An Exploration of Teachers' Pedagogic Practices of Teaching Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) to Grade 5 Learners in Selected Classrooms of Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone Districts in Zambia.

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DECLARATION

I, Margaret Nambao, declare that this dissertation, "Teachers' Pedagogic Practices of Teaching Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) to Grade 5 learners in Selected Classrooms of Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone Districts in Zambia", is my own work, except where otherwise acknowledged, and it has not been submitted for any degree or examination at the University of Zambia or any other university.

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ABSTRACT

The ability to read for meaning and pleasure is arguably the most important skill children learn in primary school. Zambia, like many other nations, experiences low reading levels due to the non-comprehension of most learners. Oral reading fluency (ORF), defined as the ability to read text quickly, accurately, and with meaningful expression, is one integral component of reading to learn for meaning. Educators understand that teaching students to read fluently is the key to their overall academic success. This study investigated teachers' pedagogic practices of teaching oral reading fluency (ORF) to Grade 5 learners in selected classrooms of Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone Districts in Zambia. The study was guided by four objectives: 1) To assess teachers' views on teaching oral reading fluency in Grade 5 classrooms. 2) To analyze how teachers teach oral reading fluency and pedagogical strategies used in Grade 5 classrooms. 3) To ascertain oral reading fluency challenges learners face while reading connected text in English. 4) To establish measures that teachers take to support learners with specific oral reading fluency challenges. Four theoretical lenses of the learning theories guided this study - automaticity theory, information processing model, behaviorism theory, and word learning theory. The study adopted an interpretive paradigm, and a qualitative approach and employed a descriptive design. 18 Grade 5 teachers selected from Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone districts, participated in the study. Data were gathered using interviews, class observation, and document analysis, and were thematically analyzed. The study revealed that teachers do not teach ORF in upper primary schools because they view ORF as a foundation skill that is only taught in lower primary schools. The study also established that teachers have content knowledge but lack pedagogic knowledge to teach ORF. Despite recognizing its importance, teachers doubt its effectiveness for struggling learners in Grade 5 classrooms. The study concluded that this reluctance to teach ORF stems from a lack of instructional knowledge on effective fluency-promoting strategies. Instead, teachers tend to mislabel comprehension instruction as ORF, revealing a phenomenon akin to the Dunning-Kruger effect, where they overestimate their knowledge in unfamiliar areas. The study presented ORF instructional strategies and interventions and a reading fluency model lesson as measures to mitigate learners who face challenges in reading. The study recommends systemic changes at teacher and policy levels, thus: The Ministry of Education should undertake a review of the curriculum and syllabus, specifically to incorporate essential components for teaching ORF at the upper primary level. Teachers to include time for fluency practice within a reading comprehension lesson. Schools to conduct ORF training for teachers, through Continuous Professional Developments (CPD). Colleges and universities intensify the training of teachers, ensuring they acquire the necessary skills to effectively teach ORF.

Keywords: Oral reading fluency, pedagogical practices, Grade 5 classrooms.

APPROVAL

This dissertation by Margaret Nambao is approved as a fulfilment of the requirements for the award of a degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Literacy and Languages.

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DEDICATION

To my late parents, Winston and Maliyana Simbao who by far were the best teachers.

To my late husband, Frank Sichilima who nurtured my dream.

To my children, Sampa, Chansa, Malama and Wila for the massive support.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CDC:	Curriculum Development Centre.
DEBS:	District Education Board Secretary.
ECZ:	Examination Council of Zambia.
EGRA:	Early Grade Reading Assessment.
IRA:	International Reading Association.
L1:	First Language.
L2:	Second Language.
LOI:	Language of Instruction.
MESVTEE:	Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education.
MOE:	Ministry of Education.
MoGE:	Ministry of General Education.
NAEYC:	National Association for the Education of Young Children.
NAS:	National Assessment Survey.
NICHD:	National Institute of Child Health and Human Development.
NRP:	National Reading Panel.
OECD:	Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development.
ORF:	Oral Reading Fluency.
PISA:	Programme for International Student Assessment.
PLP:	Primary Literacy Programme.
PRP:	Primary Reading Programme.
RC:	Reading Comprehension.
RC:	Reading Comprehension.
SACMEQ:	The Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality.
THRASS:	Teaching Handwriting Reading and Spelling Skill.
UNESCO:	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.
UNZA:	University of Zambia.
USAID:	United States Agency for International Development.
ZECF:	Zambia Education Curriculum Framework.
ZPC:	Zambia Primary Course.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

Chapter one provides the contextual background, the background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives, and subsequent research questions to be addressed, the significance of the study, delimitation and limitations of the study, definition of key terms as used in the study, research gaps, and a structure of the thesis before a summary of the chapter.

1.2 Background

The ability to read for meaning and pleasure is arguably the most important skill children learn in primary school (Clark & Rumbold, (2016). Reading has been identified as an important gateway to personal development, and to social, economic, and civic life (Holden, 2004). It allows us to learn "about other people, about history and social studies, the langue arts, science, mathematics, and the other content subjects that must be mastered in school" (Lyon, 1997). Zambia, through the Ministry of General Education (MoGE) also recognises literacy and reading as an important skill that is basically at the heart of a student's ability to learn and succeed in school and beyond (MoGE, 2006). As noted by the Department for Culture, Media, and Sport (2003), "people cannot be active or informed citizens unless they can read. Therefore, reading is a prerequisite for almost all cultural and social activities". The Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), in collaborative effort with the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) participating members, acknowledged the importance of literacy particularly on student performance in reading. They pointed out that reading is an increasingly essential prerequisite for success in today's societies. The interest, attitude, and capacity of individuals to appropriately access, manage, integrate, evaluate, and reflect on written information are all central to the full participation of individuals in modern life through reading (OECD PISA database, 2003).

The Zambia Education Curriculum Framework (ZECF, 2012) defined literacy as the ability to read and write to understand and communicate effectively. MoGE therefore, regards literacy as of paramount importance to any career or academic life path of every student. It is key to successful learning at school and as an element for active participation in social, economic, cultural, and political life, and a way to self-understanding and sustenance (UNESCO, 2010; Mokatsi, 2005; Hamilton, 2012; Gove & Cvelic, 2011).

Emphasising the importance of reading to learners, Moats, a teacher, psychologist, researcher and author of many influential scientific journal articles, books, and policy papers on the topic of reading and teacher preparation stated that:

> *Reading is not simply a desire; it is a fundamental skill necessary for virtually everything we do. Reading is the fundamental skill upon which all formal education depends. And we need to ensure all of us, particularly our children, learn to read and read to learn so they too can do everything. Research now shows that a child who doesn't learn the reading basics early is unlikely to learn them at all. Any child who doesn't learn to read early and well will not easily learn other skills and knowledge and is unlikely to flourish in school or in life. Give Teachers the Knowledge they need to make an impact on every young learner (Moats, 2020:2).*

Despite its importance, the low reading levels at all levels of learning has been a world-wide source of concern in most education systems (NICHD, 2000). For more than thirty years now, primary schools in Zambia have been experiencing low literacy levels leading to low achievement levels (Banda & Mwanza 2017; MoGE, 2014). The Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE) through the Examination Council of Zambia (ECZ) has been conducting the National Assessment Survey (NAS) of Learning Achievement at Grade 5 level of education since 1999. The 2014 Zambia National Assessment (NAS) on Grade 5 learning achievements, like all other surveys, confirmed low achievement levels among learners nationwide. The Average Performance of all learners fell below the pass mark of 40% in 4 subjects. 35.4% in English Reading, 38.3% in Mathematics, 38.6% in Life Skills, and 36.8% in Zambian Languages. The low achievement levels was attributed to lack of

comprehension ability among most learners. The low comprehension ability in reading also affected the comprehension in other learning areas leading to poor performance in almost all the subject areas. The pattern of performance that was observed at Grade 5 level also manifested later in higher grades through the National Examination results at Grade 9 and 12 (NAS Report, 2015; 2022).

A report from the National Assessment of Educational Progress (2015) showed that 64% of fourth graders and 66% of eighth graders read below their grade level, and the case for children with learning disabilities is much worse (88% Grades 4 and 92% Grade 8). The baseline study of the Zambian Primary Reading Programme (PRP) that was conducted in 1999 also noted that among Grade 1 - 6 learners that were tested, most children that attempted to read, read at two grades below grade level in English and three grades below grade level in their own Zambian language. Earlier, the Grade 5 National Assessment Survey for 2006 and 2008 reflected learning achievements below 40% in English and Zambian Languages (35.3 and 39.4 respectively) and this number has been stagnating since 1999. While countries have significantly increased access to education, millions of children are not developing the basic foundational literacy and numeracy skills they need to move on to higher levels of education. In Zambia, the National Assessment Survey of Grade 5 (2021) indicates that less than 40 percent of learners can read in their languages (NAS, 2021).

The Grade 5 National Assessment Survey and the EGRA survey, both from 2010 showed poor reading and writing abilities among learners. The South African Consortium for Monitoring Education Quality (SACMEQ III 2010) (3) noted that among Grade 6 learners that were tested in reading, 27.4% were able to read at a basic competency level. Other research studies on reading development in Zambia reveals that there is an upward regression in the reading level abilities by learners as they progress from lower grades to higher grades and most learners are unable to complete comprehension tests of their grade level (Matafwali, 2005; 2010).

Tambulukani & Bus (2012) pointed out that Zambian students continue to achieve low literacy levels and they concluded that illiteracy rates beyond 40% among people who live in nations in Africa or Asia in which dozens of languages are spoken were blamed on the linguistic factor. This result is in line with Gove and Cvelic, (2011) who presented evidence which also showed

very poor reading achievement outcomes for children in developing countries even after several years of instruction.

Various research studies on poor reading levels in Zambia has for some time been attributed different factors ranging from non-availability of teaching-learning materials, large teacher-student ratios to language of instruction (Nkamba & Kanyika,1998). One recent study by Lungu and Mkandawire (2022) added the physical environment as another factor that impact negatively to the teaching and learning of literacy skills, a skill that plays a significant role on the teaching and learning of reading. In their article, they pointed at diverse factors in classes such as location of the school, print environment, class size, sitting arrangement, design of the class, and nature of materials as some of the factors that impact negatively to the teaching and learning of literacy – reading and writing, in the targeted schools.

In 2018, USAID Education Data (2021) conducted a baseline Early Grade Reading Assessment (EGRA) to measure grade 2 learners' reading performance. Following this, the USAID Let's Read Project implemented reading interventions in targeted schools in five provinces. Later, in 2021, a midline EGRA was carried out to compare learners' performance at baseline versus midline. One of the subtasks of this assessment was a measure of oral reading fluency in the seven Zambian LOIs. Overall, the average score for ORF was 5.9 correct words per minute (cwpm) at baseline and 4.2 cwpm at midline. This decrease of 1.7 cwpm is statistically significant. The MoE benchmark for a Grade 2 learner with the minimum proficiency level (emergent reader) is 20 cwpm. At midline, only 7.7 percent of students reached that level. Thus, results indicate that the Grade 2 learner cohort in 2021 is reading with less speed and accuracy than the cohort from 2018, and that on average, Grade 2 learners are reading well below the national minimum proficiency level. Reductions from baseline results were statistically significant for the following LoIs: Cinyanja, Kiikaonde, Luvale and Silozi. Additionally, 1.7 fewer correct words per minute is equivalent to a 29 percent reduction in cwpm, which means that at midline, on average, students were only reading approximately two thirds of what they read at baseline.

The problem of low reading levels among learners in Zambia continues affecting the education system and various programmes help address the problem have been implemented but has not yielded desired results. However, research in reading in countries like America indicate that significantly, many learners who have trouble in reading manifest difficulties in oral reading fluency which contributes greatly to overall struggles in reading (Torgesen, 2001). A study by DiSalle and Rasinski (2017) particularly pointed out that 90% of comprehension problems are due to deficiency in oral reading fluency. Therefore, oral reading fluency is regarded as an integral component of reading, a critical feature of skilled reading besides phonemic awareness, phonics, and vocabulary and comprehension (NRP, 2000; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974; NICHD, 2000; Rasinski, 2004). Fluent reading is not meaningful if learners do not comprehend what they read (Rasinski & Padak, 1996; Reutzel, 2006; Worthy & Broadus, 2002; Shannahan, Fisher & Frey, 2012 as cited in Reutzel & Cooter, 2021).

In support of the above findings, several other studies suggest that fluency is often considered as the bridge between word recognition and comprehension (Armbruster et al., 2001; Pikulski & Chard, 2005; Walczyk & Griffith-Ross, 2007). These studies further acknowledge that at every educational level, oral reading fluency should be regarded as a crucial component and a tool for academic success because it provides students with access to information and comprehension. However, though it has been regarded as an important skill for enhancement of reading comprehension, oral reading fluency has been regarded as a 'neglected skill' in reading development (Allington, 1983) and in many English learning programmes in various countries (Rasinski (2014). However, until now, current studies posit that if fluency was once the 'neglected reading goal' it is no longer (Stahl, et al., 2020:156).

The National Reading Panel Report of 2000 identified ORF as one integral component of reading to learn for meaning. Since the publication of the National Reading Panel (NRP, 2000) report and other scholarly publications (Kuhn, Schwanenflugel, & Meisinger, 2010; Rasinski & Hoff man, 2003; Samuels & Farstrup, 2006) of reading, reviews supported oral reading fluency making it take pre-eminence position in the reading curriculum. The NRP panel further indicated that sufficient empirical evidence existed which identified fluency as critical to students' success

in learning to read and it should be included in reading development as a key component to improve reading instruction world over (NRP, 2000).

Reading fluency is a foundational literacy skill and an essential component of comprehension. Fluent readers read connected text accurately, at a natural rate, and with appropriate prosody (Honig, Diamond, & Gutlohn, 2018; NICHD, 2000; Rasinski, 2004). Deficiency in this foundational aspect of reading prevents learners from adequately comprehending texts. If fluency problems are not addressed in the early grades, problems will likely hinder learners' educational progress in subsequent years. Therefore, studying how literacy teachers teach and what they know about fluency development in learners and instructional practices that support fluency's development for their classrooms is necessary. An investigation on details of how teachers assess fluency and how they modify instruction to meet the needs of all learners including those whose first language is not the language of instruction or those with special educational needs, is also necessary.

International research on the definition of fluency entails that it is important for students to learn to read words with few deviations (accuracy), to process text with a speed (automaticity) sufficient to permit comprehension to occur, and with appropriate expression (prosody), pausing and emphasis so that the text sounds meaningful (NRP, 2000; Rasplica & Cummings, 2013). It is believed that students who read with automaticity and have appropriate speed, accuracy, and proper expression are more likely to comprehend material because they can focus on the meaning of the text. Fluent reading is not meaningful if learners do not comprehend what they read (Rasinski & Padak, 1996; Reutzel, 2006; Worthy & Broadus, 2002; Shannahan, Fisher & Frey, 2012 as cited in Reutzel & Cooter, 2021).

Further studies indicate that students who read with automaticity and have appropriate speed, accuracy, and proper expression are more likely to comprehend material. This is because they can focus on the meaning of the text rather than on decoding word-for-word. While children who are not fluent are generally slow readers, reading word-by-word, and usually find it laborious to the point that they might be discouraged to continue to read. Such children usually have trouble meeting the reading demands at their grade level and they usually have difficulties with decoding even in upper grades. Since reading is an interactive process, it requires the reader to bring

experiences and explanations to the text while processing what the text offers (Harris & Hodges, 1995). It has been found that children who do not develop sufficient word identification skills by third grade have a very poor chance of becoming proficient readers and often fall further and further behind (Lyon, 1995). Stanovich's (1986) Matthew Effects explain that children who start off deficient in reading typically remain deficient readers throughout their schooling and beyond. Therefore, it is imperative that readers be competent in three major areas to become proficient oral readers: decoding, fluency, and comprehension. The gap is relatively narrow when the children are young, but rapidly widens as children grow older. From kindergarten to grade three, children focus on reading acquisition, learning to read. While from fourth grade on, children's focus shifts to the application of these skills when reading and analysing complex text, reading to learn. We do not know the teachers' views on fluency development among learners who are reading to learn in upper primary level. This study wishes to investigate on what teachers know about teaching ORF and how they support its development for successful reading.

Fluent readers read connected text accurately, at a natural rate, and with appropriate prosody (Honig, Diamond, & Gutlohn, 2018). A reader with proficient fluency skills will read with very few mistakes and at a natural speed that is neither too fast nor too slow. Some scholars include automaticity, or the ability to identify letters, words, and word patterns quickly and easily, as an additional component, while others consider it an aspect of accuracy (Reutzel & Cooter, 2021). Fluent readers will also have prosody, meaning they read with expression and appropriate phrasing. To do this, a reader must pay attention to how punctuation marks affect what is read and the meaning of the text. Reading fluency is important because it leads to comprehension. Therefore, the more fluent a reader is, the more likely they will be to comprehend the text which is the goal of reading instruction. Through research we are aware that those who have not developed automaticity in word recognition spend too much time decoding words and not enough time comprehending what they have read (Honig et al., 2018; the National Reading Panel, 2000). And it is evident that if learners in primary grades do not develop proficient fluency skills, they are more likely to struggle with fluency as they get older, affecting their comprehension skills (Stanovich, 1986). If fluency problems are not addressed in the early grades, problems will likely hinder learners' educational progress in subsequent years. Therefore, taking further investigation into reading fluency skill in relation to what is obtaining in Zambian

classrooms is necessary to help improve the low reading levels that lead to general poor performance in almost all other learning areas defeating the aspiration and the vision of Zambia on reading. We do not know the views of the teachers on these research findings concerning learners in primary schools of Zambia.

Therefore, to develop fluency learners may need teacher assistance to work on the three elements of fluency: accuracy, which is the ability to recognise or decode words correctly, rate, which is how quickly and accurately one reads connected text, and prosody, the rhythmic and tonal aspects of speech known as the "music" of spoken language (Hudson et al., 2005). These elements are intertwined and working on one element often means simultaneously working on another. For example, an increase in accuracy will also improve the reading rate. Likewise, an increase in rate is likely to improve prosody since students can now pay attention to the phrasing and meaning rather than focus attention on decoding individual words (Honig, Diamond & Gutlohn, 2018). An investigation into how Zambian teachers teach to strengthen learners in the three components of fluency is also necessary through this study.

The Ministry of Education in Zambia also recognises ORF as one of the skills included in the curriculum besides phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, and comprehension. This is why the Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) was introduced as an approach to teach literacy in primary schools of Zambia after the Primary Reading Programme (PRP). Consequently, the National Literacy Framework (NRF) was also developed to provide a strategy for literacy instruction and to guide the education community towards a national approach for the development of literacy skills (NRP, 2013). Zambia's curriculum expectation is to see the use of an approach that synthesizes reading instruction based on explicit lessons in key competency areas and oral reading fluency has been acknowledged as one of the reading skills critical to successful reading (ZECF, 2000). However, results of reading levels after years of implementation of the PLP, the reading achievement levels remain low. We do not know the instructions and interventions teachers use to support the development of oral reading among learners to narrow the gap to successful reading in Zambia's primary schools. We do not know whether oral reading fluency is taught and how it is taught in reading classrooms to support research claims in the Zambian situation.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

The low reading levels and the low achievement levels among primary school learners remains a huge challenge in Zambia's education system (MoE, 1996). The extant literature has demonstrated the importance of oral reading fluency as a key component to master for successful reading. While internationally there is a growing body of work investigating oral reading fluency as a means through which reading comprehension is achieved, this topic has not featured strongly in Zambia. Although widely acknowledged in literature as important, to date, very little is known about how teachers teach oral reading fluency to primary school learners in upper primary classrooms. Apart from professional speculations, no studies have been done on pedagogic practices teachers follow to teach oral reading fluency in primary schools of Zambia. We do not know how teachers understand oral reading fluency and how they teach Oral reading fluency to upper primary classes particularly to Grade 5 learners receiving instruction in English language. Whether the learners read haltingly, stumble over words, or read without expression, comprehension suffers. While it is understood through literature that better fluency leads to greater understanding, little is known if this skill is taught in grade 5 and what pedagogical strategies teachers use to teach oral reading fluency. Therefore, this deficit of knowledge constituted the research problem in this study.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' pedagogic practices of teaching oral reading fluency in Selected Grade 5 classrooms in Zambia.

1.5 Specific Research Objectives

The study sought to achieve the following objectives:

1. To assess teachers' views on teaching oral reading fluency in Grade 5 classrooms.
2. To analyse how teachers teach oral reading fluency and pedagogical strategies used in Grade 5 classrooms.
3. To establish oral reading fluency challenges learners face while reading connected text in English.
4. To ascertain measures that teachers take to support learners with specific oral reading fluency challenges.

1.6 Specific Research Questions

The research was guided by the following research questions:

1. What are the teachers' views on teaching oral reading fluency in Grade 5 classrooms?
2. How do teachers teach oral reading fluency in Grade 5 classrooms and what pedagogic strategies do they use?
3. What challenges do teachers find among learners reading connected text in English?
4. How do teachers support learners with specific oral reading fluency challenges?

1.7 Significance of the Study

Findings may help teachers to understand the right instructions learners require to improve reading fluency and eventually successful reading, comprehension; may give inspiration for policymakers and curriculum designers to integrate research-based oral reading fluency instructions into their reading programs; may stimulate further research into other components that help sustain learners' reading fluency skills which can be included in literacy instruction and may inform instruction strategies to be used by universities and colleges in training would-be teachers.

1.8 Limitation

Given our use of convenience sampling, the demographic makeup of this study sample, findings may not be a representation of all primary school teachers in Zambia.

1.8 Delimitation

The study was limited to the investigation of Grade 5 teachers from 6 schools in 3 districts of Zambia and the findings may not go beyond other grades.

1.9 Operational Definitions

Oral reading fluency - is the ability to read a passage of text aloud accurately, at an appropriate rate, and with expression to comprehend materials because they can focus on the meaning of the text (i.e., with appropriate expression, including appropriate pausing and oral interpretation of the text).

Pedagogic Practices – a complete interrelation of the concepts and ideas pertaining to the teaching of oral reading fluency, along with the ways of teaching the learners practices that have direct involvement with the learner's achievements, results, and skills developed after following the approach.

1.10 Gaps filled in by this Study.

This study filled in the following gaps:

1. The study has provided insights into classroom pedagogic practices - instructional and intervention strategies necessary for teaching oral reading fluency in upper primary level.
2. The study provided literature necessary to inform instruction and interventions for learners reading connected text in English.
3. The study provided literature for would-be researchers in oral reading fluency.

1.11 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter several issues pertaining to oral reading fluency development and its importance to the successful goal of reading have been discussed as a way of contextualizing this study. This chapter has also presented an explanation on how vital oral reading fluency is to the general reading development of learners. The significance of the study has been presented and the summary of the chapter has also been given. The next chapter reviews related literature pertaining to various practices that promote oral reading fluency in learners.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.0 Overview

Review of related literature in this chapter falls under two main titles, conceptual review, and review of studies. Under conceptual review, literature pertaining to what scholars say about oral reading fluency is presented. This includes various definitions of fluency and the importance oral reading fluency to the reading development of a learner. Review of studies, the focus is to review literature pertaining to pedagogic practices in the teaching of oral reading fluency. The body of literature presented is hoped to firmly ground the study in the existing body of work in answering the research questions presented using the following subtopics: views on teaching oral reading fluency; strategies used and how to teach oral reading fluency; challenges found among learners reading connected text in English; measures used to support learners with specific oral reading fluency challenges and finally summary of the chapter.

2.1 Conceptual Review

Under conceptual review, literature pertaining to what scholars say about oral reading fluency is presented. This includes various definitions of fluency and the importance oral reading fluency to the reading development of a learner.

2.1.1 Definition of Oral Reading Fluency

The definition of fluency in reading development goes beyond the dictionary's meaning. It is one of the strands of reading besides phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, and comprehension that is regarded as a key construct in reading development. This means that oral reading fluency is basically reading for meaning and reading for meaning is the goal of reading (Sweet & Snow, 2003). The current study wishes to establish the views of teachers on the definition of oral reading fluency and to find out how the knowledge of the definition of oral reading fluency informs instruction.

Oral reading fluency was earlier regarded as a 'neglected reading goal' (Allington, 1983). The National Reading Panel (National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [NICHD], 2000) also referred to oral reading fluency as a 'neglected' aspect of reading but has recently been receiving substantial attention from researchers and practitioners. This was after the report of the National Reading Panel (NRP) which identified fluency as one of the five critical components of reading besides phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, and comprehension. Today, Stahl, Flanigan & McKenna, (2020) attest to this view and states that,

> *If fluency was once the 'neglected reading goal' (Allington, 1983), it is no longer. There has been an increased interest in developing fluency as indicated by research findings confirming the effectiveness of guided reading approaches in developing comprehension (Kuhn & Levy, 2015; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; NRP, 2000).*

Fluency has sometimes been viewed as essentially an oral reading phenomenon. The National Reading Panel defined reading fluency as "the ability to read text quickly, accurately, and with proper expression" (NICHD, 2000, p. 3-5). Definitions that emphasize the oral aspect of fluency may, at least in part, account for why fluency has not historically received much attention. Defining oral reading fluency has been a key issue for many educators and scholars alike. The reason for this is that oral reading fluency involves identifying a host of different aspects in a fixed time, such as the number of: correct words, incorrect words, pauses, repetition of words or phrases and finally mean length of utterance (Rasinski 2014).

Historically, fluency appeared in reading research literature as early as 1886 when Cattell described its importance to learners by recognizing words nearly automatically (Cattell, 1886). Thereafter, Huey (1968) noted that automaticity with the details of print allowed a reader to focus attention on the content of what is read. Then in the 1970s, LaBerge & Samuels (1974) posited a theory of automaticity that suggested that mastery of the sub lexical components of reading, that is, letter-sound correspondences, blending, and word recognition, contributed to fluency. Currently, the focus has now shifted to fluency as a critical stage that learners pass through in their attainment of reading proficiency (Chall, 1983; Ehri, 2005; Ehri and Wilce, 1983; Samuels, 2002). However, even though attention paid to the topic of reading fluency has

increased over the past few years, the consensus on how to define it has not yet been achieved. A study by Breznitz (2006) noted that existing definitions of reading fluency can be categorized in three distinct ways. The first category defines reading fluency as a measurable consequence of learning pre-skills for reading. The second one defines it as a linguistic and developmental outcome, and the third one defines it as a systemic processing outcome. These categories are said to be interrelated, and their distinctions only reflect specific researchers' theoretical or conceptual perspectives on the role of fluency in reading development. This study wishes to find out theoretical category of the definition of oral reading fluency teachers based on. Will teachers define reading fluency as a measurable consequence of learning pre-skills for reading or as a linguistic and developmental outcome or as a systemic processing outcome? The following section looks at how several other researchers define fluency.

Torgesen, Rashotte & Alexander, (2001) defined fluency from a measurement perspective in which they included reading rate and accuracy. Such a definition focuses on the quality of oral reading that allows for its objective measurement as correct words read per unit of time, like words correct per minute (WCPM). It also reflects the use of fluency as a dependent variable in research studies and program evaluations. Expanded definitions of fluency frequently go beyond rate and accuracy to include an aspect of comprehension or understanding of the text. A good example is by Harris & Hodges (1985) who emphasized fluency's relationship to comprehension when they defined fluency as "freedom from word identification problems that might hinder comprehension" (p. 85). Others have offered similar definitions by clearly linking word and text level reading with meaning (Chard, Pikulski and McDonagh, 2006; Hudson, Mercer, & Lane, 2000; Schreiber, 1980). Reading fluency is defined by the three characteristics or "indicators" (Samuels, 2007, p. 564) of word identification accuracy, pacing, and prosody which interact to encourage comprehension (Paige, Rasinski, Magpuri-Lavell & Smith, 2014; Schwanenflugel et al., 2006). How can we tell if a student is a fluent reader? If we listen carefully to a student read, one can quickly discern their level of fluency. The first indicator is the ability to read words in the text with accuracy without stumbling over their pronunciation. A high level of word identification accuracy suggests the reader possesses the phonics knowledge to correctly match letter blends to the sounds of language to pronounce words. It also means they have engaged in sufficient word study to gain knowledge of many words (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, (2012). The implication for Kuhl et al., (2010)'s results is that there is a relationship

between reading fluency and reading comprehension with time in the classroom of beginners. Additionally, prosody is comprised of many elements such as volume, phrasing, stress, and duration (Kuhl et al., 2010). These elements are what make a reader's oration of the text more songlike, natural, and like spoken conversations. Thus, the study showed that fluency is comprised of multiple aspects which are synthesized by Kuhl and her associates to create the definition of fluency which combines accuracy, automaticity, and oral reading prosody, which, taken together, facilitate the reader's construction of meaning. This is demonstrated during oral reading through ease of word recognition, appropriate pacing, phrasing, and intonation (Kuhl et al., 2010). The definitions discussed in this section point to practices teachers must consider as they teach oral reading fluency. This study wishes to investigate into teachers' pedagogic practices in teaching learners in upper primary grades and wishes to find how the teachers define oral reading fluency and for what purpose.

In Zambia, the National Literacy Framework (NLF) of 2013 defined oral reading fluency as the ability to read orally with accuracy, speed, and expression. The NLF emphasizes oral reading with accuracy, speed, and expression. From this definition we deduce that this skill is mainly an oral skill. Based on this framework, an approach that incorporates the nine components of reading for effective literacy development were presented as, pre-reading and pre-writing; Sounds - phonemic awareness; phonics; words; sentences; comprehension; writing; punctuation; and fluency. Taken together, these components are hoped to build a learner's ability to read, write, speak, and listen and are all necessary for effective literacy development (NLF, 2013).

Having discussed various ways regarding fluency, in this study we choose to define fluency as a characteristic of reading that occurs when readers' cognitive and linguistic systems are developed to the extent that they can read with sufficient accuracy and rate to allow for understanding the texts and reflecting its prosodic features. This study has chosen to characterize fluent reading as having three specific features: automaticity, accuracy, and prosody with a view that these features reflect both a historic and contemporary knowledge base on fluency and fluency instruction. They also help us to understand the relationship between reading fluency and readers' comprehension of texts. However, we are not aware of the teachers' views on the teaching of oral reding fluency to primary school learners. Education policy in Zambia recognises that oral reading fluency forms a critical part to learner success in reading

development (Ministry of General Education, (MoE, 1996). On the premise of the policy, this study hopes to establish teachers' views on teaching oral fluency in upper grades, particularly, Grade 5 classroom.

2.1.2 Importance of Oral Reading Fluency to Reading Comprehension

The importance of oral reading fluency to reading comprehension is one other area to be considered. Oral reading fluency is the ability to read connected text quickly, accurately, and with expression. Because comprehension is the goal of reading, fluency practice should also be included if learners understand the texts they are reading. Teaching text comprehension and fluency encourages learners to think about what they are reading while they are reading. To understand what is read, we use an appropriate unit that pays attention to the punctuation in the text and how the phrases within sentences coalesce to create a meaningful whole. It is necessary to understand what research says on the importance of oral reading fluency. So many studies have added their voice and have explained how important fluency is to reading development. Firstly, oral reading fluency is regarded as an integral component of reading and a critical feature of skilled reading (NICHD, 2000; Rasinski, 2004). Its importance is seen in many studies that indicate that there is a strong relationship between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension at class levels (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, &Jenkins, 2001: Kim, Petscher, Foorman, & Zhou, 2010; Kim, Wagner, & Foster, 2011; NICHD, 2000; Ridel, 2007; Roehrig, Petscher, Nettles, Hudson, & Torgesen, 2008). One thing that has come from these studies is that oral reading fluency is one of the five components of reading competency alongside phonemic awareness phonics, vocabulary, and comprehension (NRP report, 2000). Knowing how much teachers in Zambia regard oral reading fluency among its learners remain a cardinal point of this study. It is imperative to study and observe Grade 5 teachers in Zambia to see if they have similar views as regards the importance of reading fluency for successful reading.

Reading research strongly supports fluent reading as a necessary skill for adequate reading achievement across the K-12 continuum and it accounts for 25% to over 50% of the difference in reading comprehension (Paige 2020). However, this reading skill has been extensively studied as an independent reading process. Paige pointed out that oral reading fluency is better thought of as an outcome of multiple, lower-level reading skills that when functioning in a synchronous and efficient manner, results in smooth, expressive reading that's critical to understanding text. He

also brings out the idea that a fluent reader is more likely to benefit from both the vocabulary acquisition that occurs through reading and the growth in global knowledge that is one of the foundations of reading comprehension. In addition, Paige stated that fluent reading is an outcome of the efficient reading processes that lead to fast acquisition of thousands of words that are recognized instantly on sight. He also argued that regular assessment of these processes is necessary until they have become adequately developed in students to support word learning and fluent reading. Therefore, Paige proposed that to engage in the volume of reading that is necessary to build both fluent reading and the global knowledge that undergirds comprehension, students must be motivated to read. Acquisition of the reading processes that support and then blossom into fluent reading is critical in developing students motivated to engage in reading for pleasure and learning. Studying teachers' views on the promotion of oral reading fluency among learners whose biggest challenge is reading comprehension, would be appropriate.

In as early as 1983, Richard Allington observed that reading fluency had been largely neglected in the reading instruction curriculums despite its importance in reading development (Allington, 1983). Results from a study by Stanovich (1998) indicated that the words a student learns are affected by how much they read and hence, their reading fluency and students with grade-appropriate foundational reading skills had a 70% chance of scoring proficient on the state reading achievement test while those without had a 20% chance. Another view is that words are anchored in long-term memory by their sounds (phonemes) therefore, students with an inadequate inventory of words recognized automatically are unlikely to become fluent readers. The other fluency practice involves fluency assessment which should occur 3 times per year across first-third grade and it should continue 2 times/year through middle school. This study wishes to establish the teachers views on teaching fluency in upper grades to find out if it is still neglected in the reading instruction curriculums despite its importance in reading development (Allington, 1983).

Reports on oral reading fluency concerning older learners, the National Centre for Education Statistics in 2017 reported that only 36% of 8th graders who took the NAEP assessment performed at or above Proficient, and only 4% performed at Advanced. For 12th graders, data from 2015 revealed that only 37% performed at or above Proficient, and 6% performed at Advanced. Although fewer studies have been conducted on effective fluency instruction with

older readers as opposed to younger students, a few common traits of effective fluency work for older students with unfinished learning have emerged. Increasing reading fluency for middle and high school students small-group intervention is also necessary. Evidence is found in Rasinski's study on reading fluency for adolescents: should we care?", in which he outlined traits which includes - students to listen to fluent readers to hear fluency modelled, students need to have assistance during their own readings of text which is provided best while the student both hears and sees the written words and students must practice fluency consistently.

