practices; teachers’ mental processes; the role of prior knowledge in learning to teach and the role of social and institutional context in learning to teach. Freeman (2002:11) further proposes that “Teacher education must then serve two functions: It must teach the skills of reflexivity and it must provide the discourse and vocabulary that can serve participants in renaming their experience”. He concludes by warning that INSET and PRESET programmes that train teachers should stop the assumption that any failure in the outcome of teaching be blamed on the individual (teacher), who is trying to learn to teach.

Freeman's observations are important for the participants in this study. They are INSET trainees with an initial teacher education qualification and a number of years of experience (see chapter 4, Table 4.1). Their success or failure may be dependent on their training, their circumstances and their personal convictions and habits. All of these will probably impact on their teaching, their teaching decisions and their beliefs about literature. The way in which these factors play out in the lesson planning and delivery of the participants in this study is provided in Chapter 4.

1.8 THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Chapter 1 has offered a discussion of the background to this research project, and includes the research problem and the context of the study. Chapter 2 presents the theories and literature that have informed the study. The purpose of Chapter 3 is to present the methodology, research approach and instruments employed in the study. The discussion of the methodology also articulates and explains all the decisions made in the overall research process. It includes the descriptions, explanations and justifications of all procedures that were employed for the research.

The fourth chapter comprises reports on the results of the research and the findings are discussed. Chapter 5 concludes the thesis with a discussion of the main findings and the contributions of the current investigation to teacher professional development in the local and universal context. The chapter further discusses the interpretation of the results in terms of the literature and the theory that underpinned this study and also identifies the limitations of the study and winds up with recommendations that have emanated from the investigation.

CHAPTER 2: TEACHING ENGLISH LITERATURE IN BOTSWANA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 presents the background that motivated this research project. Chapter 2 presents the theories and literature that informed it.

The main aim of this research study was to gain insight into the reading behaviour and appreciation of literature studies of in-service teacher trainees, and the decisions that they employ in their classrooms as they teach the subject. These chapters present a critical review of the literature that has contributed to our current knowledge of the subject of this study. The review is intended to prepare the ground and provide a theoretical framework for the data presented in Chapter 4.

The importance of literature in a society cannot be underestimated. According to Cairney (2011:8), “[l]iterature opens up worlds not normally available to be experienced first-hand by children”. In reading literature, DPE-DE trainees gain experience of the worlds depicted in the texts. They are exposed to a variety of texts that open up various perspectives and cultures. Cairney, 2011:9) further argues, and I agree with him, that literature is not just about a story; it is about life and one’s world. It can act as a mirror to enable readers to reflect on life’s problems and circumstances; is a source of knowledge; a means to peer into the past and the future; a vehicle to other places; a means to reflect on inner struggles; an introduction to the realities of life and death; and a vehicle for the raising and discussion of social issues.

In Chapter1, I reviewed Shulman’s (1986) theory on Pedagogical Content Knowledge on which this study is anchored. It is important that we appreciate the impact of in-service teacher trainees’ literature studies on their teaching of Literature to ESL pupils. But first we need to understand the context of this study – in other words, what teaching Literature would effectively mean at primary school level in Botswana. In this chapter I discuss the role and status of English as a global language in Botswana. I then look critically at the requirements of the English curriculum before I narrow the focus to the teaching of literature in the Communicative Approach to language teaching. At the end of the chapter I return to my theoretical framework to ask how teachers can be trained to develop sufficient PCK for the development of reading and appreciation of reading.

Since pupils start their school career in Setswana and then switch to English, teachers’ PCK may be developed in any of these languages. However, since English is the language that is used most

for schooling, the background and necessity of teaching English and its literature in Botswana needs to be discussed. The status of English and its role in Botswana is therefore next.

2.2 THE ROLE AND STATUS OF ENGLISH IN BOTSWANA

This section highlights the role and status of English in Botswana and globally, which also reveals the dominant nature of English language in the world. English language is taught as a second language (L2), therefore this research study is discussed in that context. Botswana is a multilingual society and it is worth noting that the population of this study, the DPE-DE in-service teacher trainees, may be studying English as a third language, but they also have to grapple with the status and prominent place that English language is accorded in the Botswana education system.

This section, further reviews literature on teaching English language and Literature. In this section, the focus is on the arguments espoused by different linguists on the significance of including literature in the school curriculum and the benefits thereof. It also presents a reasoned discussion of the different approaches to the teaching of English language and Literature with emphasis on the requisite PCK for the teachers as they teach reading and Literature to ESL pupils in the context of this study. My interest is more on the kind of preparation that is done in the training of teachers who teach reading and literature in primary schools. How does this foundational stage prepare pupils for their studies in literature at secondary level, through the strategies that teachers employ in their teaching? Therefore, although the acquisition of literacy is probably the most important purpose of primary school teaching, a discussion on the nature of literacy development itself falls outside the scope of this study.

The review proceeds by discussing Literature genres as sources of teaching English language structures and improving language proficiency. Finally, the report gives a reasoned argument on the competencies required of teachers who teach reading and Literature.

2.3 THE DOMINANT NATURE OF THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

English is an official language in Botswana, and is also the medium through which we access information internationally and communicate with the world at large. The Primary English syllabus (2011(i)) emphasises that “The teaching of English at primary level is important because English is both the medium of instruction and a major learning tool, in and outside the classroom”.

Cha and Ham (1991:313) emphasise that English currently is the dominant or official language in over 75 territories in the world, and it is widely taught as de facto the most important foreign language in primary and secondary schools across diverse countries. According to Crystal (2003:10), this status of the language and many other factors have made English to be at the centre of an explosion of international activity that allocates it a global status.

The language has penetrated deeply into the international domains of political life, business, safety, communication, entertainment, the media and education. The convenience of having a lingua franca available to serve global human relations and needs has come to be appreciated by millions (Crystal, 2003:30). Graddol (2006:44) points out that English remains the primary choice amongst modern languages that are studied worldwide. For example, “In the Russian Federation 60% of secondary school students take English, 25% German and 15% French”.

Bangbose (2003:420) observes that global issues contribute significantly to the persistent use of English in educational policies. Further evidence of the dominance of English world-wide is the fact that, if people are given an opportunity to choose between English and an indigenous language as a medium of instruction, the advantages that English confers on them forces them to opt for it over the indigenous language. Michieka (2009:12), in a study carried out among rural Kisii students in Kenya, found that the learners were fully aware of the benefits of mastering English. The students argued that Ekegusii, their indigenous language, “was not necessary. ‘It will not take us anywhere’”. Such perceptions continue to accord English a privileged status. The use of English as a medium of instruction continues into higher education. According to Graddol (2006:45) this trend has given rise to a number of long-term consequences as follows:

- First, it accelerates and broadens the second-language use of English in both developed and developing countries, creating a constituency of college graduates, many of whom come to use English more extensively for social communication amongst themselves and some of whom raise their own children speaking English as a first language.
- Second, English-medium education alters the pattern of social privilege, which may trigger wide-ranging social change.

In Botswana, despite the fact that its inhabitants speak about 25 languages as their first language, English has taken precedence as the official language. On the other hand, Setswana is viewed as

the national language and is spoken as a mother tongue by about 80% of the population. According to Smieja (2004:1) 20% of the population have no choice but have to learn Setswana and use it as a lingua franca for common understanding, and the 20% includes speakers of languages like Ikalanga which is about 11-15% of the population. Others are Shekgalagadi, Otjiherero, Shiyei and about 14 different Khoesan (Basarwa) languages. Smieja (2004:1) further argues that the use of English and Setswana as a medium of instruction in schools has been the government's intention to unite its population under one linguistic system at the expense of cultural loss. This status accorded to Setswana then rendered the other languages to be called "minority languages". Smieja (2004:2) points out that the speakers of these other languages are a minority not only in terms of numbers, but also are of limited social relevance. Some of these speakers served as slaves in former times or, due to "their nomadic life style did not find acceptance of the more acknowledged groups."

See the map below that showcases the distribution of the languages in Botswana. It indicates the approximate locations of the minority languages; the Khoesan languages are prevalent in the Kalahari Desert and small Bantu languages are found in the north. Setswana is spoken all over the country, but in different dialects.

Map 1. Approximate distribution of the languages in Botswana (Smieja 2002:53)



Figure 2.1: Approximate distribution of languages in Botswana

Source: Smieja, 2002:53

2.3.1 The status of English and World Englishes

The English language has been maintained in all its former colonies, all the countries where English once was the language of rule: Singapore, Hong Kong, Bangladesh, The West Indies, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, America and former British colonies in Africa, including Botswana. King (2006:28) points out that “English is one of the natural means by which gifted writers express themselves in countries once under British rule. And when they write their graceful prose and eloquent poetry, they doubtless do not often stop to reflect on how it came about that it is English that is their instrument of choice”. King (2006:27) furthermore emphasises that the British Empire has gone, including its symbols like the Union Jack, and slave plantations have receded from view: what remains in most of its former colonies is the English language, as a medium of communication and instruction.

2.3.2 English in Africa today

In all the former British colonies in Africa (apart from Cameroon and Tanzania) English has become the main language of education, administration and business. Melchers and Shaw (2003:150) refer to at least three groups in Africa that have always had English (or creole) as their mother tongue: the black settlers in Liberia and Sierra Leone, and white settlers in South Africa.

According to Melchers and Shaw (2003:120), Liberia was founded in 1822 as a settlement for freed slaves from The United States of America and gained independence in 1847. English is the only official language in Liberia, and it is used as the first language by part of its population.

Melchers and Shaw (2003:116) argue that English came to South Africa around 1800, and the British government brought in immigrants who were mainly the working-class or of lower middle-class backgrounds in 1820. These early settlers first settled in the Eastern Cape. According to Melchers and Shaw (*ibid.*), “In the 1850s, a new wave of immigrants, mostly from the Midlands, Yorkshire, and Lancashire and of middle and upper-middle class origin, arrived and settled in Natal on the eastern seaboard”. This variety in the social structures of early settlements is attributed to the emergence of South African varieties of English, namely the prestige model, which maintained closer links with Britain, Standard English, and the other that emulated lower prestige, known as ‘Cape English’ and which was characterised by cockney-like features.

However, Melchers and Shaw (2003:116) also point out that first-language user of present-day South African English represents a range of different societal and regional groups. In Cape Town, for instance, we find ‘coloured’ speakers, white speakers of East Cape origin, Indian speakers (mainly in Natal), white speakers with a ‘Natal’ accent and white members of the Transvaal working class.

In Zambia, English is dominant as the medium of education even at primary school level. Zambia has many mother tongues, and therefore it is not politically viable to choose just one or two vernaculars. Melchers and Shaw (2003:154) argue that it would also be very expensive to provide primary textbooks in every mother tongue. In addition, foreign aid money has been utilised towards the production of English Language materials, which are relatively cheaper to produce for they are usually written by the aid-giver’s own experts and published by their own publishers.

The experience of the status of English language in post-colonial Tanzania is quite interesting. The linguistic situation in this country meant co-existence of English and Swahili. Bwenge (2012:168) presents the debate surrounding the status of the two languages in the education system and in the society in general. Bwenge (2012:169) points out that “[t]he spread of English as the language of high-level administration and higher education under British rule had the effect of relegating Swahili to the status of a second-class language even among Africans themselves”. However, to meet the ideals for the Ujamaa ideology, Bwenge argues that (2012:170) Swahili was adopted as the campaign language, and also declared the medium of instruction in all public primary schools and adult education classes. According to Sa (2007:4), ujamaa or “familyhood” was the vision that Julius Nyerere, the leader of the Tanganyika African National Union (TANU) “[a]dopted as an aggressive nation-building campaign that included promoting Swahili as the language of public life and transforming the educational curriculum of government schools to focus on the Tanzanian national experience”. Indeed, Bwenge (2012:170) states that Swahili as the language of implementation of the Ujamaa gave rise to Swahili gaining superiority over English in most of the public domains.

English, on the other hand, became the medium of instruction in secondary and tertiary education. In Bwenge’s view (2012:171), the division that emanated from these “language ideological camps” consequently had some people associating “quality” education with the English language, whilst others advocated for the same language in the whole education system.

The few examples that are cited in this section of the chapter epitomise the dominant nature of English language in the world. The argument is further underscored by Wolff (2010:7), who declares that the “installation of foreign official languages” in the colonial times has since remained in the language of instruction and tuition at most levels of education. I agree with him when he, in addition, advocates that “[i]t is essential for the elites to operate in these (ex-colonial) languages of wider communication and exchange mainly in the fields of economics and academic discourse, and thereby maintain diglossic, in some cases triglossic, patterns of language use”. It is worth noting that English therefore is a language that the in-service trainees, including teachers of English, have to grapple with in their attempt to acquire pedagogical content knowledge (PCK). At the end of their studies this knowledge base will inform their classroom decisions and strategies when they inculcate a culture of reading in their students. It should also be taken into consideration

that the delivery mode of their studies is distance education, which also comes with its challenges as outlined earlier in Chapter 1, sub-section 1.4.6. For instance, the teacher trainees could undergo in-service training in English literature, which may mean the use of a form of language totally different to the trainees' experiences, culture and community language. In some instances, the language, owing to the multilingual nature of society in Botswana as discussed and as shown in the map would be a third language for both teacher and pupils. In the case of this research study, the Education policy, RNPE (1994:59) dictates that the use of English as a medium of instruction should be introduced at standard two in government primary schools. This means that literary concepts that are applied to literature lessons are taught in the vernacular, but presumably could be applied to English literature at standard one level.

2.3.3 Global English challenged

Graddol (2006:7) disregards the complacency among researchers who may believe that “[t]he global position of English is so unassailable that the young generations of the UK do not need additional language capabilities”. His argument stems from the observation that “[m]onoglot English graduates face a bleak economic future as qualified multilingual youngsters from other countries are proving to have a competitive advantage over their British counterparts in global companies and organisations”. The problem is that British students have shown no interest in achieving fluency in other languages. Graddol (2006:15) aptly notes that recent developments in English language teaching constitute a response to the changing needs of learners and new market conditions, which, in Graddol's view, mark the end of “[E]nglish as a foreign language”.

According to research by Graddol (2006:62), it is evident that the dominance of the English language globally is being challenged. Graddol, further points out that English is no longer the ‘only show in town’. Other languages like Mandarin and Spanish have grown significantly in influencing national policy priorities in some countries. The threat to the dominance of English is summarised in the pie chart below:

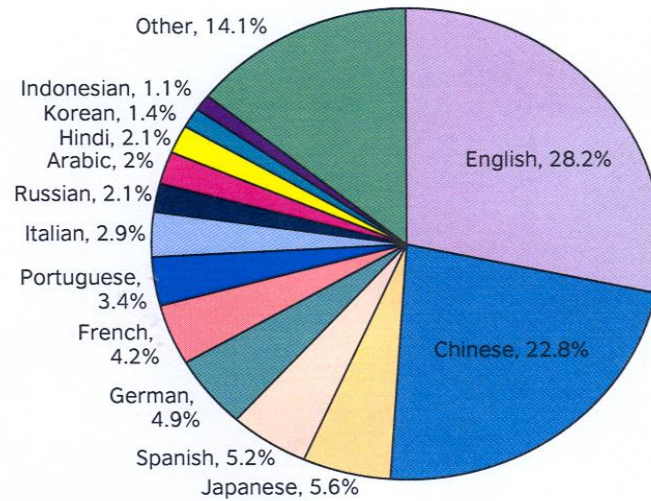


Fig 3.2: The dominance of English Challenged

Surprisingly, it is worth noting that English is still in the lead, despite the threats as emphasised by Graddol (2006).

Graddol's research further indicates that Mandarin has become the new "must-have language" (2006:63). The argument is that the growing demand to acquire Mandarin is attributed to "[t]he rapidly growing economic importance of China. South Korea, for example, now trades more with China than with the USA". This infiltration of Chinese as a significant language to learn, has not gone unnoticed even in Botswana. In recent years we have seen The University of Botswana offering programmes in Chinese language. Botswana have not shunned the programmes, but have shown eagerness to learn the language on the understanding that this is one opportunity that may open the gateway to profitable investments worldwide. Graddol (2006:32), commenting on China's economic growth, points out that "In December 2005 China revised its estimations of economic growth, showing that it had already overtaken Italy in GDP and was likely to become the world's fourth largest, overtaking USA by the end of 2006".

Chinese is not the only language that has impacted on Botswana. The country has been hosting refugees from Arabic speaking states over four decades (Eritrea, Ethiopia and Somalia), and the Portuguese- (Angola) and French-speaking African countries (The Democratic Republic of Congo and Rwanda). This in its own way has affected the global status of English language too. Graddol (2006:28) argues that this has linguistic consequences, for it changed "[t]he social and linguistic

mix of the destination country”. Though the refugees have displayed eagerness to learn English, Batswana, on the other hand, have shown interest in learning Portuguese and French from these migrants, for both economic and social reasons. Inadvertently, Batswana presumably were exposed to foreign literature of these migrants.

2.3.4 Arguments against English as a Global language

The global status of English does not go without any dissenting voices. The imposition of English on the school curriculum has been opposed by a group of the African elite. Some African writers have expressed outrage at the use of the language of their former colonial masters in the education system. English, in their view, is a language that is not a carrier of their culture. Ngugi wa Thiong’o (1986:11) laments how in his school days they used to be humiliated and given corporal punishment when caught speaking Gikuyu, their indigenous language, in the school grounds. He further explains how English, on the other hand, was given a higher status, for any achievement in spoken or written English would be handsomely rewarded. Ngugi (1986:12) observes that “English became the measure of intelligence and ability in the arts, and sciences... became the main determinant of a child’s progress up the ladder of formal education.” Yet despite all this lamentation, African writers still realise that economically, their market was widened when their books were written in English and not in their indigenous languages.

From my own experience, I remember vividly how a credit in English used to be a gateway or ticket to higher education. For instance, a student with only one credit for English would be awarded a pass for the Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC) examinations. When they passed all subjects except English, they would be awarded a fail for the entire exam.

Seelen (2002:213) cites a similar example from Lesotho on the requirement of a credit in the Cambridge, Overseas School Certificate (COSC) O-level English examination. The requirement is used for consideration of admission to most faculties at the National University of Lesotho (NUL), save for the Faculty of Science that, as Seelen reports, has relaxed this requirement., Seelen (2002:214) furthermore argues that this current entry requirement results in “[r]ejection of all applicants who failed to obtain a credit in English, even if they performed extremely well in the majority of school subjects”. The results of the study carried out by Seelen indicated that the emphasis on English as a requirement left “[m]ore talented students outside the walls of the university”, Recommendations have therefore been made for the gradual relaxation of the entry

requirement of English. Seelen (2002:230), further points out that the findings of the study bears no relationship between what is assessed by COSC English and what level of English proficiency is needed for tertiary education. In the case of the students described in this study, the situation is different. The literature teaching that they received (or not received) at school level can be seen as the foundation for literature studies at higher education level.

Some people in Botswana have interrogated the role of English in education. Their concern is that using English as a medium of instruction gives it a “high profile”, which “enhances its cultural capital and diminishes that of local languages” (Kamwendo, 2008:173).

Botswana, like many other African countries, became independent from Britain in 1966. The country had a choice between Setswana and English in identifying its national language. The former is the major ethnic language spoken by the majority of the people as first or second language, while English, on the other hand, was the medium of communication used in the colonial period for administration and formal business, including government business, higher education, diplomacy, international relations, as well as in the legal system. English was made the official language. It has therefore acquired a higher status than Setswana in the hierarchical pattern of language choice and use. It is not only the official language, but is also used as the medium of instruction in schools for all other subjects except Setswana. In fact, the Revised National Policy on Education (1994:59) recommended that English be the medium of instruction from standard two (year 2) in government and private primary schools.

The situation in Botswana is similar to that in other African countries. According to Bagwasi *et al.* (2008:7), the Botswana education system favours the learning of English. They emphasize how competence in English has come to be associated with intelligence and with being “educated”. Bagwasi *et al.*’s views are based on facts obtained from the ground. In Botswana, it is common knowledge that the educated are so associated with speaking English that Botswana would see nothing wrong with referring to the educated as an English-speaking people. They refer to an educated person as “Ke lekgowa o rutegile”, which translates to “He or she is an English speaking person because he or she is educated”. It is not surprising that when someone goes abroad for further studies, the belief is that the reason is to learn English only, and therefore it is proper that such persons are referred to as English-speaking persons on their return.

The Botswana society is multilingual, with more than twenty different minority languages, while Setswana is the first language for the majority of the people. The discussion in this study is in the context of English as a second language (L2) used in the teaching and learning of literature. It should be noted that the in-service teacher trainees and their pupils may be studying English as a third language, in addition to studying literature that may be foreign to them too. Therefore, the importance of English in the school curriculum cannot be overemphasised, and this explains why it has been allocated a very significant and prominent place in the Botswana education system.

2.4 ENGLISH IN BOTSWANA

The status of English in Botswana is much higher than that of other languages, particularly in Africa. This dominance has given rise to new forms of English language. Bagwasi *et al.* (2008:viii) point out that there is “[a] language dilemma in which both African languages and English enhance and influence each other in their different domains”. Bagwasi *et al.* further explain that the influence of English and African languages on each other has resulted in English forms that are ‘Africanised’ and African forms that are ‘Englishised’. They view acculturation as a phenomenon that involves two entities, and this should therefore be viewed from the perspective of each of the entities influencing the other. Bagwasi *et al.* (2008:4) cite the following examples of English language borrowing culture specific terms from Setswana that have been accepted officially: Kgosi (chief in Botswana), Kgotla (traditional court in Botswana), bogadi (brideprice).

Mazrui (2004:1), on the other hand, has argued that globalisation is forcing the spread of English at the expense of indigenous languages. Bagwasi *et al.* (2008:5) concur with Mazrui that the effects of globalisation are visible in Botswana where English not only dominates the local languages, but also “[d]eepens Africa’s intellectual dependency on the West”. Bagwasi *et al.* continue their argument by pointing out that two patterns of language use have emerged in Botswana. One section of the population comprises the educated and elite members of the society who have developed an ‘intellectual dependence’ on the West by speaking English at home and work. This practice to an extent has culminated in their sending their children to English medium schools to acquire ‘native-like English’. In her argument about the ‘elite-closure’, Myers-Scotton (1993:156) states that the elite are set apart from non-elites by their frequent use of the official language, both for business and in their private lives. She further points out (1993:158) that “Elite closure especially results when the official language is used by the elite in circumstances where a more widely known

indigenous language would suffice”. In the case of Botswana, the elite have a choice to use Setswana, but would rather use English as an official language at home and at work. Setswana, as mentioned in section 3.1 is spoken by 80% of the population. Mazrui (2004:3) emphasises that the dependency on the West could be coupled with linguistic dependency, because the learners, in learning English, also adapt to a Western style of education, thus they end up adopting aspects of western culture, and end up being more acculturated towards English, and tend to ignore their own African culture.

Bagwasi *et al.* (2008:6) refer to the second pattern of language use in Botswana of the majority of the population who prefer speaking Setswana as their first language and English as the second language. This section of the society also includes the minority groups who speak indigenous languages such as Ikalanga, Shekgalagadi, Sheyeyi and Sebirwa as their first language and Setswana and English as second languages. Most of the children who belong to this group go to government schools where the medium of instruction is Setswana in the first year, and English in the subsequent years. Bagwasi *et al.* (2008:6) argue that this pattern of language use tends to promote all the different languages and cultures, which results in English forms that are “Africanised”, and African forms that are “Englishised”. For instance, African lexical expressions would be given English interpretations, *aunt* referred to in Setswana as *mmagwane* (mother’s younger sister), and *uncle*, *rrangwane* (father’s younger brother).

All the researchers discussed in the above section seem to agree that English in Botswana has attained superior status compared to the local languages, as is the case in other African countries. Smieja (2004), Mathangwane (2007) and Bagwasi *et al.* (2008) have all observed that many parents no longer teach their children their own mother tongue because they believe that English, and not indigenous languages pose better opportunities. Mathangwane (2007:35) argues vehemently that the dominance of English over the indigenous languages has become a curse to the affected nations, because it disregards the cultural significance of the local languages. She further points out that these nations are faced with the difficulty of expressing African culture in English, which has resulted in the use of borrowed lexical items in literary works that have no equivalent in English, such as “bogwera” and “bojale”, signifying the, initiation ceremonies for Botswana male and female respectively.

From this discussion it becomes apparent that the selected in-service trainees involved in this study are expected to teach a language that is key to further study and that everybody holds in high regard. They require high-level proficiency in their subject knowledge base, which is English. They have to implement a policy that dictates that English as a medium of instruction should begin as early as at Standard two in public schools (RNPE, 1994). The way in which the curriculum structures their teaching, will be discussed next.

2.4.1 THE CURRICULUM FOR PRIMARY SCHOOL ENGLISH IN BOTSWANA

In Botswana, English is not only an official language, but, as an international language, is also the medium through which we gain access to information and communicate with the world at large. The Primary English syllabus (2011:1) therefore stipulates that the teaching of English at primary level is pivotal to it being a “[m]ajor learning tool; in and outside the classroom, through which a very substantial portion of the national curriculum, continuing education and vocational programmes are presented to and accessed by learners”. The syllabus (*ibid.*) further underpins the learners’ need to enhance their communicative and literacy skills in English as they develop knowledge of the language as a school subject.

2.4.1.1 Lower Primary English

The primary school curriculum is divided into two. The first syllabus directs the first four years of Primary English in Botswana (Standards One to Four). It also outlines the various language competencies and skills required in the early stages of learning English. The second syllabus targets Standards Five to Seven, and emphasises the three years of upper primary English in Botswana.

2.4.1.2 Instructional readiness and the learners

For most of the learners in primary school, English will be a second language after Setswana, therefore, the syllabus dictates that the breakthrough to literacy is initially done in Setswana. However, for children whose first language is not Setswana, the transition from oracy to literacy may usually take some time. The language backgrounds of learners in lower primary are diverse; some may have had exposure to English at pre-school, whilst quite a number will be coming into contact with English for the first time in Standard One.

The syllabus provides for this difference in stages of readiness that may be encountered by the teachers. According to the Primary English syllabus (2011:iii), English in Standard One should be taught as a subject only and “[a]ctivities [should] be predominantly oral, supported by pictures, charts, rhymes, songs, actions and physical responses”. The current policy as in RNPE (1994:59) recommends the use of English as the medium of instruction to be introduced at Standard Two level in government primary schools. The use of Setswana in the first year of Primary school, in my view, means the curriculum acknowledges the multilingual nature of Botswana.

2.4.2 UPPER PRIMARY ENGLISH

The second syllabus emphasises the three years of upper primary English in Botswana. The syllabus targets Standards Five to Seven, which is the transition stage into Junior secondary level. At the end of standard seven, pupils write a Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) to mark their entry into Junior Secondary Education. However, all students are then admitted into junior secondary schools regardless of their PSLE results, as mentioned in Chapter 1, sub-section 1.4.1. This is government’s mandate to guarantee the 10 year basic education that is offered to all citizens as a universal education for all spelled out in the United Nations’ Millennium Goals. This would include the seven years of primary education plus the three years of junior secondary education. The Primary English syllabus (2011:1) dictates that “Teaching should integrate all the language skills: (listening, speaking, reading and writing) as well as the grammar as they are interrelated and intertwined”. Furthermore, “The English syllabus is also addressing language across the curriculum, as most of the subjects will depend on the English syllabus for their language needs”. The syllabus in lower primary appears to emphasise more on oral activities than on reading. On the other hand, upper primary highlights the integration of the language skills.

The teachers are further encouraged to treat all four language skills as interactive. This means that any given classroom activity could address several objectives, but also apply to the different language skills. For instance, the topics the learners hear and talk about should also be the content that learners read and write about. The Primary English syllabus (2011:2) states that “coverage of the syllabus should thus be both cyclical and spiral within and between the language skills

sections”. The curriculum, here, appreciates that language proficiency does not develop in a straight line.

The syllabus states the following attainment targets in terms of reading (Primary English Syllabus, 2011:3): “By the end of standard seven, learners should have further developed the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing in English to be able to:

- Read independently for information and pleasure different types of literature including poetry, drama and prose within a basic vocabulary level of 2000 words
- Use different graphic sources of information to draw logical conclusions
- Read and understand a range of basic printed matter used in everyday communications and transactions
- Use different reference materials such as the dictionary and the telephone book appropriately for different purposes
- Infer the meaning of more difficult words and unfamiliar words and phrases in context
- Speculate what could happen in a story if circumstances change
- Distinguish between fact and opinion in a variety of texts
- Combine the sense of all separate pieces of information or episodes in a text, so as to understand the whole message
- Analyse and evaluate information in a variety of written texts in order to form opinions and judgments
- Read critically to understand both the gist and specific details of texts read

In contrast, the lower Primary Syllabus attainment targets put emphasis on the process of equipping pupils with reading skills by highlighting the following (2011:v):

- Read aloud or silently from a text and show understanding
- Read with fluency, accuracy and understanding both for information and pleasure...
- Read accurately and with understanding straightforward signs, notices and labels
- Predict what might happen next in a story

The references to *reading for pleasure* and *predicting what might happen in a story* imply that teachers will need to include children’s literature in their lessons. However, it is only in Standard

Four that pupils are explicitly exposed to the skill of “distinguishing between different genres, e.g. prose/story; drama/play/dialogue” and expected also to “demonstrate awareness of character and dialogues in stories”. One could reasonably expect that pupils will have developed a personal culture of reading at that stage. In the first three years, the focus is more on “how to open or position a book while turning pages”; “read for general information and knowledge”; and “understand the linear and page sequence of a book”. The curriculum does not explicitly refer to reading for pleasure at this earlier stage of learning for the pupils at lower primary level.

The Primary English Syllabus furthermore does not indicate any list of literary texts to be studied by the learners. The teachers are expected to infuse literature teaching through the reading materials of their choice, including poetry, drama and prose. Therefore literature lessons at primary school level are regarded as reading lessons, and this will be elaborated on in the next section and particularly in the research findings that are discussed in Chapter 4.

2.5 TEACHING ENGLISH AND TEACHING LITERATURE

The teachers involved in this study were all second language users of English who were able to read and appreciate literature in their home language. However, as in other African countries, they were part of a system that constructs English as the language of education and of access to further education. Teaching the English language provides the opportunity to develop an appreciation of the language in a variety of forms, which also develops language proficiency for both the teacher and the learners. In addition, literacy development is achievable, particularly because of the intergration of language and literature.

When we teach literature, it stimulates interest in wider reading and we expect learners to be able to use the language in all their other subjects, and to develop a reading culture. When we achieve these objectives as teachers of English and literature, we will have exhibited the requisite PCK for the subject matter.

This study is guided by a broad definition of literature because the teachers in this study teach literature at primary school level, not only for enjoyment, but also to improve reading fluency. Some researchers, including authors, critics and linguists, have puzzled over what literature is. The Macmillan English Dictionary (2003) defines literature as stories, poems, and plays, especially

those that are considered to have value as art and not just entertainment. Such a definition is offered by Roberts (1995: 2), who explains that literature is regarded as compositions that tell stories, dramatise situations, express emotions, and analyse and advocate ideas. According to Smit (2009:79), "...stories, whether told or written, contribute to the formation of a social conscience and integration into the frame of culturally prescribed norms for both young and old. The reading of literary texts also provides an opportunity for reference testing of own beliefs against the background of a fictitious world." Roberts (1995:2) further emphasises that literature provides an objective base for knowledge and understanding, which helps us grow both personally and intellectually.

Malaba (2006:13) underscores the above view, and I agree with him when he states that

In Africa, literature played a crucial role in terms of self-definition, in the pre-colonial eras; it was an important vehicle for sensitizing public opinion during the colonial period and has played a significant part in mobilizing resistance to the excesses of post-colonial regimes.

This is a sentiment acknowledged by one famous African writer, Ngugi wa Thiong'o (1986:xi), when he categorically states that, "My thinking has been decisively shaped and changed more than I can ever express on paper by the collective work and debates of the staff and students of the Literature Department, University of Nairobi." This means that English also has an African literary tradition that acts as a point of contact for students who are reading in their second language.

Including literature in the school curriculum is crucial, not only for teaching language structure and vocabulary, but also because it accords the readers of literary texts an opportunity to develop reading fluency and to gain insight into the diverse cultures that exist globally and which they would otherwise never have known to exist. At the same time they can engage with the vibrant culture of African literature in English, as is evident in world-renowned authors like Chinua Achebe, Ben Okri, J.M. Coetzee, Mariama Ba, Bessie Head and Tsitsi Dangarembga, to name only a few.

However, before learners can appreciate literary texts, they have to learn to speak and understand English. The teaching of literature is embedded in the broader goal of developing language proficiency and it is therefore necessary to take into account the spaces created by the

Communicative Approach for the teaching of literature, since this is the mainstream approach to language teaching.

2.5.1 The Communicative Approach

Since the late eighties, English language teaching has been directed by the dominant paradigm of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). Galloway (1993:1) points out that the students in a communicative classroom are expected to use the language, and become responsible managers of their own learning. The teacher assumes the role of a facilitator by managing and observing the various activities being carried out by the students. Galloway (*ibid.*) defines communicative language teaching as follows:

Communicative language teaching makes use of real-life situations that necessitate communication. The teacher sets up a situation that students are likely to encounter in real life. Unlike the audio-lingual method of language teaching, which relies on repetition and drills, the communicative approach can leave students in suspense as to the outcome of the class exercise, which will vary according to their reaction and responses.

Semistraitis (2003:21) underscores the above definition, by pointing out that the communicative approach brings to the fore the role of the teacher in the class and the main principles of mutual relations between teacher and students. The role of the teacher becomes that of a counsellor and a professional adviser to whom students can appeal with questions. The teaching of literature happens within this paradigm. According to Semistraitis (2003:22) “The communicative system gives a chance to a student to express himself / [herself] in a group which is composed of students with similar background”. Semistraitis (*ibid.*) states that a Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) syllabus organise the teaching of language by concentrating on the following:

- Interactions: using language to communicate,
- Tasks: using language to perform meaningful tasks,
- Learner: putting the learner’s interests and needs in the forefront.

CLT therefore places a lot of emphasis on students attaining good language proficiency in their use of language as they interact and complete tasks in the classroom. I elaborate on the role of literature teaching in this approach below.

2.5.2 The Role of L2 Literature in English language Teaching

Different views have been expressed by different writers on the integration of language and literature in English as a second language (ESL) teaching Malaba (2006); Gajdusek (1988) Hernandi (2002); McKay (1982) and Smit (2009) are mentioned in this regard in Chapter 1, subsection 1.5.2.

Khatib and Nourzadeh (2011:258) advocate for the introduction of literature and literary texts into language classrooms to alleviate boredom for the learners. They argue that literary texts have the potential to develop different aspects of a second language, and the two authors make certain recommendations that would be helpful to teachers in a literature based language classroom in their paper. Literature may contribute significantly to human development and socialisation when “ [l]anguage teachers...allow learners to relate what they read in literary texts to what they have experienced during their lives”. This affords the learners an opportunity to interact with the text personally, and thus boost their interest and pleasure in reading literary texts. This, by extension, will also encourage them to read extensively and be avid readers.

Khatib and Nourzaden (2011:259) furthermore emphasise that language teachers should view literature as a resource “[t]o develop learners’ L2 proficiency”. In addition, literature provides opportunities for CLT activities and for the learners to adopt the Reader Response Theory (*ibid.*) discussed respectively in subsections 2.5.1 and 2.5.6 of this chapter. Reading literature makes it possible for the learners to discuss their own interpretations of a literary text, and to provide feedback to interpretations made by their peers. The study of literature thus teaches the ability to interpret discourse, which can be applied inside, as well as outside, the learning situation, and in a range of language uses both literary and non-literary.

Different views have been expressed by different writers on the integration of language and literature in teaching English as a second language (ESL). Floris (2004:25) points out the linguistic enrichment derived from literature in terms of the features of written language, such as “[t]he formation and function of sentences, the variety of possible structures, and the different ways of connecting ideas”. Floris (*ibid.*) reiterates that learners they are exposed to “the richness and variety of the language and thus become more sensitive to its features” when they interact with literary language

According to Bottino (1999:211), “Some scholars favour the teaching of literature for its use in language development... whilst others argue that, instead of motivating students, this can become mechanistic”. Bottino (1999:213) continues the argument by posing questions regarding the level of language competency that is suitable for a text to be read in ‘breath or depth’. Furthermore, she wonders how we could define the literacy competence of learners in an ESL class and what would be regarded as an appropriate literary text for such a class. Teachers of literature, therefore, should exhibit a knowledge of context and learner needs as part of their PCK (see section 1.7.1) for the learners to benefit from the literary texts under study.

My own experience enables me to state that in-service teacher trainees with low English language proficiency have mostly found the literary material presented in their INSET programme to be beyond their abilities, particularly in instances where the students also displayed a lack of interest in reading. In most cases, this calibre of student comes to a literature lesson armed with basic knowledge of the literary texts they are studying, but remain devoid of personal pleasure in reading. To my mind there is little doubt that a lack of knowledge about the literary texts prescribed for the INSET programme would have an impact on trainees’ understanding and appreciation of literature for young children too. According to the curriculum, knowledge about plot development is as important for children’s literature as it is for ‘adult’ literature; recognizing that a character is well-developed or developing as a feature of children’s literature plays an important role in analysing and understanding ‘adult’ literature too; distinguishing different literary genres for upper primary school teaching must have its roots in trainees’ study of different genres in their INSET programme.

2.5.3 What are the Benefits of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) for Teaching Literature?

Richards (2006:5) points out that this approach to language teaching, being learner centered, requires that learners in their classroom participation work cooperatively rather than individually. Communicative language teaching is characterised by a change in the roles of the teacher and that of the learner. The learners assume some degree of responsibility for their learning, whilst the teacher becomes the facilitator of their learning. Richards (2006:13) furthermore argues that the changed teacher and learner roles mean that the following over-arching principles are pivotal in the communicative language teaching approach:

- Make real communication the focus of language learning.
- Provide opportunities for learners to experiment and try out what they know.
- Be tolerant of learners' errors as they indicate that the learner is building up his or her communicative competence.
- Provide opportunities for learners to develop both accuracy and fluency.
- Link the different skills such as speaking, reading, and listening together, since they usually occur so in the real world.
- Let students induce or discover grammar rules.

According to Richards (2006), application of the above principles would result in classrooms that are devoid of activities that expect regurgitation of memorised sentences and grammatical patterns. In addition, classroom tasks in CLT should be designed to be carried out in pairs or small groups; the learners then are afforded an opportunity to hear the language used by other group members, which will assist in developing fluency (2006:20). Their motivational level might also increase. For instance, it is important to note that one of the subject aims in the Botswana English Primary syllabus is for the pupils to attain skills in English that will give them an opportunity to express opinion in a variety of different situations. In developing the pupils' skills further, the Botswana Senior Secondary School Syllabus for Literature in English (1998:i) recommends that "The subject methodology will embrace learner-centred activities including simulations and role play, drama activities, project work, pair and group activities and discussions". Group tasks enable the learners to interact and be involved in meaningful communication, and thus become able "[to] negotiate meaning, expand their language resources, notice how language is used, and take part in meaningful interpersonal exchange" (Richards 2006:22).

Jacobs and Farrell (2003:10) refer to this concept as "learner autonomy". They explain that "[t]o be autonomous, learners need to be able to have some choices as to the what and how of the curriculum, and...should feel responsible for their own learning and for the learning of those with whom they interact". CLT expects students to be responsible for their own learning. Furthermore, Jacobs and Farrell (2003:11) posit the use of small groups or pairs by teachers, in order to enhance learner autonomy. "Group activities help students harness that power and by doing so they build

their pool of learning resources, because they can receive assistance from peers, not just from the teacher.”

The tenets of CLT must also be applied to the teaching of literature. As learners read, discuss and interact in their efforts to unravel the meaning in a literary text, their use of language should improve both their fluency and their language skills. Reading extensively will also enhance learner autonomy in an ESL classroom. Jacobs and Farrell (2003:11) argue that extensive reading accords the students an opportunity to select reading materials commensurate with their own interests and proficiency level. Jacobs and Farrell (*ibid.*) emphasise that this extensive reading, “will assist students in developing an appreciation for the enjoyment and knowledge to be gained via reading in their second language (as well as their first), thus encouraging them to make reading a life-long habit”. In my view, studying literature becomes manageable and enjoyable when students become avid readers. From my experience as a teacher in a literature ESL classroom, interactive literature lessons afford the students an opportunity to exploit the multiple layers of meaning in the texts they read. This provokes discussions on feelings and opinions, which not only culminate in the development of their communication skills, but also exposes the students to language acquisition, and ultimately lead to improvement in language proficiency. The requirement by the lower primary curriculum that learners predict how a story will end, seems an excellent opportunity for group and classroom discussions.

2.5.4 The Models of Teaching Literature in an ESL Classroom

The use of literature texts in the language classroom presumably will lead to a renewed interest in foreign language classes. Bottino (1999:211) points out that there was vigorous debate on the place of literature in the EFL/ESL classroom, and on the interface of literature and language in the 1980s. She (*ibid.*) further discusses the teaching of literature within the framework of three main models:

- a. The cultural model
- b. The language model
- c. The personal growth model

In explaining the models above, Bottino also mentions the arguments raised by other scholars who have reservations concerning each model. The cultural model, for instance, teaches students about culture and ideologies other than their own. Bottino (1999:211) points out that critics have viewed

the model as focusing more on knowledge about texts and it tends to neglect giving adequate time to individual texts. The students here work at understanding and comparing cultures that they read about with their own cultures, but, because of the dominance of English over indigenous languages, students fail to understand their own culture well enough to be in an informed position to compare it to the alien culture that they come across in the literary texts that they study.

The second model – the language model – is favoured for its development of language through the teaching of literature. According to Bottino (1999:211), though, it is criticised by others who are of the view that using literature to teach language activities is likely to draw attention away from the real aim of literature and from the pleasure intended to be imparted to the learners. The result is that some students, when writing about the texts, tend to regurgitate information and to quote chunks devoid of their own opinions and without presenting “valid analysis or even adequately justifying the views adopted” (1999:214). In such cases, students will not experience the advantages described by Khatib, Derakhshan and Rezaei (2011:203), who state that “literature can open horizons of possibility, allowing students to question, interpret, connect and explore...it is fertile with ideas to critically look at”. In studying literature, students need to be encouraged to adopt an analytical mind-set and to develop personal opinions about the texts they read, instead of repeating opinions that they find elsewhere about the texts. Critical thinking is pivotal to reading literature. By being critical, students display their comprehension of texts beyond the literal meanings with regard to issues and attitudes raised in the text.

Hismanoglu (2005:52) rightly maintains that literature promotes students’ critical thinking as they have different perceptions and prior knowledge of a literary text. I concur with Hismanoglu, because critical thinking helps students not to take things for granted and it can bring about a change in their attitudes towards reading and, to a larger extent, attitudes towards issues as perceived by different people or societies. This adds another layer to the teachers’ PCK, because they need knowledge of how to foster critical thinking, as well as extensive knowledge of the culture from which the literary text originated.

Khatib *et al.* (2011:205) recommend the language-based model to teachers who teach EFL/ESL language classes. The emphasis is on language development and the literary text is merely the vehicle for this development. However, teachers are warned to guard against allowing linguistic

purpose to overshadow the pleasure of reading literature, probably by including an extensive reading programme (as discussed below).

Bottino (1999:212) states that the third model, that of personal growth, engages the student in the reading of literary texts, not just for academic purposes. The aim is to motivate students to read by selecting themes that are related to their personal experiences. Literary texts provide good opportunities for extensive and intensive reading. This offers students an opportunity to practise reading sub-skills that include skimming, scanning and identifying main ideas from a text. Khalib *et al.* (2011:203) also emphasise that reading literature is a combination of reading for enjoyment and reading for information. Tarbox [No date] in her discussion paper about childrens' literature describes this model as Psychological Realism, and argues that it tends to focus on the whole life experience of a character, and less on a particular problem or social conflict that the character may be facing. Tarbox [No date] reiterates that “ [a] child develops an understanding of the world through his/her interactions with family and with peers”. When they become active in, for example, a school, church or extra mural activities, then they gain better understanding of their community. Then finally through study and observation, the child learns about “the larger world of ideas” (culture history and beliefs).

This third model, according to Bottino (1999:2012), is closely linked to the language one, for both are student-centred. In the language-based model, the purpose is for the student to discover the way language is used in a text, focusing on how linguistic forms convey literal and figurative meanings. On the other hand, the personal growth model encourages students to read literature in order to link the text to their own experiences and histories, which align this model with Reader Response Theory (see below, in sub-section 2.5.6). Bottino (1999:212) emphasises that the model expects students to engage with the reading of literary texts, not only for examination purposes, but also as a demonstration of their genuine liking for literature. In this way the personal growth model not only engages the students in literary works, but, as they acquire new vocabulary and develop linguistic features, they also begin to “cherish the literary experience which is associated with the learners' own real-life experience” (Khatib, 2011:205). Savvidou (2004:3) draws our attention to another aspect of the personal growth model – the fact that it assists learners to develop knowledge of ideas and language through different themes and topics. Savvidou further points out that this model attempts to bridge the cultural model and the language model with the focus on the

particular use of language in a text, whilst placing it in a specific cultural context: “Learners are encouraged to express their opinions and feelings and make connections between their own personal and cultural experiences and those expressed in the text” (Savvidou, 2004:3).

The choice of texts and properly facilitated classroom interaction are crucial considerations for teachers who need the requisite PCK to support personal development in this way. Each of these models has different implications for PCK: the cultural model requires additional knowledge of cultural context and strategies for developing critical thinking. The language model requires analytical skills, and the ability to move seamlessly from the text to language development. The personal growth model requires a needs analysis and critical thinking skills. Whatever the differences among these models may be, they all seem to emphasize cognitive abilities like analytical skills and critical thinking. Therefore, it is imperative that the in-service teacher trainees with the acquired subject content from their training, should employ strategies that will foster critical thinking and analytical skills in their pupils. This implies the development of the requisite PCK in their own engagement with literature so that they (the trainees) will not only develop a love for reading and literature in their pupils, but will also have an impact on their pupils’ language development.

2.5.5 Teachers’ own Theories

Teachers’ instructional decisions in the classroom with regard to literary texts have been the subject of different theories. Beach (1993:3) discusses teachers’ own theories on how texts impact their daily practice. These theories of literature instruction, Beach argues, are influenced by individual teacher’s beliefs about the role of literature. Beach (*ibid.*) states thus: “the teacher whose theoretical stance emphasized imparting knowledge about literature, was more likely to focus on the text and employ written formal analysis of the text”. On the other hand, teachers who believed in harnessing literature to write about experience would focus more on the student response that emphasises expression of personal responses.

According to Beach (1993:5), these two theories, namely “text-based” and “reader-based”, dictate that teachers adopt different conceptions of readers’ roles. Furthermore, the conceptions are determined by the assumptions that are adopted about “[t]he hypothetical nature of the text/reader transaction. For instance, where the reader is conceived as ‘implied’ the assumption is of a more text-based orientation. In contrast, conceiving of a reader as ‘resting’, reflects a more reader-based

orientation”. For pupils to respond to literature by discussing, analysing and critically thinking about literary texts, their personal responses must be considered. For this reason I present an important aspect of PCK for the teacher of Literature, which is a focus is on the response of the reader in thinking critically about a piece of literature with which they may interact. The next theory concerns Reader Response.

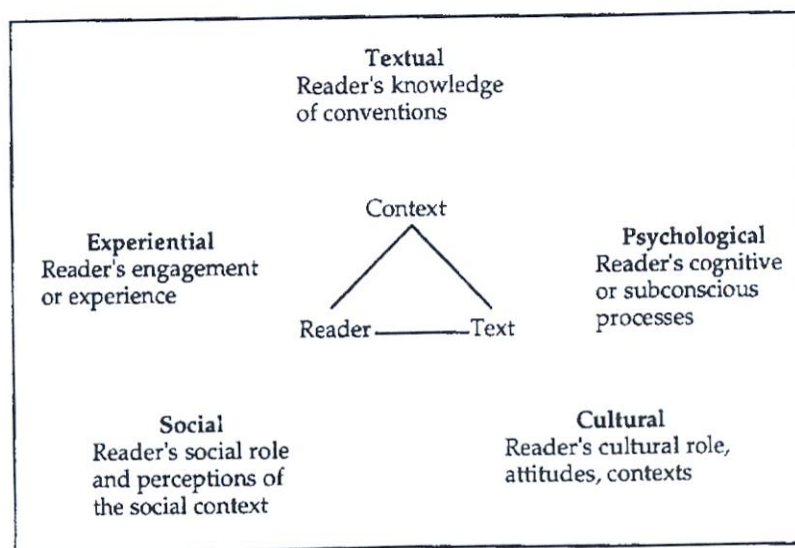
2.5.6 Reader-Response Theory

CLT requires that pupils communicate in class and respond to texts in groups and pairs, working independently of their teacher. The three models of teaching literature can be aligned with CLT because it requires pupils to be active in class: making meaning, developing language proficiency and thinking critically. Reader-response theory is in harmony with CLT and theories of literature teaching because, as Mitchell (1993:41) points out, it (Reader-response theory) dictates that the teacher assists students to discover what a piece of literature means, and not to offer an interpretation as an authority. In terms of this theory, the teacher begins the interpretation of literature with the students’ response. Teachers of English who love literature tend to show that they have mastered a text and will eagerly share their opinions and interpretations of it. Mitchell (*ibid.*) sounds a warning, that “This ‘telling’ approach also short-circuits two of the essentials of education – to help students become involved with their own education and to help them to think critically. Reader-Response Theory links up very closely here with the role of literature teaching to develop critical thinking (Hismanoglu, 2005:52). Teaching literature should be open to many interpretations; there is not one right interpretation for a piece of literature. This is one element of PCK that teachers of literature should grasp and encourage in their students. Mitchell (1993:42) points out that the reader response approach demands of students to always substantiate their response with textual evidence. When students justify their interpretations of what they read, their analytical skills are stimulated and discussions that culminate in an interesting literature lesson are invoked. It is vital, therefore, that students are offered an opportunity in their interaction during a literature lesson to air their views and exchange ideas, because readers often react differently to any given text.

Readers respond to a range of different purposes that call for a variety of strategies. The different purposes may require the reader to express their emotional reaction, to explore difficulties in comprehension, to express their opinion, by sharing responses or ideas to clarify their attitudes.

Beach (1993:6) states that teachers, when organising classroom activities, must employ a range of strategies at any one time and suggests the following as response strategies: engaging, conceiving, connecting, explaining, interpreting and judging. As they interact with texts, students tend to engage with the text and change their perceptions of characters' actions. In my opinion, as they connect with the text, they are placed in a position that enables them to explain, interpret and judge the different concepts or themes that they come across in their interaction with the text. Beach (*ibid.*) furthermore points out that the reader-response theory provides ground to acknowledge a wide range of response media. For example, oral interpretation, role-playing, artwork, rewriting texts or creating new ones. I would like to reiterate that, for teachers to facilitate this wide range of response media, they will have to demonstrate acquisition of the required PCK, which includes critical thinking. The teachers themselves should employ strategies that will assist the students to recognise the different interpretations that emanate from the text.

The Figure 3.3 illustrates the five perspectives that represent different lenses, highlighting different aspects of the reader/text/context transaction, as proposed by Beach (1993:9):



Five perspectives representing different lenses that illuminate particular aspects of the reader/text/context transaction.

Figure 2.3: Reader/text/context transaction

As shown in the figure above, Beach (1993:9) explains that the five perspectives should be viewed as moving from the specific to the global. “The textual and experiential theorists focus on the

immediate text/reader transaction”. The psychologist’s theory, which is concerned with subconscious forces, depends on individual personality and developmental levels, thus shaping the reader’s transaction by focusing on the influence of the social context on the reader/text transaction. Cultural theorists focus on readers’ cultural roles, attitudes, values and how they shape responses. This links up with the personal growth model discussed earlier in sub-section 2.5.4. In order to develop the appropriate PCK to elicit pupils’ own responses and to structure their responses to texts, the teacher is required to conduct a needs analysis on how readers shape their responses according to their cultural roles, attitudes and values.

2.5.7 The Benefits of the Reader-Response Approach

Mitchell (1993:42) argues that students in classes that use the reader-response approach do not react to selected themes identified by the teacher. Instead the students work out the themes of a story themselves based on their response to and comprehension of the piece of literature under study. When they can identify and understand the themes, they are able to relate the themes to their own personal experiences. According to Mitchell (*ibid.*), this approach also empowers the students by allowing them to justify their interpretations in their reaction, as Mitchell points out (1993:43). The discussion on the different interpretations evokes debates and discussions in the classroom, resulting in an interesting literature lesson. The teacher will have exhibited PCK, when he/she successfully fosters pupils’ critical thinking around the literary texts.

2.6 TEACHING LITERATURE IN THE COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING APPROACH

Communicative language teaching proposes learning by the pupils through the use of language. Proponents of this approach such as Semistraitis and Jacobs and Farrell (3003) emphasise that the pupils’ interests and needs be placed in the forefront, whilst the teacher assumes a background role as a facilitator by managing and observing the various interactive activities that pupils are engaged in. The reader-response theory similarly empowers the pupils by placing their response at the forefront in the discussion of a literary text. The teachers’ role is to assist the pupils to discover the meaning in a piece of literature, and not be an authority offering interpretations to the students. In both cases the pupils are empowered to become responsible for their learning. Both the teacher and the pupil experience a number of advantages in their learning of literature in the Communicative Approach to English language teaching.

From the perspective of the Communicative Approach, particularly in the case of teaching English as a global language, it is important to recognise the ways in which literature teaching can support English language teaching. Khatib *et al.* (2011:202) state the following as some of the merits of literature in the EFL/ESL context:

- a) Cultural/intercultural awareness and globalization
- b) Intensive/Extensive reading practice
- c) Grammar and vocabulary knowledge
- d) Language skills

Each of these is discussed in detail below.

2.6.1 Cultural/intercultural awareness and globalisation

The argument is that literature deals with universal concepts such as love, hatred, death and nature, which are common to all languages and cultures. Khatib *et al.* (2011:202) point out that, when students come across these concepts in literary texts, they enhance their understanding of intercultural similarities and differences, which then enable students to be aware of the world beyond the classroom. Drucker (2011:1) underpins this sentiment by stating that literature takes students out of their own lives and lets them experience things that are new and challenging, and encourages them to imagine possibilities and to think about ways in which the world could be different.

Another area in which literature can help a language learner is to enhance students' knowledge about society. According to Kow (2002), literature assists students to expand their imagination and to cope with problems, be they social, cultural, racial, or any problem that they may experience as they deal with life in the real world. The argument is that literature inculcates specific social attitudes that are thought to be acceptable in the reader's community. Hismanoglu (2005:54) expounds this benefit as follows:

Though the world of a novel, play or short story is an imaginary one, it presents a full and colorful setting in which characters from many social/regional backgrounds can be described. A reader can discover the way the characters in such literary backgrounds can be described (i.e. their thoughts, feelings, customs, traditions, possessions; what they buy, believe in, fear, enjoy; how they speak and behave in different settings.)

The readers are not only exposed to alien cultures, but are also able to access texts written in English from their own environments and therefore they, in addition to the foreign cultures that confront them, get exposure to their own culture, feelings and character through literature. The Primary English Syllabus (2011:1) acknowledges the role of English as an “[i]nternational language through which we have access to all forms of information and communicate with the world at large”. This approach is also evident in Tarbox’s [No date] characterisation of children’s literature where they move from a focus on the self, to the family, their peers and by the time they reach school, the world of ideas (see section 2.5).

2.6.2 Intensive/Extensive Reading Practice

All three models of teaching literature in the ESL classroom discussed in sub-section 2.5.1 above have different implications for PCK, because of their particular requirements. The cultural model, for instance, requires strategies for developing critical thinking. The language model focuses on analytical skills, and the personal growth model requires a needs analysis and critical thinking. Therefore, a curriculum that includes intensive/extensive reading programmes ensures an improvement in the pupils’ ability to read fluently and to nurture a lifelong reading habit.

Khatib *et al.* (2011:202) emphasise that literature encourages extensive and intensive reading. They point out that pupils improve their reading speed and interest in reading by reading extensively. Reading literary texts such as poetry intensively, “can lead the learners to extract deep meanings embedded by the texts”. That, as I have argued elsewhere in this chapter (section 3.4), is why it is important for pupils studying literature to have a passion for reading, because it is through reading literature that they experience another world and cultures.

Literary texts provide good opportunities for extensive and intensive reading. According to Renandya (2007:134-135) the purpose of an extensive reading programme is to act as a supplementary class library scheme, in which pupils are allocated time and are encouraged to read for pleasure as many books as they can, at their own level devoid of pressure through testing and marks, Renandya (*ibid.*) furthermore emphasises that “[t]he learners read large quantities of books and other materials in an environment that nurtures a life-long reading habit”. On the other hand, extensive reading is distinguished from intensive reading in that the latter aims at assisting pupils to achieve detailed meaning from the text, in addition to developing reading skills by identifying, for instance, the main ideas and to enhance vocabulary and knowledge of grammar. Intensive

reading further offers pupils an opportunity to practise reading sub-skills that include skimming, scanning and identifying main ideas from a text. Khatib *et al.* (2011:203) also emphasise that reading literature is a combination of reading for enjoyment and reading for information. This is of particular importance in the primary phases, where finely graded readers should cater to the different reading levels of pupils who are developing reading fluency. Young pupils who are learning to read and appreciate texts require a variety of texts. Texts that do not cater for the various developmental levels of pupils, will either frustrate the fast developers or discourage the slower ones. Based on the idea of levelled readers (Fountas & Pinnell, 2007), the availability of a wide variety of reading materials (different levels, different types) that have been specially designed to support early readers, seems crucial for reading development.

Therefore, it is imperative that pupils are afforded opportunities to engage in both extensive and intensive reading, for it will contribute significantly to their language proficiency. Renandya (2007:134) emphasises that the teachers are obliged to provide the motivation and monitoring to ensure that the pupils have materials to read for pleasure.

In the next section, I look at the role of reading literature in a language classroom.

2.6.3 Literature-based instruction in the ESL Classroom

Literature plays a pivotal role in teaching English in an ESL classroom. Obediat (1997:32) states that, it provides students with “an incomparably rich source of authentic material over a wide range of registers.” However, Obediat continues by sounding the warning that, in order to achieve effective teaching of English through literature, teachers, when they select the literary texts to be used in the classroom, should take cognizance of the students’ language proficiency, interests, age and sex. A text that is above the linguistic level of the students will provide very few benefits.

On the other hand, the role of the teacher is also paramount to the success of teaching English through literature. Hismanoglu (2005: 65) advocates for the teacher to firstly determine the aim of language teaching in relation to the needs of the students (in accordance with the tenets of CLT). Secondly, teachers should select the appropriate language teaching method, techniques and classroom activities. O’Sullivan (1991: 4) proffers that the strategies that integrate language and literature should include activities that require language that involves students in experiencing language, playing with language, analysing language, responding to language and enjoying

language. In my view, these experiences can be accomplished through reading and developing life-long habits of reading in the pupils.