In another instance, a document by Rasinski that was meant to serve as a protocol was to be used by individuals who would be leading small groups of students on their journey toward improving reading fluency. The excerpts that lie at the heart of this protocol should align to expectations for high-quality instructional materials appropriate for the grade level to ensure students participating in the protocol are prepared for college and/or careers. The protocol could be used during small groups outside of normal class times or during class when other students are engaged in activities related to the topic under study. It could be used at any time during the school year to enable students to encounter more success throughout the school year. The implication here is that increasing fluency allows students to then concentrate on comprehending the grade-level material rather than focusing on trying to navigate through decoding or determining meaning of unknown words (Fuchs, Fuchs, Hosp, & Jenkins, 2001; Jenkins, Fuchs, van den Broek, Espin, & Deno, 2003; Torgesen & Hudson, 2006). How teachers in upper grades increase fluency among learners is what this study wishes to establish.

The aim of reading is generally to ensure that readers can comprehend a written text. Although comprehension is the goal of reading, other skills cannot be neglected if one were to achieve the goal. Reading fluency, particularly text reading fluency has been found to be closely related to reading comprehension amongst language learners across levels of elementary to primary school level (Fuchs et., al., 2001; Geve & Farnia, 2012). The relationship between reading fluency and reading comprehension is of considerable interest because it has significant implications for assessment (Wood, 2006). Since high-stakes testing is timed, it is very important that students are reading the testing material quickly, accurately, and can comprehend what they are reading. In the current study as we investigate teachers practices into the teaching of oral reading fluency

to primary school learners in Zambia, it is imperative to discuss research studies that present arguments on the relationship between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension.

Several studies have shown a positive correlation between oral reading fluency and comprehension. Findings on correlational study by McConnaughhay, (2008) on third-grade students in a suburban public elementary school showed a significant relationship between third-grade students' reading fluency rates and reading comprehension performance. The results also revealed that the instructional categories were highly related to the mean comprehension score and level of performance. Therefore, McConnaughhay recommended the use of a different comprehension measure, selecting participants from a different grade level, and conducting an experimental study using a fluency intervention for future research. A longitudinal relationship between reading fluency and reading comprehension skills in second-grade children was found in learners at the beginning of the year who did not read with accuracy and fast enough to conclude that they were fluent. This was in a study by Lai, Benjamin, Schwanenflugel & Kuhn (2014) who investigated the use of phonics timings to increase decoding automaticity, sight-phrase timings to increase recognition of high-frequency words, and story timings to increase the rate of reading connected text. What measure do teachers handling Grade 5 learners in Zambian classrooms use? McConnaughhay did his study on 3rd grade children, but this study will try to establish strategies teachers use on 5th graders.

2.1.3 Contribution of Oral Reading Fluency to Skilled Reading

In this section we look at what research says on oral reading fluency as one of the several critical components required for successful reading comprehension. Research says that oral reading fluency is an integral component in reading development and text comprehension, and it has become central to the literacy curriculum of many primary and elementary schools (Kuhn, Rasinski & Young, 2018). Reading fluency is considered by many to be a foundational skill, or a competency that should be acquired early since it lays the foundation for further growth in reading (National Governors Association and Council of Chief School Officers, 2010). Students who read with automaticity and have appropriate speed, accuracy, and proper expression are more likely to comprehend material because they are able to focus on the meaning of the text Fluent reading is often considered to be nothing more than a label for accurate, automatic word recognition (Fletcher, Lyon, Fuchs, & Barnes, 2007), a (mis**)**understanding that has been driven,

in large part, by a system of assessments or fluency programs that overemphasize students' reading rate (Kuhn, Schwanenflugel, & Meisinger, 2010; Rasinski, Reutzel, Chard, & Linan-Thompson, 2011). Fluency is seen by many as primarily an oral reading activity. Given that most reading beyond the primary grades is silent, fluency instruction is often considered to be inappropriate beyond third grade (Rasinski et al., 2011). Taken together, the dominance of these perspectives has meant that the perceived importance of fluency in the reading process has lessened of late (Cassidy, Ortlieb, Grote-Garcia, 2016; Rasinski, 2016). Unfortunately, by focusing exclusively, or even primarily, on accurate and automatic word recognition, students can develop a skewed view of what skilled readers do. By carrying out this study, we wish to establish the views on what skilled readers do in Grade 5 classrooms.

From another perspective, the above positions have been deemed problematic both in their portrayal of fluency's role in the reading process and in the negative impact they can have on instruction. Instead, fluency is a critical component in skilled reading and its instruction. Evidence from Research indicates that disfluency is a factor for a significant percentage of students who experience reading difficulties (e.g., Rasinski & Padak, 1998; Paige, Rasinski, & Magpuri-Lavell, 2012; Valencia & Buly, 2004). However, we also recognize that fluency instruction needs to be placed in the proper perspective. To determine this role, it is essential to remember the three components of fluent reading are integral to literacy development: automaticity (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974) and prosody (Benjamin & Schwanenflugel, 2010). This understanding recognizes that fluency is not only characterized by both elements, but that they both make distinct contributions to comprehension (Benjamin, Schwanenflugel, & Kuhn, 2009; Hiebert, Samuels, & Rasinski, 2012). Fluency is more than speeded word recognition in fluency instruction. Both automaticity and prosody contribute to its development. In the next section, we discuss the role of all the components of fluency to understand why it is essential to be included in the reading development.

2.1.4 Contribution of Automatic Word Recognition to Skilled Reading

When it comes to word recognition, skilled readers recognize most words both accurately and effortlessly. As a result, they do not need to spend a great deal of time identifying the words in a text. This is important because, as with any cognitive task, individuals have a limited amount of attention available while reading (e.g., Adams, 2011; Samuels, 2004), so, whatever attention they

spend on one task (word recognition) is attention that is unavailable for another task (comprehension). Beginning readers find themselves experiencing the reverse (Adams, 2011). Since they are just developing their decoding skills, they need to focus a great deal of their attention on word recognition, leaving them little attention for comprehension. One of our roles as educators is to help students move from purposeful decoding to word identification that is effortless or automatic. There is a consensus that this can best occur through practice, practice that consists not only of work on word recognition, but also on the supported reading of a wide variety of connected text (e.g., Kuhn et al., 2010; Rasinski, 2011). As a learner repeatedly encounters words, these words become more thoroughly embedded in the learner's memory and he or she requires less attention to decode them accurately. Eventually, the words become part of a reader's sight word vocabulary, generally over the course of three to eight repetitions (e.g., Torgesen, 2005). Automatic word recognition to skilled reading is one of the necessary skills readers need. This study wishes to establish how teachers help learners move from purposeful decoding to word identification that is effortless or automatic.

2.1.5 Link between Reading Accuracy and Reading Proficiency.

Word-reading accuracy refers to the ability to recognize or decode words correctly. Strong understanding of the alphabetic principle, the ability to blend sounds together (Ehri & McCormick, 1998), and knowledge of a large bank of high-frequency words are required for word-reading accuracy. Poor word-reading accuracy has obvious negative influences on reading comprehension and fluency. A reader who reads words incorrectly is unlikely to understand the author's intended message, and in accurate word reading can lead to misinterpretations of the text. In the 2002 Oral Reading Fluency Study, conducted as part of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP), researchers found that when children made errors that changed the meaning of the text, there was a more direct relationship to reading comprehension than the errors that did not result in a change of meaning (National Assessment Governing Board, 2002). They also noted that errors that do not affect meaning are rare. When words cannot be read accurately from memory as sight words, they must be analysed. Thus, it is important to teach word-identification strategies, such as decoding and use of analogy (Ehri, 2002), to figure out unknown words. Decoding is a sequentially executed process where the reader blends sound to form words from their parts. This can take place by blending individual phonemes (beginning

decoding) or phonograms (a more advanced form of decoding; Ehri, 2002). In order to accurately de code words, readers need to be able to accurately (a) identify the sounds represented by the letters or letter combinations, (b) blend phonemes, (c) read phonograms (common patterns across words), and (d) use both letter-sound and meaning cues to determine exactly the pronunciation and meaning of the word that is in the text (e.g., knowing how to correctly pronounce bow in two different sentences: The dog had a bow tied around her neck. The bow of the ship was tall). Instruction in all these sub processes is necessary for the first part of reading fluency: accurate word identification. How do teachers in Grade 5 classrooms link between reading accuracy and reading proficiency. The study wishes to find out the instruction teachers use to achieve accuracy in learners.

2.1.6 Link between Reading Rate and Reading Proficiency.

Reading rate comprises both word-level automaticity and the speed and fluidity with which a reader moves through connected text. Automaticity is quick and effortless identification of words in or out of context (Ehri & McCormick, 1998; Kuhn & Stahl, 2000). The automaticity with which a reader can decode or recognize words is almost as important as word-reading accuracy. It is not enough to get the word right if a great deal of cognitive effort is required to do so; automaticity frees up cognitive resources that can be devoted to text comprehension (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). Most educators quantify rate in terms of reading speed? either the number of words read correctly per minute or the length of time it takes for a reader to complete a passage. Poor readers are often characterized by slow, laborious reading of connected text. Many fluency interventions focus on increasing reading rate because slow reading can result in weakened comprehension (Mastropieri, Leinart, & Scruggs, 1999). Students who read slowly often fail to complete their work, lose interest in school, and seldom read for pleasure (Moats, 2001). The purpose of the current study is to establish the views on the link between reading rate and reading proficiency among Grade 5 learners in Zambian primary schools.

2.1.7 Link between Prosody and Reading Proficiency.

Prosody is a linguistic term to describe the rhythmic and tonal aspects of speech: the "music" of oral language. Prosodic features are variations in pitch (intonation), stress patterns (syllable prominence), and duration (length of time) that contribute to expressive reading of a text (Allington, 1983; Dowhower, 1991; Schreiber, 1980, 1991). These elements signal question,

surprise, exclamation, and other meanings beyond the semantics of the words being spoken. When these features are present and appropriate in oral reading, the reader is reading prosodically, or "with expression." A fundamental task of fluent reading is to supply the prosodic features in a text, although they are not graphically rep resented (Schreiber, 1980). Schreiber suggested that fluent readers use the other cues (i.e., morphemic, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic) present in text to organize the text into meaningful phrases and read with correct prosody (i.e., reading that sounds like speaking). Struggling readers are often characterized as reading in a monotone without expression or with inappropriate phrasing. Because prosody and reading comprehension seem to have a reciprocal relationship, prosody is an important area of focus for fluency instruction. This study will establish the instruction teachers' use on struggling readers in Grade 5 classrooms.

Prosodic reading provides evidence that the reader understands what is being read (Kuhn & Stahl, 2000). Despite this connection, little research has been conducted exploring the relationship between prosody and reading comprehension, and what little research has been done has found an unclear relationship. While studying repeated readings, Dowhower (1987) found that as the students' reading rate, accuracy, and comprehension increased, so did their prosodic reading on practiced and unpracticed passages, but she could not deter mine which caused the other. Pinnell et al. (1995) rated a representative sample of fourth graders according to a prosody scale. They found that higher levels of prosody were associated with higher scores on the main NAEP reading proficiency scale and concluded that decisions about causal relationships are unclear. It is unclear whether prosody is a cause or result of comprehension (Kuhn & Stahl, 2000) or if the relationship is reciprocal; however, the amount of correct expression indicates to a trained ear how much the reader comprehended the text. Prosody is one of the components of oral reading fluency. In this study, it is necessary to find out what teachers know on the link between prosody and reading proficiency. Do teachers help learners with reading proficiency through prosody.

2.1.8 Assessment of Oral Reading Fluency

Assessment is integral to helping learners become fluent readers that comprehend what they read. The texts that teachers use and that the learners read must be appropriate for them. Texts that are too challenging for learners may result in learners becoming frustrated and unmotivated

to read. Assessing fluency requires measuring the three main components: accuracy, rate, and prosody.

2.1.9 Assessing Accuracy and Rate.

The most widely used method for assessing accuracy and rate is administering a running record. In a running record, the teacher asks learners to read aloud from an unpractised text for one minute while the teacher notes the learner's errors in reading (Hougen & Smartt, 2020). A WCPM score is derived by calculating the total number of words the learner has read accurately within a one-minute time frame. An initial WCPM score can be used to set a goal for learners. When learners have met the goal, a teacher should provide another goal that helps them continue developing their fluency. Learners' fluency progress can be charted on a simple graph; this helps to see that learners are achieving their goals. The text should be just challenging enough so that learners do not become frustrated but not be so easily so that learners are not progressing to more complex texts. Teachers should also assess learners' comprehension following a fluency assessment because the end goal of reading has not been achieved if learners do not understand what they are reading. To assess comprehension in this setting, teachers can ask learners to retell what they have read. Teachers may also have specific comprehension questions ready for the learners to answer.

2.1.10 Assessing Prosody

Qualitative rubrics or rating scales are commonly used to evaluate prosody or expression (Hougen & Smartt, 2020). Rubric is easy to use: a learner reads a grade-level text; a teacher listens to the learner read and times the learner for one minute; at the end of the listening period, the teacher uses the rubric to evaluate the learner's prosody and assigns a score. For assessing fluency in a large classroom, teachers may be overwhelmed with administering running records or fluency assessments for large classrooms. Still, classroom-wide administrations are possible to certain degrees of feasibility and practicality. In large classrooms, teachers may wish to take the following steps: 1. Before the first day of school, teachers should prepare a series of texts for assessments. 2. Within the first weeks of school, teachers should create a checklist of all their learners' names.

Teachers should also divide learners into small groups to administer a running record. Teachers should consider how many assessments they could do in a day. Assessing five to six learners per day is feasible in a large classroom. After teachers have administered their running records and recorded the data for all the learners, the teacher can begin creating partners and groups for instructional purposes. It is very helpful to chart progress on a graph so that growth can be conceptualized. A checklist can also be useful when time is limited, or the classroom is large. A teacher could use a checklist and see if a learner is progressing just by looking at whether their WCPM scores are decreasing or increasing.

In this segment we analyse what research says on oral reading fluency assessment. Aldhanhani, Emad & Abu-Ayyash (2021) pointed out that it is important to measure fluency in a reliable way that helps examiners, teachers, and practitioners to easily distinguish between fluent and non-fluent readers (Rasinski 2004; Tindal et al. 2016). A comprehensive reading programme should integrate reading assessments that measure students' skills at the beginning, throughout, and at the end of the reading programme. The importance behind assessing students' oral reading fluency is to help teachers to determine the fluency instruction that works best for students' needs and abilities. Also, assessing students informs teachers and directs them to make new decisions about creating, modifying, or integrating new fluency approaches to stimulate students' interests and motivation to read. Additionally, reading assessments provide teachers with information about the skills that students have and have not achieved. The assessments inform teachers about the students' levels too. Teachers, then, can monitor students' progress and performance and move them to the next level. Accordingly, the assessment of oral reading fluency should start early during the academic year through the teacher's observation. The other practice is assessment of oral reading fluency. Link between prosody and reading proficiency. We want to observe how teachers conduct fluency assessments and how they monitor learners' progress in reading proficiency.

Having discussed the link of the main component to oral reading fluency, it is important to discuss what literature says on the assessment of oral reading fluency. This will help identify the gaps on the first research objective which is to assess the oral reading fluency level of learners when reading connected text in English. Many students worldwide struggle with reading, particularly around comprehension. As such, early identification of reading difficulties, use of

evidence-based interventions, and monitoring of student reading progress over time is essential. Oral reading fluency is an important skill to assess because a student's level of verbal reading proficiency has a 30-year evidence base as one of the most common, reliable, and efficient indicators of student reading comprehension (Reschly, Busch, Betts, Deno, & Long, 2009; Wayman, Wallace, Wiley, Tichá, & Espin, 2007). When used as a predictor of higher stakes reading comprehension tasks, an assessment of oral reading fluency performs as well as or better than many other comprehensive tests of reading (see Baker et al., 2008). Because reading fluency tasks are designed to be brief, reliable, and repeatable, they serve well as tools for universal screening for early intervention across Grades 1 – 6 (Reschly et al., 2009). Reading fluency tasks are also used for monitoring the progress of individual students who are at risk for later detrimental reading outcomes. The study will look at how teachers attend to at-risk learners in Grade 5 classrooms and to establish the measures taken to improve the at-risk learners.

Curriculum-based measurement (CBM) is a technically adequate, efficient tool whose features and design make it a good candidate for early identification and progress monitoring purposes, especially within a response to intervention framework. However, there is still some uncertainty regarding the utility of reading CBM as progress monitoring tools. Specifically, the literature has suggested that variability in the difficulty of CBM materials may influence how well these tools measure student growth over time. Basically, research has demonstrated the importance of fluency in the development of reading proficiency, and a variety of effective methods for the assessment and instruction of it have been developed. For instance, a study by Hudson, Lane & Pullen (2005) pointed out that Reading fluency is gaining new recognition as an essential element of every reading program, especially for students who struggle with reading. This is because reading fluency is one of the defining characteristics of good readers, and a lack of fluency is a common characteristic of poor readers. Differences in reading fluency not only distinguish good readers from poor, but a lack of reading fluency is also a reliable predictor of reading comprehension problems (Stanovich, 1991). In reading fluency development, once struggling readers learn sound-symbol relationships through intervention and become accurate decoders, their lack of fluency emerges as the next hurdle they face on their way to reading proficiency (Torgesen et al., 2001; Torgesen, Rashotte, Alexander, Alexander, & MacPhee, 2003). This lack of fluent reading is a problem for poor readers because they tend to read in a laboured, disconnected fashion with a focus on decoding at the word level that makes

comprehension of the text difficult, if not impossible. We shall try to look for the kind of measures teachers use to assess fluency in upper primary classrooms where there may be struggling readers with no reading proficiency. Investigating what teachers know about using the DIBELS on Grade 5 learners when reading connected text in English is what this study will look at with purpose of informing instructional and interventions that teachers could use on learners with any challenges.

Several arguments on the use of DIBELS for assessing ORF have been put forward. Pullen, et al., (2008) pointed out that although DIBELS has been demonstrated to be a good predictor of performance on state reading tests (Buck & Torgesen, 2003; Carlisle, Schilling, Scott, & Zeng, 2007; Good, Simmons, & Kame'enui, 2001; Shaw & Shaw, 2002), it should be noted that the use of DIBELS and other one-minute assessments as a measure of fluency has been criticized by some researchers. For example, Pressley, Hilden, and Shankland (2006) point out the limitations of DIBELS in predicting performance in comprehension on tests other than state reading tests. Carlisle et al. note that a substantial number of children who are considered ''low risk'' using DIBELS benchmarks perform below grade level on the ITBS; however, Roehrig, Petscher, Nettles, Hudson, and Torgesen (in press) found that DIBELS was significantly related to performance on the Stanford Achievement Test-10 in third grade. Perhaps the most important concern about DIBELS is that it only measures rate and accuracy, with no concern for prosody, so it is limited as an assessment of fluency. Despite these and other limitations, DIBELS provides a useful indicator of student performance on specific reading-related skills. However, caution should be used in the interpretation of the results. How do teachers view the use of DIBELS as an indicator of student performance on specific reading-related skills in Zambian classrooms, is what this study set to investigate.

2.1.11 Assessing Oral Reading Fluency in Connected Text

One view concerning oral reading fluency is on assessment of fluency in connected text. It is important to measure fluency in a reliable way that helps examiners, teachers, and practitioners to easily distinguish between fluent and non-fluent readers (Rasinski 2004; Tindal et al. 2016). A comprehensive reading programme should integrate reading assessments that measure students' skills at the beginning, throughout, and at the end of the reading programme. The importance behind assessing students' oral reading fluency is to help teachers to determine the fluency

instruction that works best for students' needs and abilities. Also, assessing students informs teachers and directs them to make new decisions about creating, modifying, or integrating new fluency approaches to stimulate students' interests and motivation to read. Additionally, reading assessments provide teachers with information about the skills that students have and have not achieved. The assessments inform teachers about the students' levels too. Teachers, then, can monitor students' progress and performance and move them to the next level. Accordingly, the assessment of oral reading fluency should start early during the academic year through the teacher's observation. Rasinski (2004) pointed out that teachers can easily assess each of the three dimensions of reading fluency. He also stated that to determine proficiency in decoding connected text requires one to calculate the percentage of words a reader can accurately decode on grade-level material. An accuracy level of 90–95 percent is usually considered adequate. Thus, a 3rd grader who is progressing normally in decoding accuracy should be able to read a 100-word text written at a 3rd grade level with no more than 10 uncorrected decoding errors. More than 10 uncorrected errors per 100 words indicates that decoding is a concern, one that requires additional instruction and practice. The current study whose aim is to establish the views of teachers on the pedagogic practices of teaching oral reading fluency in connected text would like to know the views of teachers concerning assessment, too.

2.1.12 Assessing Accuracy in Word Decoding.

Views with regards to the assessment of accuracy - the other component of oral reading fluency, is that measurement of students' word-reading accuracy can take numerous forms. Simply listening to oral reading and counting the number of errors per 100 words can provide invaluable information for the selection of appropriate text for various instructional purposes for an individual or group of students. A running record and miscue analysis (Clay, 1984, 1993) provided more detailed information about the students' accuracy. Her recommendation was that, through careful examination of error patterns, a teacher can determine which strategies the student is using and which strategies the student is failing to use. For example, observation of a student's attempts to figure out an unknown word might yield evidence of phonemic blending, guessing based on context, or a combination of decoding and contextual analysis. These observations can provide information about areas in need of further instruction to improve word-reading accuracy.

2.1.13 Assessing Automaticity (Speed/Rate)

Another view is that of assessing automaticity known as speed or rate. Various views abound. Teachers can normally assess automaticity in decoding by looking at the student's reading rate. Reading rates increase as students mature, so the target reading rate increases as students move through school. An easy method for determining reading rate, and thus automaticity, involves having students orally read a grade-level passage for 60 seconds and then calculating the number of words read correctly (corrected errors count as words read correctly) (Deno, 1985). Then, students' scores are compared with target rates (oral fluency norms) for each grade level (Rasinski, 2003). Readers who fall 20–30 percent below the target rate would normally require additional instruction. In reading development, oral reading fluency among Grade 5 learners would improve the reading and help in appropriate instructional strategies for different learners. The current study aims at establishing the views on this aspect as regards teachers in Grade 5 classrooms.

In the assessment of rate, contextual reading is recommended, rather than reading words in a list (Jenkins, Fuchs, van den Broek, Espin, & Deno, 2003) and oral reading rather than silent reading (Fuchs, Fuchs, Eaton, & Hamlet, 2000 cited in Fuchs et al., 2001) were both found to be the best measures of reading rate. Measuring reading rate should encompass consideration of both word-reading automaticity and reading speed in connected text. Assessment of automaticity can include tests of sight-word knowledge or tests of decoding rate. Tests of decoding rate often consist of rapid decoding of non-words. Measurement of non-word reading rate ensures that the construction being assessed is the student's ability to automatically de code words using sound-symbol knowledge. Measurement of reading speed is most typically accomplished through timed readings. Timings of a student's reading of connected text allows a teacher to observe the number of words read correctly and the number of errors made in each time and data from timed readings are usually recorded on a timing chart (Samuels, 1979).

2.1.14 Assessing Prosody/Expression

The third component of oral reading fluency is prosody or expression. Prosody can be measured only through observation of an oral reading of a connected text. During the reading of a passage, a teacher can listen to the student's inflection, expression, and phrase boundaries. The best way to assess prosodic reading is to listen to a student read a grade-level passage and to then judge

the quality of the reading using a rubric that scores a student on the elements of expression and volume, phrasing, smoothness, and pace. Students who score poorly may be considered at risk in this dimension of reading fluency. A student's reading prosody can be measured only through observation of an oral reading of a connected text. During the reading of a passage, a teacher can listen to the student's inflection, expression, and phrase boundaries. The following is a simple checklist of oral reading prosody observation: 1. Student placed vocal emphasis on appropriate words. 2. Student's voice tone rose and fell at appropriate points in the text. 3. Student's inflection reflected the punctuation in the text (e.g., voice tone rose near the end of a question). 4. In narrative text with dialogue, students used appropriate vocal tone to represent characters' mental states, such as excitement, sadness, fear, or confidence. 5. Student used punctuation to pause appropriately at phrase boundaries. 6. Student used prepositional phrases to pause appropriately at phrase boundaries. 7. Student used subject-verb divisions to pause appropriately at phrase boundaries. 8. Student used conjunctions to pause appropriately at phrase boundaries. A more quantifiable scale that provides a score that can be used to compare a student against him or herself across time or between students in a class or school can be found in Zutell and Rasinski (1991). Prosody in oral reading should signal reading comprehension of the reader and enhance listening comprehension of the listener. That is, prosodic readers understand what they read and make it easier for others as well.

2.1.15 Assessing Sub-Skills of Oral Reading Fluency

The National Reading Panel regards the DIBELS Oral Reading Fluency measure as a standardized, individually administered test of accuracy and fluency with connected text. The DORF passages and procedures are based on the program of research and development of Curriculum-Based Measurement of Reading by Stan Deno and colleagues at the University of Minnesota and using the procedures described in Shinn (1989). A version of CBM reading also has been published as The Test of Reading Fluency (TORF) (Children's Educational Services, 1987). DORF is a standardized set of passages and administration procedures designed to (a) identify children who may need additional instructional support, and (b) monitor progress toward instructional goals. The passages are calibrated for the goal level of reading for each grade level. Student performance is measured by having students read a passage aloud for one minute. Words omitted, substituted, and hesitations of more than three seconds are scored as errors. Words self-

corrected within three seconds are scored as accurate. The number of correct words per minute from the passage is the oral reading fluency rate.

Paige & Magpuri-Lavell, (2014) discussed the specifics of reading fluency and provided suggestions for identifying when reading is fluent and when it is not. They then discussed the important role that reading fluency plays in the attainment of literacy achievement and briefly reviewed research results that highlighted the relationship between fluency and comprehension. This was followed by a discussion of reading fluency and comprehension data gathered by one of the authors in India that highlighted the possibilities for the acquisition of fluent reading in those learning English as a second language. Following a review of strategies to assist middle and secondary teachers with the development of fluent reading in their students, they concluded with a discussion of word study strategies that promote syllabic and morphemic analysis. They concluded that it is such strategies that aid readers in the development of word automaticity and encourage the development of fluent reading.

Views from the preceding studies indicate that oral reading practice is a highly worthwhile use of time, even for older students and it is a critical element in literacy instruction (Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002; Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; National Reading Panel, 2000; Rasinski & Hoffman, 2003). This is because such practice improves a student's ability to read aloud with proper expression, and, even more importantly, it greatly improves comprehension. In his own words, literacy expert Shanahan (2022) asserts that teachers of older students ***should not stop*** focusing on oral reading fluency. Unfortunately, laments Shanahan, many teachers of older students were not making time for it. As Shanahan reported, teachers are often told to stop oral reading practice in the primary grades. In fact, the Common Core Standards only include fluency teaching through grade 5. And yet, "by 8th grade, oral reading fluency differences still explain 25% of the variance in reading comprehension." The research is clear: Better oral reading fluency correlates with better comprehension and vice versa. Shanahan summed it up as follows: "If you only have kids practicing their silent reading, then you are slowing kids' progress and sacrificing achievement points." Shanahan did a study with 8th grade older children and found 25% various in reading comprehension. In the current study, we wish to do an investigation among teachers teaching Grade 5 learners in primary schools of Zambia. We want to see if oral reading fluency is practiced and if teachers are making time for it in Grade 5 classrooms.

2.2 Review of Studies

In this section, the review of studies is presented. Unlike the conceptual review, the review of studies focuses on what scholars say about oral reading fluency. The section looks at studies pertaining to pedagogic practices in the teaching of oral reading fluency. Literature is presented following the four research questions of the study; what are the teachers' views on teaching oral reading fluency? Studies on how fluency is taught, and strategies teachers use to teach fluency; studies on challenges teachers face when teaching oral reading fluency and measures teachers take to help learners with fluency challenges.

2.2.1 Views on Teaching Oral Reading Fluency

To help us understand the views presented by various researchers on oral reading fluency as a pedagogic practice, this section discusses the background to the definition of oral reading fluency, its importance to reading comprehension and its contribution to skilled reading and word recognition. The link between reading accuracy, rate prosody and reading proficiency will be discussed before finally looking at the assessment accuracy and rate, prosody, the main components of fluency. The discussion will be from point of view of the world, African and Zambian.

Fuchs, et al., (2001) considered oral reading fluency as an indicator of overall reading competence. In their study they began by examining theoretical arguments for supposing that oral reading fluency may reflect overall reading competence and then summarize several studies substantiating this phenomenon. Next, they provided an historical analysis of the extent to which oral reading fluency has been incorporated into measurement approaches during the past century. They concluded with recommendations about the assessment of oral reading fluency for research and practice. Nevertheless, reliable, valid, efficient methods for assessing oral reading fluency already exist, and the field should systematically incorporate its assessment in its quest to understand reading development, to formulate sound instructional decisions, and to assess the potential value of reading treatments. This study looks at how teachers in Zambia deal with assessment of oral reading fluency for research and pedagogical practice that may extend the field's knowledge about the assessment of oral reading fluency in ways that make its measurement more compelling and useful for teachers and researchers.

Washburn (2022) did a systematically review evidence on the relations between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension for adolescents with limited reading proficiency (ALRP) in Grades 6 to12. Results suggested that knowledge of an adolescent's ORF, as commonly defined and assessed, provides helpful information about an adolescent's reader profile but is not sufficient to evaluate instructional needs or measure progress. Hence, this study hopes to take an investigating in Grade 5 classrooms to find out how teachers promote reading fluency among learners in upper grades.

In a study by Talada (2007), the results showed a reciprocal relationship between oral reading fluency and comprehension which allows one to comprehend more thoroughly as one reads more fluently. This shows that oral reading fluency and reading comprehension are components in effectively gaining meaning from text. Additionally, she said, as one reads more fluently, one's ability to comprehend also improves because one's brain is more capable in processing text meaning when one is able to read fluently. Therefore, when one automatically identifies words, one can comprehend text more completely. In her study, Talada assessed the oral reading fluency and comprehension relationship on second and third grade population at a private Catholic elementary school in New York using the DIBELS. The current study aims at establishing teachers' views with regards to how oral reading fluency relates to reading comprehension in Grade 5 classrooms.

Salvador, et al., (2012) examined relationships between second grade oral reading fluency scores and third grade end-of-grade reading achievement scores for students (N = 9562) in a large school district in the United States. Stakeholders' interviews were also conducted. In their model, oral reading fluency and reading comprehension scores were moderately correlated; oral reading fluency was the strongest predictor of subsequent achievement, followed by ethnicity but growth on oral reading fluency was not strongly associated with end-of-grade performance; and greater than 90% of students classified as 'at risk' on benchmark assessments performed poorly on third grade assessments. Stakeholders believed that oral reading fluency testing was not necessarily above selected levels of proficiency. Their conclusion was that oral reading fluency is a critical feature and outcome of early literacy instruction, and it has amassed great attention as a powerful predictor of success at all levels of schooling. This study was conducted in an elementary school to a lower grade level in America and results were positive. This study aims at investigating

views of teachers on such views regarding the promotion of oral reading fluency in Zambian schools in the upper grades.

In the United States of America, many schools were adopting a Response to Intervention (RTI) model to support and evaluate learning (Fuchs & Fuchs, 2006). According to Shinn, (2007), the universal screening and progress monitoring were two essential components of RTI that generally support improved student outcomes. Therefore, in many schools, teachers collected and used a tool called oral reading fluency for these purposes. However, some teachers were resistant to using oral reading fluency due to its disputed validity and their lack of time, resources, and knowledge about how to use these data (Foegen, Espin, Allinder, & Markell, 2001; Roehrig, Duggar, Moats, Glover, & Mincey, 2008; Samuels, 2007; Yell, Deno, & Marston, 1992). With a greater understanding of teacher resistance, school psychologists can address the critical factors that relate to the acceptability, use, and effectiveness of oral reading fluency (National Association of School Psychologists, 2008, p. cxix). In this case, Rowe (2013) did a survey to explore teacher acceptability of oral reading fluency for universal screening and progress monitoring. In the survey, teachers reported oral reading fluency to be highly acceptable for universal screening and progress monitoring. Teachers reported that oral reading fluency was slightly more acceptable for universal screening than progress monitoring. Knowledge of oral reading fluency and perceived time for assessment were significantly related to teachers' attitudes toward oral reading fluency. In the focus groups, teachers reported many of the reasons for their attitudes towards oral reading fluency.

In line with this study, teachers view oral reading fluency as one measure of reading that is commonly used for universal screening and progress monitoring. But because acceptability for oral reading fluency as a progress monitoring tool was slightly lower, this called for greater attention to how teachers are trained and asked to use oral reading fluency for progress monitoring. Since progress monitoring informs instructional decision making in schools using multi-level systems of support, and therefore understanding teachers' concerns with oral reading fluency for progress monitoring was important. Also, time and knowledge were significantly related to teachers' attitudes toward oral reading fluency. With the information provided in Rowe's study, administrators and school psychologists could consider ways to support teachers as they used oral reading fluency for universal screening and progress monitoring. In the current

study, we wish to establish teachers' views on oral reading fluency as a means for screening and progress monitoring in Grade 5 classrooms in Zambia.

Mott (2019) also used a correlational design to investigate the relationship between second grade students' oral reading fluency scores as an indicator of reading comprehension achievement from three South Carolina Title I schools. A significant predictive relationship between the predictor and criterion variables was also found in this study. Mott, therefore, recommended for more research to investigate what other factors account for the remaining percentage of variability in predicting comprehension outcomes in addition to fluency focusing on a different sample population such as special education students would also be beneficial. Similarly, Bigozzi, et al., (2017) analysed the predictive relationship between reading fluency and school outcomes across school levels (primary, secondary, and high school). Their study, however, emphasized the importance of identifying evidence-based tasks that can be administered in a short time and to many different individuals, which are easy to create, and are linked to school outcomes. After controlling on the effect of reading comprehension among Grades 4 and 5 children attending Italian primary, grades 6 and 8 secondary and grade 9 high school, students' reading fluency and comprehension were examined with a standardized reading achievement test. Results showed that reading fluency predicted all school marks in all literacy-based subjects, with reading rapidity being the most important predictor. In their study, school level did not moderate the relationship between reading fluency and school outcomes, confirming the importance of effortless and automatized reading even in higher school levels. This study, therefore, shows correlation in learners reading in English as the first language (L1) and a correlation in older or secondary school graders or upper primary school reading English as second language (L2). With these results, it is necessary to do an investigation on Zambian schools to establish teachers' views teaching of oral reading fluency to learners in upper primary schools reading text in English.

Another study on L2 learners was conducted among Iranian students by Pallathadka, et al., (2022). Using a randomized pre-test-post-test comparison group design, Pallathadka, et al., conducted an experiment to see how word recognition and fluency-building activities affect Iranian EFL students' reading comprehension. 93 subjects with pre-intermediate command of English were selected and were divided into two experimental groups and one control group,

each with 31 participants. The findings revealed that both experimental groups significantly outperformed the control group in the post-test. However, there was no significant difference between the two experimental groups, according to post-hoc analyses, hence the efficacy of the two implemented techniques. These results imply that material developers should include such activities in their textbooks to enhance text comprehension, especially at the pre-intermediate level of language proficiency. Additionally, teachers can employ these techniques in their classes with their learners at the pre-intermediate level. This implies that reading fluently is also the goal of many L2 learners.