2.7 LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT ADVANTAGES

Many scholars argue for the authentic nature of literature, because it exposes pupils to actual language samples of real life or real, life-like settings. According to Khatib *et al.* (2011:202) literature is inherently authentic and provides authentic input for language learning. For instance, authenticity can be envisaged in drama and the novel. In drama there are conversations, expression of feelings and contextualised expressions. In the novel, on the other hand, “the imaginative nature of human beings and hence language is easily etched on our mind” through descriptive writing. In both genres students may be tasked with creating a diary and then write imaginary entries on certain actions in the literary text that could be based on themes or characterisation. I believe that completing diary entries would not only sharpen the pupils’ analytical skills and language accuracy, but would be the forum through which the teacher will be able to gauge pupils’ comprehension of content.

According to Khatib *et al.* (2011:203), exposing students to literature improves their basic language skills in writing, speaking, listening and reading. Students may be engaged in creative activities that develop their writing skills. For instance, pupils may be instructed to write the end of a story in their own words or complete a short story in their own words by completing a cloze passage. Drucker (2011:1) points out that “the number one way to become a better writer is to read often. When you read you are being immersed in language, in the way it sounds and feels when put together in the right ways.” To benefit from the language used in a text, pupils may be encouraged to write in a particular author’s style.

Through reading literature, students are also exposed to a variety of possible sentence structures and the different ways in which to use connectives that will help them to develop and boost their own writing skills. Hismanoglu (2005:55) points out that students become more productive and adventurous when they begin to perceive the richness and diversity of the language they are trying to learn and begin to make use of some of that potential themselves. The variety of sentence structures that are discovered in the literary texts that they read enables students to apply the technique as they complete the task on composition writing in the language classroom. This breaks the monotony of including only simple sentence structures in the compositions.

With regard to the speaking skill, reading literature in a language class can also contribute meaningfully to teaching speaking and listening. The pupils can be engaged in different activities as they read the literary works, in order to improve on both their speaking and listening skills. Oral reading may focus on pronunciation, dramatisation and improvisation, which reinforces students' creativity; role playing assists the learners' comprehension of characterisation and setting, while discussions and group activities enable the pupils to employ their analytical skills. Working in groups further enhances pupils' critical thinking as it was argued in the communicative language approach earlier in this chapter. The pupils have the opportunity to express their feelings about certain actions or characters in the text, and/or to relate their own life experiences and perspectives to what other people think and feel.

In addition, students could relate their own experiences to the events in a poem, novel, drama or short story. Speaking about the events could trigger controversial topics for discussion in a language classroom, which facilitates speaking proficiency, fosters reader responses and can help to develop critical thinking. In terms of language development, Swart and Nathanson (2011: 77) point out that:

The learners' language progress can assist them in the social collaborations in the classroom, such as group work. In classroom lessons where learners are required to do group work, each learner can promote his individual learning by observation of how other learners deploy their literacy strategies and behaviours [...] Thus, good language use is not only important for general conversations, but also for the extraction of valuable information in social situations.

In the researcher's experience of encouraging pupils to participate in class discussions, it helps to assure students that there is no single correct answer in literature. Pupils should feel free to express their views when supporting their answers, but not forget to substantiate them with evidence from the text. This was emphasised earlier when I discussed the Reader response theory in sub-section 2.5.6 of this chapter. Teachers with the requisite PCK should develop critical thinking in the pupils so that they are able to form their own opinions on what they have read.

Khatib et al. (2003) point out that students are exposed to the principles of rhythm, rhyme and intonation by listening to the audio versions of different literary texts. To have learners reading literature aloud will not only improve their speaking skills, but will also develop their listening ability. In addition, reading aloud can be used to improve learners' pronunciation.

2.7.1 Grammar and vocabulary knowledge

Pupils can still expand their vocabulary when they read short stories, dramas and novels. The descriptive nature of the story in literary texts will include words that are unfamiliar to them. By building their vocabulary in this way, pupils will be able to participate in thought-provoking discussions on essential issues in and outside of the classroom. Khatib *et al.* (2011:214) further proffer poetry as a good source of language structures which help pupils to learn the grammar of English. For instance, pupils may be asked to change the complex structures in a poem to Standard English structure. However, it should be noted that teaching English structure is not limited to the use of the language in poetry only.

2.7.2 Focusing on Literary Genres to develop Language Proficiency

Wilson (2012:14) recommends that instructors select appropriate reading materials from but not limited to fictional picture books, novels and short stories in creating a literature-based classroom. In addition, Labo-Popoola (2010:4) states that literary texts should capture the interest of the reader (learner), and assist learners to discover language features. The literary texts should also “serve as a springboard for creative communicative post-reading activities.” In the next section I look at each genre and discuss the ways in which they can contribute to language development.

2.7.2.1 Poetry in language teaching

The structural make up of poetry makes it an ideal medium for literacy development in an ESL literature-based classroom. Wilson (2012:14) points out that features of poetry such as repetition, rhythm and rhyme make it accessible to English language learners and can pave the way to the learning and teaching of basic language skills. Repetition and rhyme are features that often appear in children’s literature. It can help to build language proficiency at lower primary level. At this level, poetry can include rhymes and songs and the teacher can infuse English into language teaching through song. For example, the song below has a very specific reference to nouns: (window, floor, chalkboard, door, hands and knees)

Point to the window, point to the floor
Point to the chalkboard, point to the door
Clap your hands together 1,2,3
Put your hands on your knees!

The nursery rhyme below has examples of rhyming words and would appeal to Lower Primary pupils. Teachers' PCK would emphasise the significance of including rhyme in a poem, to achieve some musical effect in the poem:

*Little Jack **H**orner
Sat in a **c**orner
Eating a Christmas **p**ie
He put in his **t**humb
And pulled out a **p**lum
And said, "What a good boy am **I**!"*

In some instances, songs or poems for children would appeal to children in Southern Africa too. Classic children's story like *Little Red Riding Hood*, has a version in Setswana that includes a song (*Chiwele*), but with emphasis on the moral of the story that is similar to the story, *Little Red Riding Hood*: Never speak to strangers because appearances can be deceiving.

The pupils can come up with their own creative works by studying poetry, from actually writing poems (for those learners who are particularly creative) to 'finding' poems, by rearranging lines or by 'blacking out' parts of a text and leaving certain words to form a poem.

Through reading poetry, pupils discover the different usages of words and the rules of grammar. It is important for the readers (pupils) to understand the poets' diction and to be familiar with the figures of speech (i.e. simile, metaphor, irony, personification, imagery, etc) so that poetry evokes their feelings and thus triggers even the unmotivated readers to venture into discussions based on different interpretations of the poem. Through the discussions, the pupils are further empowered to unravel the underlying meanings that are embedded within the figurative language.

To be able to model such behavior, teachers with the requisite PCK should be able to identify the figures of speech in a poem, and also to guide the pupils on how to identify them and describe their function in a poem. Shulman (as mentioned in chapter 1, section 1.7) underscores the significance of PCK by pointing out that "[t]he person who presumes to teach subject matter to children must demonstrate knowledge of that subject matter as a prerequisite to teaching" (Shulman, 1986:5). Furthermore, there is a need to transform that content knowledge into instructional material

effectively. Pupils may then be expected to write their own poems that include the different poetic devices that they would have learnt in their reading of poetry.

Teachers' PCK in teaching poetry would be to:

- (1) recognise the poetic elements in the story;
- (2) choose poems (whether in a story or not) that are culturally appropriate and simple so that pupils can relate to it;
- (3) allow the pupils to explore poetry by talking about the style, the meaning and devices used

Teachers Guide Standard 6 (2005: 11)

2.7.2.2 Short stories in Language Teaching

Pardede (2010: 3) says of a short story that it is “a narrative that can be read at one sitting of from one-half hours to two hours”, and that it is limited to “a certain unique or single effect, to which every detail is subordinate.” Short stories, by definition, are usually short, with a single plot, a few characters, and no detailed description of setting. It is therefore easy for the pupils to comprehend the story line. This makes it a suitable literary genre to use in teaching English language.

Collie and Slater (1991:196) list four advantages of using short stories in language teaching. The first is the length of short stories. Because of their shortness, they can be covered adequately in a one- or two-period class session, which expedites the teacher's coverage of the syllabus. Secondly, the simple structure of many short stories compared with the other literary genres makes it easy for pupils to work on their own. Thirdly, short stories offer a variety of choices for diverse interests and tastes. Finally, short stories cater for all levels, all ages (young learners to adults) and all classes. According to Hismanoglu (2005:62), short stories provide a perfect vehicle for assisting students to understand their positions as well as those of others through the way they enable readers to transfer content to the readers' own world. Because of this, it is imperative that the teachers' PCK would facilitate choosing those that are most likely to interest the pupils when the stories to use in the language lesson are selected. The pupils are bound to read and enjoy a non-intimidating text that tackles issues which are relevant to their life experiences and interests.

As is the case with all the other genres, teachers' knowledge of pupils will enable them to identify short stories that will be of interest to the pupils' level. The teacher should be able to relate the

themes of the chosen short stories to the pupils' daily lives or experiences and therefore enable the pupils to relate contents of the short stories to their own world. The story of *The Ugly Duckling*, for example, could be an encouragement to the pupils to work hard to achieve their dreams, and never give up. This is a classic tale about a swan born into a family of ducks, who ends up casting it out of the pond. At the end, however, the ugly duckling is triumphant and assimilated as the most beautiful and admirable in the pond. This story would be a motivation to pupils who get bullied by their peers and find it difficult to "fit in".

In a nutshell, an important feature of the short story is its being short, which makes it a helpful teaching resource in the ESL classroom, particularly at primary school level. Pupils read, come to understand and finish reading the short story written in English in a very short time. This achievement boosts the pupils' self-confidence and, by implication, their interest in reading this piece of literature.

2.7.2.3 Drama in Language Teaching

Drama is also a good resource for language teaching. Hismanoglu (2005:62) emphasises that the use of drama in language teaching provides a platform for the students to become familiar with grammatical structures in contexts and also to learn how to use the language to express, control and inform.

Drama may be employed in a language lesson through role plays or re-enactment of social events. Children in primary school will probably not read a full drama, but they could do role play to start recognising the importance of characterisation. Pupils will understand the characters in the story better by acting out their roles. Hismanoglu (2005:63) points out that, apart from promoting students' comprehension of the verbal/nonverbal aspects of the target language they are trying to master, students will also improve their proficiency in oral communication. At upper primary level, teachers' PCK would be employed to make the pupils mime actions of the different characters, in order to enhance their understanding of characterisation

2.7.2.4 Using a Novel in Language Teaching

The use of the novel as a resource in teaching language also has its benefits. Novels deal with characters that develop and change over time. Compared to short stories, the novel can track the

development of characters much more effectively and, as such, provide nuanced and finely grained characterisation that is not always possible in short stories and dramas.

Hismanoglu (2005:64) suggests that, in selecting a novel to use in an ESL classroom, a language teacher must ensure that it has an intriguing story that will capture the interest of the whole class. The novel should also deal with specific themes that can be developed in the class. An interesting novel, I agree, will motivate and excite the pupils around the reading process, which will further develop their reading skills. Other language sub-skills that may be developed in the pupils with regard to writing include spelling, grammar and punctuation. Further discussions that arise from the diverse themes portrayed in the novel may not provoke interesting debates only, but will also facilitate the development of vocabulary. When a teacher effectively transforms the various themes portrayed in the novel to develop language proficiency for instance through vocabulary building and critical thinking, some PCK would be exhibited by the teacher.

According to Hismanoglu (2005:64), the use of a novel, if selected carefully, culminates in a motivating and intriguing reading lesson for ESL students. “It is through reading that students broaden their horizons, become familiar with other cultures, and hence develop their intercultural communicative competence, learning how to view the world from different perspectives.” Teachers should therefore select children’s literature which entails stories that are about children and in some instances are written by the children themselves. At lower primary level, stories with pictures would be more appealing to the pupils. The stories should underscore the importance of setting and depict conflict in a way that would be familiar to the pupils, but not be too scary. When teachers are able to recognise that setting and/ or conflict are significant in a story, it would reveal application of teachers’ PCK. The teachers’ would enhance this by selecting an appropriate story/novel for the age level of the pupils that they teach. When pupils enjoy stories/novels that they read, they would be able to perform role plays of the characters in the story, write dialogues, and identify figurative language too. In addition, pupils should be able to identify with the characters in the story, and form an opinion about them.

As is the case with dramas, pupils will probably not read a full novel at lower primary school level. In this case reading short stories and novels overlap as pupils make meaning of settings, characters and language use.

In conclusion, a literature-based classroom organised according to the requisite PCK will, in my opinion, lay a significant foundation for literary studies in the more conventional sense in secondary school. A number of literary forms derived from different sources such as popular local songs, television or radio, traditional stories/folklore that contain poetic language, the writing of dialogues, performing role plays, and so on can be used to that end.

2.8 DISSENTING VOICES AGAINST THE USE OF LITERATURE IN LANGUAGE TEACHING

It should be noted that there are arguments against the use of literature in language teaching. Smit (2009:79-80) refers to a number of linguists who have argued for the exclusion of Literature from the L2 curriculum because of structural complexity. Smit (2009:80), agreeing with Spack (1985:704) and McKay (1982:529) for instance, claims that, “since one of the main aims as ESL teachers is to teach the grammar of the language, literature, due to its structural complexity and unique use of language, does little to contribute to this goal.” Some scholars sound a warning that using literature to teach something else, such as syntax, may lead to the misinterpretation of literature. In my view, the complex nature of literature, coupled with its figurative language and extensive vocabulary, can help ESL learners expand in all areas of language use. This is why what teacher trainees gain from their studies in English language and literature should be reflected in their attitudes and teaching strategies for them to be able to develop the same competencies in their pupils.

Other scholars tackle the argument from a different angle. Bottino (1999:213) poses the following questions in addressing the issue of reading and understanding literature and its place in the curriculum:

- a) What level of language competence is necessary for a text to be read in breadth or depth?
- b) What do we mean by literary competence in any case?
- c) What kind of literary competencies are we trying to develop in our students?

In an attempt to answer the questions, Bottino argues that the experiential level needs to be taken into consideration. According to Bottino (1999:213), the students, in order to comprehend and relate to situations set out in the text, should be able to relate it to their own experiences and to what they know about themselves and the world.

Khatib *et al.* (2011:203) argue against the use of literature in the EFL/ESL class from the perspective of the structural makeup of the content found in literary texts. The argument is that syntactically some literature texts are loaded with complex structures that are not close to Standard English. For instance, poems or drama written in old English (from the Elizabethan age) “make understanding them a herculean task”. The difficulty is caused by the fact that, for the students, this form of writing is a breakaway from the norm of speaking or even writing. Khatib *et al.* (2011:204) continue by arguing that literature fails to be a facilitator in students’ efforts to become competent users of the target language where students experience syntactic and lexical difficulty. In instances where words such as “thee” and “thou”, which are not Standard English, but are common in old literature such as that of Shakespeare, are used frequently in literary texts, the students are confronted by outdated vocabulary.

These dissenting voices against the use of literature in the ESL classroom are important. In my view, however, there is a stronger argument which promotes the use of literature in language development.

In this section of this chapter, on “Teaching English and teaching literature” I have presented the views of different researchers and my own on the teaching of Literature and the significance of the inclusion of Literature in the school curriculum. Pivotal to this discussion, we have to note that the selected in-service teacher trainees in this study are tasked with the responsibility to teach the subject, English language, which is key to further studies and is held in high regard. Therefore, it is imperative that, even though they are second language users of English, their subject knowledge should reveal a high level proficiency in English.

By including literature in the school curriculum, both the teachers and learners reading the literary texts will have the opportunity to develop reading fluency and to gain insight into the diverse cultures that exist worldwide. In teaching literature, teachers with the requisite PCK would make the right choice of literary texts to be studied by their learners, which would be further enhanced by the teacher adopting the three models of teaching Literature in an ESL classroom as discussed in sub-section 2.5.4. in this chapter. All models focus on the text, but in different ways. The focus is on the cultural aspect of the text; on developing grammatical and structural analysis through the teaching of literature, and, lastly, on personal growth.

Each model with its particular requirements has different implications for PCK, and thus require the in-service teacher trainees to be knowledgeable on how to foster critical thinking and analytical skills in their pupils. This by implication means that the in-service teacher trainees should have particular competencies, which will be the focus of the discussion in the next section of this chapter.

2.9 TRAINING TEACHERS TO TEACH LITERATURE: TEACHERS AS READERS

2.9.1 Reading and teaching literature

The incorporation of literature in an ESL language classroom is without doubt very important, but particular competencies are required of the teachers thereof for the learners to enjoy the benefits of reading for writing and language development. The advantages of reading for writing and language development have been discussed above, in section 2.7 and subsection 2.7.1

Carstens (2015:93-114) investigated literacy narratives among ethno-linguistically diverse South African students, who were first-year teacher trainees at a South African University. Carstens (2015:95) defines ‘Literacy self-narratives’ as “[a]utobiographical stories about how a person or persons became literate, traditionally with an emphasis on language acquisition and formal education”. Furthermore, Carstens (2015:98) reiterates that all the narrators in the research study “[a]re either multilingual or multi-literate, and have struggled to survive in educational contexts that foster proficiency (in English) and academic reading and writing”. The following are some of the examples of literacy self-narratives from Carstens’ paper:

One thing that made (me) enjoy reading and communication was my English teacher who encouraged me to believe in myself.
(2015:109)

My mother played a huge role in my reading career, she encouraged me to read. She would spend hours on end listening to me read anything that I could find, be it school book or magazines.
(2015:109)

Carstens depicts the various factors that are required to create spaces for literacy development for different learners. One such significant factor is “parental involvement” and involvement of other primary care givers early in life, when they engage in pre-literary activities with small children.

Carstens (2015:112) suggests that these activities, may include “[r]eading with children, showing interest in their lives by attending school events, help with school work at home or... showing excitement about children’s success”. With regard to teachers, Carstens refers to them “[a]s an extension of parents through encouraging learners to take part in activities and to improve their performance (motivators)”. This labelling of teachers as motivators is pre-empted by Ann Powell-Brown’s argument cited below, that a “reading teacher” is a motivator for his /her pupils’ interest in reading. A teacher who is an avid reader will advocate for an enabling environment that nurtures a positive attitude towards reading in his/her pupils.

Pivotal to the discussion in this section of the chapter is Powell-Brown’s (2003/2004:284) simple but provocative question: “Can you be a teacher of literacy if you don’t love to read?” This echoes what I have stated earlier in this chapter, that literature studies involve and require a passion for reading. This means that teachers who read and teach literature must be avid readers. Gomez (2005:92), in response to Powell-Brown’s question, posed a similar question, “Why would you be a teacher of literature if you don’t love to read?” Gomez investigated this matter further by carrying out a survey with students who were trainee teachers by asking them to share their memories as readers by listing down all people who had contributed to their elementary and secondary reading experiences. In addition, students were expected to define “what it meant to be literate and to have a literate self.”

The survey had very interesting outcomes. The “love-to-read” students found it easy to share their memories and experiences with their classmates. According to Gomez (2005:93), these remembered being read to and enjoyed reading for pleasure. Their literate selves could be characterised as people who loved to read. The other group, whom Gomez characterised as people for whom reading is a task to be mastered, expressed the view that “reading for pleasure was not part of their literacy memories”. Their memories included struggles with achieving personal connections with a text, and lack of support from families that had very little time for reading. Gomez (2005:93/94) refers also to the students who did not enjoy reading at all as part of the TV generation. They preferred watching television to reading. In instances where the students had tried to borrow a book from a friend to read, the books failed to generate excitement or interest.

Sprinkle (2012:1) describes a situation where, in order to motivate students to develop a passion for reading, the teacher has to display excitement and passion for reading, because, if the teacher

is not passionate, students' opinions of reading might be affected. Sprinkle (2012:1) underscores this by saying, "The young mind is impressionable and it is extremely important that we as educators are aware of our actions around our students." Teachers ought to be reading models for their students. Applegate and Applegate (2004:555) refer to this impact on students with regard to their teachers' attitude towards reading as the "Peter Effect". This conclusion emanated from the data gathered from a study conducted with pre-service teachers in order to investigate their disposition towards reading. The outcome of the study was that these teachers could not give what they did not have, like the Apostle Peter in the Bible who, when a beggar asked for money, answered the beggar, "How can I give what I myself do not have?" Teachers with negative reading experiences were found to be transmitting a similar negativity to their students. The teachers lacked a passion for reading and, therefore, could not motivate their students to love reading. Calvo argues that (2012:1), "If teachers remain open to the joys and rewards of engaged reading, they stand a much better chance of sharing that joy with their students." In doing so, they give them, like Peter gave the beggar, the ability to take themselves where they could not have gone before.

2.9.2 Teachers' personal reading habits and their impact on instructional practices

Society in general looks up to teachers as people who like to read and are eager to inculcate reading in their students. However, research reveals, according to Rasey (2009:2), that, although teachers value reading for pleasure, many do not prioritise personal pleasure reading. Rasey brands this kind of people as "aliterates", that is, people who lack a reading habit, but are capable readers who choose not to read. Rasey further argues that these are teachers who would advise parents to encourage their children to read or read to them daily, when these same teachers fail to follow their own advice.

Research has revealed that teachers who regularly read for pleasure are more likely to include reading interventions in order to encourage their students to engage in pleasure reading too, than those who never read for pleasure (Morrison, Jacobs & Swinyard, 1999; McKool & Gespass, 2009; Rasey (2009:2)) The reading teacher would offer opportunities to their students to engage in reading through book clubs, for instance. Rasey (2009:2) emphasises that teachers who read for pleasure understand the importance of allowing students "to transact with the text". Researchers Sulentic-Dowell, Beal and Capraro (2006) discovered in their study that mathematics teachers who engaged in pleasure reading were more likely to employ comprehension strategies for solving word

problems and to check vocabulary understanding. On the other hand, teachers who do not read for pleasure may lack strategies that would provide a framework to assist students. Their study further indicates that teachers who read for pleasure are more likely to engage in instructional practices that reflect their personal love for reading. For instance, such teachers enjoy reading aloud to their students, inculcating model reading strategies, offering a wider choice in reading materials, and providing time for students to read during the school day, coupled with encouragement to students to visit the school library and engage in reading.

2.10 IMPLICATIONS OF COMMUNICATIVE LANGUAGE TEACHING AND PCK

This chapter has focused on the role and status of English in Botswana and globally. It has demonstrated that in-service teachers in Botswana are faced with teaching a language that is held in high esteem globally. It is also apparent that the inclusion of literature in the school curriculum is critical, specifically when considering all the benefits that come with it. The pupils do not only gain language development, but they also gain insight into the diverse cultures that exist globally. In this contextual factor of the role and status of English, this chapter has emphasised the significance of the Communicative Language approach in teaching English to ESL pupils. This approach and the Reader-response theory have specific implications for the teaching of Literature, particularly for language development. Both these approaches emphasise “learner autonomy”, and student collaboration is of utmost importance to enhance what is being taught and learned in the ESL classroom, and for the teachers to foster critical thinking.

The in-service teacher trainees require various types of PCK in order to teach Literature effectively. From this chapter it has emerged that the following elements can be regarded as the PCK required for literature teaching:

- Knowledge of literary texts and selection according to appropriateness to the level and interest of the pupils.
- Knowledge of how to foster critical thinking and analytical skills
- Knowledge of how to elicit pupils’ responses
- Recognition of literature elements in literature texts
- Inculcate a culture of reading in the pupils.

The status of English in the curriculum, approaches to teaching English and teachers’ PCK are summed up in the following diagram:

Context: The status of English
Its role in the Botswana English
Language curriculum.

Communicative
language teaching:
student needs,
authentic texts,
classroom discussions
and collaboration,
language development.

Literature teaching
from a Reader
response theory
perspective:
Student responses,
discussions,
collaboration, critical
thinking.

Teacher PCK:

1. Develop language proficiency using authentic texts, in this case literature, based on pupils' interests.
2. Inculcate habits of reading and use classroom collaboration to elicit pupils' responses.
3. Demonstrate knowledge of literary genres, devices and levels of text for extensive reading.

2.11 CONCLUSION

The review of literature for this research study has revealed that literature plays a pivotal role in teaching English language in an ESL classroom, because it provides the pupils with a variety of models that contribute significantly to their acquisition of language and proficiency. Linguistic competence for the ESL learner will, in turn, be a powerful and motivating source for writing in different styles and an opportunity for the pupil to explore his/her own writing style.

The PCK of teachers of literature must demonstrate knowledge of the subject matter as a prerequisite to teaching. As teachers articulate their knowledge in teaching literature, their strategies must involve motivation and encouragement of the pupils to become avid readers, because literature studies involve reading; the pupils therefore must possess a passion for reading. The teachers' content knowledge should be developed, so that the teacher as a facilitator becomes a source of new understanding for his/her students. According to Shulman (1987:7), the teacher must fully comprehend “[w]hat is to be learned and how it is to be taught”.

Based on the requirements of the curriculum and the demands of their in-service training, PCK for teachers of literature in the context of this research study include the following:

- Knowledge of literary works
- Knowledge of literary devices
- Knowledge of the curriculum
- Knowledge of teaching reading through literature
- Knowledge of the learners and their contexts
- Inculcating a culture of reading in their learners
- Knowledge of how to foster critical thinking
- Extensive knowledge of the culture in which literary texts originated

The in-service trainees with the requisite PCK in their teaching of literature, must involve the pupils in an exchange of ideas. One vital strategy that teachers need to employ in order to further develop their PCK according to their pupils' needs is communicative language teaching. The teachers, first and foremost, must know the subject that they teach, so that they are sufficiently empowered to help their pupils to learn the content while they facilitate learning in their ESL

classrooms. This is the reason why it is pertinent that teachers are developed professionally in order to enhance their knowledge and skills.

Communicative language teaching by its interactive nature, offers the pupils an opportunity not only to improve their communicative competence, but also to develop both accuracy and fluency in the English language through interaction with other pupils and with a variety of texts. The pupils bring different views to the literature lessons and this enhances their critical thinking and analytical skills as they exchange ideas. An effective teacher of literature with the requisite PCK, who teaches pupils to develop a critical frame of mind, finds it easy to adopt the reader-response theory as a strategy in his/her lesson. This approach sets the stage for the pupils to acknowledge a wide range of response media. Reader-response theory suggests to the teacher to begin the study of literature with the pupils' response. The teacher needs to assist the pupils to identify the different interpretations that they come across in the literary text under study. An effective teacher of literature who has developed the required PCK will help the pupils to engage with the text and be able to explain, interpret and judge the different concepts and themes that emanate from their understanding of the text.

Shulman (1986) emphasises that teachers need pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), deep knowledge of their subject in order to articulate it effectively in instructional material. Ultimately, teaching must conclude with new understanding by both the teacher and the pupils. Pivotal to this argument is that teachers should not only serve as the primary source of pupils' comprehension of subject matter, but should also possess a depth of understanding of the structures of the subject matter, accompanied by a positive attitude towards what is being taught and learned. For instance, the teacher, when teaching poetry, should demonstrate comprehension of the structure of a poem including all poetic devices presented in the poem, and be able to guide the pupils to unravel the different meanings that are embedded in the whole poem.

Therefore, teachers of reading and literature when displaying their PCK through harnessing literary texts, from a language teaching point of view, is vital because it shows pupils how language works in contexts. This not only facilitates the development of language skills and competence, but it also assists pupils in gaining new understanding and possessing critical and analytical skills which enable them to comprehend the self and the other by examining values in literary texts and relating them to the world outside the classroom.

The approach to researching the extent to which the participants in this study had acquired the necessary PCK and reading habits is discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 CHAPTER OVERVIEW

The purpose in this chapter is to present the methodology, research approach and instruments employed in this study. According to Dawson (2009:18), “[m]ethodology is the philosophy or the general principle which will guide your research; epistemology, on the other hand, is the study of the nature of knowledge and justification”. In other words, the latter looks at how we know what we know, whilst the theoretical perspective provides the context for the research decisions. The methodology will articulate and explain all the decisions made in the overall research process. It entails descriptions, explanations and justifications for procedures employed in the research project. I intend to demonstrate how the selected methodological approach addressed the proposed research questions and its sub-questions. Finally, the chapter presents a brief indication of the data analysis procedures, which are discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

3.2 PURPOSE AND OBJECTIVES OF THE RESEARCH

The purpose of this study was to determine the reading experiences, habits and practices of primary school in-service teacher trainees, in order to assess the extent to which literature is integrated and appreciated in the English studies component of the curriculum. The overarching research question was: What role (if any) does literature play in the studies and classrooms of in-service English language teacher trainees? This question was approached through answering each of the following sub-questions:

- 1.1 What are the literature requirements for in-service teacher trainees who are upgrading their qualifications for English language teaching?
- 1.2 What are trainees’ attitudes towards literature as a subject?
- 1.3 What are the reading patterns for the teacher trainees?
- 1.4 What strategies do the teacher trainees employ to inculcate the love for literature and a culture of reading in their lessons

1.5 To what extent do teacher trainees exhibit Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) in their teaching of literature to ESL learners?

The answers to these questions were compared and integrated to present a coherent picture of the in—service teacher trainees, their studies, attitudes and classroom practices.

3.3 THEORETICAL GROUNDING OF THE RESEARCH APPROACH

According to Creswell (2003:5), the figure below demonstrates how the three elements of inquiry (knowledge claims, strategies and methods) combine to form different approaches to research. These approaches which, following their translation into practice, result in processes in the design of research. These processes as reflected below include questions; a theoretical lens; data collection and analysis; write up and validation. Creswell states (2003:5) “Preliminary steps in designing a research proposal, then, are to assess the knowledge claims brought to the study, to consider the strategy of inquiry that will be used, and to identify specific methods”. Therefore, a researcher using the three elements is enabled to identify the best approach to the study, whether quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods approach to inquiry.

Creswell (2003:5) summarises the critical components of research methodology as shown in Figure 3.1 below.

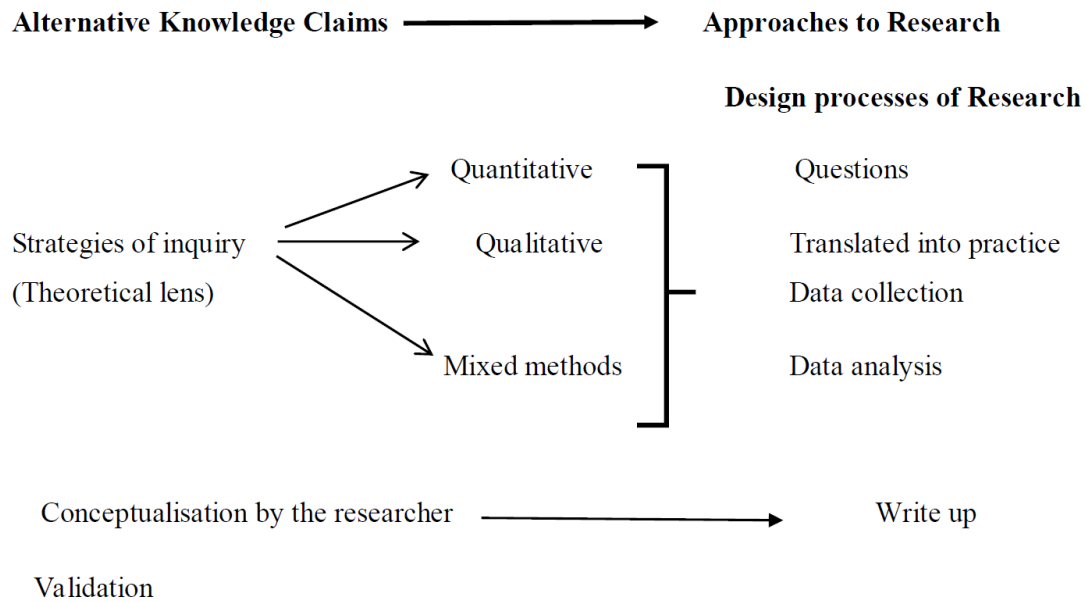


Figure 3.1: Knowledge claims, strategies of inquiry, and methods leading to approaches and the Design Process

In the next section I proceed to demonstrate how epistemology has informed the theoretical perspective of the research, which ultimately influenced the methods chosen.

3.3.1 Epistemological Grounding

Epistemology is the researcher's view with regard to what constitutes acceptable knowledge. In stating a knowledge claim, the researcher will have certain assumptions about how and what she/he will learn during the inquiry. This human knowledge and understanding can be acquired through various ways of inquiry and alternative methods of investigation. This research will adopt the epistemological viewpoint of social constructivism, since my point of departure is that teachers, in this case in an in-service course, will construct their understanding of literature and literature teaching based on their literature reading habits and experiences as well as their attitudes towards literature. In turn, this understanding will unfold in particular ways when they interact with texts (during their training) and with their learners (when they teach).

According to Creswell (2009:8), social constructivism depends on the following assumptions:

1. Meanings are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting. For instance, qualitative researchers tend to use open-ended questions so that research participants can share their views.

In my study the participants did not share their reading habits, experiences and attitudes towards literature through interviews, documentary data and the lesson observations only, but also exhibited their classroom strategies as they taught literature and how they inculcated a reading culture in their learners.

2. Humans engage with their world and make sense of it based on their historical and social perspectives – we are all born into a world of meaning bestowed upon us by our culture. Thus qualitative researchers seek to understand the context or setting of the participants through visiting this context and gathering information personally. They also interpret what they find, an interpretation shaped by the researcher's own experiences and background.

In my study visiting the research sites to conduct interviews and lesson observations enabled me to form my own interpretation of the data collected, and my experience as a teacher/lecturer of literature enhanced my understanding and analysis of the data.

Creswell (2009:8) argues that the researcher who adopts this point of view tends to rely more on a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods. The meaning of knowledge revealed by this research is dependent on the social context, that which also moulds individuals and provides an environment in which construction of knowledge occurs. The social contexts that were relevant for my study included that of the in-service teacher trainees in terms of their individual habits and experiences with literature; the college context, where they have to study literary texts as prescribed in the INSET curriculum for their training; then the school context, where the in-service teacher trainees teach reading and literature to their pupils in Botswana primary schools. This was clear during my study and it underpins one more assumption by Creswell (2009:8) on social constructivism that “The basic generation of meaning is always social, arising in and out of interaction with a human community. The process of qualitative research is largely inductive, with the inquirer generating meaning from the data collected in the field”. This view is also supported by others. Mackenzie and Knipe (2006:3) state:

The constructivist researcher is more likely to rely on qualitative data collection methods and analysis or a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods (mixed methods). Quantitative data may be utilized in a way which supports or expands upon qualitative data and effectively deepens the description”.

The decision to approach this research from a constructivist perspective was largely influenced by my prior research and experience as a teacher/lecturer of literature at both secondary and tertiary levels in Botswana. In my interaction with students at secondary and tertiary level over more than 20 years I have observed a number of problems that explain students’ (teacher trainees’) lack of appreciation of their English Studies at Diploma level. Teacher trainees generally seem to have a low level of proficiency in English, aggravated by the limited use of technology and dependence on traditional methods of teaching. Furthermore, some of these teacher trainees seem to have a poor reading culture, evident in their lack of enthusiasm to acquire copies of the prescribed literature texts. Therefore, the knowledge constructed by this study will be influenced by the sentiments that I uphold as the researcher, and my interpretations are shaped by my own experiences and background. At the same time I have tried to understand, through questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations, what affordances and barriers exist in their various social contexts.

This understanding of epistemology from a social constructivist perspective will impact significantly on my research project. The context for this research is that of in-service teacher trainees who have acquired their Diploma in Primary Education by Distance Education. These teachers are in Botswana Primary schools and are involved in the teaching of English language and literature to pupils who learn English as a second language (ESL). The teachers teach different grades that range from Standards (Grades) 1 to 7. At the end of Standard 7, the pupils write a Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE), from which they start their three-year junior secondary school level, which commences with Form 1. The construction of knowledge derived from this research therefore resulted from collaboration with these in-service trainees. They all had different backgrounds, values and beliefs, which enhanced their voices in contributing to the construction of knowledge.

3.4 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

In order to view the problem identified in this study from a variety of angles, I identified multiple sources of evidence, using mainly qualitative data-collection method. Henning (1995:5) defines qualitative research as follows “Qualitative inquiry – a research form, approach or strategy that allows for a different view of the theme that is studied and in which respondents...have a more open-ended way of giving their views and demonstrating their actions”. I discuss the various types of qualitative data collection strategies in the next section.

3.4.1 Qualitative data collection strategies

This research adopted the following qualitative data collection strategies:

- A questionnaire with mainly open-ended questions;
- Interviews;
- Document analysis;
- Classroom observation.

The questionnaires were mailed to the respondents, and some took a long time to be returned. Some responses provided inadequate information and I then saw the need to conduct interviews in order to get more elaborate answers to the open-ended questions that were not answered sufficiently in the questionnaires. These two sets of qualitative data were collected concurrently to “[i]ntegrate the information in the interpretation of the overall results”. (Creswell, 2009:14-15). The procedure was bound to offer clarification and illustration of results from one method to another. For instance, the lesson plans in the document analysis were expected to illustrate the strategies mentioned by the interviewees in encouraging reading in their ESL classrooms. To triangulate these strategies, I also carried out observations of lessons taught by some of the interviewees. The selection of the observed candidates was based on the proximity of their location to my station, and because they provided a representation of all levels of primary schools which include upper, middle and lower classes in urban, semi-urban and rural places.

3.4.2 Why different qualitative data collection strategies?

This research study not only combined the methods and data, but also combined the findings. Punch (2005:241) summarises eleven approaches to combining the approaches as discussed by a number of researchers, for example Brannen (1992), Brewer and Hunter (1989), Bryman (2008) and Creswell (1994). Punch (2005:243) explains that there is no right way for combining qualitative and quantitative methods, but warns that, “How they are combined should be determined by the reasons for doing so, set against the circumstances, context and practical aspects of the research”.

For this study, the following were selected:

- *Logic of triangulation.* The findings from one type of study can be checked against the findings derived from the other type. For example, the results of a qualitative investigation might be checked against that of a quantitative study. The aim is generally to enhance the validity of findings. This was important/ relevant for this study because what the in-service teacher trainees mentioned in their questionnaires as reading habits and classroom practices for encouraging reading in their pupils, was triangulated by the results from the interviews and lesson observations.
- *Quantitative research facilitates qualitative research.* Usually, this means quantitative research helping with the choice of subjects for a qualitative investigation. In this study, for instance, classroom strategies for teaching literature that were cited in questionnaires were investigated and enhanced further through the interviews, lesson plans and lesson observations. Thus also determining the subjects for the qualitative data collection.
- *Researchers' and subjects' perspectives.* Quantitative research is usually driven by the researcher's concerns, whereas qualitative research takes the subject's perspective as the point of departure. These emphases may be brought together in a single study. In this study, my concern about the impact of the in-service teacher trainees' studies in Literature on their ESL pupils, was addressed by the qualitative data that brought to the fore the trainees' attitudes, habits and practices in their ESL classrooms.

This study adopted all three of the combinations because it made it possible to yield data from all the social contexts that were relevant to my study: The in-service teacher trainees' reading habits and strategies employed in their ESL classrooms as they teach reading and literature to their pupils in the school context, and the college context where training is by implementation of the INSET curriculum.

In the next section of this chapter, I elaborate further on how the qualitative multiple data collection methods have resulted in a more complete picture through triangulation. I would not have managed this insight had I used only one method. But, before I discuss the instruments, let me present the design for this research, which is a case study.

3.5 CASE STUDY DESIGN

Creswell (2003:15) defines the case study as “[a] qualitative strategy in which the researcher explores in depth a program, an event, an activity, a process or one or more individual”. One advantage of the case study research design is that one is able to focus on a specific and interesting case. In this study, the focus was on the 2008 cohort of in-service teacher trainees for the Diploma in Primary Education by Distance Education (DPE-DE) in Colleges of Primary Education in Botswana. Creswell (2003:15) states, “The case(s) are bounded by time and activity, and researchers collect detailed information using a variety of data collection procedures over a sustained period of time.” This case is bound by the year of commencing their studies, 2008, and all the participants specialising in Languages (English and Setswana). For studies in English, the course consists of language and linguistics, literature and language teaching methodologies. The course rationale as stated in the Colleges of Education Diploma in Primary Education Curriculum (2010:76) “[i]s to [produce] teachers whose spoken and written English is of high standard and will be good models for their learners”. The aim is for the teachers to be “[s]ufficiently grounded in English language, literature and language teaching methods to enable them to select and grade materials that are sensitive to gender and other emerging issues” at the end of their training. In order to heighten personal and professional development, the course incorporates theory and practice and encourages research and lifelong learning.

The different types of cases that occur are categorised into three main types. According to Punch (2005:144), these are:

- The intrinsic case study, in which the study is undertaken because the researcher wants a better understanding of the particular case.
- The instrumental case study, in which a particular case is examined to give insight into an issue, or to refine a theory.
- The collective case study, in which the instrumental case study is extended to cover several cases to learn more about the phenomenon, population or general condition.

The current study demonstrates the characteristics of an instrumental case study. Punch defines this (2005:144) as follows: “The instrumental case study, where a particular case is examined to give insight into an issue or to refine a theory”.

Multiple qualitative data collection methods were used in the case study. As relevant to this study, the case study was focused on English language, which included the literature component. Using a questionnaire helped me to identify the attitudes of the DPE-DE teacher trainees towards their studies in Literature in English and strategies that they employed to develop their pupils’ analytical abilities to interact and unravel the meaning of literary texts. In addition, the research data were looked at from the perspective of Shulman’s (1986) theory on pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) in this particular case. Qualitative data included interviews, documentary data sources and lesson observations. Ultimately the data that were collected in answering the research questions helped in defining the holistic nature of the case study.

This case was chosen because it was the cohort that was in training when I as the researcher embarked on this research project. I saw it convenient that to follow-up this case when collecting data would be possible considering that primary schools would provide good geographical representation, and I would also be able to record their addresses while their studies were in progress. This cohort is also likely to be the last one to be sponsored by the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, and therefore their challenges regarding in-service training may differ from those that would be self-sponsored. Students who sponsor themselves are possibly more motivated and there may have been an element of coercion with the others, which may have affected their enthusiasm for the course. This aspect was taken into account when the data were collected.

This cohort comprised of 25 students, all females, all of whom received a questionnaire and a stamped envelope, to make it easy for the participant to post back the completed questionnaires. Nineteen respondents posted back the questionnaires. I followed up with the non-respondents, but to no avail. Although the case selection for this case study is obvious, there was still need to do sampling for the qualitative research. Purposive sampling was appropriate, which means sampling with a purpose in mind. All 25 participants could not be interviewed; the qualitative approach could have been expensive and time-consuming in having to travel to the different stations where the teacher trainees were posted, but some of them volunteered to be part of the interviews when I phoned them to ask if I could send a questionnaire, and told them that interviews were part of the research. Some other interviewees were chosen because I wanted to have geographical representation in terms of urban, rural and remote settings. Another desire was to have teachers across the different primary school levels – lower, middle and upper primary. This could give the background and context of literature teaching to ESL learners. Eventually, seven in-service teacher trainees were interviewed. At the end of the interviews, the documentary data in the form of lesson plans were collected from the teachers. Some failed to submit lesson plans due to lack of resources in terms of unavailability of photocopiers in some schools. A follow-up was made to collect from 10 teachers, in order to gain good representation and adequate data for analysis.

I also conducted lesson observations of 50% of the sample that had submitted lesson plans, in order to triangulate the teaching strategies reflected on their plans. Observations could not be conducted with all interviewees because of the distant stations. However, the sample that was observed provided a good representation in terms of all primary education levels – lower, middle and upper classes. Geographically, there was rural and urban representation.

3.6 QUESTIONNAIRES

I used a questionnaire as a data collection tool, which enabled me to make predictions that would address research questions 1.1, 1.2 and 1.3 The questionnaire also captured demographic details of the participants, which provided additional information on the profiles of the DPE-DE teacher trainees, for example, crucial information on the educational background of the participants' literature studies. The information would reveal whether the participants only encountered literature studies at Diploma level, or had some background knowledge of the subject prior to their Diploma in Primary Education qualification.

In instances where the questionnaire did not provide answers to certain questions, that weakness was compensated for by the strength of data collected through interviews. Creswell (2009:203) emphasises that “[t]here is more insight to be gained from the combination of both qualitative and quantitative research than either form by itself. Their combined use provides an expanded understanding of research problems”. The qualitative data were augmented by quantifiable information about the in-service trainees’ experiences and background with regard to studies in literature. Such data were collected through the administration of a questionnaire that comprised closed-ended questions that captured quantifiable data on the profile of the respondents. The open-ended questions captured data that shared the in-service trainees’ reading patterns and their efforts in encouraging a reading culture in their classrooms.

3.7 QUALITATIVE DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

According to Creswell (2009:181), qualitative research enables the researcher to be highly involved in the actual experiences of the participants. That is why I opted for semi-structured, one-on-one interviews as a data collection tool to collect more in-depth information on teachers’ experiences of literature teaching and reading. The tool enabled me to determine the teacher trainees’ experiences, habits and practices that have evolved from their interactions with literature studies at diploma level. Punch (2009:144) describes interviews as “the most prominent data collection tool in qualitative research”, which, according to him, is “a very good way of accessing people’s perceptions, meaning, definitions of situations and constructions of reality.” It also provided a lens for this research to present reality as perceived by the participants.

Teacher trainees were interviewed, and data that were obtained provided answers to research questions 1.3, 1.4 and 1.5. The data collected for this study were further explored in semi-structured interviews (qualitative information). The data informed the researcher about the in-service trainees’ personal experience and perceptions regarding their reading of literature and its impact on their teaching strategies in the ESL lessons. The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed prior to data analysis and descriptive interpretation. When conducting interviews from a constructivist stance, I was mindful of Punch’s (2005:170) explanation that “The interview is a data collection tool of great flexibility, which can be adopted to suit a wide variety of research situations”. Therefore, the interviews took the form of informal conversations at times convenient to the participants, between teachers’ lessons and meetings. I presented myself as a graduate

student who wanted to gain a better understanding of an area for which I did not have answers, and who would be happy to learn from those with experience in the field.

The semi-structured interview as a method of data collection was justifiable because it accorded the interviewees an opportunity to express their personal feelings and thoughts regarding the impact of their studies in literature on the teaching of their pupils and their reading patterns freely. The technique was also easier to arrange and for asking probing questions so that I could make sure that the targeted research participants could voice their opinions, unlike in the case of a focus group interview where some participants may feel uncomfortable about expressing themselves freely. The interviews further allowed me to address the same themes with all the participants, which contributed greatly to the integrity of the information gathered.

The interviewees had the opportunity to narrate stories in response to the interview questions. In my view, their responses were a representation of many teachers in primary schools, who had also received the same training. The interview questions probed the participants' experiences, feelings and perceptions about reading and teaching literature in an ESL classroom. According to Welman, Kruger and Mitchell (2005:198), the interviews made it possible for the interviewer to gain "[f]irst-hand experience of their life-world rather than ... their interpretation or speculative explanations of it".

The interviews therefore provided insight into the strategies that are employed by the in-service teacher trainees in their reading and teaching of literature to ESL pupils, and the extent to which they exhibit PCK in their teaching of literature.

3.7.1 Documentary sources of data

The qualitative information was further augmented by content analysis of documents collected from the interviewees. These lesson plans (See Appendix B) reflect teachers' classroom decisions when teaching literature to their ESL pupils. In conjunction with the interviews, the researcher also used documentary sources of data in the form of the schemes of work and lesson preparation plans from teachers that reflect teaching strategies and methods employed in literature and reading lessons. Photographs of classroom library corners were also included to provide evidence of the reading materials that pupils are exposed to, and samples of teaching aids for reading lessons (See Appendix C). This information would provide answers to research questions 1.4 and 1.5. The

benefits of a qualitative approach to the study was the focus of the research on the experiences of the teachers, and the meaning that they attached to the processes and structures found in their schools where they taught English language and literature.

The reason for analysing the lesson plans was to determine whether the classroom decisions of teacher trainees reflected reading integration or use of literature in English language teaching. Over and above these documents, I used content analysis of the Primary school curriculum to find out whether the strategies planned by teachers addressed what the curriculum dictates.

3.7.2 Lesson observations

The reason for using classroom observations in this study was to determine whether what participants said they did in their interviews and documentary data, was reflected in what they actually did in practice. Unstructured observations made it possible for me to capture not only the process of curriculum implementation, but also the context in which teacher trainees displayed their pedagogic content knowledge (PCK).

I used audio note-taking and still photography to capture the data. In my role as a reactive observer I became part of the social setting under study. The participants were aware that they were being observed, and I could ask questions and seek clarity. These observations provided a window into the pedagogical content knowledge that the trainees had acquired from their DPE-DE studies, and offered an opportunity to reflect on the strategies employed to carry out classroom decisions when they taught and read literature with their ESL learners.

I hoped that an analysis of the lesson observations would confirm whether the in-service trainees acquired knowledge of the subject matter in their Diploma studies and whether it had been translated effectively into instructional content. In addition, the analysis would prove whether they displayed the requisite PCK in their reading and teaching of Literature.

3.8 DATA ANALYSIS

After the data had been processed, what followed was analysis and synthesis of the various data sources. At the end of the data collection process, the mass of collected data had to be analysed and presented in ways that attempted to answer the research questions.

3.8.1 Analysis of data from the questionnaire

The quantitative data that were collected for this research study were not statistically analysed, because of the small number of participants involved, and its purpose was mainly to direct the qualitative data. The purpose was to capture demographical information concerning the respondents. This information was used to identify the interviewees for the qualitative data. The questionnaires also helped me to identify gaps in the open-ended questions, which were then restructured and the gaps filled in by the interviews. A summary of the demographical data that emerged from the questionnaires is presented in Table 4.1:

Table 3.1: Demographical data

Code	Qualification	Age in completed years	Highest qualification pre-DPE-DE	Teaching experience	Area of teaching post	Secondary school level English language final grades
01	DPE	44	BGCSE	16-20	Semi-urban	C
02	DPE	40	COSC	16-20	Rural	C
03	DPE	No answer	PTC	16-20	Remote	B
04	DPE	52	PTC	21+	Semi-urban	C
05	DPE	51	PSLE	21+	Urban	Unclassified
06	DPE	No answer	PTC	21+	Rural	C
07	DPE	43	JC	21+	Rural	B
08	DPE	45	PTC	16-20	Semi-urban	C
09	DPE	43	PTC	21+	Semi-urban	C
010	DPE	49	PTC	21+	Rural	B

011	DPE	42	PTC	16-20	Rural	D
012	DPE	No answer	JC	21+	Rural	C
013	DPE	No answer	JC	21+	Remote	C
014	DPE	44	PTC	16-20	Semi-urban	B
015	DPE	No answer	JC	21+	Rural	B
016	DPE	46	BGCSE	21+	Rural	C
017	DPE	No answer	PTC	21+	Rural	C
018	DPE	49	PTC	21+	Urban	C
019	DPE	44	JC	16-20	Rural	C

Definition of terms:

- DPE – Diploma in Primary Education
- PSLE- Primary School Leaving Certificate
- JC- Junior Certificate
- COSC – Cambridge Overseas School Certificate
- BGCSE- Botswana General Certificate in Secondary Education
- PTC- Primary Teacher’s Certificate

All the respondents were female. The open-ended questions in the questionnaires gave me the first impression of what the in-service teacher trainees read as well as their efforts, where available, at cultivating a culture of reading in their pupils. I viewed the data collected from the questionnaires as inadequate, however, and therefore found it necessary to seek elaboration on given information through semi-structured, face-to-face interviews. Further analysis of the quantitative data is discussed in the subsequent chapter.

3.8.2 Qualitative data analysis

The data collected qualitatively in the form of interviews were recorded and transcribed in order to produce a written version of the interviews. The qualitative data then went through a process of content analysis. Hancock (2002:17) points out that “Content analysis is a procedure for the

categorization of verbal or behavioral data, for purposes of classification, summarization and tabulation”. The process involves coding and classifying data. Hancock (*ibid.*) explains that the content can be analysed at two levels. The basic level of analysis is a descriptive account of the data “[t]his is what was actually said with nothing read into it and nothing assumed about it”. Higher-level analysis is concerned with what was meant by the response; what was inferred or implied. This level is interpretative, and is called “[t]he latent level of analysis”.

In addition, Creswell (2009:409) points out that some form of coding takes place in every qualitative analysis and reiterates that “Coding is a strategy that is used to find themes and patterns in qualitative data”. Creswell (2009:185) sums up the whole process of qualitative data analysis into the steps reflected in the Figure 3.2:

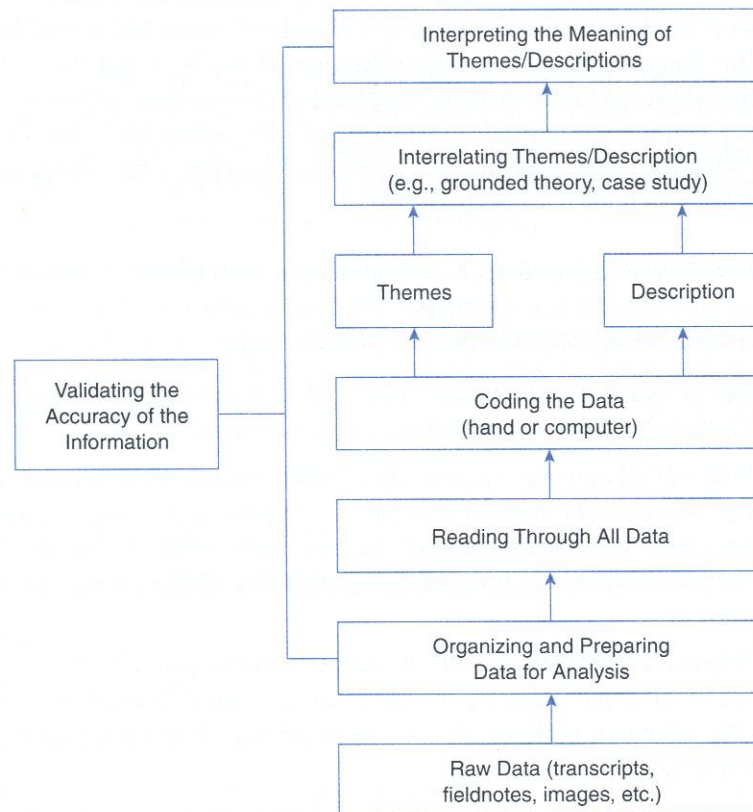


Figure 3.2: Qualitative data analysis

In analysing the transcribed interviews, I continually revisited the data and reviewed the categorisation of the data to ensure that the themes that emerged were true and accurate descriptions of the results. Various themes emerged from the data, and as I identified the themes I coded them into categories, which were not watertight, because some of the themes overlapped to an extent. The discussion of the different themes yielded by the data is covered in the subsequent chapter. Following the above steps ensured that I was engaged in a systematic process of analysing textual data.

3.9 TRUSTWORTHINESS

According to Golafshani (2003:600), both quantitative and qualitative researchers have to test and demonstrate that their studies are credible. He also emphasises that “[w]hile the credibility in quantitative research depends on instrument construction, in qualitative research it depends on the ability and effort of the researcher”. This results in the terminology that encompasses both, such as credibility and trustworthiness. Shenton (2004:63) defines trustworthiness as: “a term used to establish credible findings, and one technique adopted by researchers to enhance trustworthiness and rigor is triangulation, whereby multiple data sources are used”.

In order to enhance the trustworthiness of my study, I checked the findings derived from one type of method with those derived from another. For example, strategies reflected in the documentary data (lesson plans) were further corroborated in the lesson observations. This was made possible by adhering to the original facts under investigation, and by using various data collection methods and instruments. I wanted to strengthen the notion of triangulation, so that the findings from the study would suggest that the study investigated what it was meant to.

3.10 ETHICAL PROCEDURES

In anticipation of data collection and the need to identify participants for my research study, I was obliged to respect the participants and the sites for the research by first writing a letter seeking permission from relevant authorities. The in-service teacher trainees for cohort 2008 in Diploma in Primary Education by Distance Education (DPE-DE) as the participants were in different Primary Schools in Botswana, therefore, I had to apply for a research permit from the Ministry of Education & Skills Development (MOE&SD). The permit was duly granted for a one-year period ending in August 2014 (See Appendix D), When it expired before I finished collecting data, the Ministry was willing to extend it with another year, to August 2015. (See Appendix E)

With this permission I went to different Regional Education offices, where I had to consult the Regional Director to communicate with the Principals of schools affected to grant further permission to conduct interviews and lesson observations with the sample population of the participants.

The participants were asked officially and formally to be part of this study and assured of confidentiality and anonymity through a telephone call by myself, before the commencement of the research. Prior to visiting the research sites, to interview some of the participants and to observe some of the lessons in the schools, I sent questionnaires and a consent form to the participants. The consent form was a standard one which was developed by the Faculty of Education (Stellenbosch University). The participants were requested to read carefully and sign the form, in order to seal the agreement that they would voluntarily take part in the research study (See Appendix F).

Creswell (2003:64) explains that the consent form acknowledges that participants' rights have been protected during data collection. This particular form adopted for this research study included the following:

- The right to participate voluntarily and the right to withdraw from the study at any time
- The purpose of the study, so that participants could acknowledge the nature of the research and its likely impact on them
- Protection of the confidentiality and anonymity of individuals

All the participants who completed the questionnaires sent back the consent forms, having appended their signatures, and therefore endorsing their official agreement to participate in the research study.

3.11 CONCLUSION

In this chapter I have provided a description of the methodological lenses that underpinned the research methodology for this study, namely the constructivism theory and multiple qualitative data collection strategies.. I have also described the instruments that I employed to collect data. In addition I have explicated my choice of methods and my intended analysis of the data.

In Chapter 4, my attention will be on the findings and interpretation of the data.

CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS AND RESULTS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 3, I described the methodology, research approach and instruments employed in this study. This chapter reports on the results from the research study and discusses the findings. The collected data are interpreted with the purpose of this study in mind, which was to determine the reading experiences, habits and practices of in-service teacher trainees in Botswana Primary schools in order to assess the extent to which literature was integrated and appreciated in the English studies component of the curriculum.

In addition, it is imperative to revisit the motivation that initiated this investigation. The following perceptions prompted my decision to explore the background and context of teaching literature to ESL learners in Botswana primary schools by in-service trainees:

- Teacher trainees generally seemed to have a low level of proficiency in English, aggravated by limited use of technology and more dependence on traditional methods of teaching
- The majority were in possession of a Junior Secondary Certificate, which means that they did not experience Foundational Studies in Literature as a separate subject, as is the case at Senior Secondary Level. This situation was not helped by the study of prescribed literature texts that had been on the syllabus for more than 10 years and that were likely to have become boring and monotonous for the lecturers.
- In the case of some trainees Poor reading culture was evident in the lack of enthusiasm to acquire copies of the prescribed literature texts.
- The study centres for distance education students were under-resourced and at times overstretched in terms of material, infrastructure and human resources.
- Students needed to manage their in-service studies and family commitments, which usually resulted in frustration and failure to complete their studies.