Still on the relationship between oral reading fluency and comprehension, It has been found that the reading fluency elements (prosody, accuracy, and reading speed) have a significant positive relationship and a similar relationship can also be seen along the lines of the reading comprehension in different types of texts in each type of the text. A predictive correlational research design on fifth graders was also conducted in a Turkish secondary school. Uysal & Bilge (2019) utilized descriptive analysis using a "Reading Comprehension Test" and "Multidimensional Reading Scale". The study found that while the speed of reading, percentage of word recognition, and prosodies differed in favour of narrative texts, there was no significant difference in regard to the level of the reading comprehension but a small significant difference in the percentage of the word recognition was found and a large significant difference in the reading speed was found while significant difference in prosody was in the middle. Establishing the views of Zambian teachers teaching Grade 5 would be a good study especially that English is an official language and not the first language in Zambian classrooms.

However, some scholars have questioned how oral reading fluency and reading comprehension are intertwined. A study by Rath (2018) which was conducted to determine if there was a correlation between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension among 6 fifth-grade students from a Midwestern elementary school which focused on finding if a student who was a highly fluent reader was also strong is comprehension and if a student was a low fluent reader, then they are also low in comprehension. There was no specific correlation found between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension. Courbron (2012) did a correlation study between the three reading fluency subskills and reading comprehension in at-risk adolescent readers but in adolescent males (ages 13-19) who had been committed to a juvenile detention facility in the

United States using Measures of Academic Progress test to collect reading comprehension data. His findings revealed that the relationship between reading speed and reading comprehension had an identical correlation coefficient as the relationship between reading prosody and reading comprehension; both correlations were significant and strong. The research also revealed that reading accuracy and reading comprehension were only weakly correlated. Unlike in Rath's study, several other studies still showed a significant relationship between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension. Courbron (2012) did his study with adolescent juvenile while in detention and correlation was observed. This study will establish teachers' views on the relationship between fluency and comprehension among Grade 5 learners.

Hitchcock et al., (2011) indicated that most adolescent struggling readers fail to comprehend what they read struggle with literacy in middle and high school (Biancarosa and Snow 2006). They also indicated that the "most common problem is that they are not able to comprehend what they read" (p. 3) until over the last 20 years when a large body of research emerged on methods for explicitly teaching reading comprehension to students in the upper elementary grades (Carlisle and Rice 2002). The use of collaborative strategic reading (CSR) was recommended as being a set of instructional strategies designed to improve the reading comprehension of students with diverse abilities (Klingner and Vaughn 1996). This is because teachers who implement CSR at the classroom level use scaffolded instruction to guide students in the independent use of four comprehension strategies. In this case, students apply the strategies to informational text while working in small cooperative learning groups. Therefore, because CSR involves changes to teachers' instructional practices, regardless of subject matter, it can be used with a variety of curricula and in a variety of settings. Another argument is that CSR has been implemented in a number of states and has shown the potential to improve reading comprehension for both English language learner (ELL) students and non–ELL students (Klingner, Vaughn, and Schumm 1998). This is why Klingner and Vaughn (2000) suggested that CSR is effective with ELL students because the peer interaction that occurs during cooperative learning is intended to increase students' opportunity to discuss informational text in a non-threatening, low anxiety atmosphere. Research in this area indicates that students who were afforded the opportunity to practice their second language in classrooms that employed cooperative learning demonstrated a broader array of language functions than students in classrooms that were predominantly teacher directed

(Long et al. 1976; Long and Porter 1985; Pica et al. 1996). Based on the research findings, it is necessary to investigate whether such can also help learners' pedagogy in oral reading fluency.

2.2.2 Views on Teaching Oral Reading Fluency - African Situation

Aromu, Liang & Piper (2022) examined the mediating role of text reading fluency in reading comprehension in English and Kiswahili among first- and second-grade children from multilingual contexts in Kenya. They explored the mediating role of text reading fluency on decoding and reading comprehension in English and Kiswahili using the path analysis. The results demonstrated that decoding and text reading fluency bridges the gap between word recognition skills and reading comprehension in English and Kiswahili. This shows that children improve their reading skills and the direct influence of decoding on reading comprehension diminishes. Hence, text reading fluency explains the unique variance in reading comprehension. These findings, therefore, highlight the importance of text reading fluency in the developmental phases of reading comprehension among multilingual children learning to read across multiple languages.

Wawire & Kim (2018) examined the causal evidence of cross-language transfer of phonological awareness and letter knowledge (names and sounds) using data from multilingual 1st-grade children in Kenya using a randomized control trial. Children in treatment conditions received an 8- week instruction on phonological awareness and letter knowledge in Kiswahili. The comparison group received business-as-usual classroom instruction. Findings showed that children in the treatment condition showed greater improvement in phonological awareness and letter-sound knowledge in Kiswahili and English. Path analyses revealed divergent patterns of results for different outcomes. This provided causal evidence for cross-language transfer of phonological awareness and letter knowledge and offers important theoretical and practical implications.

The positive effects on letter knowledge and phonological awareness add to a large body of evidence that indicates the importance of explicit and systematic instruction in these areas. The causal roles of phonological awareness and letter knowledge on early literacy skills are well established for languages with alphabet writing systems (e.g., NELP, 2008; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000; see Kim et al., 2016; Kim, Lee, & Zuilkowski,

2018, for a review of evidence from developing countries). Moreover, Wawire & Kim's findings offer practical implications regarding the language of instruction, which is a hotly debated, important policy issue in multilingual contexts such as Kenya. The findings also indicate that explicit and systematic instruction on essential literacy component skills in the language children are more familiar with (e.g., Kiswahili) would promote their skills in a less familiar language (e.g., English). In conclusion, the present findings provide causal evidence of cross-language transfer of phonological awareness and letter knowledge in multilingual children, supporting the developmental interdependence hypothesis, and providing important educational implications for literacy instruction in multilingual settings.

Wawire & Zuilkowski (2021) explored the role of vocabulary and decoding skills in predicting reading comprehension among first- grade children from four elementary schools in Kenya. The children were administered a comprehensive battery of tests to assess pseudo-word reading skills, oral reading fluency, reading comprehension, and receptive vocabulary in English and Kiswahili. The results showed that receptive vocabulary and pseudo-word reading in English played a significant role in English reading comprehension. Kiswahili decoding explained a statistically significant unique variance of Kiswahili reading comprehension. An examination of the cross-linguistic variability showed that pseudo-word decoding in English and Kiswahili explained unique variance in reading comprehension cross-linguistically, while receptive vocabulary did not explain additional variance in reading comprehension across languages. These results add to the important evidence of receptive language skills and decoding skills in reading comprehension among multilingual children from low-middle income countries.

Oral reading fluency and accuracy are significant predictors of reading comprehension. Evidence is captured in Wawire, Piper & Liang (2021)'s study who examined the applicability of the simple view of reading (SVR) (Gough & Tunmer, 1986) model of reading comprehension in Kiswahili, a language that has a transparent orthography. They examined the developmental relationships among nonword decoding, listening comprehension, oral reading fluency, and reading comprehension in first and second grade Kenyan children. Their findings showed support for the SVR model. Both nonword decoding and listening comprehension were significant predictors of reading comprehension in Kiswahili. Nonword decoding was the

stronger predictor. The results further revealed that both accuracy and speed of nonword decoding played significant roles in reading comprehension in Kiswahili for beginning readers.

Piper & Zuilkowski (2015) pointed out that instructional coaching had improved student outcomes in the United States and may help to solve Kenya's literacy problems. Coaching is costly, however, and evidence is lacking regarding the most cost- efficient teacher-to-coach ratio. We used student literacy outcome data from more than 8000 students participating in the Kenya Primary Math and Reading Initiative - a randomized controlled trial of instructional interventions in public and nonformal schools - to fill this gap. Coaches in larger public zones made fewer visits per teacher, and teacher-coach ratio and student performance were negatively associated. Using causal methods, we concluded that lower ratios might improve non-formal school outcomes.

Wawire, B., A. & Barnes-Story, A., (2023) when teaching multilingual learners, it is critical for teachers to use instructional strategies that engage and nurture language and biliteracy skills. In this practice-based paper, we address how teachers can utilize translanguaging strategies to recognize and build multilingual practices while offering all learners opportunities to share their voices. The use of instructional practices that mirror the linguistic practices of multilingual learners promotes social justice and inclusiveness in learning. We provide explanations and examples of translanguaging pedagogies, followed by instructional approaches that teachers can use to foster the language and literacy development of multilingual learners. Specific strategies and pedagogies that can be easily integrated into the classroom to promote language and literacy development are described. The appendix includes a shortlist of high-quality websites that support multilingual instruction and additional suggested readings for teachers seeking more information about how to integrate translanguaging into their classrooms.

Kombe & Mwanza, (2019) did a study to establish whether teachers were adequately prepared to implement the 2014 revised literacy policy in selected primary schools in Kitwe district on the Copperbelt. Their view was to establish the extent to which in-service teachers were prepared to implement the revised policy and to establish the challenges teachers faced in the implementation of the 2014 revised literacy policy. Through interviews and focus group discussions with district resource centre coordinator and college/school administrators, the study found that while some teachers were trained, others were not. Schools still lacked teaching

resources with which they could implement the policy. Teacher training institutions did not fully understand the content of the 2014 revised policy hence had challenges implementing it. The study recommended wider consultation between policy makers and implementers during formulation and or revision of literacy policies.

As we consider teachers' pedagogic practices of teaching oral reading fluency in primary schools in this study, we generally consider pedagogic practices as the theory and practice of teaching. Samosa (2021) stated that "Pedagogical innovation may serve as a steppingstone to ameliorate students' poor reading comprehension, attitude, and engagement". Samosa's study confirmed that interactive scaffolding collaborative learning approaches should be utilized in reading sessions to improve the pedagogical approach as well as the academic performance of the learners. In the same way, as far back as 1986, Shulman speaking about the importance of pedagogic practices on teachers said:

"Those who can, do. Those who understand, teach."

(Shulman, 1986, p. 14)

Hennessy, Haßler, & Hofmann, (2015) examined the impact on teachers' thinking and classroom practices through observations, lesson and workshop recordings, teacher interviews, portfolios, and audio diaries. Through a teacher-led workshop approach and trailing new pedagogical strategies, teachers raised their expectations of pupils, adapted to learners' knowledge levels, used more practical and group work, and integrated technology use. Pupils built deeper understanding of subject matter, were actively engaged, worked collaboratively, and used digital technologies for problem solving. The methodology and process of how instructors approach teaching and learning using a specific curriculum with specific goals in mind especially in relation to academic subjects or theoretical concepts. We also consider pedagogy as it refers to all levels of teaching, from nursery and primary, all the way up to higher education. Fundamentals of Pedagogy consider different approaches that are usually placed on a spectrum from teacher-focused to learner-focused pedagogy. In this segment, therefore, we review various beliefs and opinions held by research on pedagogic practices in the teaching of oral reading fluency to primary school learners. As the name suggests, teacher-focused pedagogy revolves around teachers, putting them at the centre of the learning process, while learner-focused pedagogy is centred around learners playing an active role in the learning process. In the

following section of our study, we focus our review views of researchers on pedagogic practices of teaching oral reading fluency affecting both teachers and learners.

2.3 Pedagogic Practices for Teaching Oral Reading Fluency.

The following section discusses what literature says about pedagogical strategies and instructional strategies that can be used to teach oral reading fluency in classroom situation. Literature is presented from the world, African and Zambian perspectives. Firstly, literature on the meaning of pedagogy and some pedagogical approaches in teaching such as the constructivist method, collaborative learning approaches, inquiry-based approach, whole language approach, and the phonics-based or systematic, explicit instruction approaches is discussed. Secondly, several interventional strategies which fall within assisted and repeated reading are discussed. Finally, the section discusses literature on instructional strategies to develop reading fluency namely, Fluency Development Lesson (FDL), Fluency-Oriented Reading Instruction (FORI), Radio Reading and Fast start reading concluding the discussion with some reading interventions for older students.

2.3.1 What is pedagogy?

Basically, pedagogy in teaching can be referred to as an educator's understanding of how the students learn. The teachers are focused on presenting the syllabus to the students in such a way that it is relevant to their needs. Pedagogy demands classroom interactions between the teacher and students which creates a significant impact on the learner's mind. Pedagogy enables teachers to understand the most suitable practices for a classroom setting. It helps them to know how different students learn and grasp information so that they can tailor their lessons to satisfy those needs. It is likely to improve the quality of teaching and the way it is received by the students. Pedagogy plays an important role in helping teachers understand the best ways to conduct a classroom. It gives them insights into how students learn differently in different topics so that they can conduct lessons to suit these needs. It aims to improve the quality of education for students. Teacher pedagogy, therefore, refers to the pedagogy that is cantered towards the teacher, who gives the most meaningful course information. In this approach, the teacher has a large responsibility of giving correct information to the students in the right way, irrespective of

their teaching styles. The teacher can give a clear understanding of how the students are doing concerning their learning and be an effective model for the target language.

2.3.2 Pedagogic Approaches/methods for Teaching Oral Reading Fluency

Basically, there are several pedagogic approaches of teaching and learning. The section discusses some of them as presented by different scholars and academic experts.

2.3.2.1 Constructivist Method

Meenu Dev (2016) revealed that constructivist method enhances the academic achievement and problem-solving ability of the pupils. In his study, the students who were taught by using constructivist methods were also found to have a deeper comprehension of the learning process and outcomes. As a result, they became more critical than those in traditional classes. This implies that this approach may help learners whose speaking abilities remain the most difficult skill to master and as a result, they are reluctant to speak because of some psychological factors such as anxiety and lack of confidence. Chelghoum (2020) used a social constructivist approach among students of English as second language to teaching oral skills based on the works of Vygotsky. This approach triggered students' interests and enhanced their learning strategies. This shows that constructivist approach could considerably contribute to making learners good speakers of English in and out of the classroom.

2.3.2.2 Collaborative Learning Approaches

Samosa (2021) results confirm that interactive scaffolding collaborative learning approaches should be utilized in especially reading sessions to improve the pedagogical approach as well as the academic performance of the learners. Provided ample evidence on how pedagogical innovation may serve as a steppingstone to ameliorate students' poor reading comprehension, attitude, and engagement. Hitchcock et al., (2011), speaking on behalf of adolescent struggling readers who fail to comprehend what they read, noted that findings from an expert panel of reading researchers noted that approximately 8 million adolescents struggle with literacy in middle and high school (Biancarosa and Snow 2006). Research in this area indicates that students who were afforded the opportunity to practice their second language in classrooms that employed cooperative learning demonstrated a broader array of language functions than students in classrooms that were predominantly teacher directed (Long et al. 1976;).

Wood (2020) investigated the relationship between second grade students' oral reading fluency scores as an indicator of reading comprehension achievement in which he found that there is a significant predictive relationship between the predictor and criterion variables. He proposed for more research to investigate what other factors account for the remaining percentage of variability in predicting comprehension outcomes in addition to fluency using a different sample population such as special education students.

A chapter in Farrell (2012),'s book offers various strategies and scenarios that teachers can consider when teaching L2 reading reflecting on teaching the four skills. He offers strategies and scenarios that are some of the important strategies for teaching L2 reading. He also offers suggestions intended to help teachers to reflect on how to approach the teaching of L2 reading.

2.3.2.3 Inquiry - Based Learning Approach

Reflecting on reading fluency as one of the strategies for professional development, a research study by Gindya (2022) which aimed at examining the effect of using inquiry - based learning on enhancing 4th primary stage students' 21st century EFL literacy, showed that inquiry-based learning effectively enhanced 4th primary stage students' 21st century EFL literacy. Exploration approach by Pretorius & Spaull (2016), this was after realising that most analyses of oral reading fluency (ORF) were based on L1 reading, and the norms that had been developed in English were based on first language reading data. This is problematic for developing countries like Zambia where many children are learning in English as a second language. Preliminary findings indicated a threshold at 70 words-read-correct-per-minute which is lower than the typically used threshold of 90 words-read-correct-per-minute of English first language readers. The integrative approach Aldhanhani & Abu-Ayyash (2020) the reviewed theories, studies, and practices relevant to oral reading fluency with the aim of identifying the theories underpinning oral reading strategies and the gap in research so far conducted on oral reading fluency. They reiterated that oral reading fluency skill is the bridge to reading comprehension and lamented on how it has been neglected in many English reading programs. They pointed out that different theories (including behaviourism, information processing model theory, automaticity theory, and Ehri and McCormick's word learning theory) have shed light on this skill. Significantly, the practices that this study investigated and presented concerning teaching and assessing oral

reading fluency might give an inspiration for the policymakers and curriculum designers to integrate oral reading fluency in their reading programs.

The strategy used by Gindya aimed at examining the effect of using inquiry - based learning on enhancing 4th primary stage students' 21st century EFL literacy, Rubioa & Conesab (2022) did an experimental study using an inquiry-based learning method on third year of Primary Education students in Spain to teach science. The assessment results showed that although just after the post-test both groups did not have significant differences, they became more prominent when the test was repeated in a couple of weeks. The preceding results suggest that inquiry-based learning is a better methodology to teach science because of the academic results achieved. In the following section, we look at the whole language approach and phonics-based/systematic, explicit fluency instruction and the whole language approaches to teaching reading.

2.3.2.4 Whole language approach and Phonics-Based/Systematic, Explicit Instruction

In the simplest terms, "whole language" is a method of teaching children to read by recognizing words as whole pieces of language. Proponents of the whole language philosophy believe that language should not be broken down into letters and combinations of letters and "decoded." Instead, they believe that language is a complete system of making meaning, with words functioning in relation to each other in context. On the other hand, the Phonics-based reading instruction is a methodology for teaching young children to read and spell words. The teacher introduces a series of spelling rules and teaches the child to apply phonetics (how the letter combinations sound out loud) to decode words based on their spellings. Phonics attempts to break written language down into small and simple components.

Rosenshine (1986) proposed that the most effective and efficient way to teach literacy to young learners is through the direct and explicit teaching of skills. Systematic, explicit instruction is taught in a direct way rather than in an implicit way so that the learner knows exactly what is expected. This style of teaching requires carefully planned teacher and learner interactions. Teachers begin instruction with being fully responsible for learning and then gradually hand over this responsibility to learners as they become successful and able to apply skills and strategies independently. Thus, instruction moves from teacher modelling to guided practice using prompts and cues, and then to independent and fluent performance on the part of the learner. Systematic, explicit instruction proceeds in small steps, checking for learners' understanding, and aims to

achieve active and successful participation by all learners (Rosenshine, 1997). There is a plan or logical sequence of teaching meant to reduce learners' confusion and errors. This is evident when teaching letter sounds in a phonics-based approach (e.g., separating the teaching of [b] and [d] and focusing on high-frequency sounds such as /a/ and /s/ among those taught first). Explicit, systematic instruction can also be referred to as the 'I do', We do', 'You do' approach (Archer & Hughes, 2011) or the gradual release model of instruction.

In Zambia, the Ministry of General Education (MoGE) implemented two national literacy programs to improve low levels of reading; the Primary Reading Program (PRP) implemented from 1999 to 2014 and the Primary Literacy Program (PLP) piloted in some schools in 2014 before being scaled up. This research examined the acquisition of basic reading skills among learners in familiar languages at the end of grade 2 in the two national literacy programs. Assessment results were examined separately for each program and compared the two with each other. Outcomes were observed based on the Early Grade Reading assessment test battery given to random samples of children. In comparison of PRP with PLP, results showed a higher percentage of zero scorers for PRP than PLP. Comparison by each language, all results are in favour of PLP in Cinyanja only in letter-sound knowledge and non-word decoding and in Kiikaonde only in letter-sound knowledge. In Silozi results are in favour of PLP in all variables and in Icibemba in all variables except in reading comprehension. Comparisons by use of home language, in Cinyanja results showed significant differences in favour of PLP in letter-sound knowledge, non-word decoding and reading comprehension. In Icibemba significant differences occurred in orientation to print, letter-sound knowledge, oral passage reading and reading comprehension and in non-word decoding. In Kiikaonde and Silozi results showed significant differences in letter-sound knowledge. Comparison when home language was not the same as the language of instruction results in favour of PLP showed significant difference only in Silozi in listening comprehension. Comparisons by gender, results favour both boys and girls in PLP in all variables except in orientation to print where boys obtained significantly higher mean rank scores than girls (in the degree PLP resulted in better scores). Overall, this research revealed slightly better results for the PLP than PRP on the basic reading skills, more specifically in letter-sound knowledge and reading skills (non-word reading, oral passage reading and reading comprehension). The high peak of zero scorers for most measures is an indication that most children will not have learned to read and are thus in urgent need of better instructional support

and further research is required in use of more efficient and effective interventions in Zambia (Primary Literacy Program (PLP), 2014). This study hopes to fill this gap in terms of pedagogical instruction used in the phonic-based approach to improve fluency among learners in primary schools of Zambia.

The key difference between phonics instruction and the whole language approach is the focus in the early stages of literacy: phonics stresses letter sounds within words while whole language prioritizes making meaning from complete words. Phonics instruction is also more explicit and sequential. On the other hand, the whole language emphasizes the use of authentic texts and finding meaning. While phonics emphasizes spelling and grammar, the whole language approach encourages learners to focus on the meaning or craft of their writing. This can be seen in the use of best guess spelling as a strategy to prioritize output. Hayati (2017) examined the effectiveness of whole language instruction and phonics instruction for improving reading fluency and spelling accuracy of the eighth-grade students whose English is as their foreign language (L2). There was a significant improvement in both reading fluency and spelling accuracy on the students where phonics instruction was used. Phonics instruction had a great influence in helping the students use to using the vocabulary which was used in the reading passage. From the above discussion, the current study was prompted to investigate strategies teachers use to promote fluency in such classes receiving whole language and phonics-based approaches in primary schools of Zambia.

2.3.3 Intervention Strategies to Teach Oral Reading Fluency

In this section, we review literature on pedagogic practices that are used to teach oral reading fluency and how they are used to teach learners in primary and secondary school levels. The purpose of this review is to establish research-based interventions and instructional strategies necessary for learners who are reading to learn in upper primary schools of Zambia and to analyse what research says on teaching fluency to older learners struggling to read in upper grades. We discuss what scholars and educationist say on instructional strategies and implementation strategies necessary for teaching oral reading fluency in primary and secondary schools.

2.3.3.1 Repeated Reading

Many students lack fluency in English as a second language reading. Like in first language settings, repeated reading is proposed as an instructional method to improve fluency in the second language, too. Repeated Reading is a particular method proposed by Samuels (1979) to develop decoding automaticity with struggling readers. In repeated reading, students read the same text repeatedly until a desirable level of fluency is attained. Research has shown that repeated and monitored oral reading improves fluency and overall reading achievement. It provides the targeted, focused practice needed to improve all areas of reading fluency, accuracy, rate, and prosody and is one of the most studied methods for increasing reading fluency (NRP;2000). Repeated oral reading substantially improves word recognition, speed, and accuracy as well as fluency (Samuels 1979). Fluency students' struggles extend beyond word-level difficulties to include deficits in reading comprehension. Most effective interventions are those that are conducted one-on-one with a trained model of fluent word reading and accuracy (Hudson et al., (2020).

Altun (2017) investigated the effects of repeated reading on students' reading fluency and comprehension in English as a foreign language (EFL) with 11 students who were studying at English Language Teaching (ELT) program. Three texts consisting of 2,252 words in total were divided into 8 passages. The study lasted 8 sessions and the students were asked to read each passage 7 times in each session. A pre-test and post-test were used to see whether repeated reading would improve students' fluency and comprehension in L2 reading. Results in this study did not show that there was any significant change in students' fluency, however, students' reading comprehension improved significantly. They concluded that this result was obtained because the 8 session-treatment were not enough to develop students' reading fluency, but it helped them to enhance their reading comprehension. It is suggested for future research that longer treatment would be needed for improving reading fluency.

In another study, Blum, et al., (1995) examined if reading repeatedly with audio cassettes at home was a good instruction for L2 literacy. They found that repeated reading increased L2 reader's fluency and accuracy. The participants in this study also said that their motivation was enhanced with this method.

Taguchi (1997) who worked on 15 Japanese undergraduate students who were learning English as a foreign language attempted to investigate the effects of repeated reading on silent or oral reading rates of these participants. The students were instructed to read a passage silently seven times which included three sessions with an audio cassette accompaniment in 28 sessions for ten weeks. There was an improvement in the seventh reading, but the higher-level students could not transfer these rates to a new passage. The lower-level students, on the other hand, could transfer these improvements to the new passages and they showed a significant increase in reading new passages orally.

Later, Taguchi & Gorsuch (2002) investigated whether students could transfer reading rate and comprehension to a new passage for silent reading. However, they could not achieve conclusive results. Even if they found that there was improvement from a pre-test of a reading passage to a post-test of a different reading passage, it was not a significant improvement as the results were lower than p value. Furthermore, there was not much difference between experimental and control groups who also showed a moderate level in comprehension. The researchers pointed out that not reaching a significant result could be due to the short treatment period.

Then, Taguchi, et al., (2004) extended the treatment period to 42 sessions to see whether and in what way repeated reading increases reader's fluency in FL reading. They compared the effects of two different strategies: extensive reading and repeated reading. They found that there was a significant increase in repeated reading group's reading rate. However, they could not transfer it to a new passage. They reported that there was not a decline in the rate and comprehension in the news passage. They further pointed out that students revealed positive perceptions about assisted repeated reading. It was concluded that, to be exposed to text accompanied with an audio helped the readers who were at the beginning levels and increased their motivation for reading.

Providing a model of fluent reading and performance feedback, using easier level text, setting as a performance criterion, and practicing RR with peers, also contributes to improved outcomes of fluency and comprehension. (Stevens, Walker, & Vaughn (2016). While Steinle, et al (2022)'s findings pointed out that fluency interventions may be less impactful for struggling readers in the secondary grades and should be based on individual student needs, and ongoing progress monitoring should be used to adjust instruction. When students show a lack of responsiveness to these interventions. The use of repeated reading to early grade learners could help improve their

fluency at an early age so that future reading problems could be avoided when individual readers are assisted with a trained fluent model. Steinle, et al., (2022) did an extended synthesis to Wexler et al. (2008)'s synthesis. This was on an assumption that students in the secondary grades with low reading fluency may need evidence-based interventions, especially interventions that can improve fluency and reading comprehension outcomes simultaneously.

In another study, Aldhanhani & Abu-Ayyash (2021) provided a description of some of the highly effective oral reading fluency strategies that involves the reading-aloud approach used in different classroom levels and showed a positive impact on students' oral reading fluency. There has been widespread agreement that the repeated reading approach is the most frequent method used to develop and improve students' reading fluency (Al-Kharusi 2014; Berg & Lyke 2012; Rasinski 2014; Rubin 2016; Samuels 1979). In fact, studies on oral reading fluency are dominated by research on repeated reading. It is found to be highly effective as it is promoted by many scholars and popular educators in the reading field such as Rasinski (2014) and Samuels (1979). The essence behind this technique is that it increases accuracy, word recognition (sight words), and speed (Samuels 1979). However, this strategy cannot be used with first graders, who have not yet developed knowledge of the alphabet and sounds fully (Ehri 2002; Pikulski & Chard 2005).

Endo (2022) who considered studying repeated oral reading and timed repeated reading pointed out that students read through the same text multiple times. Students may become bored from the repetitive task, so timing the repeated reading and providing goals are effective for student motivation. This allows the students to see concrete and immediate progress, as each read should produce a faster rate. When students meet their goal of reading a text a particular number of times or begin reading the text at a designated rate (measured by words correct per minute), students move onto the next passage. Shanahan (2021) proposed repeated reading activities that have been used successfully in building fluency in upper elementary, middle, and high school. Students read aloud a portion of text (perhaps a 100-word chunk, or the first couple of paragraphs). The teacher or another student gives feedback, and the student tries it again. This repetition continues three times or until the student can read it with 99% accuracy, at more than 100 words per minute, and with expression that suggests successful comprehension (White, et al., 2021). This, it is believed, can be combined with paired reading. Repeated reading is

especially valuable with content materials. Understanding such texts often requires this kind of intensive rereading anyway, so rereading is appropriate. In the current study we wish to investigate teachers' perceptions on repeated reading as an instructional strategy for Grade 5 learners in upper primary schools of Zambia.

2.3.3.2 Reading Practice

This is another strategy that may be used on learners' practice of oral reading fluency. It is well known that practice makes perfect, and, therefore, the more someone reads, the better reader he/she will become (Rasinski 2014). Reading practice is not about practicing reading the same text as in repeated reading. It is about reading more variety of texts. Therefore, teachers need to encourage students to read not only in school, but also after school (Wallot, Van Rooij & Hollis 2013). Repeated reading is essential to those, who have difficulties in fluency, but for others allowing them to practice reading different texts is significant not only for students' fluency, but also for their knowledge (Rasinski 2009; DiSalle & Rasinski 2017).

2.3.3.3. Modeling

Several studies have found that modeling is a vital approach to improve students' fluency (Calo, Woolard-Ferguson, & Koitz 2013; Rasinski 2009). Students might not recognise what it means to be fluent readers. They think that reading fluently means to read rapidly, which is not right because reading speed indicates only automaticity (Rasinski 2014). Therefore, students need to listen to fluent, expressive reading by fluent readers. This method increases students' phonological awareness and helps them to understand the meaning of texts (Berg & Lyke 2012). Endo (2022) proposed the use of Modelled fluent oral reading as teacher-led and audio**.** Teachers read the text aloud with emphasis on expression and intentional pausing. Modelled reading can also be done via audio through eBooks or audiobooks while students are following the printed text. Especially for older students who need additional support for grade-level texts across other subject domains, providing audiobooks helps students access the content independently. In support of model fluent reading, Ming, K. M. (2018) pointed out that in the early grades, reading aloud to students is common practice. However, as students move into the middle and secondary levels, teachers read alouds occur less frequently (Giorgis, 1999). When teachers model fluent reading, they conduct regular read-alouds that allow them to demonstrate how proficient readers read fiction and nonfiction text (Albright, 2002). Teachers can model quick, accurate, smooth,

and expressive reading, all qualities of fluency. Students witness effective reading practices and are provided with a standard for which to strive. During this experience, the teacher thinks aloud about the text's content so that students can realize that active thinking takes place during reading (Blair, Rupley, & Nichols, 2007). The teacher also engages students through questioning and discussion to ensure that they make meaning as they listen (Guerard, 2007).

According to Ming, (2018), Modeling fluent reading is especially important for adolescent struggling readers because it is often assumed that by the time students get to the fourth grade, they know how to effectively read and interact with text (Roberts, Torgesen, Boardman, & Scammacca, 2008). However, for readers who struggle due to lack of explicit instruction in this area or who have inborn challenges, these skills may not be fully developed, and, thus, they need to participate in read-aloud activities to learn how to read fluently (Guerard, 2007). In addition to modeling fluent reading, teachers can develop students' vocabularies and expose them to informational and story text structure, further helping them to understand how text works (Lane & Wright, 2007). Most importantly, teachers can demonstrate a passion for and excitement about reading, which can help struggling readers to see that reading is an enjoyable experience (Moss, 1991). This enjoyment can motivate them to read more frequently, which strengthens their fluency skills (Ivey & Broaddus, 2001). When can teachers model fluent reading? There are many times throughout the school day that teachers can model fluent reading for at least 5–10 minutes. This could be done at the beginning of the class period, when teachers can read aloud a chapter from a novel to settle the students and awaken their minds. To introduce the entire class to a new concept that is about to be taught, teachers can read aloud a piece of narrative or expository text to provide necessary background knowledge. During small group instruction, teachers can read aloud the content area textbook to support struggling readers who may not be able to read the text on their own. For 5–10 minutes at the end of class, teachers can read aloud an informational text to pull together the big ideas from the lesson. There are novels, picture books, and informational texts that are available for content area teachers to use in their classrooms.

To this effect, Ming and Mader (2016) provided a list of twelve websites that teachers of adolescent students could use to find such books. Hudson, et al., (2010) stated that despite the recent attention to text reading fluency, few studies have studied the construct of oral reading

rate and accuracy in connected text in a model that simultaneously examines many of the important variables in a multi-levelled fashion with young readers. Using Structural Equation Modeling, this study examined the measurement and structural relations of the rate and accuracy of variables important in early reading: phonemic blending, letter sounds, phonograms, decoding, single word reading, reading comprehension, and text reading comprehension among second grade readers. The effects from phonemic blending fluency and letter sound fluency to decoding were completely mediated by phonogram fluency, decoding fluency, single word reading fluency, and reading comprehension had direct effects on the text reading fluency of the second-grade students. Understanding the relationship among the many component skills of readers early in their reading development is important because a deficiency in any of the component skills has the potential to affect the development of other skills and, ultimately, the development of the child as a proficient reader.

2.3.3.4 Assisted Reading

Research into fluency has proved that assisted reading improves students' oral reading fluency (Rasinski & Padak 2000). In this strategy, the reader gets an opportunity to read a text while listening simultaneously to a fluent reading of the same text (Meeks & Austin 2003). This method helps the readers to decode words successfully, which later helps them in word recognition and automaticity. Also, assisted reading presents to the reader how to read with expression. This strategy can be validated in different forms. For instance, the teacher reads to the whole class. Pre-recorded or audio texts can also be used in which students read a text while listening to them. Another form is that a fluent partner (who is also called a reading coach) reads to students inside and outside the classroom (Rasinski & Padak 2000). Teachers can implement this strategy with the entire class or with specific students who are non-fluent readers. Similarly, Endo (2022) modelled fluent oral reading of students in her study. Students listening to the modelled reading but are actively reading aloud the same text at the same time. Assisted reading can be effectively conducted through audiobooks at computer stations in the classroom while students are simultaneously reading the text.

Assisted reading is one strategy that is frequently implemented and is believed to support the development of decoding and word recognition in learners. Early grade learners need opportunities to hear text read through assisted reading. Assisted reading takes several forms,

including teacher-assisted reading, peer-assisted reading, and audio-assisted reading. All such forms emphasise extensive practice as a means of improving students' fluency. Peer-Assisted Learning Strategies (PALS) support decoding and word recognition development on students with disabilities in early grades (Fuchs & Fuchs (2005). Dyad reading is another form of assisted reading intervention in which a weaker reader reads the text while being assisted by a Lead reader using above-grade level texts at various levels of difficulty. In a study by (Brown, et al., (2017), weaker readers using texts at two, three, and four grade levels above their instructional levels with the assistance of lead readers, improved their level of reading achievement. When assisted reading intervention is facilitated early on learners, it helps to provide a solid foundation for strong achievement in the intermediate grades and beyond and benefits Lead readers too. As this study takes an investigation into teachers' pedagogical practices in the teaching of oral reading fluency to Grade 5 learners, it is imperative to understand how much they engage learners in assisted reading in the classroom situation.

In another way, assisted reading can be practiced on students on multiple fluency strategies. Multiple fluency strategy implementation is when several interventions are used in one lesson instruction, and it is associated with improvement in oral reading fluency. Multiple explicit fluency interventions with decoding instruction on a single subject in grade three were used and choral reading, echo reading, repeated reading, audio book modelling, and teacher modelling for over a period of eight weeks was implemented and the pupils improved in oral reading fluency (Tracey (2006). In another study, assisted and repeated reading were implemented at the beginning of first grade learners, results in word decoding also showed an improvement (Rasinski, et al., (2020). In their study, students were provided with varied opportunities such as paired repeated reading, assisted reading, phrase reading, and guided reading in one lesson to help enhance their active participation in fluency instruction and engage them in reading for multiple purposes (Nichols, Rupley and Rasinski (2008). The implication is that assisted reading strategy can be used during guided reading with the teacher or during paired reading with a peer. This is where a student reads aloud while a more experienced or accomplished reader follows along silently correcting the student errors; phrase reading strategy would promote students' ability to read in syntactically appropriate and meaningful idea units or phrases. All that is done to understand what they read and to increase automaticity in word recognition and enhanced comprehension. While phrase reading can help reduce word-by-word reading, which is a major

roadblock to successful fluent reading and freeing capacity for higher level comprehension. This study hopes to reveal how much of the above-mentioned strategies teachers use when teaching learners at Grade 5 level.

2.3.3.5 Rhyming Poetry

Rasinski et al. (2016) suggested the rhyming poetry strategy for improving students' oral reading fluency through enhancing their phonological awareness. In fact, poetry has been found to be effective for developing students' phonics through learning about common orthographic patterns, word families, and phonograms. Integrating a rhyming poetry approach in the classroom motivates students to learn and explore the language in a relaxed, joyful way (Flores-Saldana 2016). Similarly, reading song lyrics is a powerful method to increase and enhance students' phonological awareness (Patel & Laud 2007).

2.3.3.6 Readers Theatre

Reader's theatre as an intervention, involves learners assuming the role in a dramatic play and reading their part several times. Repeated reading of their part improves their fluency skills. In a study by (Keehn (2003), results of learners with low ability levels made significant gains in rate, accuracy, prosody, and comprehension after the implementation of the Reader's theatre in conjunction with explicit fluency instruction. However, low-achieving learners made significant gains in reading rate and expressiveness whereas high-achieving learners made significant gains in reading ability. This study wishes to know how teachers in Zambia use theatre reading in their classrooms.

Nichols et al., (2013) pointed out that Readers Theatre provides teachers with a meaningful and purposeful context for incorporating repeated reading, even in the most challenging of learning contexts. Research recognizes the effectiveness of tested methods and practices that exist for the improvement of the oral fluency of struggling readers. Of these methods, repeated reading appears to be among the most successful (NRP, 2000). Readers Theatre is one enjoyable way to authentically engage readers in repeated readings. Research has also overwhelmingly linked reading fluency to multiple measures of reading comprehension (Martinez, Roser, & Strecker, 1998/1999). Oral reading fluency development through repeated readings has benefits that include improving both fluency and comprehension; increasing speed and word recognition

while decreasing word recognition errors (Samuels, 1997); increasing factual retention and encouraging deeper questioning and insights (Dowhower, 1989); and it is an excellent motivational device (Samuels, 1997). Oral reading fluency is a vital component for proficient reading. Performance activities, such as Readers Theatre, provide authentic reasons to read and reread selections focusing on fluency as well as text understanding and interpretation.

Research considers that Readers Theatre should be given teachers' highest consideration because it integrates many methods used to improve oral reading fluency such as modeling, echo reading, buddy reading, choral reading, and repeated reading. When teachers make fluency a major focus and provide instruction and materials that are engaging, students can accomplish the major goal of reading instruction - reading independently for learning and enjoyment (Worthy & Broaddus, 2001/2002). Research and practice indicate that the use of Readers Theatre has the potential to enhance both the fluency and the comprehension development of students, particularly those students who struggle to develop fluency and comprehension.

Black (2016) and Young & Rasinski (2009) emphasised another approach called the "reading theatre or readers theatre approach" to improve students' reading fluency. In this activity, students read a particular script or scenario, poem or play, many times to act it out in front of an audience. Students can rehearse independently or with the guidance of teachers, who model the reading to students until they are able to perform fluently and expressively. Usually, this activity is performed by two or more students. It can be formal or informal. Remarkably, the reading theatre approach involved repeated reading, modeling, and practice which help students in achieving oral reading fluency (Black 2016; Faatz 2009; Sovitsky 2009).

A study by Ming (2018) proposed practicing Reader's Theatre with a Twist. This is a Reader's theatre, in its traditional form, is a style of performance where students are given a script and are assigned to a specific character. They typically receive the script at the beginning of the week and practice their designated part(s) multiple times until they can read it fluently. On the day of the performance, students stand in front of an audience and read their lines. Instead of using costumes, props, or other visuals, the readers must effectively communicate the story's message through their vocal expressions (Doherty & Coggeshall, 2005). According to Ming, the twist comes about in how students are expected to practice reading the script. Instead of being assigned a specific character, the students must practice reading the entire script to prepare for

the performance. On performance day, students read the lines sequentially. That is, each reader delivers a line; for example, reader one reads line one, reader two reads line two, and so forth down the row of readers. This pattern repeats until the entire script is read (Garnett, 2011). Teachers can create their own scripts or use ones that are commercially prepared.

One thing that clearly comes on using Reader's Theatre is that it supports adolescent struggling readers because adolescent struggling readers are two or more years below grade level, teachers must teach with a sense of urgency (Routman, 2003). Teachers must realize that these students have a lot of ground to make up in a short period of time, and, therefore, they must make deliberate efforts to maximize the amount of time that students are actively engaged in learning. Instead of reading small sections of a script, reader's theatre with a twist allows students to engage with the entire script, providing optimum repeated reading practice. This allows students to read more texts across multiple opportunities. Repeated reading strengthens students' word recognition and enhances their comprehension (Gorsuch & Taguchi, 2010). Therefore, practicing an entire script, as opposed to just reading the lines of one character, also allows students to develop their ability to read with expression as they must sound like each character that they read. When can students practice scripts? Students can practice their scripts at multiple points throughout the day. As a segment of the English language arts block, students can work in collaborative groups to practice their scripts together. When they complete their assignment(s) in a timely manner and are waiting for the next lesson to begin or are waiting for instructions from the teacher, they can pull out their scripts and read independently. During transitional times, such as when students are waiting to go to lunch or waiting for the dismissal bell to ring, they can review their scripts. Students can also read their scripts as a part of their homework assignment.

One other out come on Readers Theatre is that it is a performance of a written script that demands repeated and assisted reading that is focused on delivering meaning to an audience. Because no acting, props, costumes, or scenery are used in Readers Theatre, readers must use their voices to carry the meaning. Thus, the goal of this fluency instruction is aimed at improving prosody and meaning. The repeated and assisted practice involved in rehearsal will improve accuracy and automaticity in word recognition. Research has demonstrated the potential of Readers Theatre to improve reading performance (Griffith & Rasinski, 2004; Martinez, Roser, &

Strecker, 1998/1999). Moreover, Readers Theatre has been found to be an engaging and motivational activity for students.

In another study, Chase, a second-grade classroom teacher in Texas made Readers Theatre an integral part of his reading curriculum for the first time in the 2007–2008 school year. Although he recognized several methodological limitations to the study, he also notes the added authenticity and contextual integrity of research that comes from the realm of a regular classroom and lead by the regular classroom teacher. His study affirmed the use of reader's theatre due to authentic classroom-based research on its effects to improve fluency and overall reading achievement among primary grade students. He further recommended the use of this "Method," and to personally guide teachers through the process and implementation.

2.3.3.7 Choral Reading

Choral reading is also called unison reading. During the implementation of this strategy, the teacher expressively reads aloud a short text, poem or speech to the students and they have to follow the text that the teacher reads. Subsequently, a group of three or more students read in unison the text assigned by the teacher (Moskal & Blachowicz 2006; Rowen et al. 2015). Also, the entire class can participate in the activity and read along with or without the teacher. This "reading along" procedure has been shown to increase students' confidence and enjoyment in reading because it reduces their shyness and panic of making mistakes when they read aloud independently. Furthermore, it helps students feel successful as readers (Rowen et al. 2015). Notably, this method involves modelling, practice, and repeated reading.

The other version of choral reading is Whole-Class Choral Reading (Paige, 2008). In whole-class choral reading (WCCR) all students read aloud from the same text, at the same time, in unison with the teacher. This makes choral reading a highly efficient instructional strategy because all students practice reading at the same time. Research has shown that both poor and good readers benefit from WCCR because they are engaged in deliberative practice with what is most often grade-level text, or text that may be above the reading level of some students (Paige, 2008, 2011b). Once students are trained in the procedure, WCCR provides teachers with a research-based strategy that is simple to implement across multiple subject areas. First, WCCR is an assisted-reading instructional strategy. Hearing the teacher read the text aloud provides students with a model of how to pronounce the words, what is an appropriate reading pace, and

what kind of expression to apply when reading. The texts which students practice with in WCCR are taken from the curriculum. One idea is to use texts that will be taught within the next week or two. There are advantages to using a text that is slightly ahead of the curriculum. First, students became familiar with the important words and how to read them correctly. Students also gained background knowledge on the topic which means the teacher can spend less time on introductory material and more time going deeper into the subject matter. Finally, students improved their reading skills within the anonymity of the whole class reading where no student is asked to read aloud in front of the class.

2.3.3.8 Paired Reading

Paired reading is a simple research-based reading strategy that is used to boost reading fluency and accuracy at different grades (Padak & Rasinski 2008). It is also called a partner reading approach. Every student benefit from this strategy, not only struggling readers or those diagnosed with dyslexia (Schneider 2007; Topping 2014). The paired reading approach is used to improve students' listening and speaking skills, as well as their motivation to read (Padak & Rasinski 2008; Topping 2014). Students work together independently under the supervision of teachers. In this strategy, two students read aloud to each other a sentence, or a paragraph, which depends on both text and students' levels. Usually, one of the students is less fluent or less confident in reading aloud alone than his/her partner. It is no surprise that the paired reading strategy is an ideal way to increase students' confidence and self-esteem (Berg & Lyke 2012).

Shanahan (2021) proposed paired reading as activities that have been used successfully in building fluency in upper elementary, middle, and high school. According to Shanahan, students are paired up and they take turns reading the text to each other. One student reads a page or paragraph and the other gives feedback. Then the students switch roles. During this activity, the teacher circulates throughout the room, giving feedback as needed. Link some comprehension work to this. At the end of each section of reading, have the students determine the main point(s) of that section or compose a good test question about that part of the material.

In yet another version of partner reading according to Endo (2022), the students read a section of text, for example one page or one paragraph, and a partner reads the next section of text in an alternating fashion. The partner can be an adult (at school or at home) or a peer. This builds students' reading stamina particularly with longer texts or books. Students are actively engaged

throughout the process, but alternating reading texts aloud allows for sufficient cognitive breaks needed for students to persevere through longer texts.

The other term for aired reading is Buddy Reading. Paired- or buddy-reading is a peer-assisted learning (PALS) strategy where students are put into groups or dyads of two. PALS has been extensively researched over many years, yielding much evidence demonstrating its effectiveness (Topping, 2005, 2006). While PALS is frequently used in the elementary grades, it is useful in middle school also. In paired reading, students take turns reading the text to each other. The first question becomes how to pair students? It is helpful if less fluent readers are paired with a more fluent reader, however, the difference should not be dramatic as we don't want the better reader to become frustrated with the less fluent one. Like whole-class choral reading, choose texts which serve the curricular needs of the class. Texts should also be at the independent reading level of the better reader, but not so difficult that the partner is frustrated.

This section presents how pair reading can be implemented as proposed in a study by Endo (2022). The first issue to address in paired reading is how to group students. One way is to make a list of students and their reading ability. Divide the list of students into good and not-so-good groups. Then pair the best reader from the good list with the best reader from the not so-good list. Another way is to pair readers based upon similar reading ability. When pairing students, it is also important to consider the interpersonal factors between students that can either encourage or impede successful implementation. It is also important to be sensitive to students who particularly struggle or may have reading disabilities. To make paired reading successful, it's also important that a routine be decided in advance by the teacher. For example, what signal or direction will students use to signal that it's now time to switch turns reading? Will they swap at the end of paragraphs or some other way? When and how will the better reader step in to assist their reading partner when it becomes clear the student does not know how to pronounce a word? What is an appropriate method for the reading pair to check for their understanding? Should they stop at the end of each page and build a common understanding of what happened, or perhaps they can take turns summarizing the reading. How this is done will depend on the extent to which the text is challenging to the reader. Finally, how long should a paired reading session last? To assist students with these issues, it's important they be decided in advance by the teacher.

Once the procedure for paired reading has been thought out, they should be modelled by the teacher in front of the class. One way to do this is to select a student to work with you. Practice in advance with the students so they understand the procedures and are comfortable participating in front of the class. Before Modeling, introduce the strategy to the class and the specific procedures to use during implementation. After the introduction, model the strategy in front of the class as was rehearsed with your student partner. Pay particular attention to demonstrate the specific procedures that were decided upon for correcting reading mistakes, turn-taking, and creating understanding of the text.

2.3.3.9 Guided Oral Reading.

Guided oral reading is where students read a text aloud with feedback and explicit guidance from the teacher. Providing error correction for the students either at the point of word reading difficulty, at the end of the sentence, or at the end of the paragraph is paramount to reinforce appropriate word reading strategies and phrasing that will aid in text comprehension Endo 2022).

2.3.3.10 Read Non-Controlled Decodable Texts

Non-controlled decodable texts are texts that students can read with at least 95% accuracy (Wilson, 2011). These books make use of highly decodable basic phonetic patterns and sounds that make them manageable for older struggling readers. While non-controlled means that students have not explicitly learned all the patterns that are presented in the text, because of its high emphasis on the use of decodable words, students are able to apply both context clues and sounding out procedures to determine unfamiliar words. High interest-low level readers are one kind of non-controlled decodable text that is appropriate for this population. As the name indicates, these books are highly relevant to adolescent readers as their content and appearance are age appropriate. However, they are written at lower reading levels that provide support to struggling readers.

One fact on non-controlled decodable text is that it supports adolescent struggling readers because they provide students with the opportunity to meaningfully engage with text at their reading levels (Ming, 2018). For students to become better readers, they must have lots of practice reading books at their independent reading levels (at least 95% accuracy), and non-controlled texts provide this opportunity (Schmitt, Jiang, & Grabe, 2011). These books are

motivational as students are able to read topics which interest them, and, most importantly, students can feel proud of the materials that they read as these books look developmentally appropriate. Teachers can use these materials based on the structure of the classroom day which lends itself to numerous opportunities for teachers to incorporate non-controlled decodable texts into instruction. Three such instances are used during small group guided instruction, small group practice opportunities, and independent reading time. During small group guided instruction, the teacher can use one or more non-controlled decodable texts to pre-teach a specific concept that is going to be taught more in-depth during a future whole group lesson. During this time, struggling adolescent readers can have the opportunity to successfully read words and discuss ideas that are related to the concept being introduced. This will provide students with background knowledge that they will need to participate during whole group instruction. During small group practice, the teacher can create classroom stations where non-controlled decodable texts are included. These books can be used by students to further explore a topic that has been previously introduced. Independent reading time, also known as Drop Everything and Read (DEAR) or Sustained Silent Reading (SSR) time, provides additional opportunities for students to leisurely read these books for enjoyment.

2.3.3.11 Incorporate Morphological Word Work.

This is a strategy proposed by Ming (2018). According to Ming, morphological word work occurs when teachers explicitly and systematically teach students about the structure of the English language. This explicit and systematic instruction entails teacher modelling and guided practice, followed by independent student learning experiences (Hennessy, 2011). When teachers teach word structure, they focus on the parts of words and how those parts come together to provide meaning. This strategy supports adolescent struggling readers in that it allows learners to learn subjects in their content area, struggling adolescent readers may be required to interact with challenging content area texts. Learning about word structure helps them shift their focus from individual sounds to word parts that provide meaning (Wilson, 2011). As students read and encounter unfamiliar words, they can break them into parts based on their morphemes to predict the meaning. Word structure knowledge also supports students' decoding and spelling skills. When students see multisyllabic words that they must read (decode), they can look at the

individual chunks of words and put those chunks together to say the entire word (McCutchen, Green, Abbott, & Sanders, 2009).

To aid in spelling, when students hear words that they must write, they can think about the structural pattern(s) that correspond with the sounds that they hear before they write the word (Goodwin & Ahn, 2010). Knowing the meanings of words and being able to decode unfamiliar words are particularly useful in supporting fluency because when struggling adolescent readers understand the characteristics of words and how they work, they will be able to quickly and efficiently determine new words as they read (Reed, 2008). Further, Nagy and Townsend (2012) stated that "because academic language is characterized by large numbers of morphologically complex words, recognizing the morphological structure of longer words is an important aspect of fluency development" (p. 102). In a 2006 study conducted by Nagy, Berninger, and Abbott, these researchers found that morphological awareness significantly impacted the rate and accuracy with which eighth- and ninth-grade students were able to decode morphologically complex words.

2.3.3.12 Chart Reading Progress.

This is another strategy that was proposed by Ming (2018) which occurs when students regularly monitor their reading improvement through timed practice which is tracked using a graphical source. Students engage in the "cold" reading of a piece of text as their partners time them and then graph the number of words read correctly during that time. This initial graphing provides baseline data for later comparison. Calculating the number of words read correctly per minute is as follows: Number of correctly read words equals number of words in the text minus the number of incorrectly read words. Multiply the number of correctly read words in the text times 60 and divide that number by the number of seconds it took the student to read the text. An example that was given is where: Text has 100 words, student has five incorrectly read words, and it took 70 seconds to read (95 words x 60 seconds)/70 seconds = 81 words correct per minute (WCPM). Following the cold reading, students practice reading the same piece of text multiple times. The number of times that the text is practiced could be determined by student-teacher agreement, or it could be left up to the student's discretion. After the practice period, students read the text at the final time to their partners who again time them and graph the words read correctly. Students then compare their performance from the first to the final reading to

determine how much improvement has been made (Therrien & Kubina, 2006). According to Ming, many adolescent struggling readers have a history of reading failure, and, as a result, do not believe in their abilities to succeed (Biggs, Homan, Dedrick, Minick, & Rasinski, 2008). When they chart their reading progress and realize that they can improve their skills with deliberate effort, this may serve as a motivational tool for them to continuously practice (Wexler, Vaughn, Roberts, & Denton, 2010). In addition to being motivational, regularly charting reading progress strengthens students' reading speed and accuracy as the principle of "practice makes perfect" takes effect (Musti-Rao, Hawkins, & Barkley, 2009). As students repeatedly read and chart their progress, this can help to improve their sight vocabulary as many high frequency words appear from text to text (Roberts et al., 2008). What kinds of texts can be charted? There are several kinds of texts that students read that can be charted. Reader's theatre scripts, as mentioned above, lend themselves to being charted as students read them repeatedly as they prepare for their performance. Students can also read their non-decodable texts multiple times throughout the day as they work to process content. Teachers can also provide students with 100-word passage excerpts, targeted for their reading levels, that they can read independently or to a partner.

2.3.3.13 Oral Cloze Reading (whole group and partner)

In this intervention with older students, teachers read the text aloud and intentionally omit key words. Students follow along silently and say the missing words together as a class. This same method can be done with a reading partner. The oral cloze reading helps students stay engaged and actively listen for comprehension while attending to individual words that carry meaning (Endo, 2022).

2.3.3.14 Recording of Oral Reading.

This strategy works especially as a way of providing feedback on each student's read aloud can take considerable time, having students record themselves reading text segments so teachers can provide feedback later is also effective. Particularly for older students who may feel embarrassed reading text aloud in class, having these recording activities performed at home is an option that carefully considers students' social and emotional side of reading. In addition, having the students listen to their own recordings provides metacognitive feedback and can also serve as

motivation when they hear a later recording and notice how much they have improved. Recording of oral reading (Endo, 2022).

2.3.3.15 Chunking.

Shanahan (2021) proposed chunking activities that have been used successfully in building fluency in upper elementary, middle, and high school. Studies suggest that chunking can be helpful with older students. In this, the teacher initially provides text with phrasal boundaries marked. Students of all ability levels tend to get a boost from this material. After they have had some practice reading materials so marked, they are then given unmarked texts which could be worked in teams or individually to identify phrasal boundaries.

2.3.3.16 Pause, Prompt, Praise (PPP).

This is one other activity that have been used successfully in building fluency in upper elementary, middle, and high school. Not all students are great fluency partners. PPP provides some support in this area. Partners and teachers are encouraged to give students some slack if a mistake is made. Let the student read to the end of the clause or sentence and see what they do. Better readers try to fix the mistake. That's the pause. But if a student can't remedy the error (or doesn't notice it), then provide a Prompt. If the mistake doesn't make sense, then give some feedback about meaning. If the word read doesn't look or sound like the word in the book, then direct the student to look more closely. If the student can't fix the error after one prompt, tell them what the word is. Finally, for anything done well, provide praise (Shanahan, 2021).

2.3.3.17 Recorded Readings.

Students can make progress without much individual feedback by having students' record oral reading for homework (Ming 2018). Have them read an assigned portion of text (no more than 5–10 minutes' worth). To complete the assignment successfully, the students will likely need to practice prior to recording. Teachers can spot check these to check on performance. Again, it is a good idea to link to some comprehension tasks. From the afore discussion, we can safely say that to successfully navigate the learning environment, adolescent learners must possess foundational literacy skills, one of them being oral reading fluency. Having strong oral reading fluency is critically important to this group as the academic demands that they must meet become more challenging as they move through the grade levels. While oral reading fluency is emphasized

when young children are learning to read, these skills can be explicitly taught to adolescent struggling readers who do not have this foundational skill in place. Oral reading fluency can be integrated into the daily instructional routine through a variety of individual, small group, and whole group activities. The five strategies discussed above are offered to provide teachers with ideas for how to help adolescent struggling readers improve their oral reading fluency skills as these skills are essential to content area learning.

2.3.3.18 Prosody Development.

Explicit instruction on prosody development is needed so students can focus beyond word reading recognition and rate of reading. Prosody elements include intonation, volume and stress, smoothness, phrasing, and expression. Incorporating these prosody elements into some of the strategies above helps make each text reading activity more comprehensive. Effective fluency strategies for reading intervention requires educators to attend to students' fluency beyond accuracy and rate through incorporating explicit instruction and accountability on the development of prosody and reading with expression – ultimately helping our older students become more skilful, fluent, and expressive readers (Ming 2018).

2.3.3.19 Reading Practice (Wide Reading).

Reading practice allows someone to read different texts for fluency and for their knowledge (Rasinski 2009; DiSalle & Rasinski 2017). It is not about practicing reading the same text as in repeated reading, but it is about reading more variety of texts that would allow students to read not only in school, but also after school (Wallot, Van Rooij & Hollis 2013). Students with severe reading difficulties received more intensive explicit instruction on Response to Intervention (RTI) framework in phonemic decoding and with high levels of active student engagement and extended opportunities to practice skills in isolation made significant improvement in word decoding (Vaughn, Denton, & Fletcher (2010). This is because students were allowed to spend most of their time practicing isolated word-level skills or engaged in text reading with teacher support and feedback. Similarly, when young children in the early stages of reading acquisition or severely impaired older readers are provided with decodable or non-decodable text in their intervention lessons, results could influence positive outcomes. How much of the wide reading do Grade 5 teachers engage learners in? This is one of the questions this study hopes to answer.

Children with a rich enough vocabulary in the language being used to read have an advantage in improving their reading fluency and comprehension. This result was found when reading practice was used to assess 2,000 Kenyan primary school children in English, Kiswahili, and a mother tongue Dholuo or Gikuyu to determine the relationship between oral reading fluency and reading comprehension (Schroeder & Trudell (2015). This was confirmed in their study where even though the children could recognise English words readily, their understanding of English remained quite limited. The implication here is that the English fluency of these primary-school children was significantly weaker than their fluency in their mother tongue. The findings also confirmed the perspective that reading instruction was ignored in the multilingual nature of reading instruction in Kenya even though many children were able to transfer the ability to identify words across languages. Zambian learners learn to read in multilingual classroom. It is important to know how teachers promote the teaching of vocabulary to develop oral reading fluency skills among Grade 5 learners who are past early grade reading level. Hence this study wishes to answer that question on learners who may not be able to read fluently in English at Grade 5 level.

2.3.3.20 Word Study Strategies to Build Fluency.

Possession of a large inventory of words which the reader knows instantly by sight is critical to being a fluent reader (Torgesen, Wagner, Rashotte, Burgess, & Hecht, 1997). Middle and high school students struggling with word pronunciation can benefit from word level interventions (Lovett & Steinbach, 1997; Scammacca et al, 2007) which can improve word identification accuracy, and thus accumaticity. Fluent readers often read the whole word and check for recognizable morphemes in the word (Raynor et al., 2012). If necessary, they will divide words into syllables. If these two strategies do not work, they will then attempt to sound out individual letters using their knowledge of letter-sound correspondence. Armed with this knowledge, we can assist struggling middle and high school readers through two-word study strategies - syllabic analysis and morphemic analysis.

2.3.3.21 Syllabic Analysis.

Syllabic analysis is a strategy that allows students to decode an unknown word by identifying the syllables – the units of spoken language consisting of an isolated vowel sound or a vowel sound with one or more consonants. Breaking words into smaller units, known also as chunking, helps

a reader determine a word's pronunciation by matching it to a word in their listening vocabulary. By chunking words into smaller parts, readers are often able to identify the part and then blend it into a familiar word. This strategy for pronouncing unfamiliar multisyllabic words is more efficient than decoding a word sound by sound. Multiple exposures to the word help move it into the reader's long-term memory for automatic retrieval, thus adding to their sight word inventory. This process makes reading words more efficient and facilitates the comprehension process by allowing the reader to focus their attention on making meaning of the text. Syllabic analysis is most effective when students are directly and explicitly taught the six major syllable types and the patterns for syllable division. These common rules for syllable division make multisyllabic words both easier to read and spell. Practice of this strategy should entail words read as single words, in phrases, and in sentences. Direct instruction of syllabication should be connected to content specific texts. Once students apply this knowledge, they often demonstrate improvements in their word identification accuracy and automaticity, the two indicators which combine to form accumaticity – a crucial factor in becoming a fluent reader.

2.3.4 Instructional Strategies to Develop Fluency.

Oral reading fluency is one of several critical components required for successful reading comprehension. Students who read with automaticity and have appropriate speed, accuracy, and proper expression are more likely to comprehend material because they are able to focus on the meaning of the text. Fluency is important because it builds a bridge between word recognition and comprehension. It allows students time to focus on what the text is saying. They are able to make connections between what they are reading and their own background knowledge. Therefore, they are able to concentrate on comprehension. In regard to how reading fluency is taught, there are countless research studies to support key principles and strategies for teaching fluency - the key principles of fluency instruction. However, it has been modified to include comprehension. Fluent reading is not meaningful if learners do not comprehend what they read (Rasinski & Padak, 1996; Reutzel, 2006; Worthy & Broadus, 2002; Shannahan, Fisher & Frey, 2012 as cited in Reutzel & Cooter, 2021). The common thread that runs through these principles and strategies is that all the major fluency components should be addressed: accuracy, rate, and prosody. Automaticity will emerge as the result of frequent, intentional, and targeted fluency instruction as well as the integration of vocabulary instruction. This section outlines the

principles and strategies of fluency instruction and provides opportunities for teachers to apply in practical ways.

2.3.4.1 Explicit Instruction and Feedback

Learners need to be explicitly taught what fluent reading is and what it is not. When teachers model fluent reading, they should point out their fluent behaviours, and when they are listening to their learners read, they should provide constructive feedback that helps learners understand what they can do to improve their reading fluency. Teachers should teach learners how to self-monitor, evaluate, and self-regulate while reading. This means helping learners monitor how they are reading, judge their progress, and adjust their reading according to what they notice about their reading (Reutzel & Cooter, 2021).

2.3.4.2 Scaffolding Instruction

Most learners in the classroom will read at different rates and with varying levels of prosody and accuracy. Teachers must design fluency instruction that meets learners at the right level and supports learners in ways that help them make learning gains that are appropriate for their needs. Then, when learners meet their goals, the scaffolding is removed, and learners work towards another goal to help them continue to progress (Hougen & Smartt, 2020).

2.3.4.3 Practice with Phrasing

Words combine into phrases and then into sentences. Fluency practice can be broken down into practice with phrases. Rasinski & Padak (2013) suggest that English teachers teach high frequency word phrases. High frequency word phrases contain words that occur the most often in English texts. These words are often referred to as sight words. There are English sight word lists that teachers can help learners to memorize. This helps with developing their automaticity with words. Teaching high frequency word phrases teaches learners that 'fluent reading means reading smoothly and in meaningful phrases that are marked with appropriate expression' (Rasinski & Padak, 2013, pp. 64).

2.3.4.4 Reading Appropriately with Challenging Materials

Texts for teaching fluency should match learners' instructional levels. If texts are not challenging enough, learners will not be able to make progress with more complex texts. If texts are too

challenging, learners will become frustrated and demotivated with reading. Honig et al. (2018) further recommend that teachers pay attention to text length, genre, and content. Texts should be between 50 and 200 words, with beginning readers reading shorter texts and more advanced readers reading longer passages (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborne, 2001, as cited in Honig et al., 2018). Teachers should choose various genres - short stories, newspapers, magazine articles, biographies, expository texts, songs, or poetry. As for content, the more engaging or interesting the content, the better. This will be more motivating for learners. For English fluency instruction, decodable texts are helpful. Decodable texts contain words in which most of the text is connected to phonics instruction and curriculum materials. They also contain high frequency and sight words. This means that the sounds-to spelling relationships within the text are taught within the context of phonics instruction. Phonics instruction teaches decoding skills according to developmental progression from simple to complex. Thus, decodable texts 'provide beginning readers with opportunities to prove what they are learning and to build automaticity, confidence, and fluency' (Honig et al., 2018, pp. 183).

Four effective instructional strategies were found to be effective for helping improve fluency skills among early grade learners: 1) The Fluency Development Lesson; 2) Fluency-Oriented Reading Instruction; 3) Radio reading; 4) and Reader's Theatre (Keehn, 2003; Nichols, Rupley, & Rasinski, 2008; Rasinski et al., 1994; Rasinski et al., 2017). These will be discussed next.

2.3.4.5 The Fluency Development Lesson (FDL)

The FDL is an instruction that requires a teacher to employ relatively short reading passages like poems, rhymes, songs, story segments, or other texts that learners are required to read and reread over a short period of time. Rasinski et al., (1994) tested the efficacy of this strategy in an urban second graded classroom setting and found that when this strategy was implemented daily for six months, learners' fluency proficiency improved, and teachers' response to the strategy was singularly positive. In a later study, Rasinski et al., (2017) used a pre-test post-test design to determine whether the FDL improved struggling third graders' reading skills in three areas—word recognition accuracy, prosody, and comprehension. After seven weeks of implementing the FDL, it was found that learners did improve in word recognition and accuracy when reading second grade texts and improved in fluency and comprehension using grade 3 text. The explanation here is that, on average students read third-grade material at a 95.8% accuracy level,

which is generally considered a level at which they can successfully engage in instruction. This means that lack of proficiency in this foundational aspect of reading prevents readers from adequately comprehending the texts they read. In this case, if fluency problems are not addressed in the early elementary grades, it is likely that these problems will continue to hinder students' reading progress in subsequent years (Rasinski et al., 2017).

The FDL steps are:

1. The teacher introduces a short new text and reads it to the students two or three times while the students follow along silently.
2. The teacher and students discuss the nature and content of the passage as well as the quality of the teacher's reading of the passage and how the reading of the passage demonstrated comprehension of the text.
3. Teacher and students read the passage chorally several times.
4. The teacher organizes students into pairs or trios. Each student practices the passage three times while his or her partner listens and provides support and encouragement.
5. Individuals and groups of students perform their reading for the class or other audience such as another class, a parent visitor, the school principal, or another teacher.
6. The students and their teacher then choose four to five interesting words from the text to add to the individual students' word banks and/or the classroom word wall.
7. Students engage in 5–10 minutes of word study activities (e.g., word sorts with word bank words, word walls, flash card practice, defining words, word games).
8. The students take a copy of the passage home to practice with parents and other family members.
9. The following day, students read the passage from the previous day to the teacher or a fellow student for accuracy and fluency.

Words from the previous day are also read, reread, grouped, and sorted by students and groups of students. Students may also read the passage to the teacher or a partner who checks for fluency and accuracy. The instructional routine then begins again with step first step using a new

passage. Early grade learners learning to read in Zambian classrooms may benefit from the FDL process that allows teachers guidance and gradual release of support with feedback.

2.3.4.6 Fluency-Oriented Reading Instruction (FORI)

The FORI is another approach that was developed to work with basal readers and whole class reading programs. The procedure consists of three components including redesigned basal reading lessons, a home reading program, and a daily free choice reading period. FORI is an integrated approach to fluency instruction that combines repeated oral reading and teacher- and peer assisted reading. Unlike the FDL which is a gradual release instruction, the FORI places emphasis on comprehension of the text (Rasinski 2017). The FORI routine was designed for wide classroom instruction by Stahl &Heubach (2005). Its initial goal is the provision of heavily scaffolded reading instructions to ensure that students have multiple opportunities to read each selection. The FORI procedure calls for a weekly format that incorporates echo, choral, and partner reading into a systematic lesson plan involving the teaching of a single challenging connected text selected from basal reading over a five-day period. Besides developing students' reading fluency, from the first session of the week till the last one, the teacher uses some comprehension strategies that foster students' comprehension of the text through class (Kuhn et al., 2006).

2.3.4.7 Radio Reading

Radio Reading on the other hand provides teachers with an alternative to common round robin practices of reading and moves away from word-attack reading sessions, instead focusing instruction on the goal of comprehending, and effectively communicating the message of the author. Radio Reading is analogous to a radio announcer talking to a listening audience and the purpose of oral reading. During this instructional approach to developing fluency and comprehension, the reader transforms into a radio news announcer complete with a script while the listeners serve as the audience listening to the radio. The reader's job is to communicate accurately and with smooth fluid reading while the listener's job is to discuss, respond, and evaluate the reader's message and performance (Hudson et al., (2020).