The research study covered two main strands of research. The first strand of the report focused on the quantitative data collected from questionnaires. This strand was concerned with the profile of the in-service trainees and self-report data on their reading habits and the ways in which they inculcated reading in their pupils. The data from the questionnaires served to direct the qualitative

data, because, besides capturing the demographical information of the respondents, I used the data to identify the interviewees for qualitative data collection. I used the data researched by means of the questionnaires to fill in gaps revealed by the open-ended questions in the questionnaires. The questions were restructured through the interviews, documentary data and lesson observations in that sequence.

The second qualitative strand focused on the curriculum for Primary English: the recommendations in the curriculum in terms of reading literature and inculcating a culture of reading literature in primary school pupils, as revealed by classroom observations. This strand linked up with the first by using the information obtained from the questionnaire to conduct interviews with selected teachers and to investigate the degree to which the curriculum was evident during classroom observations of the same teachers. These findings indicate whether the in-service trainees followed the curriculum in their teaching in terms of the curriculum objectives and what classroom decisions or strategies they adopted in terms of their content knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) acquired from their training.

This chapter continues with a discussion of the quantifiable data, followed by the qualitative data and finally presents a conclusion in which the data are triangulated.

4.2 PEDAGOGICAL CONTENT KNOWLEDGE (PCK)

Chapter 2 revealed that teachers of English literature required a particular attitude towards reading and towards reading literature, in particular. Shulman's (1986:5) theoretical framework advocates for teachers to possess pedagogical content knowledge (PCK), deep knowledge of the subject they teach and knowledge of curricular goals and available materials. The teacher trainees' attitudes towards literature as a subject and their reading habits would influence their reading patterns and give some indication of their knowledge of the subject. A reading teacher will presumably encourage his/her pupils to love and engage with reading, and thus develop a culture of reading. The findings regarding strategies employed by the teacher trainees in their English language/literature lessons to ESL pupils should reflect the promotion and awareness of reading literature.

The purpose of the qualitative data was to assist in evaluating the strength of the subject matter knowledge that they had acquired in their in-service training for DPE-DE, and reveal how they

articulated their knowledge regarding teaching literature to their pupils. In addition, the teacher trainees should exhibit knowledge of the curriculum in their teaching and, as Shulman states (1987:6), “[b]e able to transform content knowledge into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variety of student abilities and background”.

In the context of this study, I interpreted PCK in teaching literature to the ESL pupils in primary schools to entail the different ways in which in-service trainees transform subject matter for teaching. The strategies that they would presumably employ in teaching (as derived from the curriculum, see Chapter 2, section 2.3) would include discussion of the different elements of literature, such as figurative language, characterisation, themes, plots, settings, as they read comprehension passages and the different genres of literature with the pupils.

On the one hand, in their teaching at primary school level, the teacher trainees have to take cognizance of the diverse language backgrounds of the pupils, and their different stages of readiness. The teachers need to establish pupils’ prior learning; at Standard One level, for example, they need to find out whether pupils have been exposed to English or not (at pre-primary level). In upper primary, a demonstration of PCK would be to guide the pupils to distinguish between different genres, such as prose, story, drama, play and poetry, and teacher trainees who have deep content knowledge will be able to organise and represent such subject matter by adapting to the diverse interests and abilities of their pupils.

It is necessary to note here that, in addition to their exposure to the school curriculum, the teacher trainees are also being trained through a Colleges of Education Diploma in Primary Education Curriculum (2010:76) that aims at “producing teachers whose spoken and written English is of high standard and will be good models for their learners... and sufficiently grounded in the English language and Literature teaching methods and ...strategies as a second language to learners of diverse abilities, social, cultural and linguistic backgrounds”. This means that they are expected to engage with literature in preparation for teaching, whether they have to teach basic reading skills (as mentioned in the lower primary curriculum) or explicitly teach literature (as in the upper primary curriculum). The reason for including literature in their in-service training is to prepare them to inculcate knowledge and a love of literature and reading in the pupils. At lower primary level this would include reading stories to learners and expecting them to recognise narrative

structure, which the curriculum describes as “Predict what might happen next in a story”, as stated in section 4.3.

The findings discussed in this chapter should reflect how the teachers present and organise their subject content to enable the pupils to realise the set objectives in the syllabi, and as stipulated by Shulman (1986:5), the teachers will also need knowledge of the curricular goals.

4.3 SUBJECT TIME ALLOCATION

The following time allocation is suggested for Primary English in the syllabus:

- Standard 1 to 4 – English 10 periods (5 hours per week)
- Standard 5 to 7 – English 4 hours per week

The Primary English syllabus (2011:iv) emphasises that it is imperative for teachers to be acquainted with the objectives from the previous year and the following year of the particular standard in which they work. I agree, because teachers often think that they are competent when they know the content that learners in their classes are supposed to master. However, lower primary teachers need to have a sense of story, plot, character, symbolism, etc. They may also be called upon to teach and understand the demands of literature teaching in order to prepare the pupils for upper primary. Therefore, the teachers must master the literary genres in their training, in order to equip them with the requisite skills and PCK for teaching literature. This view reiterates my view stated in Chapter 2, sub-section 2.1.1, where I emphasised that it is pertinent that teachers know the subject that they teach to place themselves in a position that will empower them to help their students learn the content.

4.4 QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS

As mentioned earlier in this chapter, findings from the questionnaire were used to direct the interviews and to establish the respondents’ profile. The data also revealed the trainees’ leisure reading attitudes and habits. The description of the questionnaires is captured in Chapter 3, Section 3.6. They were distributed to all 25 in-service trainees that were registered for the Diploma in Primary Education by distance education (DPE-DE), the 2008 cohort specialising in language teaching. The questionnaires were sent by post and I included a stamped envelope and a consent form for participation in the research, for the respondents to complete and to post back to my address. Prior to sending off the questionnaires, I contacted all respondents by telephone, in order

to obtain verbal consent to send the questionnaire. I received 19 questionnaires in return. All the respondents were female, in fact, the whole cohort did not have any males. All attempts to follow up with the other respondents about returning the completed questionnaires were in vain. In accordance with ethical procedures, I therefore assumed that these respondents chose not to participate in the study.

Table 4.1: Summary of the findings on profiles of the participants

Code	Qualification	Age in complete years	Highest qualification pre-DPE-DE	Teaching experience	Area of teaching post (See 4.5.2.2.)	Secondary school level English language final grades
01	DPE	44	BGCSE	16-20	Semi-urban	C
02	DPE	40	COSC	16-20	Rural	C
03	DPE	No answer provided on age	PTC	16-20	Remote	B
04	DPE	52	PTC	21+	Semi-urban	C
05	DPE	51	PSLE	21+	Urban	Unclassified
06	DPE	No answer provided on age	PTC	21+	Rural	C
07	DPE	43	JC	21+	Rural	B

08	DPE	45	PTC	16-20	Semi-urban	C
09	DPE	43	PTC	21+	Semi-urban	C
010	DPE	49	PTC	21+	Rural	B
011	DPE	42	PTC	16-20	Rural	D
012	DPE	No answer provided on age	JC	21+	Rural	C
013	DPE	No answer provided on age	JC	21+	Remote	C
014	DPE	44	PTC	16-20	Semi-urban	B
015	DPE	No answer provided on age	JC	21+	Rural	B
016	DPE	46	BGCSE	21+	Rural	C
017	DPE	No answer provided on age	PTC	21+	Rural	C

018	DPE	49	PTC	21+	Urban	C
019	DPE	44	JC	16-20	Rural	C

The ages of the in-service trainees ranged from 40 to 55. Despite the omission of age in some questionnaires it is safe to conclude, from my knowledge of this cohort, that the absent answers fell in the same age category. This conclusion is echoed in the teaching experience of all the respondents ranging from 16 to 21+ years.

4.4.2 Qualifications prior to DPE-DE

The majority of the participants (10) had obtained a Primary Teaching Certificate (PTC) qualification prior to their DPE-DE qualification. This is a good response to the RNPE's (1994:47) Recommendation 104 [para 10.6.6]: "Existing primary teachers certificate holders should be offered opportunities to upgrade their qualifications to Diploma level through either full time or part-time study". In line with this recommendation, these in-service trainees qualified for their DPE-DE studies. Five of the participants had continued their studies to Junior Certificate in Education (JCE), two had completed senior secondary education, and were Botswana General Certificate in Secondary Education (BGCSE) holders. One participant had a Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC) and another one had written the Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE). As explained in Chapter 2, Section 2.4.2, the PSLE and the JC levels would mean the studies lacked a literature component as an optional subject, as is the case with BGCSE and COSC.

4.4.2.1 School Examination English grades

In the questionnaire, open-ended question 6 reads: "What were your secondary school level grades in English language final examination?" The question sought to establish the teacher trainees' background performance in English language. A good pass in the subject is also an entry requirement for the Diploma studies, as indicated below:

The entry requirements for the DPE programme are stipulated as follows in the Colleges of Education Diploma in Primary Education Curriculum (2010: 77):

Category I: Candidates with a minimum of BGCSE or its equivalence with at least credits in at least two subjects and a pass in English.

Category II: Candidates who shall be between 25 and 35 years of age on the day of registration may be selected on the basis of relevant work experience and should have credits in at least two subjects and a pass in English at BGCSE or its equivalence.

A pass in English is a pre-requisite in both categories. All the respondents had good grades, except for one with an unclassified grade. However, none of the trainees managed to score above a B symbol for English in their school end examination. Twelve scored a C grade, five recorded a B, one scored a D, and one student was recorded as unclassified. In consideration of Category II above, the respondents qualified for entry into the Diploma studies.

4.4.2.2 Teaching posts

Primary schools in Botswana are located in all villages, even in the remote and some of the remotest settlements. In total the country has 861 primary schools. It therefore did not come as a surprise to find that most of the teaching posts of in-service trainees were in semi-urban or rural areas. Two were stationed in urban areas and ten worked in rural areas, 26.3% were teaching in semi-urban areas, and two in remote areas. Moepeng (2013:2) describes a rural village in Botswana as “A standard description of a rural village in contemporary Botswana is a place that has access to a road network, a minimum of a primary school, a health facility, a kgotla, mobile phone network access, and most likely a connection to the national electricity grid”. An urban area would be characterised by a high density population with plenty of facilities, more than the rural areas around it. The diverse location of primary schools reflects the country’s bid to achieve one of the United Nations’ Millennium goals, that of achieving Universal Education for all. The government of Botswana’s website (www.gov.bw) states: “In addition to improved access to education, progression from one level of study to another has also improved. In 2002, 98.2% of all Standard 7 pupils progressed to junior secondary”.

Based on my experience as a teacher in Botswana, teacher trainees on completion of their studies expect to be employed wherever there is a primary school and pupils to teach.

4.5 OPEN-ENDED QUESTIONS

The questionnaire’s open-ended questions explored in-service teacher trainees’ leisure reading, habits and practices (See Appendix G for a full description of the questionnaire). The following questions were asked :

1. In your free time what reading materials do you enjoy reading for leisure?
2. In what ways do you encourage your learners to read for pleasure?
3. What type of reading materials do you keep in your home library?
4. Do you keep any set of readers at school to share with your learners? If yes, describe the type of reading materials.

These questions sought responses about the participants' leisure reading, their habits and practices in encouraging their pupils to develop a reading culture.

The results that provided some answers to the exploratory questions mentioned above are discussed in the following sub-sections.

4.6.1 In-service teacher trainees' reading for leisure

The two questions: 'In your free time what reading materials do you enjoy reading for leisure?' and 'In what ways do you encourage your learners to read for pleasure?' explored the teacher trainees' attitude to leisure reading, and their access to leisure resources. The question sought participants' assessment of leisure reading, and whether they valued reading to the extent that they saw the significance of developing a culture of reading in their young pupils. The responses to these questions highlighted the participants' habits and practices in their ESL classrooms, with regard to whether they had any interest in reading for leisure, and the materials that interested them in that regard. The answers to the question on their leisure reading were expected to reflect a positive attitude towards reading, because of an expectation that the outcome would reveal a variety of materials being read by the participants in their free time. The majority (14) enjoyed reading novels/story books. Next in popularity was the reading of newspapers and magazines (13 each). The least enjoyed reading materials were 'textbooks', 'government policies' and DPE-DE instructional materials (modules), which only one person listed as favourite leisure reading material. Two participants mentioned enjoying reading the Bible and other religious publications. The reference to 'study modules and textbooks' apparently indicated the participants' lack of comprehension of the meaning of leisure reading in the question.

The findings on reading materials that the teacher trainees enjoyed reading in their free time are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Summary of findings of participants' reading habits

Reading material	Number of times the material is mentioned as a favourite leisure reading	Popularity expressed in %
Novels/story books	14	31.1
Newspapers	13	28.9
Magazines	13	28.9
The Bible/religious material	2	4.5
Textbooks	1	2.2
Government policies	1	2.2
DPE-DE modules	1	2.2

These findings indicate that the in-service teacher trainees enjoyed leisure reading, but indicating study modules, government policies and textbooks apparently revealed a lack of comprehension of the meaning of leisure reading in the question on the part of a participant.

But do they encourage their learners to read? The next section presents the attempt to answer this question.

4.6.2 Participants' reading practices

The question posed for this section was: 'In what ways do you encourage your learners to read for pleasure?'

The participants gave varied responses to this question that were categorised (as suggested by Creswell (2009:185) under the following themes:

- What **resources** do teachers or schools provide for pupils to read?
- How do they provide the resources – **strategies/ activities?**
- Is there evidence of **peer collaboration** to encourage reading?

4.6.2.1 Resources for developing a culture of reading

Almost all participants mentioned the establishment of a library corner in their classrooms. This was usually stocked with reading materials from the school, the teacher and in some cases the pupils themselves. According to the responses, the materials found most often in the Library Corner included newspapers, magazines, novels, story books, ‘supplementary books’, teachers’ wordbook, pictures, word cards.

The pupils were allowed to choose something to read from the library corner when they had completed the work in a lesson. In most cases, the pupils were expected to share what they read with the rest of the class. This suggests that the teachers treated the Library corner session with some seriousness, and they saw it as an opportunity to read and inculcate a reading culture in their learners.

4.6.2.2 Strategies/ activities to encourage pupils to read

The in-service trainees employed different strategies in order to encourage a culture of reading in their ESL classrooms. In most cases, reading for pleasure was set in motion by the teachers themselves, who brought materials to stock their classroom library corners. Reading was always followed by varied activities, according to the different participants. The following were some of the activities that teachers engaged their pupils in, in order to encourage them to read for pleasure:

- I bring different materials to the classroom Library corner for learners to read during their spare time.
- I give them supplementary books to read or even pictures to observe and discuss with other learners, sometimes read others’ stories.
- By asking them to tell news or stories they might have read to other learners in the classroom.
- Pair reading, reading in groups, silent reading.
- To bring materials from home and read them in class, and report in class ‘drop and read method’.
- Children like cartoons, I encourage them to look for them and create a news corner in the classroom. I ask them to read the cartoons and report to the class what they have read.
- Learners to bring materials from home and read them in class.

The teacher trainees did act as resources for the library corners, but it was rather disconcerting that they mentioned bringing in ‘different materials’ to the classroom library, but did not unpack or mention what these were. They did not even mention whether the reading material was fictitious

or not, or which genres were included for pupils to read. To complicate matters further, the curriculum provided no guidance regarding the choice of reading materials.

The primary school curriculum is accompanied by a Teacher's Guide developed by the Syllabus Task Force that developed the Primary English syllabus. The teachers seemed not to refer much to the guidelines and did not display knowledge of the guidelines in their strategies for developing pupils' culture of reading. Strategies mentioned in the (upper primary guideline) that were not employed by the teacher trainees included the following

- Learners to use different techniques of reading to access information – skimming, scanning.
- Reading more challenging texts that entail reading novels and poetry from different cultures and non-fiction writing such as diaries, travel brochures.
- Learners to write story/book reviews of what they have read.

PCK requires that teachers have knowledge of the curricular content. A lack of this was evident in the lack of use of relevant terminology, with the exception of the 'drop and read' method. In addition, the in-service teacher trainees did not seem to display much knowledge of the curriculum in the reading activities that they mentioned with regard to their pupils. They did not employ some of the activities suggested in the syllabus Teachers' Guide.

4.6.3 Peer collaboration on reading for pleasure

Encouragement from in-service trainees of reading for pleasure was indicated by peer collaboration among their pupils. The pupils were engaged in a number of activities that indicated some collaboration amongst them.

The following activities were cited by the different participants as one way in which they encouraged their learners to read for pleasure:

- Learners bring magazines from home, collect pictures of their own choice, write stories about them and paste them on the wall for all to read."
- After reading they retell to others what they read.
- They choose the books they like from the Library corner, and sometimes tell others what they read about.
- After reading, learners do spelling games, read and do games.

4.6.4 Reading for pleasure

The activities related to encouraging reading as discussed above reflected that teachers employed all language skills. Pupils read, told stories, listened to others telling/reading own stories or news. It was evident that the teachers made an effort to develop a reading culture in the schools. However, in my view, the activities did not reflect modelling by the teacher trainees to encourage reading. The pupils read in order to conclude the post-reading activities that are assigned by the teachers, but the activities do not reflect any of the attainment targets stipulated in the Upper Primary syllabus that are listed in Chapter 2, section 2.4.2. At upper primary level the pupils ought to have acquired the basic reading skills listed in the lower primary curriculum, and be able to discuss elements of literature critically, as well as to distinguish between the different genres. Surprisingly, the majority of the teacher trainees mentioned summary writing as the common post-reading activity. My own experience is that this task is the most dreaded by pupils. The teachers did not seem to have curricular knowledge of their subject matter or, presumably, did not make much reference to their curriculum when they taught their ESL pupils.

4.6.5 Reading materials found in Home libraries

The question posed was “what type of reading materials do you keep in your home library?” Responses to this question link well with section 4.6.1 above. What the teacher-trainees read was what was found in their home libraries. The majority mentioned newspapers, magazines and novels. Only one respondent answered with a ‘Not applicable’ (N/A). She probably did not understand the question.

4.6.6 Sharing readers with learners?

When asked whether they kept any set of readers at school to share with their learners, 26.3% responded with a blunt ‘no’, that they did not keep any readers to share with their learners. The majority (73.7%) responded positively about keeping reading materials to share with learners. Different types of materials were mentioned in the responses this time. In addition to the popular magazines, newspapers and novels, as follows:

- Looking at the National Vision 2016, I keep books which provide information concerning emerging issues such as HIV/AIDS, education and life skills.
- Yes, the types of reading materials are short stories, poems, riddles and drama.
- Breakthrough to Setswana set of readers, MAPEP set of supplementary readers, PAES reading activities (in English). (See Appendix H for MAPEP)

4.6.7 Conclusions regarding questionnaire data

The findings from the questionnaire present an overview of the trainees' leisure reading habits. The indication is that the participants' attitudes to leisure reading in this investigation were positive. However, the impact of their literature studies on their teaching of literature and sharing their reading materials was short of expectations, and did not match their enthusiasm when encouraging their pupils to read for pleasure. Much of what the teachers reported was what the learners were encouraged to do. The pupils, for instance, brought some reading materials from home to add to the stock in the library corners. In the teachers' reports, there was neither specific indication that they read stories to the pupils, nor that they read some stories with their pupils. Reading together would display the teacher modelling reading behaviour for the pupils to copy. In my view, sharing favourite titles or even reading some parts to the pupils would have proved to them that their teachers valued reading and that the pupils should copy the behaviour. From what they said, it was also clear that the in-service teacher trainees have to improve the post-reading activities in their ESL classrooms, so that the impact of their literature studies at DPE-DE level may be reflected in the attitudes of their pupils' towards leisure reading.

The next section presents findings from the qualitative data.

4.7 INTERVIEWS AND LESSON OBSERVATIONS

Qualitative data included information from interviews, documentary data and lesson observations. Triangulation of the study's data was attempted to obtain a balanced picture of the research participants' engagement with literature inside and out of the classroom. The quantitative data portrayed the participants' positive reading attitudes and habits, which could lead one to assume that the teacher trainees were avid and skilled readers. However, the picture painted through other research instruments exposed contradictory data and more insight into the teachers' attitudes towards reading and the impact on pupils, as well as the "Peter effect" (see Section 2.10.1) espoused by Applegate and Applegate (2004:555), according to which teachers ought to perform as models of reading for their students.

In the next section, I commence my discussion of qualitative data from interviews.

4.7.1 Background to Literature Studies

In this section, I report on the data yielded by the interviews. The interview guide and schedule is provided below.

The interview schedule

INTERVIEW GUIDE

The interview questions were designed to capture respondents' perceptions and attitudes towards literature studies in their in-service training, and their efforts in integrating literature in their classroom decisions or strategies. The interview was planned to take 20 – 30 minutes.

1. To ascertain background on content knowledge with regards to literature studies prior to DPE-DE qualification:
 - a) Did you study literature at secondary level?
 - b) What was your qualification prior to PTC/DPE studies?
2. What are the titles of the literary texts that you studied for your Diploma? Which was your favourite text? Have you shared the stories from the texts with any of your learners, family or friends? (Attitudes)
3. Did you look forward to your literature tutorials during your DPE-DE studies? Please share your experience.
(Attitudes and highlighting trainees' habits and perceptions about literature)
4. What have you taken away with you from the literature tutorials/studies that you feel is useful for classroom teaching?
(The role of literature in the language classroom)
5. Maybe a follow up question? If they include literature, how do they introduce a literary text? Do they read the whole text aloud? What kinds of questions do they ask?
(Short questions, essays, paragraphs?)
6. What strategies do you employ to encourage reading in your classes? What is your role in encouraging your learners to read?
7. What do you read for leisure? If newspapers/magazines, which sections are usually interesting for you? Do you keep a set of readers at home and school to read and share with your learners? What type of material do you keep? (Peter effect)
8. What resources are available to cultivate reading culture in your school in general – national library or mobile library.

The interview dates and the research sites are presented in Table 4.3:

Table 4.3: Interview schedule dates and research sites

Interviewee	Date	Standard taught	School setting
09	24 August 2014	seven	Kanye Semi-urban
011	03 September 2014	five	Moshupa Rural
01	04 September 2014	one	Serowe semi-urban
07	05 September 2014	four	Mothabaneng rural
08	10 September 2014	five	Pitsane semi-urban
019	10 September 2014	five	Dinatshana rural
018	12 September 2014	one	Lobatse urban

The interviewees were representative of all levels, lower and upper primary, and their settings covered most geographical areas, urban, rural and semi-urban (see Section 2.5 in Chapter 2) for further information about their choices.

To determine the teachers' backgrounds with regard to literature studies prior to the DPE-DE qualification, the interviewees were asked whether they had studied literature at secondary level. The majority (six) had studied literature at secondary level; four at Junior Certificate level (the first three years of secondary); two at Cambridge Overseas School Certificate level (COSC – the last two years at secondary level). Only one respondent had no background content knowledge in literature. All the teacher trainees' in terms of qualifications had a Primary Teaching Certificate (PTC), as was captured in the quantitative data.

The qualitative data from the interviews are reported under the themes that follow and are discussed in subsequent sub-sections:

- Reading literature and reading performance
- Attitudes towards literature studies
- Strategies for the reading lessons

- Resources for leisure reading

4.7.2 Reading Literature and Reading Performance

The participants were asked about the literary texts that they had studied at diploma level, and whether they had shared the stories from the texts with their pupils. The intention of these questions was to ascertain the attitudes of the participants towards their literature studies. Surprisingly, none of the participants could remember the author and full titles of the texts that they claimed to have studied less than six years previously. This response is not characteristic of avid readers, who presumably are well acquainted with book titles and author names. Examples of questions and responses regarding literature texts they had studied are:

- Researcher: Can you recall the titles of the literature texts that you studied?
Interviewee: I cannot remember because we are just given modules, we are reading from the modules.
- Researcher: Do you remember the texts that you were studying?
Interviewee: In English there were no books. But they are the ones that are written in the modules. They were two of them, 'Jewels'.
- Researcher: So do you remember the titles of the text you were studying at diploma level?
- Interviewee: There was one book, it was written by Wole Soyinka and there were extracts like, something like metamorphosis.
- Researcher: Brother Jero's metamorphosis.

It was noted as a major problem that teacher trainees at Diploma level had to discuss *extracts* from literature texts instead of placing more emphasis on reading the whole text. The reading and discussion of literature was based on synopses found in the instructional materials (modules). This strategy does not promote and remedy teachers' PCK. Reading a text would, for example, unpack all the characters and thus make it easy for the student to analyse character development, identify and evaluate themes and symbols, express their opinions and feelings on the text as a whole. McKay (1982:531) states that student interaction with literary texts will improve reading proficiency, which further contributes to the achievement of a student's academic and occupational objectives. In studying literature, teacher trainees need to be encouraged to adopt an analytical mind-set and to develop personal opinions on the texts they read, instead of repeating opinions that they find elsewhere about the texts. This is further illustrated in my discussion of the Reader

Response Theory (in Chapter 2, sub-section 2.5.6), which argues that studies of literary texts should start with the reader's response in order to enhance their critical thinking. Hismanoglu (2005:52) rightly maintains that literature promotes students' critical thinking when they have different perceptions and prior knowledge of a literary text. In addition, Khatib *et al.* (2011:203) also emphasise that reading literature is a combination of reading for enjoyment and reading for information. One major point from the findings of the investigation is that the in-service teacher trainees did not have an opportunity to read the literature texts that could have improved their critical thinking skills to enable them to form personal opinions. This probably also explains their failure to remember the titles and authors of the texts that they had studied.

The findings therefore, portrayed reading performance on the part of in-service teacher trainees and not actual engagement with literature. Interaction with literary texts would have meant that the trainees had an opportunity to enjoy some of the typical analytical activities that are normally expected of students of literature. Such activities include analysing the plot structure; identifying literary devices and evaluating their effectiveness in the context of the text; discussing character development and evaluating the coherence of thematic elements like symbols and imagery. All these are examples of the literary PCK that teachers need.

4.7.3 Attitudes towards literature studies

A further enquiry into in-service teacher trainees' attitudes towards literature studies, asked the interviewees on whether they looked forward to literature tutorials and, if so, to share their experiences. The intention of the question was to highlight their habits and perceptions about literature. The respondents expressed mixed feelings. For some, the tutorials were interesting, and they acknowledged that lessons from literature tutorials had helped them to apply most of the objectives in the syllabus in Standard 5, for example the objectives under 'Reading a story'. Literature studies in their classrooms enabled them to not just ask general questions, but to discuss characterisation; pupils expressed feelings about characters, thus developing their analytical skills. Those who found the tutorials boring, did so because they had not read any texts included in the literature tutorial. Instead, they had to go to the library to read the texts, and then shared the stories with the rest of the tutorial group. Very few of the trainees were eager to go to the library to read the texts, and these were the ones expected to share the stories in the literary texts with the rest of the class, thus the tutorials became boring because others were not very enthusiastic about reading

the texts themselves. Others misconstrued the question, and mentioned the benefits of literature studies from “Literature improves on learners’ vocabulary”. Some stated that reading impacts on pupils’ ability to write, “For a child to write the word, it is when he or she knows how to read it.” The responses were an indication that the teacher trainees entertained mixed attitudes towards literature studies. Some perceived the impact of literature studies on their pupils, and they presented the benefits that were achieved by the pupils. Others experienced the void that was the result of studying literature without reading texts. With these mixed responses in mind, the next section reports the strategies employed by the teachers to encourage reading in their classes.

4.7.4 Strategies employed by teacher trainees in reading lessons

In this section, the ways in which the in-service teacher trainees reported the organisation of their subject matter in teaching ESL pupils at primary level was discussed.

The majority of the respondents mentioned that they afford all pupils in a class an opportunity to read in various ways. Some classes started with the teacher reading a text out loud and the whole class reading after the teacher. In other instances, they had each pupil either read a paragraph or a sentence. All methods were aimed at giving all pupils an opportunity to read. Below is what some of the respondents said about the strategies that they employ in reading lessons:

First I will, if it’s for a start, maybe, I am teaching the lower standards. I read the story first myself, then I will let the pupils read after me and then they will read for themselves but these ones because now I am with them for the third year now, they are familiar with reading. I will just let them read paragraph by paragraph. Paragraph, one child, another child will read the other paragraph. The other by another child, but read each and every paragraph. After reading we explain it as a class.

What kind of questions do they ask sometimes?

Like maybe if they don’t understand the meaning of some of the words in the text, they will ask and then I will explain to them.

In Lower Primary, the teachers are supposed to use a syllable chart in order to teach reading and writing sentences in stages. Stage 1 has been described as the use of a conversational poster to build sentences. This is followed by stage 2 in which building of sentences is done by using words from the Word store (A wall chart with some pockets in which different syllables and letters have been inserted. Pupils pick the different cards to build words and sentences.) (See Appendix J). By

stage 3, the pupils should be able to make their own sentences based on pictures. This is appropriate to the teaching of Standard One as a syllabus requirement, as mentioned earlier (sub-section 4.2.1.1).