2.3.4.8 Fast Start

Fast Start (Rasinski, 1995) is a parental involvement reading program designed to get children off to a successful start in word recognition and fluency. It involves a 10–15-minute daily lesson

that involves parents reading a brief text to and with their children repeatedly. The steps for Fast Start starts with a parent draws the child's attention to the text by pointing to the appropriate lines and words then the parent reads the text to the child several times until the child is familiar with the passage, then the parent and child simultaneously read the passage together. Then the child reads the text alone with the parent providing backup or shadow reading support and then the parent engages the child in word study activities (Nichols, Rupley and Rasinski (2008).

2.5.5 Reading Intervention with Older Students

Research has suggested various strategies involving learners' fluency development, not all strategies may apply to learners at all levels of learning. Old learners may not accept to practice certain strategies that young learners would willingly practice. Therefore, validating effective interventions for older learners is critical not only for the utility of an RTI approach, but also for any effort to increase levels of reading achievement in secondary school students. There are many reasons why instructional issues in reading are different for secondary school students. As students advance through the grades, reading demands increase with the need for understanding more complex vocabulary and concepts. A major focus for teachers and researchers alike has been finding ways to improve the vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension of students with reading difficulties (Baumann &Kame'enui, 2004; McKeown & Beck, 2004; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986).

However, many older readers have also not mastered the basic reading skills (i.e., decoding and fluency) needed to effectively benefit from instruction that focuses solely on reading for meaning Leach et al., 2003). Students who read slowly and laboriously read fewer words overall and often become reluctant readers who struggle to learn from text and do not read for pleasure, thus widening the gap between poor and proficient readers Stanovich, 1986). Furthermore, the ability to read quickly and accurately is related to improved reading comprehension because students can devote more attention during reading to the mental processes involved in understanding text (Homan, Klesius, & Hite, 1993; Kuhn & Stahl, 2000; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development [NICHD], 2000; Reutzel & Hollingsworth, 1993; Shinn, Good, & Knutson, 1992). With regards to this point, this study will bring out views of the Grade 5 teachers on the strategies applicable for their learners in Zambian Schools.

Evidence from intervention studies with older students who exhibit deficits in decoding and fluency suggest that these students benefit from receiving instruction in the basic elements of word reading, regardless of how old they are (Abbott & Berninger, 1999; NICHD, 2000). Research findings point to the use of systematic, explicit instruction in comprehension strategies and vocabulary, opportunities for practice in text geared to the students' reading level with corrective feedback, and explicit instruction in the use of strategies to read words quickly and accurately Swanson, 1999; Vaughn, Gersten, & Chard, 2000).

Older students with reading difficulties may need instruction in any of the range of reading components from beginning phonics skills to decoding multi-syllabic words and practicing reading for fluency, depending on their degree of development and corresponding areas of need. In addition, many students benefit from multiple opportunities to read text aloud and to engage in activities that involve improving reading fluency (e.g., Archer, Gleason, & Vachon, 2003; Chard, Vaughn, & Tyler, 2002). Thus, all secondary-level students with reading difficulties need explicit instruction in vocabulary and the application of comprehension strategies. Even older students who require instruction in the basic elements of decoding and word-level reading should not be precluded from receiving instruction in vocabulary, concept development, and reading comprehension (Klingner & Vaughn, 2003; Wilder & Williams, 2001). How explicitly teachers teach in Grade 5 classrooms is what this study will investigate.

More research studies have been done on interventions for older learners. For instance, Edmonds and colleagues (in press) conducted a meta-analysis of all reading intervention studies for older students (grades 6–12) with reading difficulties that had reading comprehension as an outcome variable. Interventions addressing decoding, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension were included if the interventions measured the effects on reading comprehension. Of the 29 studies that were located and described in the synthesis, 13 met criteria for a meta-analysis. The mean weighted average effect size for all 13 studies on comprehension outcomes was ES = .89 in favor of treatment students over comparison students, suggesting again that older students with reading difficulties benefited from interventions. Even word-level interventions were associated with moderate effect size gains in reading comprehension (ES = .49). Extending the Edmonds and colleagues (in press) meta-analysis, Scammacca et al., (2007) examined how effective reading

interventions were for older students with reading difficulties on all reading outcomes (not just comprehension). Thirty-one studies met criteria and yielded an overall ES of 0.95. The overall effect size for those studies that used standardized, norm-referenced measures was considerably lower (0.42). Considering the subgroup of struggling readers, those with learning disabilities, the effects of intervention were similar for the group as a whole (ES=0.51). Not all intervention types were associated with the same effects. Using standardized measures, word study interventions had the highest effects (ES=0.68), followed by comprehension interventions (ES=0.55), and with minimal effect from fluency interventions (ES=0.04). Effects from vocabulary interventions were only available using non standardized tests. One of the primary conclusions from these meta-analyses is that older readers with reading difficulties can benefit from interventions and that it is not too late to provide instruction to these students.

Nanchengwa (2016) carried out a study to investigate the teaching techniques teachers in private schools of Mufulira District were using to teach literacy skills to Grade one pupils. The purpose of the study was to establish the techniques teachers were using to teach literacy skills in private schools; to investigate the materials used by teachers to teach literacy skills; to establish the factors helping the teachers implement their techniques; and to ascertain the factors considered in the allocation of time for reading and writing. The findings revealed that phonics, comprehension, Look and Say and phonemic awareness, were mostly preferred techniques. With regards to materials, teachers opted for a variety which included flash cards, Zambia Primary Course books including bigger font size books with pictures. When it came to factors helping the teachers implement the techniques, it was established that teachers needed to know their techniques and also be mindful of how they pronounced sounds and words. Furthermore, it was revealed that the factors considered when allocating time for the teaching of literacy were the objectives the teacher intended to achieve in a lesson and the number of reading activities a particular school had. The study recommends that in the future, research should be conducted to inquire into the qualifications of literacy teachers in private primary schools.

2.4 Challenges Learners Face When Reading Connected Text in English

We established that oral reading fluency is the ability to read connected text quickly, accurately, and with expression. It is one of the several critical components required for successful reading

comprehension. Some learners with reading problems struggle with reading fluency because they are still struggling with decoding words. Proficient readers hardly ever have to stop to sound out a word (Rasinski, 2004) but readers who are still in the sounding-out phase "use up cognitive energy doing that, and they don't have much left for reading automaticity." Oral reading fluency problems is usually with automaticity and fluency may appear as problems with dysfluent word reading and/or with reading comprehension, including slow and labored reading, frequent stopping at unknown words. Lacking expression appropriate to the meaning in oral reading. Inefficient or inaccurate decoding of unfamiliar words. There are many factors affecting learners' oral fluency in English. Some various kinds of influencing speaking fluency are cognitive factors, linguistic factors, and affective factors (Wang, 2014). Cognitive factors speaking process include conceptualization, formulation, and articulation (Levelt, 2007). Researchers have identified three kinds of developmental reading disabilities that often overlap but that can be separate and distinct: (1) phonological deficit, (2) processing speed/orthographic processing deficit, and (3) comprehension deficit. People who lack fluency have difficulty reading quickly, accurately, and with proper expression (if reading aloud). Other reading problems include guesses, mispronounces, or skipping words while reading. Many struggling readers would skip words when reading, preferring instead to read the words they recognize first and fill in the unknown words later. Or if they can't decode the word, they will guess. Learning grammar rules is one of the most challenging problems faced by second language learners because they come from so many different places. Additionally, pronunciations and letter combinations can have different pronunciations for different tenses or parts of speech.

For many second language (L2) students, academic success is very difficult to achieve due to their lack of reading fluency. They read in a choppy staccato (Staccato speech is where you speak in fragments of sentences that are punctuated by pauses, which interrupt, to the point of destroying the flow of your speech) fashion and at half the speeds of efficient L1 readers (Bell, 2001; Nation, 2009a; Grabe, 2009). Their slow word-by-word reading causes a lack of comprehension, and this constrains enjoyment in reading. Therefore, they read less, and their reading skills do not develop (Nutall, 1982). On the other hand, L2 students who read fluently are more likely to read a larger amount of L2 material (Grabe, 2009). The extra reading leads to an exponential growth in vocabulary (McKewon & Beck, 2006) and a deeper knowledge of the words they already know (Gunning, 2006). These students acquire the necessary language skills

including an understanding of complex grammatical structures and the ability to write and spell (Esky, 2005). Yet, despite the growing awareness of the importance of reading fluency for L2 students, the topic has received little attention from researchers and there is an absence of reading-fluency training in most L2 classrooms (Cohen, 2011; Han & Chen, 2010). It is well established that studying the factors that affect students' oral reading fluency and their academic reading achievement level is important to act and do something about those factors to help students maximise their reading competencies and skills. It is also important to the choice of instructions students may need. However, there are some factors that can be controlled, and other complex factors that cannot be handled by the school, such as the socioeconomic status of the students, ethnicity, gender, and physical disabilities (Hermosa 2002; Limbrick, Madelaine, & Wheldall 2011; Van Dijk 2018).

Reading is one of the essential components of the English language. Countries that use English as a second language (ESL) sometimes have difficulties in reading and comprehension. According to much research, mother tongue has proved some interferences with learning a second language. Mohammad, Z. A., & Hasbi, M. (2021) investigated the results of reading difficulties of young second language learners in terms of accuracy, comprehension, and rate using the Neale Analysis of Reading Ability test. The study was carried out in one of the High Schools for Boys in Hyderabad, India and included Grade five, aged 10-12 years. The findings showed that these subjects had no specific language impairments, but they had different degrees of language exposure and usage that led to poor accuracy, comprehension, and reading rate during reading English language texts. Five students (50%) were classified at a low level of readers, three (30%) at a high level, and two (20%) at a mild level after evaluation of their compatibility between their chronological and reading age. It was suggested that the teachers should first assess students who struggle in reading accuracy and comprehension and then assist them with their language learning and acquisition that take place at school and home.

Eun Hee Jeon (2012) investigated the role of oral reading fluency in second language reading. Two hundred and fifty-five high school students in South Korea were assessed on three oral reading fluency (ORF) variables and six other reading predictors. The relationship between ORF and other reading predictors was examined through an exploratory factor analysis (EFA). Next, the contribution of ORF to silent reading comprehension was investigated through multiple

regression analyses (MRA) with ORF variables as predictors of reading comprehension. EFA identified two factors (fluency and comprehension) and showed that passage reading fluency cross loaded with both factors. MRA results indicated that the three ORF variables collectively explained 21.2% of variance in silent reading comprehension. Oral passage reading fluency alone explained 20.9% of variance in silent reading comprehension. After controlling for pseudoword reading and word reading fluency, oral passage reading fluency still accounted for an additional 12.4% of the remaining reading variance.

In their study, Gedik & Akyol (2022) aimed at remediating the reading difficulties of a fifth-grade student having no physical or mental problem but experiencing reading difficulties and to develop his skills of reading fluency. For this purpose, the repeated reading, paired reading, and word repetition techniques were used in the research process. In addition, the meaning analysis, word map and vocabulary notebook techniques were also used due to the positive effect of rich vocabulary knowledge in remediating reading difficulties and improving skills of reading fluency. The Error Analysis Inventory was used to determine reading errors. In the case study to determine the levels of reading and comprehension, it was found that the participant was at the level of frustration in the fifth, fourth and third grade texts, and at the instructional level in the second-grade text. As a result of the reading, comprehension and vocabulary development activities, the student's reading motivation, desire and self-confidence increased, and he started to detect and correct reading aloud mistakes by himself. It was observed that the participant, who was at the second-grade instructional level at the beginning, reached the independent level in the text of the third grade and the instructional level in the text of the fourth grade at the end of the study lasted for 31 class hours.

Gan, Lee & Ghani (2019) investigated the effectiveness of conducting a reading intervention in a public primary school setting in Chinese vernacular school in Malaysia. Literature indicated that struggling readers did not master letter-sound correspondences despite the phonics was emphasised into date curriculum. Therefore, one male learner who was identified by his classroom teacher as needing special assistance in reading performance participated in the research. Using a single-case research design, the participant’s oral reading fluency (ORF) in terms of word correct per minute (WCPM) was measured. Several nonparametric statistics methods, such as Tau and percentage of nonoverlapping data (PND) were applied to compute the

degree of association and effectiveness of the intervention, respectively. Visual analysis was carried out to interpret the graph. The data collected was also compared with the updated ORF norm that was established in the United States. The results revealed that the reading intervention facilitated the improvement of ORF of the participant.

2.4.1 Learners' Oral Reading Fluency Challenges - Worldwide

The following sections highlight the studies which illustrate, reveal, and expose some of these factors. Van Dijk (2018) investigated the influence of students' characteristics on early elementary oral reading fluency including grades one, two and three. It was found that the students' characteristics such as gender and their foundation of English skills can affect their oral reading fluency. For gender, the results presented that girl performed better than boys in the ORF test. Also, the students with a good foundation of phonics awareness and word recognition performed better than those, who did not receive a good basis of English literacy skills. This finding is pointed by Rasinski (2014) and Ehri (2002) as discussed earlier in theories. The role of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation to read and students' attitude towards reading-aloud were other factors reported by Rowen et al. (2015).

Usually, students are driven by their extrinsic motivation in which they focus on the grades they need to get. However, students' intrinsic motivation is the most important for them. Therefore, teachers should address students' intrinsic motivation by providing them with a wide range of different texts such as poetry, novels, plays and short stories that would engage and attract their attention and interest. That information processing model emphasises on using a wide range of genre to stimulate students' interest. Cummings, Park, and Schaper (2013) believed that passage effect (level of difficulty) is an important factor that can affect students' oral reading fluency. Their study suggested that the passages should be developed to match students' capabilities and levels.

Similarly, Wallot, Van Rooij and Hollis (2013) recommended in their study that the level of a text should be taken into consideration during the assessment of students' reading fluency. It is unfair to use hard text, particularly during students' assessment. Moreover, the genre should be considered during the assessment. A case study with a few participants, only four, was conducted by Devaney, Foord, and Anne (2012) to investigate the factors that affected four high school

English second language learners' (ESL) reading fluency. It was indicated that the students' motivation to read, their anxiety about making mistakes and their peers' comments when the students read in the classroom influenced the students' performance. Therefore, the researchers recommended that teachers should motivate the students to read and support them by creating a positive classroom environment and building rapport among students so no one in the class would be afraid of making mistakes.

A similar interesting study has been conducted by Tysinger, Tysinger, and Diamanduros (2010). They examined the relationship between social anxiety and students' performance in reading fluency and comprehension. Though it was found that anxiety affected students' reading fluency in Devaney, Foord, and Anne (2012) study, in contrast, Tysinger, Tysinger, and Diamanduros (2010) found that anxiety did not affect students' reading fluency, but it affected students' comprehension. Furthermore, there is a study more recent than the previous two studies about the impact of anxiety, but on the oral narrative speech of students in Iran (Sanaei, Zafarghandi & Sabet 2015). Interestingly, this study revealed the same findings as the Devaney,

Students with learning disabilities or struggling readers often exhibit academic and functional skills challenges that include limited ability to read, write, listen, speak, or complete other academic or functional tasks (Chitiyo (2021). A large proportion of children with Learning Disabilities (LD) are also at increased risk for emotional or behavioural problems. When LDs are not properly addressed, children with LD may begin to exhibit behavioural challenges that may further impede their academic performance. One of the key areas of deficit in academic performance among children with LD lies in reading. Research shows that students with EBD or LD perform approximately 2.2 grades below standard performance in reading. Part of the reason for their reading deficits is attributed to proliferation of instructional methods that are not backed by empirical evidence. To address this reading performance-gap, there is a need to examine closely what instructional practices are effective and under what circumstances. This section reviews some commonly used reading interventions for this group of students with EBD and establishes the evidence supporting their effectiveness with the view of arriving at informing teachers teaching oral reading fluency to Grade 5 learners in Zambian primary schools.

On cognitive processes in early reading development, Share & Stanovich (2015) conducted reading tests using Gray Oral Reading Test and interviewed teachers on the reading abilities for

learners in the sixth grade. A model of acquisition and individual differences were found. One potential problem with the Gray Oral Reading Test was that it did does not provide a very sensitive measure of individual differences in word reading ability at very low levels of performance, such as those found in beginning first graders, or disabled readers through second grade. The passages simply began at too high a level for children with very poor or undeveloped reading skills to display the word reading skills they possessed. To provide measures of fluency and accuracy in word reading skill that are simple to administer and sensitive to individual differences across a broad range of reading skills, Share & Stanovich developed simple measures of Word Reading Efficiency and Non-Word Efficiency.

In a study by Jimerson, et al., (2013) who examined developmental trajectories in ORF from Grade 1 to Grade 4 amongst monolingual English students with low socioeconomic status (SES) and ESL Latino students with low SES. ORF in Grade 1 strongly predicted reading performance in Grade 4, while growth in ORF had a moderate effect on reading performance in Grade 4. The averages of the L1 and L2 English readers differed by about 25 WCPM at each grade level. While in another study, Clemens et. al., (2016) sought to better understand the prevalence of concurrent and specific difficulties in reading fluency and vocabulary among adolescents with low reading comprehension. Latent class analysis (LCA) was used to identify a sample of 180 students in sixth through eighth grades with reading comprehension difficulties. A subsequent LCA identified subgroups of students with common patterns of strengths and weaknesses in reading fluency and vocabulary. Results indicated that more than 96% of the students' demonstrated deficits in at least one area, with the largest subgroup exhibiting co-occurring difficulties in fluency and vocabulary. Difficulties in fluency were more common than difficulties in vocabulary. We need to establish the kind of difficulties learners' face when reading text in the second language.

In Jimerson and others' study, students with low reading comprehension but adequate scores in reading fluency or vocabulary represented only a very small portion of the sample. Coupled with findings from prior studies, results indicate that large numbers of adolescents with reading comprehension difficulties are likely in need of intervention in foundational skill and knowledge areas, which may not be viewed as instructional priorities among secondary educators. Their findings added to a growing body of work showing that among adolescents struggling with

reading comprehension, the majority experience poor reading fluency, vocabulary knowledge, or difficulties in both areas. Although comprehension strategy instruction may be the default recommendation for adolescents struggling with reading comprehension, the high prevalence of students with deficits in reading fluency and vocabulary highlights the need to reconsider how instruction and assessment can better address the needs of struggling adolescent readers. The results underscore the importance of comprehensive assessments of component reading and language skills to better understand the sources of adolescents' reading difficulties. From a larger perspective, the findings also reinforce the need for prevention efforts that support the acquisition of proficient reading and language skills in young children.

Schmitt, Jiang & Grabe (2011) pointed out that non-controlled decodable texts benefit adolescent struggling readers because they provide students with the opportunity to meaningfully engage with text at their reading levels. Their argument is that, for students to become better readers, they must have lots of practice in reading books at their independent reading levels (at least 95% accuracy), and non-controlled texts provide this opportunity. These books are motivational as students can read topics which interest them, and, most importantly, students can feel proud of the materials that they read as these books look developmentally appropriate. Similarly, Schmitt, et al., (2016) provided a solution when they proposed the use of alternative text types to improve reading fluency for competent to struggling readers. They established that comprehension in second language teaching was not well taught where received pronunciation was used. The teachers did not use consider the extent to which fluency was taught and, where appropriate, to include a greater emphasis on fluency for students. However, it was further established that with teacher differences and learner's exposure to reading materials and language at home, some learners from the upper class developed ding fluency faster than the learners from the lower class due to materials and environmental differences.

Ding fluency refers to the ability to read effortlessly, expressively, and meaningfully with attention to appropriate and meaningful phrasing. It was also learnt that learners in the lower class still struggled to read fluently at the beginning of the year due to lack of exposure to language in text, social environment, and linguistic differences. Mercer, et al., (2000) investigated the effects of a reading fluency intervention for middle schoolers with specific learning disabilities and found that readers in the primary school had different reading fluency

and abilities because of factors like the teacher's ability to teach reading fluency, availability of the language and exposure to the speakers with the correct intonation. The implication of their findings is that children who came from multilingual homes struggled to attain fluency faster than the monolingual and bilingual homes. Therefore, the study concluded that multilingualism was a limiting factor to learner's reading fluency in the primary schools.

Grabe, W. (2017) provided an overview of key issues for L2 reading development. She said that the goal is a succinct summary of ideas that should support more effective teaching and improve students' reading abilities. She first outlines the nature of reading abilities, particular in academic contexts, and identifies major component skills and knowledge bases needed for L2 reading comprehension. From this foundation, a set of research implications for instruction which form the basis for recommended teaching practices that will build comprehension abilities were noted. Nine specific curricular and instructional themes are then presented briefly and suggestions for teaching and curriculum planning are explored. The article concludes by noting the need for additional research to validate, and to provide new insights into effective teaching practices.

A study by McGuiness (2004) confirmed that there were comprehension problems that PIRLS 2006 and 2011 identified amongst Grade 4 and 5 learners at Grade 5 level. They also identified very poor reading fluency skills which indexed basic reading skills. The low ORF and reading comprehension scores in this study pointed to what they believed were severe reading instructional deficiencies in our primary schools. Although anecdotally the common perception was that teachers spent too much time on the mechanical aspects of reading to the detriment of comprehension, these results suggested that whatever time was being spent on the mechanics of reading, it was ineffective and inadequate. McGuiness therefore argued that reading is a learned skill, ignorance, or incompetence in teaching this skill could produce many children with severe reading problems.

Still on reading fluency challenges in primary schools, Stahl (2004)'s findings revealed that poor readers at all grade levels were characterized by slower than normal development of a sight vocabulary of words they can read fluently and automatically. Ultimately, it is this difficulty in rapid word recognition that limits comprehension in older poor readers, for these skills allow children to focus on constructing the meaning of what they are reading rather than spending too many of their intellectual resources on trying to identify the words. The strongest current theories

of reading growth link phonetic and sight word reading skills together by showing how good phonetic reading skills are necessary in the formation of accurate memory for the spelling patterns that are the basis of sight word recognition. He also blamed it on the reading culture among children in most schools in Africa which is poor hence, they are poor fluent readers. Some researchers have concluded that in the African continent, the reading habit of children is waning. The cause of this has been traced to some notable factors like non- availability of reading materials (books). As Chouldhurg (1990:87) put it "the reading habit is best formed at a young impressionable age in school, but once formed, it can last one's life." Young children acquire reading literacy through a variety of activities and experiences within different contexts. On the same issue of learning resources, Dean (1997) states that in writing materials, we need to remember that the materials produced must be motivating to the learners.

In the area of phonemes and phonics, Hatcher, et al., (2004) found that in the first and second grade failed to demonstrate awareness of letters as individual symbols and the capability to identify at least 10 letters by name at their grade level. This was after they conducted a study on explicit phoneme training combined with phonic reading instruction could help young children at risk of reading failure in United Kingdom (UK). They discovered that students were too slow compared to other learners in other schools of the same grade as they tended to repeat themselves through self-correction of a sound and letter after being mispronounced. According to Hatcher, et al., the policy in the UK stipulates that both the Early Reading First and Reading First programs set explicit goals for increasing letter knowledge and letter sound correspondences according to the government. The policy emphasis includes letter name learning, basic sound knowledge, and letter writing in their literacy standards for prekindergarten and kindergarten students.

In the United States of America, Dowler (2006) did a similar study on the benefits of implementing phonemic awareness with at risk Kindergarten students and found that letter and sound recognition improved for all six students that were assessed. However, they were quick to point out that only 5 out of the 6 kids made consistent progress with letter naming and initial sound fluency. Three students were able to improve their scores in phoneme segmentation. It appeared to be beneficial for students to work in smaller groups where they could learn and be supportive of one another and gain confidence in their abilities to figure out and understand correct answers. However, the researcher felt that some of the reasons for lower scores were due

to guessing behaviours, distractions, and lack of a longer period to work with those students who most at risk and the first language interference with learners were whose home language was not the language of instruction. Issues like lower socio- economic status, negative attitudes toward reading, reduced opportunities for vocabulary growth or the development of reading comprehension strategies can all lead to missed opportunities to develop early literacy skills and later successful readers. I think these are very important factors to consider as we assess students in their abilities and begin to make predictions on later reading success. The current study would like to investigate what happens in Zambian classrooms whose learners begin to read and receive instruction in English language – their second language. The study hopes to find out if there are any fluency challenges, if any, among learners reading text in English language.

Another finding on challenges was found in a study by NAEP (2013) who investigated the growth of reading sub-skills in approximately 2,000 kindergarten children attending a large urban district where an emphasis had been placed on the teaching of letter naming knowledge, phonological awareness, and letter-sound correspondence in kindergarten and proposes that becoming a competent reader is critical to academic achievement. NAEP reported 74% of fourth-grade students attending the nation's largest school districts score below the proficient level in reading with this percentage climbing to 83% for African American children. Unfortunately, the same data found that a percentage of those struggling with reading in fourth grade continued to struggle through the secondary grades. These findings strongly suggests that students must acquire the foundational literacy skills prior to fourth grade that would set them on track for appropriate reading development. By investigating in Grade 5 classes, this study hopes to fill up this gap in the Zambian situation by finding out what instruction teachers use to help learners with various fluency challenges.

2.4.2 Learners' Oral Reading Fluency Challenges - African Situation

Several research studies in Africa lament the low literacy levels in general rather than in oral reading fluency. In 2009, the president for Pan African 'Reading for All' that was held in Tanzania said among people worldwide who cannot read and write 64 per cent are women and children and lack of reading practices among the people was a hindrance to acquiring the needed

skills to face the challenges in many African countries (Mulokozi, 2009). He further said that more than 800 million people in the world who were not able to read and write due to unfriendly environments and lack of strategic and progressive plans towards illiteracy alleviation in the world in general. Ayora & Lwanga (2014) cited that language of instruction influenced pupils reading literacy levels causing low literacy achievement among lower primary school pupils in Kisii district, Kisii County. The availability of teaching materials had a positive correlation with the reading literacy levels in lower primary schools and recommended that school management should provide classroom learning environment that contained adequate literacy materials and teachers should provide adequate activities and methods to develop pupils' literacy skills.

Reading fluency has been a major concern in reading research and education in English L1 settings for the past three decades. Extensive research has explored various types of instructional methods to develop reading fluency in the hope of improving reading comprehension directly and indirectly as a result (Etsuo, 2006). Contrary to the increasingly important role reading fluency has been given in English L1 settings, it has attracted scant attention in L2 and FL settings because it is expected to grow naturally as reading skills develop. Some preliminary studies on reading fluency in L2 or FL contexts have directed the attention of researchers and educators to the issue of whether reading fluency plays a crucial role in successful reading comprehension, as opposed to fluency being a by-product of reading skills development. This paper was an attempt to examine theoretical and pedagogical issues that address reading fluency in L2/FL settings and results based on research findings in English L1 and L2/FL settings, made suggestions on the improvement in instruction.

Pretorious & Nande (2002) indicated that children are ill-prepared for formal education: They have inadequate literacy skill, poor sentence construction, poor syntax knowledge and inadequate phonological (sound) development and an additional factor of being poor and disadvantaged was also linked to poor cognitive and reading comprehension competency (Gabriela, et. al., 2016). Verbeek, (2010) found the large-scale evidence of poor literacy performance in South Africa from PIRLS naturally evoked no small measure of national self-reflection, and an acknowledgement of the glaring fact that comprehension is a much-neglected area and blamed teachers for focusing on code-based reading activities in the classroom and neglecting meaningful literacy practices. A few small studies of teachers in Grade 1–3

classrooms (Verbeek, 2010) showed links between the early literacy experiences of teachers, their conceptualisations of literacy and their consequent practices of literacy as a narrowly constrained code-based activity with little attention to meaning. He pointed out that there was a tendency of teachers relying on whole class oral chorusing of reading, the lack of reading resources, especially in African languages, the lack of reading homework, lack of individual reading assessment, and minimal reading of extended texts in the early grades have also been identified as instructional practices that contribute to poor reading development.

Most analyses of oral reading fluency (ORF) are based on L1 reading, and the norms that have been developed in English are based on first language reading data. This is problematic for developing countries where many children are learning in English as a second language. Pretorius & Spaull (2016) modelled the relationship between English reading fluency and comprehension among rural English-second-language learners (ESL) in South Africa. They used data collected in 2013 by the National Education and Evaluation Development Unit in South Africa. This survey tested 4697 Grade 5 students from 214 schools across rural areas in South Africa. A sub-sample—1772 students—were selected for an ORF test. For these students there exist data on both reading comprehension and reading fluency. Although several studies have analysed the relationship between fluency and comprehension, none have been conducted on a large-scale for ESL learners in a developing country such as South Africa. Their research contributed to the literature by analysing the size, significance, and uniformity of this relationship for ESL learners in South Africa. Preliminary findings indicate a threshold at 70 words-read-correct-per-minute which is lower than the typically used threshold of 90 words-read-correct-per-minute of English first language readers. Both findings further the understanding of ESL reading in a developing country context, as well as add empirical evidence where it has been sorely lacking.

In a study by Wilsenach (2015), it was established that preschool and kindergarten students with poor knowledge of letter names and sounds are more likely to struggled with learning to read and be classified as having reading disabilities. He cited Zimmerman and Smit (2014) on profiling classroom reading comprehension development practices from the PIRLS 2006 in South Africa. Whose findings indicated that children with such signs tend to fall further behind their peers in reading acquisition, leading to gaps in spelling, reading fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension

skills. They added that alphabet knowledge is an important learning goal for young children. The National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) recognized a challenge regarding the development of the alphabetic principle as a goal for the preschool years and proficiency in letter discrimination, letter naming, and letter sound correspondences are expected during the kindergarten year. While Bella Dudula Hlalethwa (2013) advocated for the extensive models, methods and theories on reading, the strategies that could be used to teach reading in the Foundation Phase to alleviate or improve reading difficulties experienced by learners, as well as the findings and recommendations towards minimising the reading difficulties in primary schools.

2.4.3 Learners' Oral Reading Fluency Challenges - Zambian Situation

The literacy situation in Zambia, like that of the entire Africa, is that of low levels of reading among school-going learners. Several studies in literacy have revealed poor levels of reading by most children in both Zambian languages and English (MoGE, 1996; Williams, 1993). Conclusions about this situation include policy of instruction in English from grade 1 had a negative effect upon literacy in the mother tongue, short instructional time, poverty in the homes, low teacher morale, too many untrained teachers, inadequate supply of educational materials and the use of a foreign language, English, in the school instead of their home language (UNESCO, 2000; SACMEQ, 2010). Findings from Chuunga, (2013) who did an investigation of how teachers practiced the teaching of reading (and writing) towards supporting learners with reading difficulties at the lower primary level in Zambia, revealed that there were differences in the backgrounds and realities of the teachers but with similar patterns in the three types of schools. It was also evident that the teachers were trying their best to teach reading but under very difficult conditions. Major among the conditions were over enrolment, teacher-pupil ratio and lack of teaching and reading materials. The results further showed that the assessment procedures used to identify learners with reading difficulties only worked to further widen the gap between the so called 'slow learners' and 'fast learners. The focus seems to be on summative (assessment of learning) rather than on formative (assessment for learning). There is also evidence to show that the teachers' planning before teaching had been affected by the challenges of over-enrolments, teacher-pupil ratio and lack of teaching and learning materials. This makes it difficult for teachers to consequently teach reading and support learners with reading difficulties leading to poor classroom practice. This study wishes to investigate into teachers' classrooms to see how

they handle such issues in Grade 5 learners. Results may help inform teachers about what strategies may help support learners with reading difficulties.

Other reading challenges among primary school learners in Zambia are reported from Baseline studies done I local languages at lower primary level. The 2018 Baseline Report by USAID/Zambia Education Data Activity on Early-Grade Reading Assessment to improve the ability of Grade 2 learners to read at grade level in five target provinces (Eastern, Muchinga, North-Western, Southern and Western concluded that learners in the five target provinces exhibited low alphabetic knowledge and decoding skills. Learners in all languages struggled with letter sounds, syllable sounds, and non-word reading, which are prerequisites to read fluently. Decoding skills captured by syllable sounds and non-word reading are strongly correlated with oral reading fluency, and oral reading fluency is closely related to reading comprehension. As a result, low performance in each of these subtasks is highly predictive of oral reading fluency and reading comprehension skills. Most grade 2 learners could not read fluently and comprehend grade level text. Only about 10.2 percent of learners were able to read fluently and comprehend grade level text at the end of grade 2 indicating that learners understood and recalled very little of the content in the passage they read and so, there was a large gap to reach its target. This study argues that the best way to increase student achievement in reading is to improve the quality of instruction in the classroom to prevent the reading difficulties in the studied schools (Allington, 2005).

The other observable challenge is in most studies is that a quarter of the learners were learning in a language that was not the primary language spoken at home. This indicated that some children were learning in a second language and as such would require additional instructional support to build their vocabulary and listening comprehension skills to enable them to learn to read in the language of instruction. Evidence suggested that children learn to read best in a language they know and understand (Kim et. al. 2016; UNESCO 2014). Learners who are second language learners required additional instructional support to help map meaning onto the words they read because they lacked the requisite oral language and vocabulary skills in the language of instruction.

Findings from the 2012 Baseline study on Grade 1 and 2 in Petauke and Katete districts of Zambia by Banda, Tambulukani & Chabala, (2012) showed that:1. Both grade 1 and 2 pupils are

very poor in all the literacy skills tested with worst results in writing skills. 2. Girls performed poorer in all the literacy skills tested than boys. 3. Grade 1 pupils performed better than grade 2 pupils in writing and spelling. 4. Teachers are not given technical guidance on realistic and viable literacy indicators so that they monitor and evaluate early literacy instruction and thus boost pupil performance. 5. Confirmed the teachers' perceptions that there were poor literacy levels among grade 1 and 2 pupils. The challenges of poor literacy skills among the grade 1 and 2 pupils were attributed to the following factors: 1. Absenteeism by pupils. 2. Lack of community and parental support on literacy development. 3. None-availability of PRP teaching/learning materials & reading kits. 4. PRP is not taught at all in many schools. Overcrowded classroom that makes it impossible to use pupil-cantered language activities. 6. Many teachers are not trained in literacy teaching. Little or no attention is given to oral language teaching. 8. There was a mismatch between the language of instruction, language for initial literacy and pupils' familiar or home language. 9. There was generally poor reading culture in the country. Poor monitoring and assessing of literacy skills in schools. 10. Mismatch between the core vocabulary in pupils' texts and pupils' familiar language or language of play. The purpose of this study is to investigate into teachers practices in Grade 5 classes to establish how teachers help learners reading text in English. The baseline study was done with Grade 1 and 2 learners who were learning to read in Zambian languages and not English. This study becomes appropriate as it looks at upper-level reading and in English language.

Another study that was done based on the premise that there was no empirical evidence that the use of familiar language enhances literacy on learners with mild intellectual disabilities. Kasebula, Matafwali & Banda, (2019) who sought to investigate the reading levels of children with intellectual disabilities with the goal of examining the extent to which the new policy addressed the reading skills of children with mild intellectual disabilities and to suggest effective teaching strategies. They administered Basic Skills Assessment Tool (BASAT) to learners with mild intellectual disabilities. Results of this study revealed that there was no significant difference in the reading levels between the first data collected and the second, respectively. The conclusion of the study was that the use of familiar language to teach literacy to learners with mild intellectual disabilities had not enhanced reading skills to learners with mild intellectual disabilities. Hence, the researcher recommended for the implementation of the sound letter object identification.

Matafwali (2010) did a study in line with language of initial literacy after observing that even if the use of mother tongue as the initial language of instruction was introduced in 2000, the reading levels of most Zambian children were regrettably still low by 2005, especially in Lusaka province. Specifically, she wanted to know how level of proficiency in the language of instruction explained difficulties in becoming a conventional reader in a Zambian language and English. The study further sought to evaluate the progress made by children in grade one and two. The findings revealed that due to the cognitive relationship that exists between languages, the NBTL in which children are taught initial literacy in a familiar language could be effective. However, the study revealed that lack of proficiency in the initial language of instruction was hall mark for the poor reading and writing skills observed in most Zambian children. Matafwali observed that when deficits in oral language converge with deficits in cognitive skills, children are at a substantial risk of developing reading difficulties. It is therefore incumbent that a study is conducted to look at teachers views on the teaching of oral reading fluency at grade 5 level in English language.

Mutale (2016) examined the reading skills acquired by grade two learners in Cinyanja under the revised curriculum in Lusaka district. The study was conducted to find out if instructional method in Primary Literacy Program (PLP) which focused more on phonics approach resulted in improved reading skills before learners began to read in English language in grade three. In the study differences between schools and between boys and girls were made. Similarities of findings were also made with previous studies conducted among grade 2 learners by Read to Succeed Project. Findings from this the study recommended that the program should be given more support by provision of appropriate, relevant, and interesting stories, more training of teachers in instructional methods and close monitoring of the program. The study also recommends that further research in other familiar languages and in use of other interventions is required to support teachers in teaching phonics.

Similarly, Ndila (2019) investigated the implications of instructional methods on reading skills to learners with reading difficulties in selected schools in Kabwe District, Zambia. The objectives of the study were to: establish types of instructional methods used to teach reading skills to learners with reading difficulties; determine the implications of using instructional methods in teaching learners with reading difficulties reading skills and ascertain challenges faced by

teachers involved in teaching reading skills to learners with reading difficulties in primary school in Kabwe District. Participants in this study were learners and teachers from three selected special education units in Kabwe District. Data was collected through interview, observation and focus group discussion guides. Analysis of data was done thematically where merging themes were presented in a descriptive form. The study revealed phonetics, linguistic, comprehension, multisensory, whole word method, look and say and basal reading approaches were the mostly used instructional methods in teaching learners with reading difficulties. In terms of implications, these instructional methods encouraged teaching reading in groups rather than concentrating on the individual differences and needs. In addition, learners had some difficulties in phonics, failed to spell some word sounds such as phone, sugar and ball. Furthermore, teachers had challenges in teaching learners with reading difficulties such as over-enrolment, lack of learning and teaching resources, mixed disabilities, shortage of infrastructures, inconsistency on education policy regarding learners with reading difficulties, and the learning was more examination oriented than practical. Based on the findings of the study, schools must have adequate educational materials on instructional methods for learners with reading difficulties. They must promote peer teaching in instructional methods for such learners through continuous professional development (CPD).

Mubanga, Musenge, & Mubanga, (2020) observed that the teaching of English in countries where English is not the first language (L1) poses a challenge to both teachers and learners, especially if they are second language (L2) speakers. In their view, the matter is further complicated when English is the recognized main official language of the country. This meant that at one stage, all learners in the country will have to start learning English at one point to acquire the official language. This same language would at a certain stage of education become the official medium of instruction in all learning institutions. Therefore, their study investigated and focused on the challenges teachers faced in the process of teaching reading Phonic and Sight words to fourth grade learners in selected primary schools of Lusaka district in Zambia. To gather reliable information qualitative and quantitative data were collected from teachers and fourth-grade learners through survey, interviews, and observation. A questionnaire was administered to 100 learners who had just completed their fourth grade and another questionnaire to 20 fourth grade teachers in five primary schools. Class observations were done, and interviews were conducted with the school administrators. Quantitative data was analysed through the

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), while the thematic approach was used to analyse qualitative data.

The findings of their study indicated that some children absconded themselves in the early days of their first grade (grade one) where early reading was introduced hence failed to cope up with reading phonic and sight words. The other challenge was over-enrolment of pupils in the schools in the early grades because government schools were few in the area. Teachers failed to pay attention to learners with learning difficulties due to the high-pupil to-teacher ratios. The other finding from the study was that there was shortage of appropriate quality teaching and learning materials for early grade reading in the primary schools of Lusaka district. The study recommended that the Ministry of General Education should provide more school places by building more schools to reduce the high pupil to teacher ratio; and ensure that adequate appropriate teaching and learning materials are supplied in schools and that the school administrators should engage parents in most of the school activities so that the problem of absenteeism among learners in the early grades could be addressed.

Mwanamukubi, (2013) retaliated that reading is one of the basic skills that a child should master during their first school years to be able to assimilate new knowledge and skills in future. She therefore explored factors that contribute to causes of reading difficulties among grade six learners and challenges faced by teachers in teaching them how to read. The sample comprised of two hundred and six participants drawn from ten schools in Chadiza and Chipata districts of the Eastern province of Zambia was used. The study employed both quantitative and qualitative research designs. Information was derived using teacher questionnaire, checklist on reading errors, word list levels 1- 5 and reading passages levels 1- 4. Findings from this study were that most of the grade six pupils were not able to read fluently as expected of their grade level. As they read, they committed errors such as mispronouncing, substituting, adding, and omitting some words. The teachers had their own perceptions of the causes of reading difficulties and these included language and communication problems, psychological factors, and others. There was also a significant correlation between teachers' ability to identify specific reading errors and actual performance of learners.

The study further revealed that teachers faced several challenges in teaching reading to these learners. These challenges included, inadequate teaching and learning materials, high teacher-

pupil ratio, and others. Reading difficulties is a problem which is widespread although it is not receiving the necessary attention that it deserves. Based on these findings, the study recommended that apart from just providing adequate learning and teaching materials and building more schools, methods of teaching how to read such as the whole word method should be used. Diagnostic assessment methods and remedial measures on reading difficulties must be taught to teachers so that they are adequately prepared to help learners with reading difficulties.

Chipili (2016) investigated factors that contributed to the poor performance in reading of grade 2 learners in selected primary schools which fall in low and high populated areas of Chibombo District. The aim of the study was: to establish the attitude of teachers towards the teaching of literacy, to assess the attitude of learners towards the learning of literacy and to establish causes of poor reading. The research was conducted in seven primary and three community schools focusing on grade 2 learners targeting both the learners and the teachers. The grade 2 learners were targeted on the basis that by grade 2, they would have acquired some reading skills. Descriptive survey methods were used for data collection from grade 2 and 1 teachers from primary and community schools and ten learners from each school. Data on attitude of teachers to teaching literacy and the methodology used while data on learners was collected using the Early Grade Reading assessment (EGRA) tool developed by Time to Learn (TTL) and acknowledged by Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) in the Ministry of Education

The learners were assessed in Chitonga on the letter sound knowledge and oral passage reading, to determine if learners would be able to identify the sounds and read them correctly. The findings showed that teachers were playing a key role especially in the preparation of the decodable stories, they were able to create stories using the sound and syllabus of the day. However, the analysis indicated that teacher-learner interaction was not adequately implemented. Most teachers were having double classes due to low staffing levels and high pupil enrolment. Some teachers were in a hurry of teaching to finish the syllabus. The passion of helping and identifying a learner as an individual was not effectively applied. The findings showed that community schoolteachers were not motivated especially where payments were concerned. The study recommended that teachers should consider Learning to Read as a complex process that involved multifaceted skills and experience.

The teaching of English in countries where English is not the first language (L1) poses a challenge to both teachers and learners, especially if they are second language (L2) speakers. The matter is further complicated when English is the recognized main official language of the country. This means that at one stage, all learners in the country have to start learning English at one point to acquire the official language, which at a certain stage of education becomes the official medium of instruction in all learning institutions. Mulenga et al., (2020) investigated on the challenges teachers faced in the process of teaching reading phonics and sight words to fourth grade learners in the selected primary schools of Lusaka district in Zambia. Through survey, interviews and observation with teachers, learners and school administrators, the findings indicated that some children absconded themselves in the early days of their first grade (grade one) where early reading was introduced hence failed to cope up with reading Phonic and Sight words. The other challenge was over enrolment of pupils in the schools in the early grades because the government schools were few in the area, hence teachers failed to pay attention to learners with learning difficulties due to the high pupil to teacher ratios. The other finding from the study was that there was a shortage of appropriate quality teaching and learning materials for early grade reading in the primary schools of Lusaka district. The study recommended that the Ministry of General Education should provide more school places by building more schools to reduce the high pupil to teacher ratio; and also ensure that adequate appropriate teaching and learning materials are supplied in schools and that the school administrators should engage parents in most of the school activities so that the problem of absenteeism among learners in the early grades can be addressed.

Kaani, et al., (2022) examine the effects of orthographic opacity on reading fluency with the focus was on evaluating the dynamics of reading fluency, particularly to determine how accuracy and speed skills are affected by orthographic transparency among bilinguals. Fifth and sixth grade children were tested on two reading fluency passages in Nyanja and English writing system in Chipata and Chadiza Districts of the Eastern Province of Zambia. Errors committed and times taken to read were recorded in each language and child. Results revealed that the participants were more accurate in Nyanja in comparison to English, but they were faster in English than Nyanja. However, reading fluency variables were highly correlated, suggesting a non-significant relationship between the two orthographies. They concluded that although their results were in conformity with and the supported the traditional models of reading acquisition

and development theories suggesting significant differences as a function of orthographic depth, the mean differences were not statistically significant indicating that variations in reading fluency achievement among Zambian children were as marked as variations reported in comparisons between English and other European orthographies. Hence, it could be argued that the non-significant performance resulted from Zambian children's bilingualism, which facilitates cross-linguistic transfer of reading skills between writing systems.

This segment has highlighted several world-wide common research-based reading challenges learners face in various learning environments and various pedagogic conditions. From reviewed literature, common challenges in African have been identified and are mostly blamed on learners reading text in English in mostly multilingual settings. From reviewed literature, affecting reading among Zambian learners range from materials used, teaching methodology and poor classroom conditions. An investigation into teacher pedagogic practices might fill the gap on how to deal with challenges learners' face when reading text in English after transitioning from the first language.

2.5 Measures to Support Learners with Specific Oral Reading Fluency Challenges

Literacy skills are one of the most important areas of ability children develop in their first few years at school. That is why it is crucial to provide fluency strategies for struggling readers as soon as a learning difficulty is picked up. If learners in primary grades do not develop proficient fluency skills, they are more likely to struggle with fluency as they get older, affecting their comprehension skills (Stanovich, 1986). Teachers have a mandate to help learners with reading fluency skills. The best strategy for developing reading fluency is to provide learners with many opportunities to read the same passage orally several times. To do this, should first know what to have their students read. Second, they should know how to have their students read aloud repeatedly. Six smarts' strategies to boost reading fluency provided include showing learners your own fluent reading; teach your child how to track words; try choral reading together; focus on sight words; recruit a friendly audience and record, evaluate, and repeat. In this section we review literature on measures to support learners that may have oral reading fluency in primary schools.

With the help of fluency and automaticity particularly, the readers can focus on the meaning and the context of the text and link it to the background knowledge that is necessary to comprehend the text (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Samuels, 2002). Reading Comprehension which is "Interpretation of the information in the text" is suggested as the most common component among various definitions of reading comprehension (Kendeou et al., 2007: 28-9). In L1 reading fluency is suggested to be both a prerequisite and conclusion of reading comprehension (Snow & Sweet, 2003). Readers who cannot read fluently can have difficulty in comprehending the text. Furthermore, to be a fluent reader, one must comprehend the text as well. However, the situation changes in L2 setting. According to Grabe (2009), L2 readers, especially in academic settings, may read a text with a high level of comprehension but with a low level of fluency. If L2 students are given enough time, they can be quite successful in comprehension. Thus, it is a matter of discussion among researchers whether L2 students need to improve fluency if they could comprehend the text.

Vaughn & Fletcher (2021) offered a more sober - and sobering - review of what is known about how to help struggling readers. They confessed that, helping children learn to read is big business. From expensive literacy curricula and remedial programs to one-day workshops and brain-training fads, there are too many claims of guaranteed success and too little focus on trustworthy findings. They further said:

> *"No child is born a reader; all children in literate societies must be taught to read." "We are all good at speech but disabled as readers and writers; the difference among us in reading/writing is simply that some are fairly easy to cure, and some are not." (Vaughn & Fletcher, 2021)*

Oral reading fluency deficits are a hallmark of reading difficulties, and the impact of fluency struggles extends beyond word-level difficulties to include deficits in reading comprehension (Hudson et al., 2020; Nouvelle, 2010). Difficulties with reading fluency are nearly universal among individuals with learning disabilities in reading. Reading fluency is the ability to read text not just accurately, but also quickly and effortlessly is characterized by appropriate intonation and expression during oral reading, as well as by a high degree of accuracy and speed in recognizing individual words in the text. Accurate word decoding is necessary, though not

sufficient, for fluent reading. Rate or speed as well as prosody are also necessary in the learner's reading development. Thus, a student who reads quickly, but with many decoding errors or substitutions of words, is not "fluent." Teachers play a significance role in promoting the development of reading skills by providing direct and explicit reading instruction that builds student mastery through scaffolded instruction and incorporates universal design for learning principles. In this case, the best strategy for developing reading fluency is to provide your students with many opportunities to read the same passage orally several times. To do this, the teacher should first provide guidance on what text the learners need to read and how to have the learners read aloud repeatedly. In case where learners lack pedagogic instruction, learners suffer many reading challenges and would require measures to support learners with specific fluency challenges.

Nouvelle (2010) proposed at least three reasons why oral reading fluency is important. Firstly, if students need to put effort into reading individual words, they tend to lose comprehension. Secondly, students with poor fluency often experience reading as laborious and difficult, so they lose motivation to read. Lack of motivation to read results in less practice, further compounding the difficulties of struggling readers. And thirdly, as they advance in school, students with poor fluency have difficulty keeping up with the high volume of reading required for academic success beyond the elementary grades. Literature has also suggested that reading comprehension can be improved through efforts to improve oral reading fluency (NRP, 2000). However, Nouvelle pointed out that the gap in reading achievement continues to be inconsistent, despite No Child Left Behind goals to narrow these gaps among minority and other subgroup populations. He argued that the gap is especially profound for students with disabilities, and any evidence to support progress monitoring of oral reading fluency and comprehension would inform educational policy and practice in various education systems.

Nouvelle (2010) identified two patterns of difficulties that are especially common in students with reading disabilities. In the first pattern, a student has difficulty reading words accurately and reads in a slow, laboured fashion. In the second pattern, a student may have achieved reasonably accurate word decoding, especially after remediation in phonemic awareness and phonics, but still reads very slowly relative to other students his or her age. Fluency deficits in individuals with reading disabilities may be linked to several underlying factors. One especially important factor involves a cumulative lack of exposure to printed words. Struggling readers receive much

less exposure to words (e.g., through independent reading both in and out of school) than do skilled readers. If struggling readers' difficulties are not remediate early, this cumulative deficit in exposure to words may be extremely difficult to overcome. In addition, some scientific investigators have linked problems in developing reading fluency to underlying deficits in naming speed, or the speed with which children can retrieve the names of familiar items, such as letters or numbers. Other researchers view these difficulties as reflecting a single underlying phonological deficit, the core deficit in most individuals with reading disabilities.

In such instances, Nouvelle proposed measures involving early identification of fluency challenges. He pointed out that fluency can be very useful in identifying at-risk readers in the early elementary grades. Depending on the age of the children, these measures may involve identifying letters, reading real words or nonsense (made-up) words out of context, or reading grade-appropriate passages. The measures are timed, and the child's score is simply the number of letters or words read correctly per minute. Children must be tested individually because the measures involve oral reading; however, typically these measures are easy to administer, take only a few minutes of time, require only minimal training of teachers, and are excellent predictors of children's risk status. Thus, fluency measures can be used in general education settings to monitor the progress of all children and to identify early those who need additional help. Early identification and appropriate intervention (which may or may not include special education) can help to prevent cumulative deficits which make it so difficult for older struggling readers to catch up to their peers.

Several approaches have shown promise for addressing fluency difficulties - the instruction and remediation in fluency. On this measure Nouvelle pointed out that once serious fluency problems have developed, they can be resistant to remediation. Therefore, an especially helpful technique involves repeated oral readings of text under timed conditions. In this technique, the teacher selects an appropriate level passage–one that is not too difficult–for a child to read aloud repeatedly. The child rereads the passage until he or she reaches a predetermined criterion for accuracy and rate, then moves on to another, more difficult passage. A somewhat similar approach, but one that does not necessarily use timing, involves having children reread familiar books aloud several times, with appropriate guidance and feedback from the teacher. Other approaches to developing reading fluency include the use of timed speed drills on individual

words (e.g., common sight words), readers' theatre, paired or partner reading, and encouraging independent reading (e.g., by making books available to children that are interesting and at an appropriate level of difficulty). Teaching basic phonics and skills for decoding multisyllabic words, such as syllabication strategies and structural analysis, is essential for students whose reading is not accurate. Without a foundation of accurate decoding, students cannot become fluent. However, by itself, phonics instruction will not meet students' needs for building fluency. Rather, fluency must be directly addressed, through the kinds of approaches discussed above, as part of a comprehensive program of reading instruction.

The degree to which a student expresses a reading difficulty is always an interaction between the child's opportunity to learn (due to absences, instructional quality, or other issues) and the extent of the student's reading impairment (Fletcher & Vaughn, 2009). Fletcher and Vaughn wondered over what teachers do to support students with reading difficulties or with mild to moderate disabilities or dyslexia. Youngsters who are provided a genuine opportunity to learn to read—including high-quality, explicit, evidence-based instruction—and yet still present with significant reading difficulties are likely to have a severe reading impairment. In contrast, children who have not consistently been able to access high-quality, evidence-based instruction and present with significant reading difficulties are likely to have reading problems that could have been prevented and still can be remediated. This difference is of the utmost importance. Currently, there are students with preventable reading problems who are suffering academically and emotionally, and who are placed in special education often to receive accommodation without effective remediation. And there are students with severe reading disabilities or dyslexia who are not getting the intensive interventions they need—in part because special education is overwhelmed with large numbers of students who do not actually have reading disabilities.

Fletcher and Vaughn hoped for this to end but lament that teachers cannot solve these problems on their own because these are systemic problems. They therefore proposed a new, seamless, three-tiered system of general and special education to address them. Far too many students and teachers are struggling. It is long past time for leaders of schools, districts, and states - not to mention teacher preparation programs, curriculum developers, and professional development providers - to step up, change their policies and programs, and focus on meeting children's needs. Most of what they described required system-level change. But teachers want to do what's

best for their students today. Here are six steps that teachers can implement in their classrooms now (and that school leaders should start supporting immediately).

1. Use academic learning time deliberately and purposefully to ensure students receive the maximum amount of evidence-based instruction: Academic engagement, i.e., time on task - is an excellent predictor of academic outcomes.[27] Consider how much time you spend explicitly teaching and providing highly focused instructional time. Observation studies reveal that surprisingly little class time is devoted to explicitly teaching the high-priority skills associated with improved reading outcomes.[28] Consider ways to structure your classroom, teaching, and resources so that maximum time is spent on instruction and minimal time is lost to transitions, over-explaining, and behavioral management.
2. Consider the value of the one-minute lesson: Many students with significant reading difficulties benefit from a one-minute lesson in which they are provided a mini review of a challenging task, an opportunity to practice word reading with feedback, or a chance to demonstrate what they know with feedback. Time is always an issue, but do not allow it to block you from spending highly focused instructional minutes with the students who need you the most.
3. Offer customized instruction that reflects students' learning needs: Many of the students you teach learn to read almost effortlessly. However, students with reading difficulties, disabilities, or dyslexia require highly customized instruction that aligns with their specific learning needs. How can you determine what this customized instruction might be? Examine their screening and progress monitoring data. Determine the high-priority areas in which they require additional instruction and practice. Identify ways to include this type of work each day in an individual mini lesson or with a small group of students with similar needs. Provide practice opportunities with feedback so they have multiple opportunities to acquire proficiency.
4. Give struggling readers instructions in small groups, in pairs, or one on one: Many students with reading difficulties benefit from the specialized instruction that is allowable in small group, paired, and one-on-one instruction. These formats provide opportunities to tailor instruction to their needs with appropriate practice and targeted feedback.

5. Create many opportunities to read a range of text types and a range of text levels: Students who struggle with reading benefit from opportunities to generalize their reading to varied text types, including digital texts, informational texts, and narrative texts as well as hybrid informational and narrative texts such as biographies. This variation in text types is not just for older students but can be part of the listening comprehension and text reading of younger students, including beginning readers. Also, consider ways to vary the text levels that students read. Students can read and comprehend more advanced texts when they have adequate background knowledge, are motivated by the topic, and/or have additional instructional support.
6. Provide explicit instruction that incorporates clear feedback: Explicit instruction with feedback is highly effective, especially when students are having difficulty learning with less explicit methods. Teachers who offer this type of evidence-based instruction do the following:

    - Identify, prior to teaching, what they expect the students to do or say.
    - State clearly and in as few words as possible what they need students to know.
    - Model what they expect students to say or do.
    - Ask students to demonstrate what is expected (e.g., blend phonemes, read a word, read a text silently).
    - Provide prompt feedback that is specific and clear (e.g., "I heard several of you blending the sounds /r/, /a/, /t/ and then saying the word 'rat.' That is what I expect. I also heard several of you only saying the word 'rat' and not blending the sounds. I will give you three more sounds, and I want everyone to both blend the sounds and say the word.").
    - Give selected students opportunities to respond independently (and avoid only calling on the most capable students).
    - Control the task difficulty by making the task less difficult for students in need of adaptation and then gradually increasing the task difficulty as their performance improves.
    - Maintain high levels of student success, engagement, and response.

In another study, Hudson et al., (2020) examined oral reading fluency interventions among elementary students who were identified as having reading difficulties were reviewed to identify the characteristics (e.g., instructional variables, group size, type of interventionist) of effective ORF interventions and their impact on English oral reading fluency and reading comprehension outcomes. Results of this systematic review revealed that interventions cantered around repeated reading procedures (86.5%). Across the 16 studies, outcomes for oral reading fluency varied widely and most focused on speed and rate aspects rather than prosody. Effect sizes for rate and accuracy measures ranged from negligible to large and three studies found large effects for prosody outcomes. Effect sizes for reading comprehension ranged between non-significant and large significant effects. Findings support the use of repeated reading of text to build up ORF of students with reading difficulties. Interventions that were found to be most effective were those that were conducted one-on-one with a trained model of fluent word reading and accuracy. Findings also point to three gaps in our understanding: (1) the efficacy of interventions other than repeated reading, (2) effects of ORF interventions on prosody outcomes, and (3) sustainability of outcomes.

The synthesis study by Hudson et al., had limitations. However, the study contributed to literature in three ways; Firstly, their findings support previous syntheses—the last of which was conducted by Stevens et al. with studies between 2001 and 2014 (Stevens, Walker & Vaughn, 2016). Generally, fluency interventions examined, which constituted mostly repeated reading procedures, made positive contributions to gains in reading fluency and reading comprehension among children with reading difficulties. Considering that failure to replicate findings presents as a salient issue in research (Bryk, 2014; Kim, 2019) the replication of findings of previous syntheses despite not including single-case studies and only focusing on those studies that included a control group provides convergent evidence for the importance of fluency on reading outcomes. Secondly, extending from previous syntheses, our finding compared relative gains of fluency interventions on fluency and reading comprehension outcomes. The observation that fluency interventions produced greater gains in comprehension as compared to fluency in general added credence to the current view that reading fluency relates to both decoding and comprehension rather than the earlier conceptualization that fluency was confined mainly to word recognition (Harris & Hodges (1995; Harris & Hodges (1995). Thirdly, their study also examined characteristics of interventions and their impact on reading outcomes, including the

impact of group size in intervention, a characteristic that had not been systematically investigated in previous studies.

The implication for such interventions by Hudson et al., (2020)'s study includes instructional practices in the classroom. He therefore suggested that elementary students with reading difficulties would benefit from one-on-one interventions which include a model of fluent reading who has received adequate training. The findings also support earlier research which suggests that repeated reading of text is one way to build the oral reading fluency of students with difficulties. However, continuous reading with teacher support may also be an effective method. Moreover, although listening while reading and small-group interventions produced only small to moderate effect sizes, they may be more efficient means of improving oral reading fluency since they require less instructional time of the classroom teacher. However, an important fact to remember about any intervention, and one Young et al. also mentioned, is that there is not one intervention that is effective for every student and if not responding to one type of fluency intervention, some students may need an alternate form of instruction (Young, Mohr, & Rasinski, 2015).

Texas Education Agency, (2002) indicated that research on the efficacy of certain approaches to teaching fluency led to changes in instructional practices and should continue to do so. With much focus on Response to Intervention (RTI) and Multi-Tiered Systems of Support (MTSS), evidence-based fluency strategies should be used to target students with and at risk for reading difficulties in classroom instruction, as well as in small-group intervention outside of the classroom. Listening while reading, repeated reading with multiple features, and continuous reading with teacher support are methods that can be effectively used across a variety of contexts for increasing the oral reading fluency of elementary students who need more targeted instruction.

In another study by Padeliadu, et al., (2021), researchers realised that in transparent orthographic systems, such as the Greek one, reading problems of students with reading disabilities are related mostly to reading fluency rather than to decoding. Consequently, they proposed that systematic, and explicit instruction in reading fluency is considered necessary. Therefore, their major research goal in their study was the development of reading fluency of three second-grade students, who faced severe reading difficulties through a multi-component intervention program.

They explored whether the use of specially designed texts in conjunction with specific instructional strategies could enhance the reading fluency of students with severe reading difficulties. The intervention followed a within-subject design including pre-test /post-test measures without control groups. The intervention program lasted for two months and included 16 individual sessions. Four illustrated books with controlled texts were designed and used within the program. Regarding instructional strategies- model reading, assisted repeated reading, self-monitoring and reinforcement were implemented. Based on the results it was revealed that the intervention program had a high impact on reading fluency in the four instructional texts. Analysis of pre-test and post-test scores showed that the intervention program had a different effect for everyone on the measured skills. No effect was recorded for students' reading fluency. However, the program significantly improved participants' reading comprehension. Implications and limitations of the study are included in the discussion.

Specific instructional implications based on the analysis of Padeliadu, (2021)'s study were: a) repeated reading with self-monitoring and reinforcement can be effective with significant results for students with reading disabilities, b) reading fluency instruction becomes more effective, when it is applied in combination with specially designed instructional texts, c) reading fluency interventions should actively involve students in the reading process, through the use of self-regulation and self- evaluation strategies and d) teaching the irregular text words independently should be incorporated into every reading fluency intervention program. Nevertheless, caution should be given in interpreting the results of the present study. A limitation of the study is the small number of participants. The study results cannot be generalized and cannot lead to safe and solid conclusions. The design and the method of this intervention should be replicated in a larger-scale study, using experimental and control groups, with an adequate number of participants. Further, future longitudinal studies are needed to be conducted, including systematic and high-frequency sessions.

Knott, et al., (2020) observed that year after year, students who enter the classroom were several grades below grade level yet were expected to perform as an on-grade level student. One of the major learning gaps, that is daunting to see in fourth grade, are students who are extremely below grade level in reading. To an outsider, it could look as though it is only one subject. No big deal! Unfortunately, reading is the foundation to all content areas. A student who is not successful in

reading will most likely have difficulties in other areas of learning. Reading provides the foundation of understanding, and that foundation begins with reading fluency. Researcher Timothy Rasinski, along with countless other researchers, such as Kodan and Akoyl, The National Reading Panel, and Samuels and Laberge, carry the belief that students who build a foundation of fluency through practice and increase that fluency will develop the ability to comprehend on higher levels (2003). Without this foundation, the learning gap begins and continues to widen year after year. Thus, showing the huge relationship between reading fluency and reading comprehension (Rasinski, 2003). These below grade level readers need interventions that meet them where they are and push them forward to meet their learning goals - enabling them to become better readers. The purpose of this study was to address the needs of below-level readers and to aid in the vertical alignment of research-based interventions and methods in grades 3-5.

Steinle et al., (2022) did a systematic review synthesising fluency intervention research for struggling readers in Grades 6 through 12 from January 2006 to October 2019. The search yielded 17 studies examining reading fluency and comprehension outcomes. Most studies examined repeated reading (RR) interventions to improve reading fluency for struggling readers at these grade levels, resulting in improved fluency but few positive effects on reading comprehension outcomes, like trends were observed in prior systematic reviews. Reading connected text with an equivalent word count to word counts of RR sessions did not result in increased reading fluency, a finding aligned with a prior synthesis. Few studies used a fluent reader as a model prior to RRs, despite previous support for Modeling within fluency interventions.

The implications for practice in Steinle and other's study is that a goal of any systematic review is not just to synthesize intervention results for researchers but for practitioners as well. Therefore, teachers, interventionists, and reading specialists in the secondary grades are especially in need of evidence-based interventions for their students who demonstrate low oral reading fluency. The disparate results of studies in this corpus make it infeasible to provide sound recommendations to teachers looking to remediate fluency difficulties. This synthesis revealed the extent to which we remain unsure of the best practices for improving fluency for secondary struggling readers, but more specifically, the lack of clarity surrounding the conditions

for which fluency interventions, such as RR, may work for which students and under what conditions. If any recommendation can be made, it is to proceed with caution in overreliance on RR, which may not be properly efficacious for this population. A key finding that aligned with Wexler et al. (2008) was that wide reading could have similar impacts on reading fluency. Teachers in secondary grades may wish to generally increase the amount of text read and vary the type of text as opposed to specifically utilizing RR.

Steinle, et al., (2022) proposed ways in which fluency challenges could be overcome such as; equivalent wide reading (reading equivalent word amounts to RR) may be a preferable option for teachers in the secondary grades, as RR was not shown to be more or less effective for older students, and wide reading may be more feasible given the expectations of reading for content knowledge. Teachers may wish to focus on building background knowledge and teaching vocabulary as levers to improve comprehension for students with fluency deficits. Wide reading for content knowledge could potentially also address concerns teachers may have about the generalization of RR, such as when improvements in fluency are not seen to be maintained after the intervention itself. In this synthesis, only two studies looked at generalization as an indication of maintenance of effects (Lingo et al., 2006; Southward & Goo, 2019). Based on only two studies, it is unwise to make claims on RR's ability to make improvements generalize to new and unread texts.

Wexler et al. (2008) synthesis was extended because students in the secondary grades with low reading fluency need evidence-based interventions, especially interventions that can improve fluency and reading comprehension outcomes simultaneously, if possible. Still, repeated reading (RR) remained the predominantly used intervention for improving reading fluency. However, the results of this synthesis suggested a lack of consensus to support RR with modeling for improving reading fluency and reading comprehension outcomes of older struggling readers. In addition, the effects of reading fluency interventions on students' reading comprehension outcomes remained unclear. In general, fluency interventions may be less impactful for struggling readers in the secondary grades. As such, the use of such interventions should be based on individual student needs, and ongoing progress monitoring should be used to adjust instruction when students show a lack of responsiveness to these interventions. In conclusion, the findings of this synthesis did not fully converge to a point to make a definitive statement on the

overall effectiveness of fluency interventions for struggling readers in the secondary grades. Future research should inspect the nature of reading disabilities and difficulties for this age level to refine the approach to remediating fluency deficits for these students.

Realising that education had faced unprecedented disruption during the COVID pandemic, Domingue et al., (2022) took a different angle and did study to understand how students had adapted as they entered a different phase of the pandemic after communities had returned to more typical schooling. Researchers used data from an oral reading fluency (ORF) assessment—a rapid assessment taking only a few minutes that measures a fundamental reading skill—to examine COVID's effects on children's reading ability during the pandemic. They found that students in the first 200 days of the 2020–2021 school year tended to experience slower growth in ORF relative to pre-pandemic years. They also observed slower growth in districts with a high percentage of English language learners and/or students eligible for free and reduced-price lunch. These findings offer valuable insight into the effects of COVID on one of the most fundamental skills taught to children. The implication of these results was to inform a suite of policy interventions and subsequent research in oral reading fluency.

Wanzek, Al Otaiba & Petscher (2013) used a large state-wide database to examine the oral reading fluency development of second and third grade students with emotional disturbance or learning disabilities and their general education peers. Oral reading fluency measures were administered to 185,367 students without disabilities (general education), 2,146 students identified with emotional disturbance, and 10,339 students with a learning disability. Student status and growth trends were examined in a piecewise model at each grade level for the full sample as well as for a subsample of reading difficulties. Data suggested that students with disabilities performed significantly below students without disabilities in initial status and growth. Gender was also examined as a moderator of outcomes for each of the study groups. This is an indication that oral reading fluency challenges involves not only learners with disabilities but also emotionally disturbed learners.

Other fluency challenges learners experience is due the language of instruction used to teach learners. Reading research has shown that variable relationships exist between measures of oral reading fluency and reading comprehension, depending on whether the language of the text is the reader's first language or an additional language. Piper, Schroeder & Trudell (2016) explored

this phenomenon using reading assessment data for 2,000 Kenyan children in two or three languages: English, Kiswahili and one of two mother tongues, Dholuo or Gikuyu. The assessment data allowed them to compare reading and comprehension rates across languages. The data indicated that many children could read English words more easily than words in Kiswahili or their mother tongue; nevertheless, their reading comprehension was significantly lower in English than in Kiswahili, Dholuo or Gikuyu. They concluded that emphasising English reading fluency is an inefficient route to gaining reading comprehension skills because pupils are attaining minimal oral reading fluency in English and only modest comprehension skills in their own languages. The evidence also demonstrated that Kenya's national language policy of mother tongue as a medium of instruction in the early primary grades is consistently ignored in practice.

Solari et al., (2022) meta-analysed the last four decades (1980–2020) of reading intervention research focused on improving reading outcomes for English language (EL) students in Grades K–5 with or at risk for word reading difficulties. Experimental and quasi-experimental group design and single-case experimental design (SCED) studies were included; 10 group design and 7 SCED studies met inclusion criteria (m=61; total student N=2,270). Visual inspection of the effect size distribution revealed that the assumption of between-study heterogeneity was not supported; therefore, the findings were synthesized for SCED studies separately from those reported in group design studies. Implications for practice, policy, and future research are discussed. The findings from this systematic review raised concerns about the lack of studies investigating intervention effects for ELs, especially given the tremendous growth the nation had seen in the population of students used over decades. They therefore recommended for future research to investigate effects of early reading interventions with sufficiently large samples and report on treatment fidelity and implementation to better inform the field about how to best teach ELs with or at risk for WLRD. They emphasised the importance of future research that would describe intervention implementation and business-as-usual conditions in detail to allow for a more complete understanding of treatment impacts. They also pointed out that policymakers, administrators, and teachers were all eager to learn how to best instruct EL students who had WLRD.