In upper primary classes, the pupils and the teacher read a text together, discuss the text and the teacher asks questions to test pupils' comprehension orally. For literature-related discussions, the class discusses characterisation and setting with the teacher. Pupils would also express the feelings that different characters evoke, in order to develop analytical skills. Some respondents mentioned the use of literature in language teaching. Most of them acknowledged that literature assists the pupils in building vocabulary and improving pupils' sentence structures, especially in instances where teachers insist on pupils answering questions in full sentences. In some instances the teacher replaces the multiple choice questions that accompany the comprehension exercise with own questions in order to encourage the pupils to answer in full sentences and to improve other aspects of grammar, for example, punctuation. However, one of the respondents mentioned how teaching a mixed ability group makes it difficult to try out some other strategies, because some pupils are very weak in reading, and therefore struggle to comprehend what they read. The respondent, however, did not offer a solution for addressing the weakness in reading displayed by some of the pupils. This could point to a lack of PCK in terms of which the teacher ought to identify pupils' needs and provide a solution from the content knowledge that he/she possesses.

Their PCK will be influenced by the content knowledge gained from the studies of literature that involved more reading of synopses than the actual reading of literature texts.

4.7.5 Availability of Resources

All respondents mentioned that they had a library corner in their classrooms, from which the pupils could access leisure reading. For lower primary, this library corner mainly comprises word cards and pictures to enable pupils to practise their reading of the words. In the upper classes, the Library corners had newspapers, magazines and some textbooks, but few story books. The respondents mentioned that the Library corners were under stocked. The purpose for the library corners was really to afford pupils an opportunity to read. Though minimal, the pupils were usually encouraged to share what they read with the rest of the class. Opportune time to read is given during lessons, when a pupil had completed any assigned work; they were allowed to select something from the

corner to read. According to the respondents, however, the library corners were not equipped adequately enough to support the pupils in their quest to find reading matter.

According to the respondents, all schools did not have school libraries. Four of the participants mentioned the presence of this infrastructure in their schools, but all lamented the fact that libraries were under-stocked. One of the participants mentioned that the School Library

... has got some books, even though the primary schools they are not catered for. The books that we are given are not enough like in the secondary, the primary schools are not provided with a lot of books like in secondary schools.

The other lamented the lack of replenishing the stock of books:

There are books in the library, I came here in 2010 and we have never changed them, old stock. But myself I feel it is just okay why because reading is reading. If the kids they have, if there are books there for the kids to read, that is what helps them.

In all cases they had to convert some under-utilised room, for example a store room, into a school library. “The facilities we don’t have. Our library is just a small storeroom” was the message that one conveyed. So they, in most cases, were not only faced with a lack of reading materials in the library; but they also faced the challenge of capacity. All, however, mentioned that the time-table provided for a library class, which gave all pupils in a school an opportunity to visit the library and engage in some reading. This exercise was cherished by many pupils and they were reported to have reminded the teachers whenever they seemed to have forgotten the library period.

Other resources mentioned by only three respondents were the national libraries found in some places in Botswana. All of the participants mentioned that their pupils had not registered for membership of the library. Furthermore, pupils visiting the library spent more time playing computer games than reading. If pupils were avid readers, they would value the diverse reading materials found in the national library, and register for membership, instead of playing computer games. Libraries presented better access to reading resources, but the respondents reported that the pupils did not take advantage of these. The teacher trainees also did not express any enthusiasm in encouraging their pupils to register as members of the national library. For instance this is what one of the respondents had to say about membership of the national library:

Researcher: Are your pupils members of the National Library?

Interviewee: I don't think so.

Researcher: You don't think so? You haven't talked to them about going to the library?

Interviewee: Seriously I didn't.

An avid reader would go out of his/her way to find leisure resources, even in situations where the resources are scarce. Participants did not seem eager to encourage their learners to utilise the free resources offered by national libraries in their areas. A few expressed their awareness of pupils playing computer games at the libraries and they were also not ready to supplement the under-resourced or under-stocked library corners or school libraries.

The research established that infrastructure as a resource posed a challenge to the teacher trainees' efforts to inculcate a culture of reading in their pupils. Most of the respondents mentioned that they had to convert an under-utilised space to establish a school library. The spaces that were available usually lacked the capacity to accommodate a full classroom. This means that school plans, especially at primary school level, did not include libraries. The deduction is that the government does not regard libraries as a priority.

In this section, I have reported what the teacher trainees cited in the interviews as their strategies in the ESL classroom; resources that they were able to access or harness in order to realise their efforts to cultivate a culture of reading in their pupils; what the respondents' readership was; what the teacher trainees read for leisure; and whether they shared what they read with their pupils. The efforts depicted here reflect adversely on the reading behaviour of the in-service teacher trainees. They have not presented themselves as enthusiastic readers, and this habit is what they are modelling for their pupils.

In the next section I present content reflected in the teacher trainees' lesson plans. In order to substantiate the findings revealed in the interviews, the discussion is presented in terms of strategies and resources that are adopted in the ESL classroom.

4.8 DOCUMENTARY DATA: LESSON PLANS

Findings from the lesson plans are presented according to the different levels in primary schools, namely lower primary (Standards 1 to 4) and upper primary (Standards 5 to 7). The lesson plans

that I sourced from the in-service teacher trainees were planned for a whole week and covered the following levels and standards:

- Lower primary: two Standard 1 classes,
- Upper primary – Standards 5, 6 and 7. I report on topics covered; the objectives of the lesson as reflected in the lesson plan; the activities or strategies planned for the topic and the resources (Teaching/learning aids) that were utilised to facilitate the lessons. I agree with Pokhrel (2006:99), who states that “Teachers create lesson plans to communicate their instructional activities regarding specific subject matter”, because the analysis of these documents was guided by the manner in which the teachers have drawn up the activities that reflect their strategies for the ‘specific subject matter’ planned for. The question concerns whether the activities that are planned for achieve the set objectives.

It is worth noting here that the lesson plans that are discussed in this section are not the plans for the lessons that I observed, which are discussed later in this chapter. The observed lessons had their own plans affecting the day for the observation. Logistical problems prevented visiting all participants, but it was possible to study a variety of lesson plans, because they could post them to me.

4.8.1 Lower primary English

In Standard One the medium of instruction is the vernacular, because the syllabus dictates that teachers use English as the medium of instruction from Standard Two (as recommended in the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE, 1994:59) See Chapter 2, sub-section 2.2.1.1. This is in consideration of the fact that a substantial number of pupils in Standard One will not have had exposure to English at pre-school level. The Primary English syllabus further states (2011:iii) that, “[i]n Standard One English should be taught as a subject only and activities should be predominantly oral, supported by pictures, chants, rhymes, songs, actions and physical response”. As stated in 3.6.2, rhymes and songs at least should lay the foundation for literature appreciation in later Standards.

4.8.2 Lesson plans for standard one

In the first lesson plan, the topic was *Language use* and the teacher trainees identified different objectives that addressed the four language skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing. The objectives covered nouns, verbs, adjectives and sentence construction. The lessons were planned

to cover a week, and they were accompanied by songs and rhymes as dictated by the syllabus. Resources included textbooks, real objects, pencils, word cards, picture cards and phrases on Manila paper. I found this to be a good plan for a Standard One class. However, I noticed that the teacher did not show how each objective was achieved through a milestone chart. In addition, the teacher did not complete the lesson evaluation, which should communicate whether the lesson plan was successfully implemented or not.

The activities reflected the communicative language teaching approach, for they were learner-centred. The teacher acted as a facilitator in the lesson. For instance, for the objective in one of the Lower primary lesson plans, which was *Describe drawings and pictures in their own words*, the teacher provided the pictures, and the pupils talked about the pictures and linked them to some sentence strips, thus ending up describing the pictures in their own words.

In the second lesson plan for Standard Ones (see Appendix I), the teacher trainee had also planned for Setswana language lessons covering a week. The skills acquired from these lessons, though in Setswana, would be applicable to an English language lesson. The topic was stories and the objectives were well stated. The objectives for the lessons were to enable the pupils to *Follow the sequence of events in a story; recall the sequence of events read from a given story; identify events in the story in the correct sequence; complete a simple unfinished story and play traditional games*. The teacher included the lesson evaluation: “Most of the pupils were able to sequence events and play traditional games.” This lesson plan also reflected a learner-centred approach under the activities, and the teacher acted as a facilitator, too.

The second Standard One lesson plan discussed above demonstrated some PCK on the part of the teacher trainee because she referred back to the lesson objectives in her evaluation of the lesson. The success of the lessons relied substantially on the teacher’s role as a facilitator. According to Aleksandrowska (2015:141), the teacher, in helping pupils to engage successfully with the stories that they are given, proves that he/she is familiar with the level of the pupils’ command of the language and therefore selected stories that are not far beyond their competence.

4.9.1 Upper primary

The Upper Primary English syllabus is for Standards 5 to 7 and provides for transition into Junior Secondary level. The objectives are also set out under the headings of the four basic skills, just as

in the Lower primary English syllabus. Teachers, as mentioned above, are expected to treat all four language skills as interactive: “They should be addressed in an integrated way so that they support and reinforce each other” (Upper Primary Syllabus, 2011:2)

4.9.2 Lesson plans for Upper Primary English

I analysed a Standard Five lesson plan on stories and conversations, in which the objective was to identify the subject or theme of a story or passage. The activities in the plan did reflect some strategies mentioned in the interviews. The pupils started reading silently the passage on their own, followed by the class reading loudly from the wall chart. Class discussion followed, then the teacher drilled learners on new words aided with clarifications and explanations. The pupils then answered oral questions to test their comprehension, and concluded the lesson with pupils stating the theme of the passage, and a written exercise on the passage for comprehension. However, the teacher did not add the lesson evaluation on the lesson plan. The identification of a theme in a story or passage is an element of PCK and when pupils are able to achieve the set objective, the in-service teacher will have demonstrated some PCK in this reading lesson. The teacher needed to include other activities to reflect on her PCK. To achieve the set objective, pupils could have discussed the story in depth, including activities such as predicting the end of the story; identifying themes from the story based on their own understanding and even discuss characterisation from information provided in the story. In my view, the story culminated in a comprehension exercise, and dwelt more on the development of vocabulary for the pupils.

The Standard Six lesson plan on stories and conversations had the objective of: *identify the major or minor characters in a story, passage or conversation*. Pupils again started by reading individually silently, followed by reading together loudly. The class then answered questions, and also identified the main and minor characters. Here the teacher displayed some PCK because elements of literature were applied and the pupils engaged in some characterisation. The lesson concluded with a written exercise, marking and corrections, but the teacher did not add the lesson evaluation. Identification of characters alone is inadequate for the requisite PCK for a literature lesson for this upper primary class. Pupils should be encouraged to form opinions on what they read by this stage. The pupils could be made to discuss and analyse the different characters, or even identify with them by expressing own feelings and opinions about them (See Chapter 2 , section 2.3).

4.9.3 Lesson plans for Standard Seven

Standard Seven is the final year in primary school and pupils reaching the end of this level sit for a Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) for transition to Junior Secondary School to do Forms 1-3.

The Standard Seven teacher trainee presented a lesson plan for poetry, with the following objectives: *to identify simile and metaphor in a poem, determine the theme of a poem, deduce the moral of a poem, compose a poem on a subject of interest*. These objectives were appropriate to the syllabus requirements, and also demonstrated PCK on the part of the in-service teacher trainee, because there was application of some elements of literature in teaching poetry to these ESL pupils. The activities were outlined as: reading, discussion, writing and reporting. The teacher trainee in the lesson evaluation wrote: “Well done, pupils were able to compose their own poems and share them with the class.”

Asking the pupils to identify simile and metaphor presented some PCK on the part of the teacher for the teacher attempted to apply elements of literature to the teaching of poetry. However, when the teacher mentioned the attainment of one objective, that of composing a poem, in the evaluation, I began to wonder whether the pupils identified the figures of speech in the poem successfully and determined the theme and moral of the poem.

I noted that this lesson plan fell short of unpacking the strategies involved in the discussion of the poem. It was not clear whether the in-service teacher trainee adopted the reading phases that were expected for the poetry lesson. The lesson evaluation also mentioned the achievement of only one of the objectives. I am tempted to conclude that the other objectives were not achieved. The trainee’s PCK in this lesson plan lacked detail and one can ask whether the teacher was able to equip pupils with the skills to read different types of literature, including poetry, independently for information and pleasure, as is dictated by the Primary English syllabus (2011:3).

- Analyse and evaluate information in a variety of written texts in order to form opinions and judgments
- Read critically to understand both the gist and specific details of texts read
- Analyse and evaluate information in a variety of written texts in order to form opinions and judgments
- Read critically to understand both the gist and specific details of texts read

- Analyse and evaluate information in a variety of written texts in order to form opinions and judgments
- Read critically to understand both the gist and specific details of texts read

4.9.4 Conclusions from lesson plans

Most of the planned lessons did not seem to have been implemented as expected. Some of the lesson plans looked as if they had been developed to satisfy a requirement, and serve as a record for presentation to supervisors. The in-service trainees did not provide enough detail to determine whether the plan could translate into adequate instructional material. The lesson plans included no supplementary comments about the evaluation of the lesson, and some showed no correlation between the syllabus and the lesson plan. However, some lesson plans did exhibit the application of elements of literature in the instructional activities, and a demonstration of PCK on the part of the in-service teacher trainees. The lesson plans for the upper primary classes showed some strategies that were mentioned in the interviews. This was reflected more in instances when the teacher discussed reading comprehension with the pupils. The reading was planned to involve both the teacher, and the pupils were accorded opportunities to read the passage in turns. In the lower primary lesson plans, the teachers did not use conversational charts to build sentences. Not even in a lesson planned for pupils to build words from pictures, did the teacher mention any use of charts as a strategy activity.

I received other lesson plans from some of the respondents that showed evidence of laxity. For instance, there was no correlation between the syllabus and the lesson plans. Some topics reflected in the lesson plans were not copied down in full as required by the syllabus, or had objectives that were not aligned with the topic. In my view, some of the teacher trainees lacked the appropriate PCK, otherwise they would not be making such errors in planning for their lessons. The two documents, the syllabus and the lesson plan, are meant to inform one another in order to uphold the standards set by the Ministry of Education & Skills Development. In some instances where the lesson evaluation slot was completed, the lesson plans had some positive impact on the ESL pupils. For example, the Lower Primary teachers, to some extent, laid the foundation for literature in the higher standards. In the first lesson plan the teacher included songs and rhymes, which would prepare the learners to identify and appreciate rhyme and rhythm in their study of poetry when in upper primary. In the second lesson they dealt with sequencing events of a story, which would prepare them for narrative structure and, to some extent, characterisation in a story.

The next section presents a discussion of the lesson observations, to reflect the strategies employed by the in-service teacher trainees in a bid to exhibit their literary and pedagogic knowledge as they teach reading and literature to their ESL pupils.

4.10 LESSON OBSERVATIONS

Four teachers were willing to have their classes observed. All of them were in the southern part of the country, and were chosen because of their proximity to my station. The choice was also influenced by time and distance constraints. However, I managed to observe a variety of reading lessons from lower to upper primary levels. The period that I chose to conduct the lesson observations also coincided with the end-of-year examination period for most primary schools, and even if I had wished to observe more participants, it would not have been possible. Three of the participants were in rural areas and one in an urban area. The purpose of the observations was to find out if there was any correlation between the lesson plans and implementation in the ESL classroom, and whether the lessons reflected any PCK on the part of the in-service teacher trainees. According to Marshall and Rossman (1995:8), observation methods are useful to researchers because they “[a]llow researchers to check definitions of terms that participants use in interviews, observe events that informants may be unable or unwilling to share...and observe situations informants have described in interviews”.

In the interviews, the teacher trainees mentioned a number of strategies that they claimed to have adopted in their lessons. Therefore, their classrooms as study sites were ideal settings to conduct the observations.

4.10.1 Physical environment for observational data

The lessons were representative of both lower and upper primary levels. In all the classrooms that I visited, the teacher trainees had pasted pictures, posters with pupils’ written work, subject-related charts and other sources of information on the walls to enhance pupils’ learning. In lower primary, the pictures included pupils’ drawings in colour or paintings, syllable charts and conversational posters (See Appendix J). In all schools visited, the pupils in the classrooms sat in groups of 5 to 6 around tables or at individual desks. In my view, all settings were conducive to learning.

4.10.2 Activities and interactions in the setting (Content)

In this section I report on the activities observed in covering the content of the lessons. The findings from the lesson observations are reported per respondent, who will be presented as teacher A, B,

C and D. The data were recorded in field notes for reporting the description of what was observed. I used a template to record the notes. In the discussion below, I first present a narrative account of the lesson before I discuss the strategies and teacher PCK.

4.10.2.1 Teacher A – 1-hour lesson

On March 4 2015, I went to one village in the south of Botswana to observe Teacher A teaching Standard 5 Reading comprehension. The class comprised of 30 pupils, and the walls had pictures and charts pasted on them, as described in subsection 5.10.1, above, to enhance pupils' learning. This teacher trainee had 20 years' teaching experience.

The objectives of the lesson were as follows: *Read for enjoyment, form images while reading, assess actions of characters, identify figurative language in a story and identify new vocabulary from a written text.* The reference materials were English Pupils Book - Standard 5 (published by Collegium) and the chalkboard.

The reading comprehension exercise commenced with pupils reading the story on their own, and identifying new words as they read, followed by the class reading paragraph by paragraph. As the pupils were reading, the teacher walked around the class to help individuals with the pronunciation of difficult words. Some of the words identified by the pupils as difficult were 'groaning' and 'hurt'. The class discussed the meaning of the identified 'difficult' words in context. Subsequent to a number of attempts to determine the meaning of the words by the pupils, the teacher gave them the correct meaning in context and wrote the answers on the chalkboard. The pupils read the correct meaning of the words written on the chalkboard aloud, presumably to enhance their comprehension and pronunciation accuracy.

In appreciating the story, the pupils were asked to give a summary of the story, which they did successfully. Then the class discussed the characters in the story. The class listed the characteristics of the main character (Thuso). In group work, the pupils discussed their different feelings towards the different characters in the story, and thus were able to form images while reading in order to enhance their comprehension of the story. The comprehension questions were discussed orally by the class, and pupils were able to identify figurative language in the story and to explain the meaning.

The teacher gave very positive feedback to the pupils throughout the discussion of the story, in instances where pupils gave answers in the vernacular they were encouraged to translate to English. I found this lesson very intriguing and the teacher trainee exhibited PCK, because elements of literature (characterisation, imagery) were infused in this language and reading lesson and there was evidence of reader response, since the pupils discussed their interpretations in their groups. Furthermore, Teacher A enhanced pupils' comprehension of the story with pupils' daily experiences. The strategy of first reading the story by themselves, then together and repeating the answers after the teacher had also boosted pupils' motivation and interest in the story. All objectives that were planned for the lesson were achieved at the end of the lesson.

4.10.2.2 Teacher B - 1-hour lesson

This teacher was in the same village as teacher A. Both taught Standard 5, but in different schools, and teacher B had 19 years' teaching experience. In this classroom there were 35 pupils, and various sources of information were also pasted on the walls.

The lesson was on reading comprehension, about 'Cattle', and the objectives were: *Constructing full sentences in answering questions; identify new vocabulary from a written text and to identify general details from a text read* (See appendix K). The reference materials were English Pupils Book for Standard 5, chalkboard and reading cards. Although the reading material cannot be seen as literature, because this was a non-fiction text I wanted to see how the teacher conducted a reading comprehension lesson. The strategies employed by the teacher were meant to enhance pupils' reading skills and build vocabulary, skills that they need for literature classes too. The exercise would also indicate the extent to which the in-service teacher trainee displayed PCK in her teaching of a reading exercise, since teaching literature depends on the effective teaching of reading.

The reading of the passage commenced with pupils reading in turns, sentence by sentence. Then the teacher did the second reading with the whole class reading after her. After completing the reading, the teacher asked questions on the pupils' knowledge of the topic of the passage. In terms of current reading research, Ahmad, (2006:69) suggests that this discussion should have come before the reading of the passage. Some pupils ended up giving answers from information that they read from the passage. The pupils then were asked to read the passage for the third time, this time individually and silently, and were advised to identify new words as they read. From my

observation, it was evident that some pupils were really struggling to read. When the class read together in a chorus, the poor readers tended to just mumble the words without understanding. This was confirmed by the failure of the ‘mumbling’ pupils to give correct answers.

The comprehension exercise was discussed by the class, pupils encouraged to answer in full sentences and to give the meanings of words in context. The reading cards presented difficult sentences that were difficult to read, which were extracted from the passage, and the teacher selected the weaker pupils to read the cards out loud to the class. The pupils were really struggling to read, and displayed a lack of comprehension of what they were reading, because some failed to give the correct answers in instances where they were asked questions on comprehension.

I observed that the pupils did not display any enthusiasm about the passage they were reading in this lesson, and some concepts seemed very abstract for the majority of the class. Pupils, for example, could not distinguish the importance of cattle to the economy and culture of Botswana.

Both teacher A and B completed their comprehension lessons successfully. However, I observed that neither lesson followed all the pre-reading stages of reading comprehension as espoused below by Ahmad (2006:69):

- Providing scaffolding to help students understand text
- Discuss pictures/activities to activate prior knowledge of the text
- Vocabulary preview to prepare students for unknown words

Both teacher trainees engaged pupils in the vocabulary preview only, and did not provide scaffolding to facilitate pupils’ comprehension. Scaffolding is a prerequisite to improve pupils’ reading skills. When observed in the ‘reading’ stage, trainee teachers tended to explain the meaning of the text more than allowing the pupils to employ reading strategies to work out the meaning on their own. Teachers with sufficient PCK and curricular knowledge would apply other techniques like skimming and scanning as suggested in the syllabus to improve pupils’ comprehension. Both teachers demonstrated literary PCK by adopting literature elements in their lessons. I would argue that teacher A surpassed the other. She probably had an advantage because of the fictional text that allowed her to apply literature and relate the story to the pupils’ daily experiences to the discussion of the text. However, Teacher B did not elicit any prior knowledge of the text; a strategy that is

also important in teaching literary reading. I also observed that teacher A's class had better readers and they showed more enthusiasm in their reading and participation in the lesson than the second group.

4.10.2.3 Teacher C – 1-hour lesson

Teacher C was in another rural area in the south of Botswana, teaching Standard 6. The topic for the lesson was poetry and the objectives were as follows: *“Understand and develop interest in poetry, read and appreciate poetry, identify rhyming words in a poem, discuss the structure of a poem, discuss vocabulary related to poetry and determine mood and emotions in a poem.”*

The teacher trainee wrote the poem on a poster, entitled “Upside down cake” by I. Choonara. The teacher started by finding out what knowledge pupils had about poetry. The pupils attempted to define poetry, and the teacher then gave them the definition, and the structure of a poem and how it was different from prose (written in stanzas).

The reading of the poem was done by different pupils, each reading a stanza aloud. All the readers displayed good reading ability. Then the class discussed the questions based on the poem. The pupils actively participated in the class discussion and it was evident that they appreciated the selected poem. They also displayed familiarity and comprehension of the elements of poetry, because of the way they responded to questions. For instance, pupils were able to identify the rhyming words and figurative expressions in the poem. The teacher explained that these devices helped to enhance the beauty of poetry, thus making it a piece of art. Furthermore, the teacher trainee exhibited some confidence in teaching poetry, and achieved all objectives planned for the lesson.

However, I observed that the teacher did not discuss the meaning of the overall poem with the class. The lesson focused more on the poetic devices. In my view, asking the pupils simple comprehension questions based on the poem denied them an opportunity to reflect on the message conveyed by the poem, and to improve on their ability to respond personally to literature and to realise that there is not only one meaning in a text. This lesson would have reflected more PCK if the teacher had also allowed the pupils to read and to appreciate the poem by allowing them to discuss the poem based on their own interpretations and understanding, and not imposing her views and concepts on the pupils. My sentiments underpin the Reader Response theory as discussed in

Chapter 2, sub-section 2.5.6, which advocated for teachers allowing their students to personally respond to literature and to appreciate that there was more than one interpretation to a literature text. Mitchell (1993:41) reiterates that, as students justify their interpretations, this stimulates their analytical skills.

4.10.2.4 Teacher D – 1-hour lesson

This teacher trainee, with 24 years of teaching experience, teaches Standard 1, in an urban area in the south of Botswana. She taught 36 pupils. The topic of the lesson was on reading – *Breakthrough to literacy* in Setswana. This class is the beginning primary education for a child, where the love for reading commences. Although the lesson was in the vernacular, it impacted on the development of pupils' basic reading skills, and the elements of PCK are still relevant at this stage in the pupils' education. The in-service teacher trainee is expected to display not only curricular knowledge, but also knowledge of subject matter. Where the teacher is successful in developing positive attitudes towards reading extensively, the pupils will be confident in their reading and be eager to immerse themselves in books as they progress with their primary education.

The objectives of the lesson were as follows: *Understand phonemic and graphemic correspondence in words and sentences, sound out Setswana short words with ba, go, lo, ya, di, jo, gae. Follow left to right sequence of print/writing, recognize initial, end consonant and short vowel sounds in CVC (consonant vowel consonant) words as in 'gae', write clearly and legibly.* The reference materials included word cards, syllable chart and conversational poster.

This Standard One lesson started with singing of songs, pupils repeating the song after the teacher. The class then discussed questions based on the content of the songs. Many pupils answered the questions well. The songs served as ice breakers but did not provide context for the subject matter planned for the lesson. The teacher then divided the class into two groups. One group reading, while the other group practised writing out a sentence in their exercise books. The reading group was then given a sentence pasted on the chalkboard: "Bagolo ba apaya dijo mo gae." (The elderly are cooking food at home.) One pupil was asked to read out the sentence, while the rest of the class repeated the sentence. A number of pupils were given an opportunity to lead the class in reading the sentence aloud.

In the next step, the teacher wrote the same sentence on the chalkboard and asked the pupils to paste the word cards on the chalkboard under the same word, to check whether they could read the words in isolation. The majority of the pupils could read the words and placed them correctly. The words were further divided into syllables and the pupils were requested by the teacher to read each syllable, while others repeated the reading. Then each pupil was given the different syllables to form the words found in the original sentence. The pupils were then requested by the teacher to identify the syllables that form the words in the sentence from a chart, to build the sentence again. The pupils demonstrated comprehension of the phonemes, and they were all given a chance to lead the group in reading the sentence.

At the end the pupils were asked to write out the sentence in their exercise books, and to ensure that they observed the appropriate spacing between words and observed capital and small letters as they wrote.

Meanwhile, the other group was busy with a different sentence: “Ke bona nnana a lela” (I can see a baby crying). The teacher wrote the sentence on lined paper for pupils to copy out on the paper on which the teacher had written. Pupils had to distinguish between ‘small’ and ‘capital’ letters in writing. In addition, pupils had to employ appropriate spacing between words. A few pupils struggled to write clearly and legibly. However, most pupils acquired left to right and top to bottom orientation in writing. This was an exercise on writing, but it still entailed some reading of the given sentence, although it, like the other sentence, also had no link to the songs that introduced the lesson.

In terms of PCK, the in-service teacher trainee followed the syllabus guide on teaching Standard Ones. The lesson was accompanied by songs, word cards, the syllable chart and a conversational poster. However, she could have strengthened the narrative structure of the two sentences by linking the two stories and creating a context for them. For instance, why the elderly are cooking, or why the baby is crying. Involving the pupils in a strategy that causes them to predict what would happen next in the story is vital for the in-service teacher trainee to help the pupils engage with and understand aspects of literature at the beginners’ level in preparation for the Upper English syllabus.

In both cases, a link could have been made to stories, for example by elaborating on why the elderly were cooking food or why the baby was crying. The teacher could strengthen narrative structure by asking, “What will happen next?” Such prediction strategies are vital to understand and engage with literature at higher levels of primary school.

4.11 CONCLUSION: TRENDS AND PATTERNS REVEALED IN THE FINDINGS

In these preceding sections, I investigated the beneficial role of literature studies by in-service teacher trainees in their teaching of the English language to ESL learners in Botswana primary schools. This chapter presented a report on the results and a discussion of the findings. The findings revealed the extent to which the in-service teacher trainees who participated in this study followed the Primary English curriculum in their teaching, particularly with regard to preparing and developing ongoing engagement with literature. In terms of the curriculum objectives, I discussed the classroom decisions they made with regard to their subject content knowledge and PCK acquired from their training.

The in-service teacher trainees ought to adopt a positive attitude towards literature as a subject, by displaying a love for reading. When they develop a passion for reading, they can encourage similar behaviour in their pupils. This could be achieved by employing particular strategies and habits while they teach their pupils in the ESL classrooms. When this happens in the classroom, the extent to which they display PCK in their teaching of Literature will be reflected in their lesson plans and in the actual lessons. The research problem that drove this study asked the following questions with regard to the in-service teacher trainees’ role in teaching reading and literature in the ESL classroom.

- What are teacher trainees’ attitudes towards literature as a subject?
- What strategies do they employ to cultivate love for reading in pupils?
- What strategies do they use to inculcate a culture of reading?
- To what extent do they display PCK in their teaching of literature?

The answer to these questions should provide a comprehensive response to the overarching question, which was: What role (if any) does literature play in the studies and classrooms of in-service English language teacher trainees?

The Primary English curriculum that the trainees have to teach is divided into two syllabi, Lower and Upper primary. In the lower primary syllabus the emphasis is on equipping pupils with reading and writing proficiency, and in the final year of this level (Standard Four), they are expected to show awareness of different genres and of character and dialogue in stories. Then, at upper primary level, the syllabus (2011:3) states that the pupils are expected, by the end of Standard Seven, to have further developed the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing to be able to “Read independently for information and pleasure different types of literature, including poetry, drama and prose within a basic vocabulary level of 2000 words”.

However, it is important to note that the Primary English syllabus does not indicate any list of literary texts to be studied by the pupils. The teachers are expected to infuse literature teaching through the reading materials of their choice, including poetry, drama and prose. Generally, literature lessons at primary school level are regarded as reading lessons.

The findings show that, although the teacher trainees do engage in leisure reading, they were not really avid readers. Their emphasis was on reading newspapers, magazines and novels, as could be seen from what they communicated in the questionnaires and interviews. For the teachers to encourage their pupils’ reading habits, they must become models of reading themselves to show their pupils that they value and enjoy reading. The teacher trainees’ INSET curriculum that included literature studies without ensuring that literature texts are actually read, has had a significant impact on their teaching practices. They did not emphasise, nor share, leisure reading with their pupils, which was worsened by the inadequate resources available for them to inculcate a reading culture in their pupils.

More depressing from these findings is that, although teacher trainees employed varied strategies in order to develop their PCK according to the needs of their pupils, they still fell short of serving as a primary source for pupils’ understanding of reading for leisure and did not develop a positive attitude towards reading literature. For instance, the in-service teacher trainees did not encourage their pupils to register for membership of national libraries, in order to embrace the free resources at their disposal. By and large, they left it to the learners to bring materials to class.

Other data yielded from the lesson observations depicted different types of PCK that the in-service teacher trainees lacked, including PCK in terms of literary knowledge and pedagogic knowledge.

For instance, the Standard One teacher failed to link the two sentences that she assigned the pupils to read and write. These disparate sentences were not linked to the song that introduced the lesson either. In other words, no context was created. Even though the lesson was a Setswana lesson at the lower level of primary school, the teacher was supposed to lay the foundation for the appreciation of literature. Pupils should be allowed to deduce meaning by themselves from the literary contexts that they interact with. For instance, the in-service teacher trainee who has literary knowledge and pedagogic knowledge should be able to link pre-reading activities to the context of the texts. This could be achieved by supporting the narrative structure and developing in the pupils an awareness of the elements of a story and, by extension, literary elements found in the texts, for example characters, themes and figurative language.

The teacher who taught an upper primary class was able to identify rhyming words and figurative expressions in the poem, but did not focus on an overview of the theme/s conveyed in the poem. For instance, if the teacher had pedagogic knowledge she could have discussed the meaning in the title of the poem itself, "*Upside down Cake*". She could have probed the pupils to discuss their understanding and the meaning that they assigned to the title, and thus be seen to be implementing the Reader Response theory as espoused by Mitchell (1993:42) (See Chapter 2, sub-section 2.5.6). If she did this, she would have allowed pupils to appreciate that literature is open to a variety of interpretations and not confined to only one interpretation.

The other observed lessons on reading comprehension reflected a lack of pedagogic knowledge. The reading lessons failed to implement the pre-reading stages of reading comprehension as espoused by Ahmad (2006:69) (sub-section 4.10.2.2, above). This lack of pedagogic knowledge therefore caused the teachers to pay very little attention to the pupils who were struggling to read. Poor reading skills impact on pupils' comprehension of what they read and cannot be a good motivator to encourage pupils to become avid readers. In addition, the attainment targets of the Lower Primary syllabus emphasise the process of equipping pupils with reading skills (Chapter 2, section 2.3). Pupils, as stipulated in the Primary English syllabus, are also expected "to read with fluency, accuracy and understanding both for information and pleasure" (2011:(v)). Therefore, the teachers need to employ a variety of strategies in order to develop their PCK according to the needs of their pupils. Shulman comments that all learners should be included, regardless of their varied capabilities and educational backgrounds (1987:6).

In some instances, the in-service teacher trainees' lesson plans observed did not indicate any correlation between the syllabus and the content. Some lesson plans tended to be drawn up to satisfy requirements for records by supervisors, and not to guide the instructional material for the planned lesson. The findings also revealed lesson plans without comments about the evaluation of a lesson, which should report on the attainment of the set objectives on the lesson plan.

I have gained pertinent insights from the data and I will discuss the interpretations of the results of the study further in terms of the literature and the theory that underpins the study in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 4, I presented the data that were collected in this research study in response to the following research purpose:

The purpose of this study is to determine primary school in-service teacher trainees' reading experiences, habits and practices, in order to assess the extent to which literature teaching is integrated and appreciated in the English studies component of the curriculum.

The overarching research question was: What role does literature play in the studies and classrooms of in-service English language teacher trainees?

The sub-questions were as follows:

1.1 What are the literature requirements for in-service teacher trainees who are upgrading their qualifications for English language teaching?

1.2 What are trainees' attitudes towards literature as a subject?

1.3 What are the reading patterns for the teacher trainees?

1.4 What strategies do the teacher trainees employ to inculcate the love for literature

and a culture of reading in their lessons?

1.5 To what extent do teacher trainees exhibit Pedagogical Content Knowledge (PCK) in their teaching of literature to ESL learners?

This final chapter in the study presents a summary of the main findings and the contributions of the current investigation to teacher professional development in the local context. The interpretation of the results is presented further in terms of the literature and the theory that underscored this study. I also identify the limitations of the study and conclude with recommendations that have emerged from the investigation.

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

The driving force behind this study was the desire to understand and determine the in-service teacher trainees' reading experiences, habits and practices in the context of teaching literature to

ESL learners. The theory that underpinned this study was that of Shulman (1986) on Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK).

I employed multiple resources to collect qualitative data. This was to ensure a balanced overview of teacher attitudes, knowledge and classroom practices. Although the data collection used a variety of methods, the study relied more on the qualitative data, for the main purpose was to determine and characterise in-service trainees' reading habits and practices and their impact on the teaching of literature to ESL learners in the context of Botswana Primary schools. The data from the questionnaires served to direct the qualitative data in the form of interviews, lesson plans and lesson observations. The data revealed the extent to which in-service teacher trainees were limited in their scope and yet were expected to implement the primary school curriculum in their teaching in terms of the Primary English syllabus objectives. In addition, data indicated the classroom decisions that they adopted with regard to content knowledge and PCK acquired from their training curriculum.

The purpose of the qualitative data, as mentioned in the preceding chapter (section 4.3.1), was to enhance the evaluation of the strength of the subject matter that the in-service teacher trainees had acquired in their training for DPE-DE. The data revealed the extent to which the teachers articulated their knowledge about teaching literature to their ESL learners, and, in exhibiting their knowledge of the curriculum, according to Shulman (1987:6), were “[a]ble to transform content knowledge into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variety of student abilities and background”.

In the next section of the chapter I discuss the answers to the research questions that guided the study.

5.3 LITERATURE REQUIREMENTS FOR IN-SERVICE TRAINING

The DPE-DE entry requirements do not stipulate any background of literature studies. The requirements for in-service training focus mainly on the Botswana General Certificate on Secondary Education (BGCSE) with credits in at least two subjects (see Section 4.4.2.1). Emphasis is not even on a credit in English, but a pass in English suffices, which, in BGCSE, is grades D and E. The findings revealed that all the teacher trainees sampled for this study had good grades

for English in their school-end examinations. Twelve had scored a C grade, five recorded B, one scored a D and only one failed to get a pass in her English examination.

The admission requirements indicate that trainees can qualify for DPE-DE without any background studies in literature at secondary school level. The DPE-DE English studies course includes a component of literature that is compulsory because the curriculum aims at “[p]roducing teachers whose spoken and written English is of high standard and will be good models for their learners...and sufficiently grounded in the English language and literature teaching methods” (2009:76). However, data indicated that some of the teacher trainees were exposed to literature studies for the first time in their DPE-DE studies. These teacher trainees were exposed in their training curriculum to subject matter related to literature, but they managed to complete their studies without reading any literary texts beyond the synopses provided in their lecturer-generated manuals.

The curriculum that they are expected to teach to the ESL primary pupils basically relegates literature teaching to developing reading skills for there is no requirement for specific literature texts. However, the expectation is that the seeds that will bear fruit in the form of a reading culture will have been sown by this level, should teachers see reading aspects in the curriculum from that perspective. At the upper primary English syllabus (Standards 5 to 7) level, the teachers are expected to teach pupils to distinguish literature genres by applying elements of literature to pieces of reading that pupils come across, for example stories, plays, dialogue, drama, short stories and poetry, and demonstrating awareness of character and dialogue in stories. In contrast, in the lower primary syllabus (Standards 1 to 4) emphasis is on equipping pupils with reading skills, such as reading with fluency, accuracy and understanding by reading aloud or silently from a text and showing understanding. The reading of different genres should culminate into story-telling and awareness of rhythm and rhyme by the pupils, which is the start of a love of literature being strengthened right from lower primary.

In view of this ‘status’ of literature in the primary school English syllabus, my findings in the context of this study, as stated in Chapter 4, section 4.3.1, indicate that PCK in teaching literature to ESL pupils in primary schools is under-developed; both in terms of developing teachers’ ability to read and analyse literature themselves and in terms of transforming subject matter for teaching (in the form of PCK). The teacher trainees’ attitude towards literature as a subject, their reading

habits and practices came into sharp focus. Their reading patterns are expected to impact on their pupils' love for and engagement with reading, which should culminate in inculcating a love of literature and reading in their pupils. The subsequent section presents the attitudes of the in-service trainees towards literature as revealed by the data from this study.

5.4 IN-SERVICE TEACHER TRAINEES' ATTITUDES

Data collected for this aspect of the study indicated mixed feelings among the respondents. A negative attitude was reflected in the interviewees' response about the literature texts that they had studied at their diploma level. None of the respondents could remember the authors and the full titles of the texts they had studied six years previously. I argue that a positive attitude presumably would have them recall either the title or author, at least. The interviewees also stated one setback in the teacher trainees' literature studies at DPE-DE. Most mentioned that they had to discuss extracts or synopses of the literature texts in the instructional materials (modules). This strategy adversely affected teachers' PCK, for without reading the texts they did not adequately apply the elements of literature to the study of the whole text. Trainees have to be encouraged to read the literature for them to develop analytical mind-sets and thus form personal opinions on the texts they read, instead of repeating opinions imposed on them by the lecturer or instructional materials. This opinion is echoed by Shulman (1987:9) (see chapter 1, sub-section 1.7.1) when he declares that teachers serve as a primary source of learners' comprehension of subject matter. This implies responsibility for acquiring a depth of understanding of the structures of the subject matter, and a positive attitude towards what is being taught and learned.

Therefore, it was not surprising that some of the respondents stated that they found their literature studies at the diploma level boring, mainly because of the absence of reading texts. Instead, they were expected to visit the College library to read the texts, and had to share the texts with the rest of their tutorial group. This was not done by the whole group, and the activity would end up being observed by a few enthusiastic members only. If these teacher trainees had been offered an opportunity to read literary texts, it would have sharpened their appetite for reading, and ultimately helped them to build and transfer their knowledge and experience to the pupils. In that way pupils would be better facilitated to adapt to the basic tenet of studying and enjoying literature: a passion for reading.

However, other teacher trainees had enjoyed literature tutorials and they said that content acquired from literature studies could be used in applying most of the syllabus objectives in Standard 5, for example, objectives under ‘Reading a story’. They acknowledged that they discussed characterisation; pupils were able to express their feelings about certain characters and ended up developing their analytical skills.

5.5 Reading patterns

The in-service teacher trainees’ reading habits and practices were also investigated. Both quantifiable and qualitative data revealed the extent to which the trainees engaged in leisure reading and whether they valued reading so that they saw the significance of developing a culture of reading in their pupils.

This study found that the respondents’ attitudes to leisure reading were generally positive. In their free time, the in-service teacher trainees read a variety of materials. These reading materials included novels, storybooks, newspapers and magazines (refer to Chapter 4, Table 4.2).

However, contrary to my expectations, the trainees did not show a positive attitude to encouraging their pupils to read for pleasure. None of the participants mentioned reading stories together with their pupils or sharing stories, be it from the literature texts that they studied for DPE-DE or from their own collections. Such actions would present the teacher trainees as role models to their pupils in terms of emphasis on the value of reading, because their pupils would presumably copy their reading behaviour. In Chapter 2 (section 2.10.2) I mention Applegate and Applegate (2004:555) who refer to the “Peter Effect” with regard to teachers’ attitude towards reading and its impact on their learners. Other researchers echo this sentiment. Sulentic-Dowell *et al.* (2006) posit that teachers who read for pleasure are more likely to engage in instructional practices that reflect their personal love of reading, such as inculcating model reading strategies; offering a wider choice in reading materials, and encouraging students to visit the school library to engage in reading.

On the other hand, the study’s findings indicate that some of the teacher trainees did share what they read with their pupils. They stated that the same materials that they read for leisure – magazines, newspapers and stories – were shared with the pupils in classroom library corners, and could also be found in the teachers’ home libraries. I would like to assume that this limited range of literary texts offered by the teacher trainees to serve as the primary source of reading materials

for their pupils had been influenced by their in-service teacher training experience in their literature studies. The absence of literary texts denied the trainees an opportunity to engage with literary texts and to express their different opinions and feelings about the characters. Teachers of literature ought to display a love for reading, and a determination to encourage similar habits in their pupils.

5.5.1 Resources for leisure reading

We need to note at this juncture that, despite the positive attitude reflected in some of the respondents' leisure reading, when investigating the availability of the resources that could afford their pupils access to reading, the in-service teacher trainees did not seem to make an adequate effort to become the primary source of their pupils' reading culture. For instance, in areas where there were National Libraries, the study did not reflect any encouragement on the part of the teachers for their pupils to register for library membership to develop a love of reading and literature, nor of the pupils, and to an extent the teachers themselves, taking advantage of the free resources offered by the national libraries. Instead, the teachers expressed their awareness of the pupils being more engaged with playing computer games in the libraries and not indulging in any productive reading, as expected from the teachers of English language and literature. In addition, the in-service teacher trainees had not established any working relationship with the national libraries on behalf of their schools. This study's investigation indicates a lack of appreciation of this resource by the in-service teacher trainees, and I assume they also did not register for membership of the libraries, but this area was not investigated in this study.

Other resources for accessing reading mentioned by the respondents included school libraries, which were not available at all schools. At the few schools that had such structures, teachers lamented the challenge of capacity and that, in such cases, they had to convert an under-utilised storeroom or some other room in the school to serve as a library. They had to deal with challenges involving libraries that were under-stocked and not spacious enough. It is evident here that school plans in Botswana Primary schools do not include library facilities, because schools are forced to convert other structures in the school to establish a library. When government at national level does not see the significance of improving the resources that will develop pupils' love for reading, then the teachers themselves become demoralised due to the limited resources that are at their disposal to implement the curriculum.

To address the challenges of limited resources for accessing reading materials for the pupils, most of the in-service teacher trainees had library corners in their classrooms. These were mostly stocked with magazines, newspapers and a few textbooks and storybooks (See photos in Appendix...C). In lower primary the library corners featured word cards, pictures and charts. This was one effort on the part of the teachers to encourage their pupils to read. They reported pupils' enthusiasm for selecting an item to read from the corner when they had completed a class exercise.

In the next section, I present the pre- and post-reading activities that teachers employed in their efforts to inculcate a culture of reading in the pupils.

5.5.2 PRE- AND POST-READING ACTIVITIES

The assessment of this intervention for the love of reading needs to be investigated. Data from the current study reveal that pre-reading tasks were inadequate. The post-reading activities were characterised by pupils sharing stories that they had read and/ or writing book reviews. Unfortunately, the study's data collection method did not elicit records of this type of assessment. This type of activity could have provided evidence of library corners being effective resources in the development of a culture of reading in the ESL classroom. However, neither the lesson plans nor the classroom observations revealed activities of this kind. Teachers need to be more innovative and to engage pupils in a variety of post-reading activities, for example by getting pupils to role play the story that was read, or writing a letter to the main character expressing their feelings towards him/her. In this aspect of developing a personal culture of reading, the in-service teacher trainees did not reflect knowledge of the curriculum, because the general objective of developing a reading culture has specific objectives in all standards that the teachers ought to have assessed in engaging their pupils in extensive reading. For example, specific objectives for standard 4 include the following: (Primary School Syllabus, (2011: 30)

- Select and read independently different texts for interest and enjoyment
- Demonstrate awareness of character and dialogue in stories
- Read for investigation, discovery and general knowledge

In exhibiting their PCK, teachers should demonstrate some of these objectives in their assessment and in the reading materials that they present to the pupils. The findings indicate that the assessment of pupils' extensive reading was based mostly on retelling and sharing stories read with their peers. The in-service teacher trainees also mentioned the writing of book reviews as one

of the post-reading activities, but there was no evidence of this in the lesson plans or in the observed lessons. Moreover, from my experience as a teacher, I know that this is one activity dreaded by pupils, and therefore teachers need to be more innovative and engage pupils in less laborious and more interesting post-reading activities such as the following:

- Reading aloud to the class interesting/exciting parts from the book
- Writing a letter to the author about a certain character
- Keeping a ‘vocabulary’ notebook to record interesting words and useful expression that they could use in their writing of compositions.

In the next section I discuss other strategies adopted by in-service teacher trainees in their teaching of literature in the ESL classroom that were revealed in the findings.

5.6 STRATEGIES EMPLOYED FOR TEACHING LITERATURE

Data from this study revealed a variety of strategies employed by in-service teacher trainees in their ESL classrooms, and have shown that the teaching of literature in primary schools resulted in equipping pupils more with reading skills than with the development of an awareness of literary texts. The expectation is that teachers infuse literature teaching through the reading materials guided by the syllabus, including poetry, drama and prose. The skills in reading start right from Standard One with developing understanding of phonemic and graphemic correspondence in words and sentences and grasping narrative structure. The expectation is that the pupils by Standard Seven are able to use the different techniques of reading to access information and to read more challenging and demanding texts.

The strategies that were employed by the in-service teacher trainees in ESL classrooms to inculcate a culture of reading are discussed under the following themes:

- Reading comprehension
- Lesson plans for upper primary

5.6.1 Reading comprehension

The in-service teacher trainees employed strategies that not only reflected or demonstrated the strength of the subject matter that they had acquired in their in-service training for DPE-DE, but also showed how they articulated their knowledge of teaching literature to their pupils. In their

teaching they were supposed to “[b]e able to transform content knowledge into forms that are pedagogically powerful and yet adaptive to the variety of student abilities and background” (Shulman, 1987:6)

Data from the study indicate a common strategy for teaching Reading Comprehension. Most of the in-service trainees commenced the lesson with pupils reading on their own, and identifying new words as they read. Individual reading would either be followed by the teacher reading out loud, and the pupils repeating the reading in a chorus, or the pupils would read together in a chorus. Reading in a chorus affected pupils’ comprehension of the reading passage. I observed that some of the pupils were just mumbling without understanding. This was indicated by the failure to provide correct answers by these ‘mumbling’ pupils, who also displayed weakness in their reading ability.

Teacher A revealed positive appreciation of the story that she read with her class. The teacher successfully exhibited some PCK, for she infused elements of literature (characterisation, imagery, idioms) in a language and reading lesson. In addition, the teacher also enhanced pupils’ comprehension of the story by relating it to their daily experiences, which is one of the recommendations from the curriculum.

However, in another observed lesson, by Teacher B, the comprehension passage appeared to be too abstract for the pupils, because they did not display any enthusiasm for reading the passage. The strategy adopted here by the teacher was not very helpful. The teacher led the reading and had the pupils repeat in a chorus; then pupils were made to read a sentence each. The teacher did not check pupils’ comprehension of what they were reading at all while they were reading. Instead of assisting the pupils, she selected sentences that appeared to be difficult to read, pasted them on a poster and asked individual pupils to read, particularly the weaker readers. The ‘difficult’ sentences, therefore, were just read without comprehension. This teacher definitely could not adapt to the various abilities displayed by her pupils, in this case the ones who exhibited poor reading skills. Such adaptation could have been achieved if the teacher possessed the requisite PCK.

As mentioned in Chapter 4 (section 4.10.2.2), teacher trainees A and B both engaged their pupils in a vocabulary preview while reading. One significant finding about the teacher trainees’ strategies for reading comprehension is that they failed to provide scaffolding and follow even the

most obvious pre-reading strategies, such as discussion of the topic or prediction of the content. I argue that, if the in-service teacher trainees had mastered the relevant PCK and curricular knowledge, they would have realised that it is pertinent to apply techniques that are suggested in the syllabus, such as skimming and scanning in order to improve their pupils' reading comprehension and foster reader response.

5.6.2. Lesson plans for Upper Primary

In the lesson plans for upper primary Standards 5 to 7, most of the plans omitted comments indicating lesson evaluation. This section of the document is significant for it allows the teacher to reflect on the achievement of the objectives set down at the beginning of the lesson. It also informs the teacher of aspects of the lesson that needed to be reviewed. In a reading lesson, the teacher, through evaluation, will be able to assess whether the pupils were able to apply the reading strategies to help them analyse, for example, a poem. Reading strategies for poetry would include the following: Preview the poem and read it aloud a few times; visualising the imagery used in the poem; discussing new vocabulary in the poem; discussing the poem's theme and relating it to pupils' lives. The Standard 6 English Teacher's Guide (2005:11): stipulates the following strategies for the teaching of poetry

- Students should be allowed to explore poetry. For example, they should be allowed to talk about the style, the meanings and the devices used.
- Create their own poems
- Discuss poems they have read or heard
- Analyse how language has been used in the poem

The teachers' guide further emphasises (2005:20) the fact that

Poetry, like other forms of communication uses words. The bottom line in understanding poetry is in understanding the words both individually and collectively. It is important that both the teacher and the students analyse the poem by looking closely at what the poet is trying to say to them and how well he is saying it.

The in-service teacher trainees in their teaching of poetry should reflect knowledge of the curriculum guide, and be seen to be analysing the poem as is recommended. This will be a display of their PCK in teaching literature at primary school level.

I had the opportunity to observe a Standard 6 lesson on poetry, and the teacher did not fully display curricular knowledge in the teaching of poetry as stated above. The lesson dwelt more on the literal meanings of words and identification of rhyming words in the poem. The pupils were asked simple comprehension questions based on the poem. But the lesson was devoid of discussion of the overall meaning of the poem, which denied the pupils an opportunity to reflect on the theme of the poem. This would have improved pupils' ability to respond personally to literature and to discover that there is more than one interpretation to a literary text. This particular teacher displayed confidence in handling the teaching of poetry and achieved all objectives planned for the lesson. I argue that the teacher's lesson would have reflected more PCK, if the teacher had allowed the pupils to read, analyse and appreciate the poem. This could have been accomplished by allowing them to discuss the poem based on their own interpretations and comprehension, and thus fostering critical thinking and reader response techniques, rather than imposing her views and concepts on the pupils.

My sentiments are echoed in the principles of Reader Response as discussed in Chapter 2, subsection 2.5.6. Mitchell (1993:41) sounds the warning that teachers of English should refrain from displaying that they have mastered a text by eagerly sharing their opinions and interpretations with their students. "This 'telling' approach also short circuits two essentials of education – to help students become involved with their own education and to help them to think critically." One element of PCK for teachers of literature is to develop learners with a critical mind, and who appreciate that a piece of literature is not limited to one interpretation. The Upper primary English syllabus (2011:3) stipulates that pupils by the end of Standard Seven should be able to; "analyse and evaluate information in a variety of written texts in order to form opinions and judgements; to read critically to understand both the gist and specific details of texts read".

Mitchell (1993:41) further emphasises, and I agree with him, that, when students have to justify their interpretations of what they read, their analytical skills are stimulated and discussions that culminate into an interesting literature lesson are invoked.

5.7 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY TO THE CONTEXT OF READING AND TEACHING LITERATURE TO ESL LEARNERS

This study, with reference to all its areas of focus, has made an important contribution with regard to the teaching of literature to ESL pupils in the context of Botswana Primary Schools.

The study has created a detailed picture of the teaching of literature: starting with attitudes and ending with the classroom decisions that the in-service teacher trainees adopted in their ESL classrooms. The contribution of the study can be seen in two main areas: firstly conceptualising the development of literary awareness in children as early as in Standard One (whether that takes place in Setswana or in English) and, secondly, discovering the challenges of literature teaching practice.

Firstly, the study has exposed the significance of initial literacy development, even when it is in another language (Setswana), as the start of literature teaching. In this case what the pupils learn in Setswana in standard one should be applicable to English concepts. We need to note in particular that the lower primary level is usually focused on developing reading skills and comprehension (literacy): this is where the love of reading and literature starts.

Secondly, it is clear that there are challenges with regard to literature teaching practice in three areas: identifying problems with INSET training practices, highlighting teachers' attitudes to literature and showing the mismatch between attitude and teaching practice.

This study has exposed the dire situation of the teacher trainees' in-service training regarding the teaching of literature. The most shocking data that this study has yielded was the fact that the trainees' study of literature was focused more on the study of synopses of literary texts devoid of the actual reading and analysis of the texts themselves. One can hardly expect of such teachers to translate literary concepts into PCK if they had hardly gained any experience in analysing and evaluating full literary texts. I further argue that the study of literature that is devoid of literature texts greatly hampered their classroom decisions in terms of teaching literature to their ESL pupils. The in-service teacher trainees did not display a passion for reading, a behaviour which their pupils might have copied, thus they were unable to enhance their analytical skills. In addition, lack of infrastructural resources, such as libraries and other reading material resources, impacted greatly the teaching of Literature at primary school level in Botswana, in terms of teachers' content knowledge and PCK.

The strategies employed by the teachers reflect the impact (or lack thereof) of the INSET curriculum according to which these teachers were trained. This in-service training curriculum (2010:76) aims at producing teachers who are well grounded in English language and literature

teaching methods to enable them to select and grade materials that are sensitive to gender and other emerging issues. However, when they do not read the texts during their training, their chances of developing PCK for the teaching of literature is severely compromised.

As I have mentioned in Chapter 2 (section 2.4.), the teacher trainees require high-level proficiency in their subject knowledge base, which is English language and literature. They are faced with expectations to teach a language that is key to further study and is held in high regard by everybody in Botswana. To improve their proficiency, it is necessary that they become avid readers and also encourage the same culture in their pupils. While all the teacher trainees expressed positive attitudes in the questionnaire, their practice was often at odds with their professed attitudes.

Universally, the teaching of English language is often very instrumental and literature adds depth to the instrumental approach of language teaching. Cairney (2011: 8-9) has rightly pointed out (Chapter 1, sub-section 1.5.2) that literature does not only open up the world to its learners, but it also acts as a mirror to enable readers to reflect on life's problems and circumstances; a source of knowledge... an introduction to the realities of life and death; and a vehicle for the raising and discussion of social issues. In the case of English it is important to note that pupils can also access texts written in English from their own environment, and so they do not always confront a foreign culture in literary texts.

This current study has revealed that in-service teacher trainees should serve as a primary source of student comprehension of the subject matter in their teaching of literature. In displaying their PCK according to the needs of their pupils, the in-service teacher trainees must possess a depth of understanding of the structures of the subject matter, and possess a positive attitude towards literature. This will be reflected in the classroom decisions that they make in terms of their content knowledge and PCK while they teach literature to their pupils. This process starts in Setswana in Standard One, where pupils learn the basics of story and learn to make meaning of texts within a particular context.

The school context itself is not helping the situation regarding the scarcity of leisure reading resources, for most of the schools do not have libraries. The current study has indicated that both teachers and pupils lacked access to leisure reading material in this country, and therefore failed to be exposed to the benefits of reading extensively. It is important that the pupils, and by extension

their teachers, develop a culture of reading. The logical step is for government to provide reading resources in schools by allocating funds for schools to build libraries and not to convert under-utilised rooms into libraries with challenges of capacity and book supplies. Well-stocked libraries in schools would introduce the possibility of immersing pupils in the language they are learning because it would mean a large supply of books is available for extensive reading.

The study has revealed the need for teachers to improve their pupils' post-reading activities. These activities mostly comprised book reviews and narration of stories that had been read. The teachers need to assign more challenging tasks for their learners to teach them to read extensively and to develop a culture of reading in their schools.

A school with an improved culture of reading will have to put in place structures, such as libraries to provide resources for both intensive and extensive reading. Sustainability of these resources is key to the maintenance of the reading culture. This will culminate in pupils becoming avid readers and with assistance from their teachers will also enable them to experience enjoyable and meaningful post-reading activities that may include talking about what they read or dramatising the content of the books. The post-reading activities presumably would also improve pupils' proficiency.

5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS

The preceding section presented the contributions of the current study. In this section, the focus is on recommendations derived from the research results. The recommendations are suggestions for actions by the following sectors as determined by their roles in the professional development of teachers and the teaching of reading and literature to ESL pupils in Botswana Primary schools:

- Teachers
- Curriculum developers for in-service teacher training
- Primary English syllabus developers
- Botswana government and schools regarding resources for reading

5.8.1 Teaching reading/literature in primary schools: recommendations for teachers

I would like to reiterate what was stated in Chapter 2, section 2.4: teachers of English language and English literature have a heavy responsibility to teach a subject which has been allocated a very significant and prominent place in the Botswana Education system. English is not only the

official language, but is also the medium of instruction in schools for all other subjects except Setswana. It is worth noting that this trend is not only peculiar to Botswana, but is a global pattern. Teachers of English therefore need to be proficient in the language and need to have extensive knowledge of teaching reading and literature. The love of reading begins at primary school level for both Setswana and English, all teachers involved with the first three years of school, whether they teach Setswana or English, need to realise that they are laying the foundations for the appreciation of literature.

This means:

1. Teachers need to become avid readers and to acquire a positive attitude towards reading extensively. This is a precondition to inculcating a culture of reading in their pupils, and they should keep closer account of what their pupils read.
2. Teachers should adopt less laborious post-reading activities, so that the intensive study of texts as well as extensive reading in the ESL classroom becomes interesting and fun-filled for the pupils. In motivating the reluctant readers particularly, they should regularly monitor pupils' progress, but not necessarily as an assessment.