Like Fletcher and Vaughn, (2021), findings from Solari et al., (2022)'s also suggested that explicit and systematic early literacy instruction that included a foundational skills component

but also addresses meaning-related skills is effective for ELs with or at risk for WLRD. Meta-analyses of group design studies indicate that, overall, early reading interventions have a positive effect on the reading performance of ELs with WLRD, including word/nonword reading, passage reading, and reading comprehension. Further, meta-analyses of SCED studies revealed few significant mean effects but wide variability across studies. In some ways, the most important finding of this systematic review was that there is a dearth of research on the topic of EL students with specific WLRD. They, therefore, echoed the call issued by Roberts et al. (2021) for more rigorous evaluations of reading interventions serving diverse ELs, especially those who have or are at risk for WLRD.

In search of measures to use on learners with fluency challenges, Cadena-Aguilar, et al., (2019) conducted an action research study whose aim was to examine the possible impact of the *Daily 6* approach on the oral fluency in English of 13 adolescents. This approach (extension of the existing Daily 5™ framework) introduced a sixth step, "speak to someone", to respond to the lack of oral fluency limiting participants' overall speaking performance in English as a foreign language. Data were gathered through surveys, diagnostic and achievement tests, and recordings using VoiceThread. The coding and a small sample hypothesis test for means analysis unveiled the significance of the *Daily 6* approach to enhance oral fluency through technology. Results displayed gains in oral fluency (length of runs, silent pauses, length of pauses, filled pauses, and pace) and positive changes in attitudinal responses within a low-anxiety environment.

In Cadena-Aguilar, et al., (2019) 's study, the Daily 6 was implemented to determine the effect it might have on the participants' oral fluency. The researchers found that the Daily 6 had a positive impact on the participants' oral fluency thanks to (a) the decrease of anxiety, (b) the fostering of motivation and self-directed behaviours, and (c) the speaking opportunities provided by the Daily 6's sixth step. These results answered the research question of this study by demonstrating that the Daily 6 positively affected the participants' oral fluency. The effectiveness of the Daily 6 as an approach sheds light on the significance of this study's results for the ELT community by adding a novel approach to the field. This statement also invites fellow researchers to deepen their understanding of the relationship between the lowering of enhancement of oral fluency with the Daily 6 and the assessment practices that should be implemented with this approach.

The implication of the effect of the Daily 6 on the participants' oral fluency might be compared to the studies that have been published in recent years and in different places. Most of these studies have reported enhancement of oral fluency; some of them have ameliorated affective factors such as anxiety to enhance oral fluency and some others have proposed repetition of tasks to make students aware of their own progress. There are two evident differences between those previous studies and the present one: population, and the approach with which oral fluency skills were developed. The latter is deemed more important and discussed in the following paragraphs.

The study by Cadena-Aguilar, et al., (2019) is a call for pedagogical innovation towards current efforts to ameliorate the conditions under which oral production and communication are developed in the EFL classroom. It encourages researchers to bring a foreign approach to English teaching and learning (Daily 5), and then adapt it to become suitable upon its application in a local context with a specific need: the fostering of oral fluency in EFL. The results showed a positive effect on the participants' oral fluency after implementing the Daily 6 using VoiceThread, displayed in the fostering of autonomous behaviours, development of higher order thinking skills through decision making and meaningful practice and interaction. The Daily 6 is a new approach that needs to and may be enhanced to become a well-known method to heighten speaking in foreign languages.

Gutierrez & Usma (2015) proposed interactional tasks among their participants to boost their oral fluency skills. Their studies share one similarity with the Daily 6 (and other studies hereby mentioned): decrease of anxiety among learners. It is safe to highlight that many studies have identified anxiety as an obstacle for would-be fluent speakers. Another clear example of such a study is Mir's (2006). They narrated how the author had implemented recorded oral journals in her lessons repeatedly, so her students would become accustomed to speaking English for several minutes, increasing their self-confidence and lowering their anxiety levels. The Daily 6 had achieved a decrease in anxiety levels among learners thanks to the itinerary nature of its six steps, rather than by just repeating the same task several times. Nevertheless, the recorded oral journals did not seek accuracy in grammatical terms but oral fluency of speech. The article demonstrated that pushing the participants towards accuracy-oriented goals inherently increased their negative anxiety, instead of reducing it; this is a characteristic that is present in the Daily 6 as well.

Another key strategy used by some authors to develop oral fluency skills in their participants consisted of self-assessment and self-correction (Alam & Uddn, 201); Doque, 2014). These authors intended to advise their participants with explicit knowledge on their progress. At mid-term, learners would start noticing a degree of enhancement that might encourage them by giving them a sense of accomplishment. The Daily 6 also provides learners with self-reflection opportunities but it does not entail any self-assessment stages. This means that the results of progress depend exclusively on the teacher's assessment of the learners' performance.

Moreover, a different implemented strategy was collaborative learning (Suarez Rodriguez et al., 2015). These authors argue that, in their study, collaborative work resulted in learners gaining awareness of their strengths and weaknesses and making plans to overcome such weaknesses. In a parallel way, collaborative work also promoted class participation among the learners, which in turn is evidenced by lowered anxiety. The Daily 6 entails collaboration in the steps Read to Someone, Listen to Someone, and Speaking to Someone. There are steps to be carried out individually, as well as steps that require collaborative work. In both, the present study and in Suarez Rodriguez et al., s' study, collaborative work was reported as a cause for an observed decrease of anxiety among learners.

The study related to oral fluency in Colombia (Montilla et al., 2016) also achieved low degrees of anxiety among its participants. However, the researchers applied a very specific strategy: audio blogs. According to the authors, audio blogs meant a novel opportunity for learners, who took advantage of this opportunity and became interested in recording their voices and participating in the blogs. This repeated task helped learners become aware of their own learning processes and changes in their oral fluency. The Daily 6's *sixth* step "Speaking to Someone" was an equivalent of this study's strategy. Students were prompted to record their voices using a web tool. The use of technology was welcomed by the participants in the Daily 6, and the recordings they made evidenced a slow but steady decrease in anxiety. These strategies led learners to experience positive changes in their oral fluency, which was ultimately displayed when learners were tested after the implementation of the Daily 6.

Although a sample of 13 students may not mean a major piece of evidence for the research world, teacher-researchers need to bear in mind that the Daily 6 entails an inventory of materials, resources, and strategies that required a high amount of data, preparation, and monitoring. To

obtain a larger sample, the researchers needed a greater number of records that might not have easy to control for transcription and qualitative analysis. This small sample may have helped us not only in the data collection process but also in the development of the different activities within a pleasant and low-anxiety environment. A group of participants comprising over 20 students would require more than 25 hours of implementation. Therefore, teachers implementing the Daily 6 need to bear in mind that it is mandatory to boast a wide variety of book materials for students to choose from. Should a classroom have more than 20 students, the teacher may face logistic issues implementing the Daily 6. In this light, it is necessary to take an inventory of the available resources in stock before starting the process. Consequently, an option could be to have a teacher-assistant while introducing the Daily 6, as once the methodology is introduced, the teacher-researcher's role becomes that of an observer.

Klomjit, S. (2013) did an experiment on the effect of oral reading-to-self on adult English Language Learners' oral fluency and their perception toward oral reading-to-self using a pre-test-post-test design. There was no statistically significant difference between male and female participants on perception toward oral reading-to-self in the three categories: difficult, male, female effective, male, female and language input, male, female. The difference between male and female participants on post-test scores was not significant.

Based on findings of the study, Klomjit made the following recommendations for further investigation:

1. Oral reading-to-self to improve oral fluency of ELLs with longer periods of oral reading to-self, or no limitation of time on oral reading-to-self should be examined to investigate the levels of oral fluency improvement.

2. Effects of oral reading to self on improvement of some other elements in speaking, for example, grammar and vocabulary, should be investigated. This present study aimed to investigate the effects of using oral reading-to-self toward the improvement of oral fluency only. The scope of oral fluency to be evaluated in this present study was defined as the smoothness or flow when sounds, syllables, words, and phrases are joined together in producing intelligible spoken English of ELL. Oral reading-to-self might be effective in improving other elements in speaking as well.

3. Duration of stay in English speaking countries, without any special design treatment that will make remarkable improvement of oral skills of ELLs from various backgrounds should be investigated. One of the unintended findings of this present study found that participants in the control group with different backgrounds on levels of English proficiency, years of learning English, years of staying in English speaking country and levels of education did not improve statistically significantly on KLMSE test.

4. This study should be replicated with ELLs with lower level of background knowledge of English, other age groups, or have more limited to exposure to native speakers of English such as EFL who are studying English as an additional language in an environment in which English is not the dominant language. Participants in this study were ELLs in an English-speaking country. During the study, they had plenty of opportunities to exercise their speaking skills. This might be one of the factors that led to the participants making statistically significantly higher post-test scores than the pre-test scores.

5. Additional research should be conducted using specific types of written materials, for example, textbooks, to further validate the findings of this study. This study let the participants choose written materials to read out loud by themselves up to their interest. This is because the participants were from different backgrounds and were studying different programs.

6. A study of using oral reading-to-self to improve oral fluency that provides feedback on oral reading-to-self to the participants should be carried to investigate if the level of improvement of oral fluency of the participants is different.

7. Using oral reading-to-self to improve oral fluency of other foreign language learners, for example, French, Spanish, Japanese, or Chinese should be conducted.

Therefore, Klomjit concluded that reading English written materials orally were found to be easy, effective, and a source of English knowledge that made the readers who are English language learners both male and female improve their oral fluency in this study. Being able to communicate more effectively and more fluently in the target language is always a main purpose in learning that language. The finding of this study has enriched the body of knowledge in teaching and learning English both as a second or foreign language. However, there is much more to investigate to make language education more effective and successful.

In another instance, the Texas Centre for Learning Disabilities (TCLD) proposed five evidence-based ways to improve reading fluency in elementary and secondary grades as follows:

Many students who struggle with reading fall behind early in their education because they struggle with skills such as letter identification, letter-sound correspondence, or word recognition. These underlying word-reading skills are foundational for reading fluency. For students with significant reading difficulties, this word-level instruction is key to unlocking passage-level reading fluency. When teaching these skills, it is important to deliver instruction that is explicit and systematic. Instruction should be explicit in the sense that the teacher must implement familiar routines, including many examples, and explain each skill in ways that are clear, visible, and consistent for students. Instruction should be systematic in that it should move from easier to more complex, build on higher-utility skills and what students know, and be appropriate for the task or lesson goal. The "I do, we do, you do" model is often used to plan an explicit and systematic lesson. What foundational reading skills are important to teach in each grade? (The Meadows Centre for Preventing Educational Risk [MCPER], 2016) of specific activities teachers might use when teaching one or more of these skills (this is not meant to be an exhaustive list): Kindergarten: Introduce new and review previously learned letters and sounds; make or build words; introduce new and review previously learned high frequency words; use fluency practice with skills. Grade 2. Review phonological awareness skills; introduce sound, spelling partners, and morphemes; make or build words; introduce new and review previously learned high-frequency words; use fluency practice with skills. Grade 2: Make or build words; introduce new high-frequency words; use fluency practice with skills. Grades 3–5: Make or build words; use fluency practice with skills.

2.5.2 Ensure that each Student Reads Connected Text Every Day to Support Reading Rate, Accuracy, and Expression.

Students may be proficient enough at reading lists of individual words, but they must also practice their skills in books or passages (i.e., connected text) to become fluent readers. Reading familiar books or passages allows students' skills to become more automatic, which enables them to free up their attention to connect ideas in the text to background knowledge and increase their reading comprehension. To get better at reading requires more time reading. When

developing lesson plans, it is important that teachers identify opportunities for students to practice reading. This can, of course, happen in English and language arts classes, but it also should happen across content areas. Students often are motivated to read more when they are interested in the reading material and when they have adequate support. At home, parents can encourage more reading each day by scheduling dedicated time for students to read independently (i.e., reading material independently with 95% to 100% accuracy) and by establishing a purpose for reading. For example, children can select a book to read that is of interest to them, and each day they can document what they read in a reading log. Daily entries in this reading log might include recording progress toward achieving a goal (e.g., increasing the number of words or pages read each day), brief summaries, connections made, difficulty vocabulary encountered, etc. Entries could be used to create a presentation to be shared with a student's peers. Schoenbach, Greenleaf, and Murphy's '*Reading for Understanding'* (2012) provides additional recommendations for reading logs (what they refer to as metacognitive logs).

2.5.3 Model Reading Fluency for Your Students.

Read-alouds are a powerful and useful instructional tool that model important foundational skills (i.e., prosody, vocabulary, and that print conveys a message) for children in a way that explicitly and unambiguously teaches something (Roberts & Burchinal, 2001; Trelease, 2001). When paired with think-alouds, teachers can promote vocabulary acquisition and help students make sense of or make connections between ideas beyond the classroom (Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2013; Gold & Gibson, 2001; Massaro, 2017). Read-alouds can be used to model reading fluency. For example, before reading a text, a teacher might say, "Follow along as I read. Listen to how I read the words at a steady pace and how I pause to take a quick breath at each period." Modeling reading fluency has been found to be an effective tool for improving reading fluency.

2.5.4 Take Advantage of Repeated Reading Routines.

Repeated reading is reading and rereading material to match the (a) purpose of the lesson and (b) student's reading ability. For example, if the purpose is to enhance reading rate, then select a text that is appropriate and at the student's decoding level. The teacher and student can monitor the number of words read correctly and can discuss the story to check comprehension. Discussions after each read can change to focus on a different reading element (e.g., character, main idea). Students select a passage. The higher-performing student reads the lower-performing student's

passage first to provide a model. The lower-performing student practices reading through the passage three times with their partner. The partner marks student errors on a copy of the passage and provides feedback on student errors. Students read the passage a fourth time as quickly as possible. Partners time the student reading for 1 minute. This time is referred to as the "first timing." Students record progress on their individual graphs in their workbooks.

2.5.5 Set Fluency Goals and Use Progress-Monitoring Data to Inform Instruction.

The combination of reading accuracy and rate (automaticity) is considered a student's oral reading fluency (ORF). Beginning in the middle of first grade, ORF is a complex skill that develops gradually, measures accuracy without regard to reading rate, and is one way to screen students quickly to monitor progress and determine whether additional support is needed. Measuring ORF provides valuable information about the child's ability to read connected text fluently. Tracking or monitoring progress is important to determine student reading growth and is closely linked to both screening and diagnostic assessment. Progress monitoring, administered weekly or biweekly, is a systematic process to formatively track the progress of student growth of an intervention skill (e.g., fluency). It additionally provides information about the appropriate levels of text to use (The University of Texas Centre for Reading and Language Arts, 2002). Progress monitoring can help you answer several questions, such as: Is learning happening? Is my teaching helping students make progress?

2.5.6 Translanguaging as a Pedagogy.

While natural translanguaging is an act utilized by students to communicate, official translanguaging pedagogy entails planned actions set up by the teacher (Williams 2012). Translanguaging as a teaching practice encompasses intentionally changing language input and language output. Learners are encouraged to embrace creativity (sometimes ignoring language usage norms) and criticality (using evidence to question, solve problems, and express views) (Wei 2011; Williams 2002). Translanguaging as a pedagogical practice is particularly effective in educational contexts where the school language or LOI is different from the home language of the students (Wei 2018; Lewis, Jones, & Baker 2013). Translanguaging pedagogies include small group or pair-work and collaborative activities with instructors as facilitators. These student-centred instructional approaches align with the tenets of the socio-cultural theory, where learning is a dialogically based process occurring in the learners' zone of proximal development

as a result of interaction and scaffolding mediated by adults or more capable peers (e.g., Vygotsky 1978). The use of these translanguaging pedagogies transforms the learning environment using cross-linguistic instructional resources and multilingual conversational processes during learning. Students can better understand complex content and engage in discussion of language and social issues. Rather than separation and alienation, the integration of students' languages and social practices is critical for bilingual educational settings. The use of translanguaging pedagogies is transformative, inclusive, and improves traditional bilingual education (García & Wei 2014).

Translanguaging provides scaffolding for emerging bilingual learners, allowing them to use familiar language practices to access knowledge. Emergent language learners are able to use dynamic language practices to build new language skills and knowledge, engage and understand the content, access complex texts, and complete academic tasks (Creese & Blackledge 2010; 2015; García & Wei 2014; Williams 2002). Translanguaging also supports writing skills and enables multilingual writers to produce fluid-language texts to make sense of themselves and their audiences in print and electronic modes such as emails, online discussion forums, blogs, and instant messages (Hinrichs 2006; Montes-Alcalá 2007).

2.5.7. Why do teachers and students use translanguaging?

García and Wei (2014) observed that effective teachers utilize diverse and inclusive linguistic practices for teaching purposes. These include differentiating instruction, fostering a value for all first languages, ensuring inclusivity of minority students, and expanding students' linguistic competence and academic vocabulary in all languages. Thus, the school is situated as an ideal translanguaging space. Using translanguaging pedagogies, teachers create opportunities for student-centred instruction. Project-based or collaborative groupings enable teachers to become facilitators of learning (García & Wei 2014). Teachers use translanguaging pedagogies to mediate understanding, co-construct meaning, engage and empower students, manage classrooms, check for learning, and ask questions (García 2011c; García & Wei 2014). Students tend to use translanguaging to maintain learning momentum, participate in-class activities, elaborate on ideas, critique, and ask questions to build understanding (Creese & Blackledge 2010; García & Wei 2014). During the learning process, students are challenged to find meaning across languages and with finding meaning across languages and becoming aware of their

spontaneous translanguaging (Kirsch 2020). When the classroom context supports and encourages translanguaging, students can be free to be creative and critical through the improvisation of their bilingual identities. Students value translanguaging as an instructional and learning strategy. It bolsters their identity with the target culture, increases motivation to learn and use the target language, and enhances mutual intelligibility (in cases where the students' language group belongs to a linguistic cluster) (Makalela 2014). Translanguaging pedagogies ultimately empower learners to gain confidence in their identity and multi-language competence and enhance their overall well-being (Canagarajah 2011; Skuttnabb Kangas 2000).

How can teachers utilize translanguaging strategies to recognize and build multilingual practices? Translanguaging pedagogies that are strategic and intentional in using one language to reinforce the other tend to improve students' multilingual capabilities and build their biliteracy skills. When these pedagogies are used for scaffolding and differentiating instruction, they facilitate meaning-making and deep cognitive engagement by allowing agency in language choice and use. Teachers can use instruction to soften the boundaries between languages (García 2011; García & Wei 2014; Lewis, Jones, & Baker 2012).

To strengthen the language and literacy skills of multilingual learners, it is essential for teachers to not only utilize multilingual practices but also to model and discuss the pedagogies used. For each activity, the teacher can model the activity or can select and train a group of students to model the activity to the class (Celic & Seltzer 2013). In this section, we will highlight eight strategies that teachers can use to recognize and build multilingual practices.

1. Legitimize classroom use of translanguaging. It is important for teachers to clearly communicate that code meshing, code switching, and translation practices are spontaneous and acceptable processes for learning. Students often receive messages that these practices are not acceptable (Erling, Adinolfi, & Hultgren 2017; Kirsch 2020). This is particularly true in contexts with monolingual assessment.
2. Model translanguaging. Teachers will need to model translanguaging for their students using the languages found in the classroom. They will also need to provide opportunities for students to use those languages and practice the activities that have been modelled for them (Rowe 2018). This will help students understand that these are legitimate learning practices in the classroom.

3. Create a multilingual ecology. This can be created in the classroom by providing a culturally relevant, multilingual learning environment. For example, the teacher can create language portfolios and book projects, narrate stories, provide opportunities for thematically linked artwork, or engage in a community study (Celic & Seltzer 2013; Kirsch 2020).
4. Develop multilingual language objectives. One way to foster multilingual practices in the classroom is to develop multilingual language objectives, provide integrated language instruction, and design units around a multilingual culminating product (Celic & Seltzer 2013). These strategies improve communication in the classroom, help students make meaning and stay motivated, and lower affective filters by helping students feel safe.
5. Implement collaborative work environments. A collaborative classroom context can foster multilingual classroom practices. Students focus on developing reading skills or on learning in the content area through collaborative dialogue, working in multilingual writing groups, and working with multilingual reading partners (Celic & Seltzer 2013). Giving students a voice to express their ideas facilitates the building of background knowledge, deepens understanding of content, develops and extends new knowledge and critical thinking capability, and strengthens students' multilingual identity and social critical literacy (García & Wei 2014).
7. Create multilingual listening centres. Provide fiction and nonfiction texts (in both narrative and informational text structures) for the emerging bilingual students to listen to in multiple languages. This helps build students' background knowledge and mediates understanding of English or the dominant language. To bolster the literacy skills of emerging bilingual learners, teachers can provide students with texts in multiple languages or can use an English text that is discussed and analysed in the students' home languages (Celic & Seltzer 2013).
8. Provide multilingual teaching and learning aids. Teachers can create word walls, sentence starters, cognates, and text comparison guides. They can find and make available multilingual vocabulary inquiry materials, multilingual syntax/morphology information, and support multilingual writing. Building students' background knowledge through these strategies improves reading comprehension, resulting in stronger language and biliteracy skills, enhanced cross-linguistic transfer, and enhanced cross-linguistic

metalinguistic awareness (Celic & Seltzer 2013; García & Wei 2014; Pacheco & Miller 2016).

9. Use a backward curriculum design. In this approach, the teacher sets the goals and expectations of learning for multilingual learners. The goals indicate what the students should know, understand, and be able to do in their languages. Next, the teacher determines what evidence will best demonstrate whether the student outcomes were attained and designs assessments and projects that encourage multilingual practices. Then, the teacher plans learning experiences and instructional activities to meet the desired learning outcomes based on those assessments and projects. The teacher can then apply instructional strategies that facilitate student-centred learning (such as pair work and activities that foster interaction between students and teachers), differentiate instruction based on student needs, create tasks that encourage students to engage in multilingual linguistic practices, and use effective feedback techniques (Celic & Seltzer 2013; Wiggins, Wiggins, & McTighe 2005).

2.6 Gaps from the Reviewed Literature

1. International studies on oral reading fluency are done in learners' first language, English mostly for studies in kindergarten to grade 4 levels – lower primary, very few in upper primary grades (Grade 5 -7). This study is carried out on Grade 5 teachers in the upper primary level.
2. There is no Zambian study to investigate how teachers teach oral reading fluency in grade 5 classrooms.
3. Not certain which on which pedagogic strategies teachers use to teach oral reading fluency in Grade 5 English classrooms.
4. Limited literature on oral reading fluency development in Zambian context.

2.7 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented literature review from different parts of the world on reading fluency development. The background to the definition of oral reading fluency was done followed by its historical background. Literature on the relationship between fluency and reading comprehension and the assessment of oral reading fluency was discussed ending with literature on strategies

used in class and to overcome challenges encountered when reading connected text ending with a suggestion on the best instructional practices of teaching reading fluency before the summary of the chapter. Chapter three presents the theories guiding the study. Details of the theoretical framework and the conceptual framework are presented to support the direction and the methodological.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.0 Overview

Chapter three presents four theories that guided the study on the premise that oral reading fluency is multifaced and each element may require specific attention (Hudson et al., 2009). The theories used are the Automaticity Theory, Ehri and McCormick Word Learning Theory, Word Information Processing Model, and Behaviourism theory. The chapter begins by discussing the paradigm of reading research before analysing various theories that shed light on oral reading fluency then presents how these theories link to the study and how it guided the study. A conceptual framework linked to the study is also presented and explained before the conclusion of the chapter. The theoretical and conceptual framework used in this study explains the path of a research and grounds it firmly in theoretical constructs (Imenda, 2014). The overall aim of the frameworks used in this study is to make research findings more meaningful, acceptable to the theoretical constructs in the research field. They hope to assist in stimulating the study while ensuring the extension of knowledge by providing both direction and impetus to the research inquiry and hope to enhance the empiricism and rigor of a research. Thus, as pointed out by Imenda, this study considered to use both the theoretical and conceptual frameworks to give life to this research study.

3.1 The Cognitive Paradigm of Reading Research

This study is within the cognitive paradigm of reading research based on constructivism to create knowledge of teachers' experiences and concerns regarding practices necessary for the development of oral reading fluency. Reading is the product of two cognitive elements namely, language comprehension and decoding. Successful reading requires a child to be good at understanding language and to be good at decoding text. Reading comprehension is the product of decoding skills and language comprehension skills and both depend upon more fundamental cognitive elements. A collection of interrelated cognitive elements must be well developed to be successful at either comprehending language or decoding. Researchers have found that a child's ability to decode words in the first grade is an excellent predictor of the child's reading

comprehension skill in the fourth grade. Many organizations, such as the International Reading Association (IRA) and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC), have published position statements saying it is never too early to begin literacy instruction, and that literacy instruction should be the concern of anybody working with young children (preschool, daycare, etc.).

The assessment and instruction provided in these vital first years of formal education should focus on the cognitive elements that research has shown to be crucial to the process of developing decoding skills. These areas include cipher knowledge, lexical knowledge, an awareness of phonemes, knowledge of the alphabetic principle, knowledge of letters, and understanding concepts about print. Decoding the text quickly and automatically depends on language comprehension ability to comprehend the decoded text and the ability to decode the text depends upon some fundamental, interrelated cognitive elements. The ability to decode the text is grounded in the understanding of the mechanics of text (concepts about print), knowledge that spoken words are made up of phonemes (phoneme awareness), familiarity with the letters in the language (letter knowledge), knowledge that the letters in the written words represent phonemes (alphabetic principle), and the ability to bring these elements together to decipher regular words. Further, when the reader makes a habit of reading and has been exposed to a lot of text, they would develop their lexical knowledge so that they can recognize and correctly pronounce irregular words. This last element will develop throughout one's life as they read more and more.

Also, the ability to comprehend the decoded text depends upon general language comprehension skills, and comprehension skills are also supported by a collection of interrelated cognitive elements. The reader's language comprehension skills are dependent upon the ability to perceive the phonology of the language, an appreciation for the rules of syntax in the language, and an understanding that words and sentences have meaning (semantics). The reader uses background knowledge to elaborate on the information they are gathering, and the information they are gathering, in turn, modifies and enhances their background knowledge.

Reading a book independently is as a result of a reader becoming more and more experienced and practiced with text. When a child is learning to read, they struggle with decoding the text and

connecting that text with meaning. Reading becomes laborious and unrewarding. However, the teacher's motivation would help them keep trying and gain the skills needed to be a reader that would make them decode words, both regular and irregular words, fluently and automatically with such ease that she can fully focus their attention on comprehending the text.

3.2 Criticism of Cognitive Approach

It is important for reading teachers to understand what these elements are and how they fit in the "big picture" of reading acquisition, but it is also important for teachers to understand that these elements are all interdependent and interrelated in a child's head. In the cognitive science paradigm, scientists and psycholinguists focus on how a language could be built and developed in students' brains. Much research on literacy has focused on reading; the ways that individuals make sense of written language. Street (1984) who is associated with the autonomous model of literacy, views reading as a skill that can be tested and measured.

This paradigm has been criticized for putting emphasis on the individual learner, and regarding reading as a skill that can be tested and measured. Street on the autonomous model of literacy says autonomous approach is simply imposing western conceptions of literacy on to other cultures or within a country those of one class or cultural group onto others but the alternative, ideological model of literacy offers a more culturally sensitive view of literacy practices as they vary from one context to another. The concept of critical literacy is a central thinking skill that a tertiary education seeks to develop in students. It involves questioning and examination of ideas, and requires you to synthesize, analyse, interpret, evaluate, and respond to the texts you read or listen to.

Among many others, Janks (2009) addresses key questions about literacy and power in his landmark text that should be both engaging and accessible. Her central argument is that competing orientations to critical literacy education, domination (power), access, diversity, design − foreground one over the other, but are crucially interdependent and need to work together to create possibilities for redesign and social action that serve a social justice agenda. She examines the theory underpinning each orientation and develops new theory in the argument for interdependence and integration and considers how the rationalist underpinning of critical literacy tends to exclude the non-rational shows ways of working

'beyond reason' − pleasure and play, desire, and the unconscious − and makes the case that these need to be taken seriously given their power to cut across the work of critical literacy educators working from any orientation.

3.3 The Theoretical Framework

Grant & Osanloo, (2014) presents a theoretical framework as a the 'blueprint' or guide for research. It is a framework based on an existing theory in a field of inquiry that is related and/or reflects the hypothesis of a study. It is a blueprint that is often 'borrowed' by the researcher to build his/her own research inquiry and serves as the foundation upon which research is constructed. Sinclair, (2007) and Fulton & Krainovich-Miller (2010) compare the role of the theoretical framework to that of a map or travel plan that guides your path. He likewise state that the theoretical framework guides the researcher so that s/he would not deviate from the confines of the accepted theories to make his/her final contribution scholarly and academic.

The theoretical framework also provides the structure in showing how a researcher defines his/her study philosophically, epistemologically, methodology and analytically (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). So, theory according to this study was regarded as a set of interrelated concepts or ideas that explain some aspect of the real world and provided a framework for analysis, as an efficient method for field development and provided a clear explanation for a pragmatic world. Due to the various definitions of what constitutes a theory adopted by researchers, this study use theory to describe the context of purpose, boundaries, functions, and goals (Gay & Weaver (2011).

3.4 Theories and Oral Reading Fluency

As stated in the introduction, various theories that shed light on reading fluency particularly reading-aloud strategies have been used to guide this study. The following sections now present theories views on building oral reading fluency and instructional implication for each theory and explains their relevance to this study. Research gives us an understanding that a theory is understood to be something that acts as an explanation of a phenomenon or an abstract generalization that systematically explains the relationship among given phenomena, for purposes of explaining, predicting, and controlling such phenomena (Abdellah, 1978). Generally, the theoretical framework used in this study consists of theories that seem to be interrelated and

since a theory provides a point of focus for attacking the unknown in a specific area, we hope to explain how and why the relationships exist. The use of these theories was with an understanding that theories are never discovered but they are created and formulated on purpose. Therefore, the use of these theories in this study was not test or prove them but to somehow improve or may be to modify them by incorporating ideas from various theories to form a logic rationale for doing this in a hope to make the expected contribution to knowledge. The current study seeks to walk through the interrelatedness of teacher practices towards the development of reading fluency skills among primary school learners in Zambia to reach successful reading.

3.4.1. Information Processing Model Theory

The Information Processing Model Theory is within the cognitive paradigm. Based on the information processing model (Slavin 2002), oral reading fluency is addressed through various systems that lead readers to engage in specific skills, such as recognising letters and sounds rapidly and retrieving knowledge that is stored in the long-term memory. The brain has a specific capacity for daily tasks. If the students use a significant portion of this capacity and amount of time to read and decode words, then a small capacity and less time will be left and devoted to meaning and comprehension. Thus, if the students learn to read fluently at an early stage, then a big portion of the brain's capacity will be devoted to making sense of the meaning of the text.

This model has three types of memory: sensory memory, short-term memory, which is also called working memory, and long-term memory. When readers see pictures or printed words in a text their sensory memory retains the data. When they read, the information is stored in the short-term memory for thirty-seconds approximately. Certainly, information cannot stay too long in the short-term memory, which has a limited capacity for information. Readers forget the information quickly if they do not encode by rehearsing the information. If they rehearse, in this case, they read aloud many times, information will move into the long-term memory, which has an unlimited capacity over a long period of time. Therefore, teachers have to help students improve their memories by motivating them and allowing them to practice encoding data into their long-term memory. This theory promotes reading practice, repeated reading, assisted reading, and rhyming methods as a way to encode data, in this case, recognition of letters, sounds, sight words, and high-frequency words.

This model has received some criticism. For example, this model views the human mind like a computer or machine, which processes information. Readers receive input or information, i.e., a text. Then, they process the text by reading it and finally, they deliver the output or behavioural response, which the behaviourism theory focuses on. Although this model believes that humans are like computers, it stresses the three types of memory and how to address any issue considering them, which was clarified earlier. It also tells us that older children have a greater capacity in working memory (Slavin 2002). Therefore, building oral reading fluency should begin at an early level. Therefore, in this study whose aim is to investigate into teachers' pedagogic practices on how they teach oral reading fluency with the purpose of understanding their views, strategies used, challenges and how they deal with specific learner challenges, the Information Processing Model addresses oral reading fluency through various systems that lead readers to engage in specific skills, such as recognising letters and sounds rapidly and retrieving knowledge that is stored in the long-term memory (Slavin 2002). This theory promotes reading practice, repeated reading, assisted reading, and rhyming methods to encode data, in this case, recognition of letters, sounds, sight words, and high-frequency words.

3.4.2 Automaticity Theory

Automatic theory is a famous theory in the reading field (Samuels 2007) that focuses highly on word recognition. For the automaticity theory, reading fluency is identified as the ability to decode and comprehend a text at the same time (Samuels 2007). As pointed out by Tracey and Morrow (2012), reading text has many sub-skills (or processes) such as recognising letters, associating sounds with the letters, blending, segmenting, chunking, skimming, and scanning. However, there are three basic processes that all readers go through during the reading of a text, which are decoding, comprehension, and attention (Samuels 2007; Tracey & Morrow, 2012).

Interestingly, the last one, attention, refers to how much focus and energy readers give to a text when they process the information for comprehension. The more attention one gives to decoding, the less attention one gives to comprehension. Therefore, Samuels (1974) designed a repeated reading strategy based on the automaticity theory. The repeated reading strategy helps students in reducing the capacity for attention and cognition given to decoding a text. Accordingly, the capacity allocated for attention and cognition for higher level processes, such as reading

comprehension, will be increased. Fig 1 represents the role of automaticity theory in the working memory of both fluent and less fluent readers.

Since LaBerge and Samuels (1974) theory of automaticity is a bottom-up serial stage model of reading, this means that readers should master the lower-level processes to reach the higher-level processes. To certify that, LaBerge and Samuels (1974) believed that teachers should ensure that students recognise all the letters in the early stage of reading through repeated reading. Then, the students can focus on the sounds that the letters make, which are developed later at the blending stage. Teachers can use repeated reading, readers theatre, paired reading, choral reading, modeling reading and assisted reading by recorded audio texts approaches in teaching reading fluency. Significantly, the roles of drilling, repetition, and error correction are vital in the previous approaches. In fact, the key to all these approaches is practice, which improves the speed of reading.

Evidently, the automaticity theory helps to find those who have problems in reading speed (Pikulski & Chard 2005). The automaticity theory does not believe that readers have a deficit in memory. It is about the lack of attention given to texts. To fix this issue of lacking attention, the automaticity theory promotes using easier texts as a remedy with students, which would help them develop their automatic reading (Samuels 1979). Moreover, Samuels recommended that teachers should use rubric to evaluate students' reading progress. Using self-assessment and peer assessment techniques is also endorsed by this theory to help students discover their own strengths and weaknesses.