5.8.2 Recommendations for the Botswana Government and schools regarding reading resources

The data in this study have revealed the lack of school libraries in the majority of the schools investigated. In some cases, schools have had to convert under-utilised rooms, such as store rooms, into a school library, which posed the challenge of capacity and under-stocked libraries. Well-stocked school libraries would be a viable resource for accessing diverse reading materials for both the teachers and the pupils. The findings of study show that teachers were fully aware that their pupils did not take advantage of the free reading resources found in the national libraries by registering for membership, but instead occupied the libraries to just play computer games and not engage in any productive reading. They did not support learners to gain access to the library either. In addition, some of these participants did not see the need to share their set of readers with their pupils, but mostly relied on a classroom library corner, stocked mainly with newspapers and magazines which have limitations when it comes to inculcating a culture of reading in pupils.

This means:

1. The in-service teacher trainees should register for membership in national libraries, and encourage their pupils to follow suit.
2. Schools should develop a lucrative relationship with national libraries in their localities.
3. The Botswana government should prioritise the inclusion of library buildings in primary school plans. School libraries will assist the teachers in realising their efforts to inculcate a culture of reading in their pupils, and by extension may whet the teacher's appetite for reading.
4. Schools, English Departments in particular, should be allocated funds to purchase reading materials, so that teachers can stock and replenish stock in their library corners in the classrooms.

5.8.3 Recommendations for Curriculum developers

Other findings of the current study have revealed that the in-service teacher trainees are products of training that did not expose them to the reading of literature texts; instead they read and discussed synopses of texts in instructional materials (modules). This arrangement has adversely hampered their love of reading and development of PCK. This was evident in the interviews and in some of the lessons that I observed. In-service teacher trainees did not read literary texts during their training and their lessons were devoid of discussion of elements of literature and some strategies employed in the teaching of literature did not reflect curricular knowledge on the part of in-service teacher trainees. I argue that, if the teacher trainees had been given an opportunity to read literature texts, presumably their appetite for reading would have been sharpened and they would have developed extensive PCK. Ultimately this would have helped them to use teaching practices that inculcate an appreciation for reading in their pupils. By this means pupils would be better facilitated to adapt to the basic tenets of studying and enjoying literature. It was no surprise to note that some of the participants found their literature tutorials 'boring' because of the lack of reading texts in their studies.

The current study's data have revealed that in-service teacher trainees are dependent on a curriculum that does not emphasise the reading of literary texts in the DPE-DE studies. This means:

1. Studies in literature should include reading of texts, and I reiterate what I wrote in Chapter 2, section 2.5, that placing literature in the school curriculum is crucial, not only for teaching language structure and vocabulary, but because it also grants the readers of

literary texts an opportunity to gain insight into the diverse cultures that exist globally. Smit (2009:79) underscores this view by pointing out that “[r]eading of literary texts also provides an opportunity for reference testing of own beliefs against the background of a fictitious world”. The in-service teacher trainees have been involved in literature tutorials characterised by discussions of concepts and synopses found in the instructional materials, rather than in the literary texts as such.

2. I recommend a review of the curriculum, which will emphasise the reading of literary texts, discussion of elements of literature, and their application to reading texts. The list of prescribed literary texts must also be reviewed, and should include texts that are relevant to the 21st-century teacher.
3. There should be a review of the entry requirements for admission at teacher training colleges for Specialists in Languages; it should require background studies and a credit pass in English language and literature at Senior Secondary Level (BGCSE or equivalent). This, in my view, would target trainees who have basic knowledge of the tenets of language and literature, and thus improve on the facilitation and the appreciation of teaching the subject at Primary school level.
4. The Department of Teacher Training and Development (TT&D) should identify and introduce intervention programmes for teachers, in the form of workshops, or short-term refresher courses. These should focus on strategies for teaching literature in English as well as Setswana at primary school level.

5.8.4 Extensive Reading Programme: Recommendation for Primary English Syllabus developers

There are four important recommendations for the developers of the Primary English Syllabus.

1. The school curriculum should include extensive reading programmes that will not only improve pupils’ ability to read fluently and analyse texts, but will also sharpen their appetite for reading, which would nurture a life-long reading habit.

Examples of extensive reading programmes are: Silent Uninterrupted Reading Exercise (SURE); Drop Everything and Read (DEAR). These programmes ensure that pupils read from a wide variety of books and other materials (within their level of comprehension) in an environment conducive to sustaining a culture of reading in both Setswana and English. Renandya (2009:144)

proposes that, when pupils are exposed to a variety of reading materials, they become familiar with the different types of genres and thus become accustomed to reading for different purposes and in different ways.

2. The curriculum should advise that teachers, to show that they value reading, should read with their pupils to enable the pupils to copy their reading behaviour. The teachers could share their own reading with the pupils, allow the pupils to see them reading silently or even read aloud favourite portions from the books they read. This would avoid the “Peter Effect” mentioned in Chapter 2, section 2.9.1, to substantiate that teachers ought to be reading models for their pupils.
3. The Lower Primary English syllabus should focus more explicitly on elements of literary analysis. This should enable pupils at this foundational stage to understand the narrative structure of their readings, plot, theme and characterisation.
4. A list of texts should be provided in the Lower and Upper Primary syllabi to guide the teachers on catering for extensive and intensive reading for the different standards.

5.9 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted to establish the reading patterns of in-service teacher trainees studying for the Diploma in Primary Education by Distance Education (DPE-DE), and the impact of their English language studies on the teaching of literature to ESL pupils. I am aware that one main limitation of this study was the relatively small sample of trainees who participated in the study. The focus was on the DPE-DE 2008 cohort and those who specialised in languages only. By adopting the case study research design, it was possible for each participant to be representative of a bigger population. In addition, to ensure triangulation of the findings from this study, I employed the concurrent triangulation strategy by using both quantifiable and qualitative methods of data collection. The findings from the collected data, therefore can be safely regarded as representative of the general population of in-service teacher trainees for DPE-DE English language studies. I argue that the findings should be limited to Primary Education Training institutions only, as that is where the research was conducted because these offer similar courses, and have similar entry requirements and curricula. One more advantage of the focus on primary school level is that this

is where the love of reading begins for the pupils, and it is imperative that the in-service teacher trainees establish a firm foundation during the teaching of literature right from this level.

Another limitation to this study was time. In terms of studies, the in-service teacher trainees were not accessible when in the colleges during their residential sessions, which took place only during school vacations. The time tables for the sessions were usually packed with activities such as tutorials, submission of assignments, writing tests and examinations. I could only gain access to them when they had completed their studies, and were in schools. However, I still experienced constraints in terms of time, due to school calendars. Administering of questionnaires and conducting interviews in some instances coincided with test/examination periods in schools.

Distance was another factor that limited this research study. Primary schools in Botswana are spread out over a vast geographical area. This influenced the decision to conduct lesson observations for data collection in only one district, the southern district, because of its proximity to my duty station. This decision was also influenced by another constraint, namely the need to avoid the cost of transport to distant sites.

5.10 PERSONAL NOTE

The findings from this study indicate the frustrations of an in-service teacher trainee whose training was dependent on an inadequate curriculum that limited the teaching of literature to studying synopses, instead of the reading of literature texts. In post training the trainee is further disoriented by a school curriculum that emphasises development of reading skills while marred by lack of resources, particularly at lower primary level. The in-service teacher trainees were not involved in extensive reading in English and Setswana. Most of the trainees did not recognise the direct link between teaching ‘literature’ at lower primary and upper primary level. Some could not even develop awareness of narrative structure and characterisation through the reading materials that they read with their pupils. For example, one of the participants teaching lower primary pupils, introduced her lesson with a song, but her PCK did not enable her to realise that she could exploit the song further using it as an ice-breaker by focusing on literary elements in the song, such as rhythm and rhyme. If such awareness of literary terms were built into the curriculum, the in-service teacher trainees may become more aware of it in their teaching.

The in-service teacher trainees' data revealed that they were frustrated further by the lack of reading resources in their schools and in the vicinity. In cases where there was a school library, it came with challenges of space and low supplies of reading materials. In places where the facilities of the national library were available, the disappointing factor was that pupils preferred playing computer games rather than immersing themselves in the available free reading resources offered in the libraries.

The in-service teacher trainees were, therefore, limited in their classroom decisions to teach literature in their ESL classrooms. Their professional training on teaching literature through discussion of texts' synopses, adversely affected their efforts to inculcate a culture of reading and a positive attitude towards the reading and teaching of literature at primary school level. These attempts were even more dampened by the lack of resources on reading materials.

5.11 CONCLUDING REMARKS

The current study explored the reading experiences, habits and practices of in-service teacher trainees in primary schools in Botswana, in order to assess the extent to which literature is integrated and appreciated in teaching their ESL pupils. The theoretical point of departure was Shulman's (1986:5) concept of Pedagogical Content Knowledge which proposes that "[t]eachers need pedagogical knowledge, deep knowledge of the subject itself, and knowledge of curricular goals and available materials".

In the context of this study, I interpreted PCK in the teaching of literature to ESL pupils in primary schools as a focus on the strategies that the in-service teacher trainees employed to transform the subject matter of teaching (Reading comprehension and literature genres), and how they articulate their knowledge in teaching literature to their pupils. In chapter 1, section 1.7, I mentioned that Shulman's concept of PCK is articulated through responses to the following questions: (Shulman 1987:1);

- What are the sources of the knowledge base for teaching?
- In what terms can these sources be conceptualized?
- What are the processes of pedagogical reasoning and action?
- What are the implications for teaching policy and educational reform?

It is clear from this study that the source of the knowledge base (teacher trainees INSET programme) did not lay a foundation for a solid knowledge base. This problem has a knock-on

effect with regard to all the other questions. It is difficult to harness such sources if they are not available. Therefore, pedagogical reasoning and action are flawed. The implications for teaching policies and educational reform cut across government resources, curriculum development and teacher empowerment, as discussed under the recommendations.

The study has established that the problem of teachers acquiring appropriate PCK for teaching reading and literature to ESL pupils is a global one. The teachers of the English language are all faced with the teaching of a language that is very instrumental towards access to a wider world, and when integrated with literature it needs to be converted to appropriate PCK. The study has shed some light on the attitudes to leisure reading and studies in literature as a subject as revealed by in-service teacher trainees, which have been identified as barriers to their pupils developing and sustaining a positive attitude towards reading. The in-service teacher trainees' practices and habits in their ESL classrooms have hardly corroborated their claims of positive perceptions and attitudes towards leisure reading. Participants in the current study have not shown positive encouragement of their pupils to love reading. The teachers must also be role-models to their pupils and display a love of reading and that they value reading. This will be modelled by teachers sharing their reading with their pupils, and by allowing the pupils to see them reading and exhibiting a passion for reading.

The study further determined whether the in-service teacher trainees' attitude towards literature as a subject could have influenced their reading patterns and encouragement of their pupils to also love and engage with reading. At primary school level, language teachers universally are tasked with laying a foundation for the appreciation or love of reading. The requisite PCK for the teachers to lay this foundation depends on their training and their attitudes towards the subject. Training should equip them with the subject matter, curricular knowledge and how to translate the subject content into appropriate instructional material, as is advocated by Shulman (1986) (discussed in Chapter 1, section 1.7). This would be determined by the strategies that the teachers employ for their ESL lessons, coupled with particular habits.

The study revealed that the in-service teacher trainees lack the requisite habits and practices of a teacher of literature. They did not create the impression of being enthusiastic readers, nor were they very enthusiastic about sharing their reading with their pupils. Teachers must display a love of reading to develop a culture of reading for the pupils. The value that teachers attach to reading

should be visible to their pupils for them to copy and be inspired to engage in insightful involvement in their literature lessons.

The data also depicted shortcomings on the part of in-service training, which were traceable to the curriculum according to which trainees are trained without reading literature. In my view, studies of literature that were devoid of reading texts denied the trainees an opportunity to apply critical thinking in analysing the texts. This was an anomaly that was transferred to their teaching of literature in that they did not see the importance of also fostering critical thinking in their pupils besides discussing figurative language in literature. This lack of the requisite PCK in teaching literature in their ESL classrooms was influenced further by the scarcity of resources for leisure reading: primary schools are without libraries and, the teachers fail to take full advantage of the free resources offered by the national libraries in places where these are available, because they do not encourage their pupils to register for membership. This means that extensive reading by both teachers and pupils remains a mirage.

The underlying conclusion from this study is that PCK is certainly not the main panacea for the teaching of literature to ESL learners. Teachers need to exhibit the habits and practices of their life-world in their classrooms.

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APPENDIX A: Newspaper Article



'English is all-important subject'

BY RACHEL RADITSEBE

Poor standards of English literacy in primary schools is largely to blame for the continued decline in performance results of Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE) and Junior Certificate Examinations (JCE), the Ministry of Education has accepted.

At a recent 'English Literacy Across Lower Primary Schools' workshop in Tlokweng, the Coordinator of the Department of In-service Teacher Training and Development, Atlarelang Pitso, said following a nationwide study, the ministry noted with dismay that English was not taught effectively at Standard One and Two. Pitso identified teacher methodology as a key problem.

"There can be no more important subject than English. Yet too many pupils fall behind in their literacy early (in the subject)," Pitso said, explaining further that children have to be able to read (English) in order to participate in school.

"There are long questions in Maths and science, text in history, Social Studies, English and other subjects and extracurricular activities. Students who cannot read well cannot even begin to succeed in these areas as they progress with their studies. Simply put, results are declining, mostly because children do

not have confidence in English." According to Recommendation 18 of the Revised National Policy on Education, English should be used as a medium of instruction from Standard Two. The workshop, which featured education officers from different regions, was geared at developing teaching material for Standard One and Two teachers of English as a language.

Said Education Officer from the Kweneng Region, Dikaelo Molatole: "The strategy is to develop the curriculum further and improve the teaching practices at schools." Molatole explained that the material is much more inter-active because it is learner-centered with a lot of emphasis on reading.

"It includes songs, rhymes and stories. This way, children get to be creative and do not rely only on teachers," Molatole said.

The improved curriculum was first introduced at Takatokwane Primary School in January.

Basadi Molatlhegi, a Standard One teacher at Monare Primary School in Thamaga, praised the project, saying although it was still on trial, it should improve language skills, especially speech, listening, reading and writing.

"Once they understand English, it will definitely make it easier with other subjects," she said.

APPENDIX B

TEACHING PLAN

WEEK ENDING: SUBJECT: English (Lesson 1) DURATION: 1hr
 TOPICS: Comprehension, Fluency PERIODS PER WEEK:
 REFERENCE MATERIALS: Year 2 syllabus page 22
 MAPER learners book page 11

OBJECTIVES: 3-4-11s Pupils should read aloud or silently as necessary

CONTENT	ACTIVITIES	TEACHING / LEARNING AIDS	LESSON EVALUATION
Reading It is Saturday morning. Mather is in the kitchen She is cooking	- sing a song: Mather is cooking. - Writing new words on the chalkboard and reading them - Building sentences with new words. - Reading other words in flash cards and sentences on strips. - Reading loudly in groups in the book then silently individually. - Asking and answering oral question from what was read.	Flash card Strip papers Chalkboard.	Out of 31 pupils 24 managed to read the words on flash cards, sentences in strips and the passage fluently.

APPENDIX C



APPENDIX D

TELEPHONE: 3655469
TELEX: 2944 THUTO BD
FAX: 3185167



REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT
PRIVATE BAG 005
GABORONE

REFERENCE : E1/20/2 XXXV (13)

15th August 2013

Deborah V Sanoto
P O Box 3374
Gaborone

Dear Madam/Sir

RE: REQUEST FOR A PERMIT TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY

This serves to grant you permission to conduct your study in the sampled areas in Botswana to address the following research objectives/questions /topic:

Reading Literature In English: Exploring Perceptions And Classroom Decisions Of IN-Service Teachers Trainees.

It is of paramount importance to seek **Assent** and **Con sent** from the Department of Training and Development, College Principals, Lectures, of selected colleges and primary schools in Botswana where the student teachers are deployed that you are going to collect data from. We hope that you will conduct your study as stated in your proposal and that you will adhere to research ethics. Failure to comply with the above stated, will result in immediate termination of the research permit. The validity of the permit is from 15th August 2013 to 14th August 2014.

You are requested to submit a copy of your final report of the study to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, in the Department of Educational Planning and Research Services, Botswana.

Thank you.

E Ranganai
For/Permanent Secretary

APPENDIX E

TELEPHONE (027)
3655469
TELEX: 2944 THUTO BD
FAX: 3185167



MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
AND SKILLS DEVELOPMENT
PRIVATE BAG 005
GABORONE

REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

REFERENCE: DPRS 7/1/5 XIV (33)

22 August 2014

Deborah V. Sanoto
PO Box 3374
Gaborone

Dear Madam/Sir

RE: REQUEST FOR A PERMIT TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY


This serves to grant you permission to conduct your study in the sampled areas in Botswana to address the following research objectives/questions /topic:

Reading Literature in English: Exploring Perceptions and Classroom decisions of IN-Service Teacher Trainees.


It is of paramount importance to seek **Assent** and **Consent** from the Department of Training and Development, Department of Basic Education, College Principals and teachers of selected Primary school that you are going to collect data from. We hope that you will conduct your study as stated in your proposal and that you will adhere to research ethics. Failure to comply with the above stated, will result in immediate termination of the research permit. The validity of the permit is from **22nd August 2014 to 21st August 2015**.

You are requested to submit a copy of your final report of the study to the Ministry of Education and Skills Development, in the Department of Educational Planning and Research Services, Botswana.

Thank you.

PP 
A. Galeboe
For/Permanent Secretary

APPENDIX F: Consent form



UNIVERSITEIT-SELLENBOSCH-UNIVERSITY
jou kennismoont • your knowledge partner

SELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY
CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

TITLE OF PROJECT:

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by: Deborah V Sanoto
from the Curriculum Studies Department of the Faculty of Education, at Stellenbosch University.
 The findings will contribute to the writing of a PhD thesis and the publication of scholarly journal articles. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you are one of the in-service teacher trainees for Diploma in Primary Education by Distance Education, 2008 cohort.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY
 The purpose of the study is to determine Primary school in-service teacher trainees' reading experiences, habits and practices, in order to assess the extent to which literature is integrated and appreciated in English studies component of the curriculum on their leames.

2. PROCEDURES
 If you volunteer to participate in this study, I would ask you to do the following things:

1. Complete a short questionnaire
2. Participate in a one-on-one interview with you.
 The interview shall, with your permission, be audio-recorded in order to facilitate the comprehension and analysis of the information generated during our interaction. The interview shall be conducted in English. The interview shall be conducted in a place deemed comfortable by and to you and will last approximately 20 - 30 minutes.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS
 There are no risks associated with this study. My intention is not to make you uncomfortable. At the same time you have the attitude to determine the time and place for the interview, and the interview shall be terminated if you feel it is necessary to do so or if it is uncomfortable for you to go on with it.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY
 This study has the potential to benefit you as a participant, professionally.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

1

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché (mfouche@sun.ac.za; +2721 808 4622) at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE

The information above was described to me by Deborah V Sanoto in English, and I am in command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to me. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

[I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.]

Signature or Subject _____ Date 24-02-13

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to _____ [name of the subject/participant] [He/she] was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in English.

Signature of Investigator _____ Date _____

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APPENDIX G: Questionnaire

Dear Sir/Madam

My name is Deborah Sanoto, I am undertaking a research project to determine the reading experiences, habits and practices of Botswana's Primary School in-service teacher trainees who have studied English language and literature. Therefore, I kindly request that you complete the following short questionnaire in order to help me to assess the extent to which literature is integrated and appreciated in English studies component of the curriculum and on the learners. It should take no longer than 15 minutes of your time.

Please do not enter your name or contact details on the questionnaire. It will remain anonymous, and information provided by you will remain confidential.

Kindly return the completed questionnaire to me in the postage paid return envelope on or before **1 October 2013**.

Should you have any queries or comments regarding this study, you are welcome to contact me by telephone at 71624958/ 3646013 or e-mail me at dsanoto@bocodol.ac.bw.

Thank you

Yours faithfully

D V Sanoto (The Researcher)

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BY CROSSING (X) THE RELEVANT BLOCK OR WRITE DOWN YOUR ANSWER IN THE SPACE PROVIDED.

EXAMPLE of how to complete this questionnaire:

Your gender?

If you are female

Male 1

Female ~~2~~

Section A –Background information

This section of the questionnaire refers to background or biographical information. I am aware of the sensitivity of the questions in this section, but the information will make it possible for me to compare groups of respondents. Once again, I assure you that your response will remain anonymous. Your co-operation is appreciated.

1. Gender

Male 1

Female 2

2. Age (in completed years)

3. Years of teaching

0-5 years 1

6-10 years	2
11-15 years	3
16-20	4
21 + more years	5

4. Your highest educational qualification prior to DPE-DE?

Primary School leaving Examination (PSLE)	1
Junior Certificate in Education (JCE)	2
Cambridge Overseas School Certificate (COSC)	3
Botswana General Certificate in Secondary Education (BGCSE)	4
Primary Teacher's Certificate (PTC)	5

5. How would you describe the area in which you are teaching?

Urban	1
Semi-urban	2
Rural	3
Remote	4

6. What were your secondary school level grades in English Language final examinations?

A or above	1
B Grade	2

C Grade	3
D or below	4
Unclassified (U)	5

Section B

This section of the questionnaire explores your reading habits and practices in your English language teaching classroom. Please answer the questions in the spaces provided.

7. In your free time what reading materials do you enjoy reading for leisure?

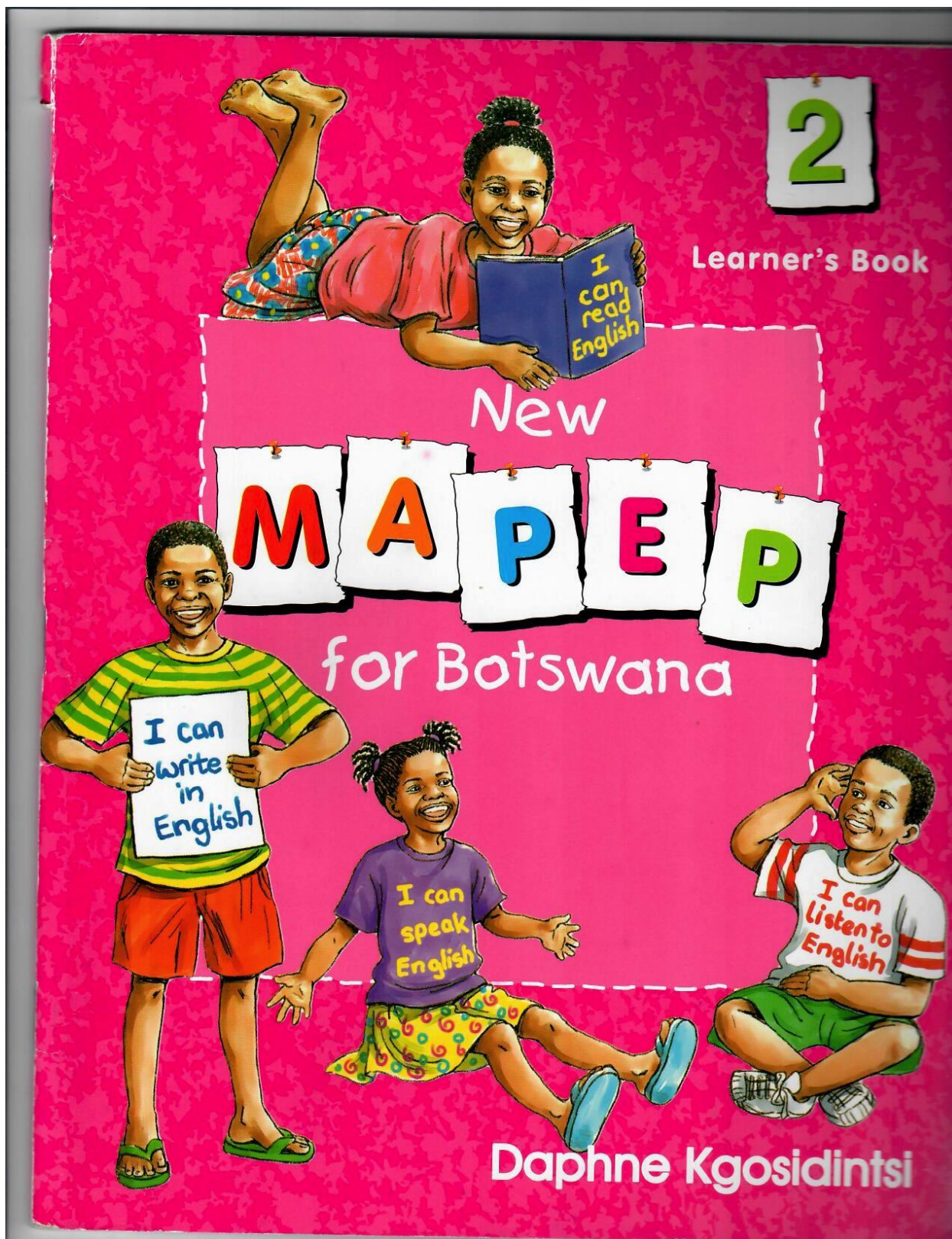
8. In what ways do you encourage your learners to read for pleasure?

9. What type of reading materials do you keep in your home library?

10. Do you keep any set of readers at school to share with your learners? If yes, describe the type of reading materials.

Thank you for your co-operation in completing this questionnaire. Kindly return the questionnaire as specified in the cover letter.

APPENDIX H: MAPEP Pupils' Textbook



APPENDIX I: STANDARD 1 LESSON PLAN

TEACHING PLAN

WEEK ENDING: 13-06-14 SUBJECT: Setswana DURATION: 1 week
 TOPIC/S: Stories PERIODS PER WEEK: 10
 REFERENCE MATERIALS: Teachers Guide, Pupils book

OBJECTIVES: 1.3.3. Follow the sequence of events in a story
 2.5.4. Recall the sequence of events read from a given story
 3.4.8. Identify events in the story in the correct sequence.
 4.9.3. Complete a simple unfinished story
 5.1.5. Play traditional games

CONTENT	ACTIVITIES	TEACHING / LEARNING AIDS	LESSON EVALUATION
D1: Sequence of events eg how to cook soft porridge	- Individual pupils will tell others or give instructions on how to do something	Human	Most of the pupils were able to
D2: Sequencing events, eg 1. Bedisa messi. 2. Faga boupi	- Retelling the story heard - heading pictures to arrange the story in order	Pictures Text	sequence events and play traditional games
D3: Picture story eg 1. 2. 3. 4. 5	- heading pictures to arrange the story in order	Story stones	
D4: Unfinished story eg Fa ba sena go kopana...	- heading the given parts of the story and writing the remaining parts	Ropes Tins	
D5: Traditional games eg Koi, morabaraba etc	- Naming, identifying sorting and playing games		

APPENDIX J: Classroom Environment



APPENDIX K: Comprehension passage “Cattle”

For example, in paragraph 1 of the passage about sleep, the writer gives reasons why sleep is necessary. It says that if we do not get enough sleep, the following may happen:

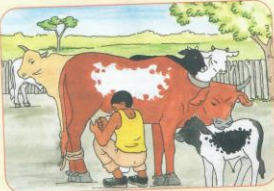
- ◆ The rest of our day will be spoiled.
- ◆ We may even fail to concentrate properly in class the following day.
- ◆ Our bodies will not function well.
- ◆ We may feel very tired or be in a bad mood all day.

ACTIVITY 4.7

The passage below has information about cattle. Read it and answer the questions that follow.

CATTLE

Cattle are domestic animals. People keep cattle for their milk and meat. The meat from cattle is called beef. A large number of cattle grouped together is called a **herd**. The first cattle were called aurochs and roamed around the wide open spaces of Europe thousands of years ago.

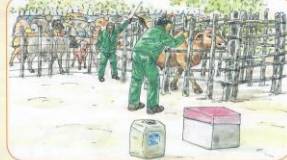


Cattle are called different names depending on their gender and age. A female is called a cow. A male can be either a bull or an ox. A baby is called a calf. A weaner is a calf that has stopped suckling from its mother. A heifer is a young cow and a tolly a young ox.

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Passages and compositions

Cattle are herbivores. This means that they eat grass only. They do not eat meat. Cattle spend most of the day eating and need a big area to move around. There are over two hundred different breeds of cattle. For example, some of them are called Jersey, Guernsey, Friesian, Hereford, Red Poll and Brahman.

Cattle are important to the economy of Botswana. Some farmers have large herds of cattle which are raised for beef. Other farmers have small herds of cows which are kept for milk. These are called dairy cows. Farmers have to make sure that their animals are well looked after. They have to be fed, watered and vaccinated against disease. The Ministry of Agriculture assists farmers in making sure that their cattle are always healthy.



The beef cattle are sold to the Botswana Meat Commission where they are killed. The meat is cut, packed and exported to other countries. Some of the meat is sold to butcheries in Botswana. The milk is sold to individuals and local businesses. Therefore cattle are an important source of income.

Cattle are part of Botswana culture. There is even a Setswana proverb which says, “A man without a cow is but a small boy.” Cattle are seen as a sign of the wealth. They are given as *bogadi* by the grooms family to the bride’s family.

Questions

1. What do we call meat that comes from cattle?
A. Herd B. Domestic C. Dairy D. Beef
2. Cattle are herbivores, what do they eat?
A. Herbs B. Bones C. Grass D. Meat

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Unit 4