Similar to the previous theories mentioned, this theory has received negative criticism due to the insufficient explanation. For instance, this theory does not shed light or explain how prosody, a significant component of oral reading fluency (Samuels 2007), can be improved. Therefore, it is criticized for neglecting prosody. Also, though this theory encourages teachers to use easier texts with struggling readers, it does not discuss the readability and the suitability of texts for certain levels. Finally, since this method relies on practice and drilling, it takes a lot of class time to ensure students' success. However, usually teachers are tied to the course syllabus to deliver on time. Therefore, it is considered not practical for many teachers.

However, in this study we use the automaticity theory which focuses highly on word recognition since reading fluency is identified as the ability to decode and comprehend a text at the same time leaving chance for the mind to comprehend the text (Samuels 2007). We consider that reading text has many sub-skills (or processes) such as recognising letters, associating sounds with the letters, blending, segmenting, chunking, skimming, and scanning (Tracey & Morrow (2012). The theory will inform teacher instruction that will help learners attain automaticity level in all the subskills for successful reading, the goal of reading.

3.4.3 Ehri and McCormick Word Learning Theory

Ehri (1995) word learning theory is another widely recognised theory in the field of reading fluency. Her theory presents the reading stages that students go through to achieve reading fluency. Ehri (1995) identified four stages for the development of reading words, which are pre-alphabetic (preschool), partial-alphabetic (kindergarten), full-alphabetic (first grade), and consolidated-alphabetic (second grade). However, later Ehri and McCormick (1998) identified one more phase, which is automatic-alphabetic (beyond second grade). Each of these stages has its own characteristics, which are used to develop instructional implications for students to read words fluently. They guide teachers in their reading instructions and inform their practices. For example, in the pre-alphabetic phase, the teacher has to focus on letter recognition and phonics awareness. In the partial-alphabetic stage, the teacher should model to students how to blend sounds in words. In the third phase, full-alphabetic, students re-read the text multiple times and practice pronouncing various sounds to encode them. Clearly, the first three phases focus on building knowledge of letters, sounds, graphemes, phonemes, and phonics. Concerning reading-aloud strategies, they are used more in the consolidated-alphabetic phase to move students to the advanced stage. It is worth noting that during the automatic-alphabetic phase, students develop automaticity and speed in reading familiar and unfamiliar words (Ehri 2005).

Ehri (2002) and Ehri and McCormick (1998) highlighted different aspects of reading fluency. For example, concerning reading instruction, they promoted using various reading methods that provide precise instructions that suit each student's level such as assisted reading, modeled reading and repeated reading approaches (Pikulski & Chard 2005). The reading instructions must also encourage continuous reading practice to increase students' knowledge of alphabets and sight/high-frequency words. For the assessment of oral reading fluency, Ehri (2002) believed that

students should be assessed regularly by observing and giving them the support, they need to move from one stage to another (Ehri 2002; Pikulski & Chard 2005). Furthermore, considering factors that can affect students' progress in oral reading fluency, Ehri pointed out that having knowledgeable teachers is critical to build a strong foundation of literacy skills. Students who have problems moving from one stage to another need knowledgeable teachers, who can support the success of building and developing their reading skills.

Ehri also claimed that classroom environment with printed words is significant to improve students' vocabulary knowledge (Cardoso-Martins, Rodrigues & Ehri 2003). Truthfully, Ehri (2002) has made a considerable contribution to the reading field. A plethora of research has considered her theory in their research because they believe that Ehri's reading theory represents a comprehensive coherence framework for teaching how to read effortlessly and fluently (Lahmann, Steinkrauss & Schmid 2017; Pikulski & Chard 2005; Rasinski 2014). Ehri and McCormick Word Learning Theory identified the stages for the development of reading words discussed above. In this current study we consider that each of these stages has its own characteristics, which are used to develop instructional implications for students to read words fluently. They also will guide teachers in their reading instructions and inform their practices.

3.4.4 Behaviourism Theory

Behaviourism is a well-known theory that focuses on the changing of behaviour over a period of time. For behaviorists, information is transferred and conveyed from a knowledgeable person, teacher, to a less knowledgeable source, student (Zuriff 1985). In education, behaviourism can inform literacy instructions meaningfully by leading teachers to use specific strategies and assessment methods. In essence, it is an important theory that is associated with direct instructions and implications for reading that could improve the students' achievement (Tracey & Morrow 2012).

Generally, three basic behavioural theories contribute to behaviourism, classical conditioning, connectionism, and operant conditioning. These three theories focus on breaking down the complex task, in this case reading, into smaller components. For instance, Tracey and Morrow (2012) claimed that reading components are categorised into five categories, which are visual discrimination, auditory discrimination, left-to-right progression during reading, vocabulary and finally, comprehension. These components have some sub-skills. For example, for auditory

discrimination, there are sub-skills including phonics, sight words, and blending. Each one of these sub-skills requires a response and feedback. To elaborate, a teacher asks a student to pronounce a word. If the student does it correctly, then the teacher needs to give quick feedback. However, if the student pronounces the word incorrectly, the teacher should correct the student's pronunciation. This can happen by providing sufficient opportunities to pronounce the word repeatedly until the student has perfected it. This is strongly related to oral reading fluency whereby feedback is a requirement to help students improve their reading fluency. It is also emphasised by Rasinski (2014), Padak and Rasinski (2008) and Rasinski and Padak (2000). They believed and insisted on the significance of providing students with appropriate guidance and feedback to help them build their reading fluency. Furthermore, the role of feedback in teaching and assessing reading fluency was stressed by many other researchers (Cummings, Park & Schaper 2013; Dewey et al. 2015).

Significantly, guided reading, direct instruction, practice, and the repeated reading approaches for LaBerge and Samuels (1974) are examples of the most influential reading strategies that are emphasised by a behaviourism perspective (Tracey & Morrow 2012). Usually, the guided reading strategy is used more with younger students: kindergarten to grade two levels. For direct instruction, the teacher knows the sub-skills that students need to develop. Therefore, the teacher is responsible for the students' learning by finding out their strengths and weaknesses. Then, the teacher can start teaching and building learners' reading sub-skills directly and explicitly to students such as phonics, sight words, high-frequency words and blending words. The teacher has to provide students with lots of practice to acquire the previous sub-skills. This is also stressed by Padak and Rasinski (2008).

Padak and Rasinski clearly stated that to start teaching the basic reading skills at an early level is essential to building a good foundation for reading skills. Al- Kharusi (2014) claimed that using direct instructions and practice helped students greatly to increase their potential reading fluency. It is important to note that teachers' knowledge is potentially important to build students' reading skills. As stated previously, behaviorists believe that information is transferred from a knowledgeable person to a less knowledgeable source. Moreover, the behaviourism theory focuses on measuring the change in behaviour objectively. With respect to oral reading fluency,

students must be assessed on reading skills, such as phonics, fluency, and comprehension. It is the teacher's job to set measurable behavioural objectives to assess students.

Although the behaviourism theory points at different reading-aloud methods and the role of feedback, it is criticized harshly. For example, behaviourism views the learner, reader, as a passive recipient of information in the text. Readers' knowledge and experience do not matter in this theory. Readers are only responding to stimuli. Only perceptual information and the decoding process are significant to this theory. Needless to say, behaviorists place great attention on the final product or the output, regardless of the processes in learners' brains. Therefore, behaviourism is criticized harshly for this issue.

Behaviourism also receives tough criticism because it does not explain how the mind interferes in the processing of information. As a response to the previous shortcomings, there was a major shift towards a cognitive sciences paradigm. The aim of this study is to investigate into teachers practices on how they teach oral reading fluency with the purpose of understanding their views, strategies used, challenges found and how they deal with specific learner challenges. In this study therefore, Behaviourism theory in this study can inform literacy instructions meaningfully by leading teachers to use specific strategies and assessment methods. In essence, it is an important theory that is associated with direct instructions and implications for reading that could improve the students' achievement (Tracey & Morrow 2012).

3.5 Interrelatedness of Theory as used in the Current Study

The preceding section specifies the theory that guided and helped determine what to measure and what relationships being investigated. We regard it as the researcher's lens with which to view the world chosen to reflect important beliefs and understanding about the nature of knowledge and how it exists and how it is related to the methodological choice made presenting a clear structure and vision for this study. Figure 3.1 below shows the interrelatedness of theory as used in this study.

Figure 3.1 Interrelatedness of Theory as used in the Current Study

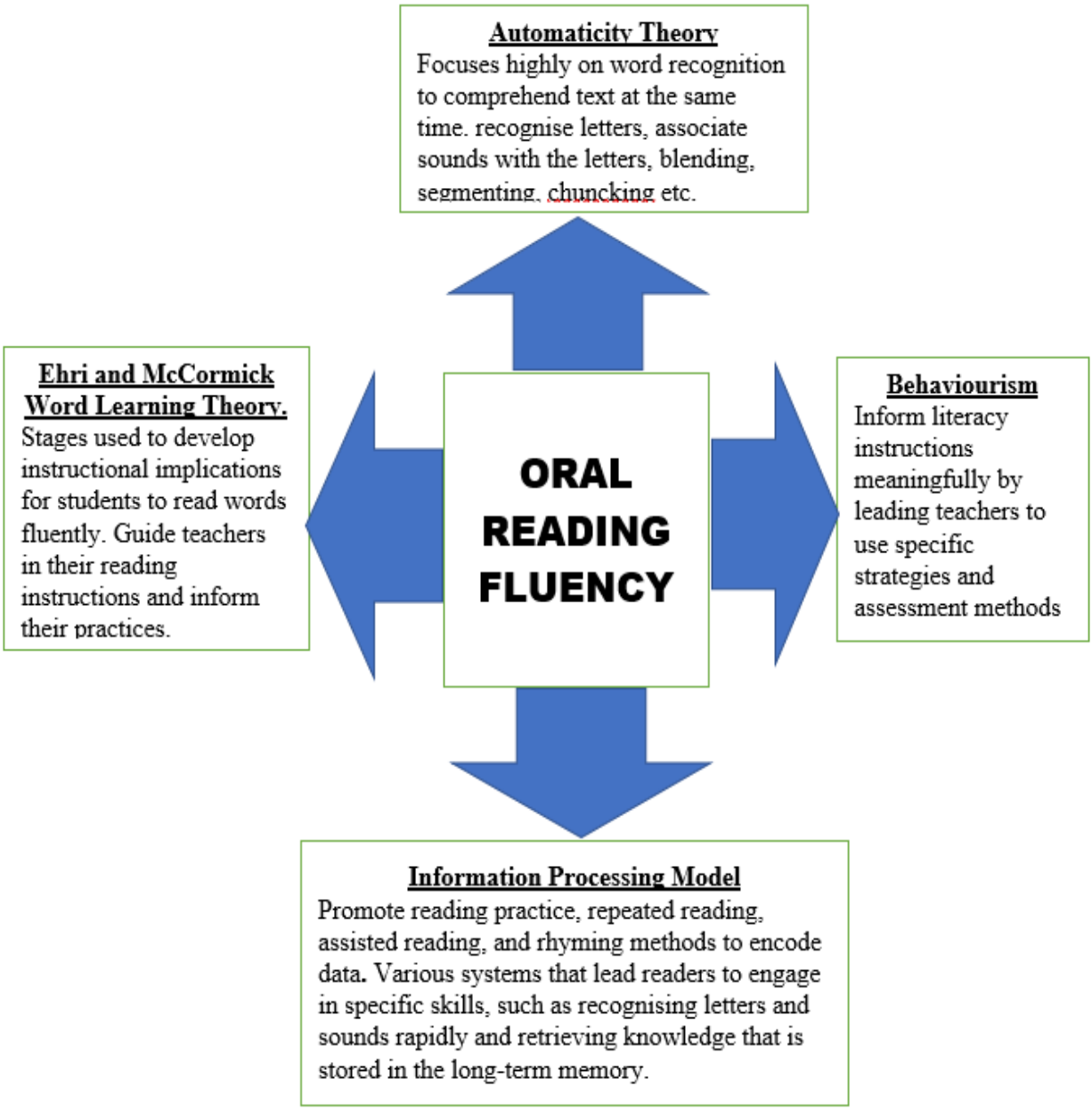


Figure 3.1 above shows how the four theories informed this study based on arguments supporting that oral reading fluency may reflect overall reading competence. The four theories guide teachers in their reading instructions and inform their pedagogic practices in the teaching of oral reading fluency in selected Grade 5 classrooms in Zambia. In this study, Behaviourism

theory can inform literacy instructions meaningfully by leading teachers to use specific strategies and assessment methods. In essence, it is an important theory that is associated with direct instructions and implications for reading that could improve the students' achievement (Tracey & Morrow 2012). Based on Information Processing Model, oral reading fluency is addressed through various systems that lead readers to engage in specific skills, such as recognising letters and sounds rapidly and retrieving knowledge that is stored in the long-term memory (Slavin 2002). This theory promotes reading practice, repeated reading, assisted reading, and rhyming methods to encode data, in this case, recognition of letters, sounds, sight words, and high-frequency words. The Automaticity Theory focuses highly on word recognition. In this case, reading fluency is identified as the ability to decode and comprehend a text at the same time (Samuels 2007). Reading text has many sub-skills (or processes) such as recognising letters, associating sounds with the letters, blending, segmenting, chunking, skimming, and scanning (Tracey & Morrow (2012). Ehri and McCormick Word Learning Theory identified the stages for the development of reading words, which are pre-alphabetic (preschool), partial-alphabetic (kindergarten), full-alphabetic (first grade), consolidated-alphabetic (second grade) (Ehri, 1995) and automatic-alphabetic (beyond second grade) (Ehri & McCormick, 1998). Each of these stages has its own characteristics, which are used to develop instructional implications for students to read words fluently. They also guide teachers in their reading instructions and inform their practices.

3.6 The Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is a structure which the researcher believes can best explain the natural progression of the phenomenon to be studied (Camp, 2001). It is linked with the concepts, empirical research and important theories used in promoting and systemizing the knowledge espoused by the researcher (Peshkin, 1993). It is the researcher's explanation of how the research problem would be explored. Liehr & Smith, (1999) presented the conceptual framework as an integrated way of looking at a problem under study. In a statistical perspective, the conceptual framework describes the relationship between the main concepts of a study. It is arranged in a logical structure to aid provide a picture or visual display of how ideas in a study relate to one another (Grant & Osanloo, 2014). Interestingly, it shows the series of action the researcher intends carrying out in a research study (Dixon, Gulliver & Gibbon, 2001). The framework

makes it easier for the researcher to easily specify and define the concepts within the problem of the study (Luse, Mennecke & Townsend, 2012).

3.7 Contextualizing the Conceptual Framework for this Study.

The ability to read and understand a passage of text depends upon two equally important skills: the ability to decode the words in the text and the ability to understand the language the text is written in. Children who do not have problems understanding spoken language and who are able to decode text fluently and easily do not have problems with reading comprehension. On the other side of the coin, children who do have problems with reading comprehension always have problems with either the ability to understand language or the ability to decode written words. The development of a conceptual framework begins with a deductive assumption that a problem exists, and the application of processes, procedures, functional approach, models, or theory may be used for problem resolution (Zackoff et al., 2019) and that a conceptual framework is a synthetization of interrelated components and variables which helps in solving a real-world problem. A conceptual framework is the final lens used for viewing the deductive resolution of an identified issue (Imenda, 2014). The conceptual framework that guided this study has a strong foundation from the simple view of reading (Gough & Tunmer, 1986) and from Scarborough's (2001) reading rope. These are the general models that are often used to provide a foundation for any reading research which then informs the use of more specific theory that may provide a clear explanation of how theories were used in this study. The current study on reading fluency is grounded in the two models which explain the general reading process.

The "Simple View" of reading comprehension, as it was coined by Philip Gough, has been widely supported by research. The Simple View holds that a person's capacity for reading comprehension (RC) is determined by that person's ability to decode text (D) and that person's ability to comprehend spoken language (LC). Then, it is said that RC=D X LC, where D and LC can range in values from 0 to 1. To see this formula working, imagine a child who has absolutely no difficulty understanding spoken language—that child would have a perfect language comprehension score of 1. However, imagine that same child cannot decode text at all—that child would have a decoding score of 0. If you multiply those two numbers together, you get R=1 X 0, which is 0. This hypothetical scenario makes sense intuitively because if the child is not able to decode text, the child cannot possibly read and comprehend text. The same is true of

the reverse scenario—if D=1 and LC=0, then R still equals 0. Children must be able to both decode text and comprehend language to comprehend text.

Scarborough, (2001) compares skilled reading to the many strands of a rope. Realising that fluency is not an end in-itself but a critical gateway to comprehension. Each strand represents a separate skill that when combined with the others, creates a strong, proficient reader. When any one strand (skill) is not acquired with fluency, it weakens the strength of the rope. Scarborough's model depicts each skill as a strand woven together to form either language comprehension and word recognition, and then those two woven together to form skilled reading (reading comprehension). Students must receive instruction that supports all these skills to develop into a skilled reader (Hennessey. Oct. 12, 2020). Fluent reading is one that frees cognitive resources to process the meaning of what is being read (Hasbrouck, 1998; National Centre on Improving Literacy, 2020; Harn & Chard, 2008; Kuhn & Stahl, 2000; University of Oregon, 2020).

A conceptual framework on the other hand indicates the concepts of interest in a study and assumed relationships between them. Concepts are the building blocks of theory and represent the points around which this research study is conducted - reading fluency. This proposed conceptual framework provides the visual display of how concepts or ideas (components of fluency, teacher instructional strategies and implementation strategies) in a study relate to one another within the theoretical framework. So, while a theoretical framework is derived from the theory, the conceptual framework is derived from the concepts as presented in the Figure 2 below.

Table 3.1 Conceptual Model of Reading fluency

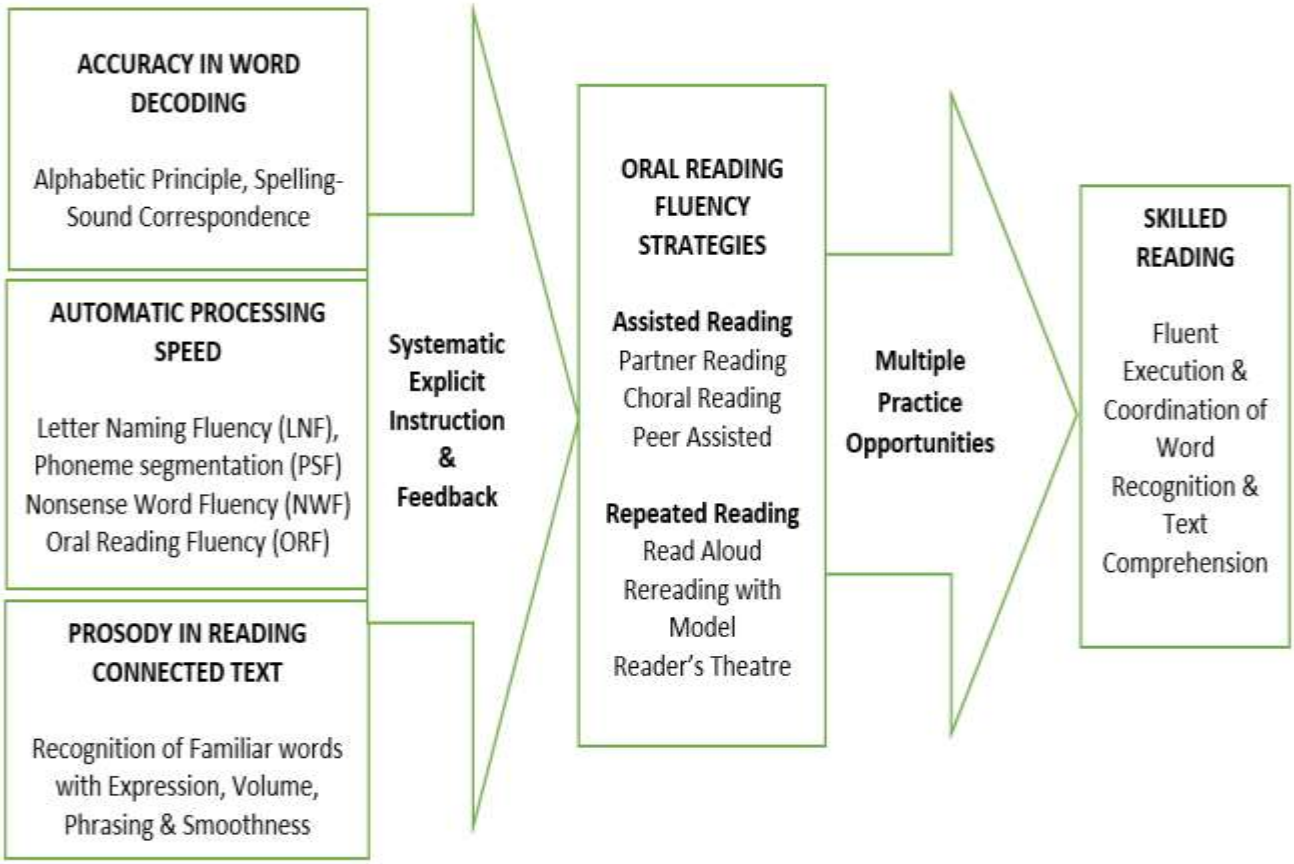


Figure 3.2 shows the framework as a representation of how reading comprehension develops with the help of oral reading fluency. The models explain the relationships between practices teachers use to teach oral reading fluency and how various components of oral reading fluency are linked together. Based on the literature, this study is guided by this conceptual model showing the three components of reading fluency, accuracy in word decoding, automatic processing speed and prosody in reading connected text. This framework represents the multifaceted way in which successful reading can be attained. For accuracy in word decoding skill, the learner needs to be able to learn the alphabetic principle, spellings-sound correspondences. Automatic processing speed requires a learner to be automatic in letter naming, phoneme segmentation, nonsense word and text fluency skills. Finally, prosody in reading connected text requires the learner to recognise familiar words with expressions, volume, correct phrasing, and smoothness while observing the punctuations.

3.8 Conclusion

Chapter three presented and analysed four theories that shed light on oral reading fluency namely, Automaticity Theory, Ehri and McCormick Word Learning Theory, Word Information Processing Model, and Behaviourism theory that guided the study. These theories are within the cognitive paradigm of reading research. A conceptual framework grounded in the simple view of reading and Scarborough's reading rope has been presented and explained how they linked to the current study. The next chapter will present the research methodology based on the theories and conceptual framework adopted for this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.0 Overview

Chapter four presents the research paradigm and the methodological designs that were chosen for the study starting with the population, the study sample and sample size, the sampling procedures, data collection techniques used, and the instruments used. The chapter further presents the data collection procedures, methods of data collection and the methods of data analysis. Then the trustworthiness, reliability of the study is explained before presenting the ethical considerations, the limitations, and a chapter summary.

4.1 Research Paradigm

The explanation of the research paradigm, encompassing the fundamental philosophical underpinnings and worldview, precedes the introduction of research methodologies. Various scholars have underscored the significance of this philosophical framework, commonly referred to as a paradigm (Creswell, 2003; 2008; Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018; Ngulube, 2015). A research paradigm constitutes a set of foundational assumptions governing the processes and principles underlying research endeavours. According to Schumacher and McMillan (2010), a research paradigm encapsulates the prevailing perspective on the acquisition of research knowledge, delineating predetermined frameworks through which knowledge is organized and investigated.

Research endeavours are intricately intertwined with conceptions of the universe necessitating a coherent set of assumptions regarding knowledge. Consequently, the research methodology aligns with the chosen research paradigm, which in turn informs the selection of the study's design. Fundamentally, a research paradigm signifies a lens through which researchers perceive phenomena, embodying a worldview, delineating accepted scientific knowledge, and prescribing methodological norms (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2018; Kuhn, 1962).

Willis (2007) elucidates that a paradigm constitutes a comprehensive belief system or worldview guiding both research and practice. Philosophically, a paradigm encompasses ontological considerations regarding the nature of reality, epistemological perspectives regarding the nature and validation of knowledge, and methodological approaches to knowledge generation. Furthermore, Creswell (2014) asserts that researchers must meticulously consider the philosophical underpinnings, research design congruent with these underpinnings, and specific research methods aligning with the chosen paradigmatic approach, reflecting metatheoretical traditions.

Perera (2018) asserts that paradigms point to general viewpoints or ideologies or a set of common beliefs and agreements shared by scientists on how problems can be understood and addressed. Research paradigms in this study presents the ways scientists respond to three basic questions of ontology, epistemology, and methodological questions (Perera, 2018). Research paradigms can be categorised in positivism, interpretivism, post-positivism, Critical theory (ideology), constructivism and/or Pragmatism. This study is an investigation into teachers' pedagogical practices of teaching oral reading fluency based on human participants who are the teachers and learners. Therefore, the best paradigm for such a study is the constructivism or interpretivism. The following section discusses different types of paradigms to show how the decision has arrived at constructivism as a paradigm to guide this study.

4.1.1 Positivist Paradigm

Positivist is a 'scientific' research paradigm that strives to investigate, confirm, and predict law-like patterns of behaviour, and is commonly used in graduate research to test theories or hypotheses. Generally, its focus is on the objectivity of the research process (Creswell, 2008). With the emphasis on the observational evidence and scientific method, positivism accords significance to sensory experience (empiricism), observational description (intentions or attitudes), operationalisation (methodical control), measurement, hypothesis testing and replicability through the specification of explicit and transparent procedures for conducting research (Hammersley, 2013). The term positivism therefore refers to scientific claims based on empirical evidence (Babbie and Mouton 2011). The positivist paradigm mostly involves quantitative methodology, utilizing experimental methods involving experimental (or treatment) and control groups and administration of pre- and post-tests to measure gain scores. Here, the

researcher is external to the research site and is the controller of the research process. This positivism paradigm is informed by the ontology of realism, the epistemology is the objectivism, and the methodology is quantitative. The validity and reliability are considered in this type of research while data is analysed using a statistical tool and presented in table and quantifications. 'Positivism' is interested in discovering the 'Truth' based on empirical evidence only. This group is not at all inclined to believe anyone instead it is fully ready to believe the facts and figures. The purpose of this study is to investigate into teachers' practices of teaching oral reading fluency. The objective for this study includes finding out the views, establishing the strategies used to teach oral reading fluency. Based on the proceeding discussions, positivism has an interest in discovering the 'Truth' based on empirical evidence only and believing in the facts and figures. This study will not use this paradigm because the objectives do not agree with the philosophy explained or the objectives do not need quantifying to provide evidence but requires the researcher to gain an understanding of how teachers teach oral reading fluency from participants' natural habitats, teachers in the schools.

4.1.2 Pragmatism paradigm

Pragmatism knowledge claim arises mostly from actions, situations, and consequences rather than conditions as in post-positivism. Researchers then use all methods to understand the problem (Creswell 2003:11). Post-positivism typically supports quantitative methods and deductive reasoning, whereas constructivism emphasizes qualitative approaches and inductive reasoning; however, pragmatism embraces the two extremes and offers a flexible and more reflexive approach to research design (Feilzer 2010; Morgan 2007; Pansiri 2005). In this regard, Creswell (2014:11) explains that pragmatism is not committed to one philosophical system and reality; individual researchers have a freedom of choice of methods, techniques and procedures; the world is not seen as an absolute unity; truth is what works at the time; researchers look to the "what" and "how" to research based on intended consequences; pragmatism opens the door to multiple methods, different worldviews and assumptions as well as different forms of data collection.

The pragmatism paradigm is informed by the ontology of pluralism, the epistemology is both objective and subjective, the approaches are exploratory, explanatory, and embedded. Pragmatism has an interest in discovering the 'Truth' based only on themselves who are highly

confident about their own intelligence, expertise, and 'style' to derive the ‘Subjective Truth' which would help every one of them discover the 'Truth'. 'Pragmatism’ consists of a few individuals who believe only in themselves. Every individual of this group is highly confident about their own intelligence, expertise, and 'style' to derive the ‘Subjective Truth' which would help every one of them discover the 'Truth'. Therefore, this study could not adopt pragmatism since all the research objectives requires to be analysed qualitatively following inductive reasoning.

4.1.3 Constructivism/interpretivism paradigm

Constructivism pertains to the phenomenological (interpretivism) paradigm. Constructivism or socially constructed knowledge pertains to knowledge claimed through assumptions. Assumptions pertain to an understanding of the world in which they work and live (Creswell 2003:8; 2014:8). Constructivism is, therefore, a knowledge claim based on understanding; multiple participant meanings; social and historical construction and theory generation (Creswell 2003:6) Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2018) add that the meaning in the world is held by the people through their experiences which cannot be observed at times, but can be known when they are asked, through interaction and by staying with them for some time. They further claim that individuals seek to make meaning of their social lives and that the researcher must examine the situation in question through the multiple lenses of individuals involved, obtain their definition of the situation, to see how they make sense and focus on their interaction and context.

Creswell (2014) noted that the interpretivism in informed by the ontology of constructivism, the epistemology is the subjectivism, and the approaches include case studies, ethnography, phenomenology, and grounded theory. Ary et al., (2019) purports constructivism paradigm to be ontologically understood as having multiple constructs of realities and epistemologically considers knowledge as of a human construction where a researcher and participant co-construct understandings. The methodology takes a naturalistic qualitative method. And the products are in form of case studies, narratives, interpretations, and reconstructions.

Interpretivism/constructivism has an interest in discovering the truth based on the perceptions of the People. So, it was ready to receive all the perceptions of the people (out of which the majority lacked empirical evidence) and then arrive at the 'Truth' based on consensus. The choice of this paradigm for this study is that constructivism is based on the idea that people actively

construct or make their knowledge and that reality is detemined by one's experiences as teachers. Constructivism is crucial to understand as an "educator" because it influences the way all their students learn. Teachers may appreciate the constructive approach to learning understand that their students bring their own unique experiences to the classroom every day. Their 'background' and 'previous knowledge' impact on how they can learn. 'Interpretivism' believes only in the perceptions of the people. So, it is ready to receive all the perceptions of the people (out of which the majority lacked empirical evidence) and then arrive at the 'Truth' based on consensus. This study has adopted this paradigm because it is an appropriate paradgim to answer reseach questions on teachers' views on teaching oral reading fluency; strategies teachers use to teach oral reading fluency; challenges that teachers find among learners reading connected text in English and how teachers support learners with specific oral reading fluency challenges.

4.2 Research Methodology

The design of a research study refers to the methods used in conducting the research (Cresswell 2009). There are basically three types of research approaches which are used in social science research. These are qualitative, quantitative, and mixed method research (Ary, et al., 2019) the methodology used in this study is qualitative. In the next section, the three approaches are discussed to explain the choice of an approach used in this study.

4.2.1 Quantitative Research

Quantitative research is the research that gathers numerical data through controlled procedures and analyses to answer predetermined questions or test hypotheses (Ary, et al., 2019). It uses objective measurement in a controlled setting to gather numeric data that are used to answer questions or test predetermined hypotheses. Quantitative studies deal with the measuring of variables and proving of the hypothesis (Hopkins, 2000). Thomas (1998) adds that quantitative approach deals with the generation of numerical and statistical data by comparing the variables which are being tested in each study. In measuring variables, statistical tools are used to analyse the data that has been collected. Tests are then conducted to generate the means to understand how the variables influence each other (Creswell, 2009).

In quantitative studies, numbers give meaning to the researcher. Cohen, et al., (2018) mention that quantitative research is characterised by four designs which are surveys, longitudinal, cross-sectional, experimental and trend-studies. Quantitative studies are more to do with testing and providing statistical differences in behaviour and results. The quantitative approach was not appropriate for this study since quantitative methodology studies relationships or cause and effect and deductively tests the theory using preselected instruments which this study will not be doing. Quantitative methodology uses large samples which are statistically analysed of numerical data. On this basis, quantitative approach could not be adopted for this study which has a small sample and intends to do a narrative description and interpretation.

4.2.2 Mixed Methods Research

Mixed methods research involves combining quantitative and qualitative research in different ways with each approach adding to something to the understanding of the phenomenon (Ary, et al., 2019). Cresswell, (2009) holds that while qualitative is opposite to quantitative in theory, knowledge claim and practice, mixed methods come to combine the two and harmonises them. However, mixed methods research has its weaknesses or limitations in that it might require a team of rresearchers who needs to be competent in all the methods. Besides being an expensive and time consuming, it also fails to show how to interpret conflicting results. Therefore, this methodology too, could not be employed in this study whose purpose is to gather in-depth knowledge from participants to interpret all conflicting results using further probs in data collection. In another context, Vogt (2007:8) says that:

> *If you conduct a survey, you can ask your respondents open-ended questions about public policies that require them to write paragraphs and that require you to use qualitative techniques to analyse the paragraphs; or you could ask respondents to rate public policies on a scale from 1 to 10 and then use quantitative techniques to tally and analyse the results.*

However, the point of theory combination brings about many questions in its theoretical perspective, yet its practicality yields better fruits. Mixed methods design is defined by which Creswell (2015:2) as:

> *An approach to research in the social, behavioral and health sciences in which the investigator gathers both quantities (closed ended) and qualitative (open ended) data, integrates the two and then draws interpretations based on the combined strengths of both sets of data to understand research problem.*

Despite the advance advantages advanced by Creswell, this study could not use mixed methods approach since it requires collecting and analyzing two types of data. The process would be labor-intensive and time-consuming since the questions to be answered in this study require in-depth information from participants and not statistics. Interpreting different results from two types of data in mixed methods research can be difficult as it requires one to understand multiple methods and how to combine them appropriately.

4.2.3 Qualitative Research

A qualitative approach denotes a subjective methodological framework employed in the investigation of phenomena, typically situated within the natural contexts inhabited by respondents and participants (Jha, 2008). This method of inquiry in research endeavours to delve into real-life experiences, elucidate the underlying causes of behaviors, and discern the significance attributed to observed outcomes by participants (Newby, 2010:116; Powell and Connaway, 2004:59; Milingo, Tambatamba & Cheyeka, 2021; Milingo, Ilubala-Ziwa, Mwale, N & Madalitso, 2020; Milingo, 2019). Qualitative methodologies facilitate the accumulation of voluminous verbal data from participants, the organization of which into coherent structures, description, and subsequent utilization in the formulation of hypotheses and construction of theories, often originating "from the ground up" (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005:95). Typically, qualitative data predominantly assumes a non-numeric character (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010).

A variety of qualitative designs are prevalent in scholarly inquiry, encompassing phenomenological, ethnographic, grounded theory, historical, case study, and action research methodologies (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:31; Jha, 2008:45). These designs are instrumental in the acquisition of data through diverse means such as observations, interviews,

personal experiences, and verbal interactions, with subsequent organization of this data into thematic frameworks that facilitate comprehension and interpretation of the research problem (Leedy and Ormrod, 2005:95).

Given the aforementioned considerations regarding methodological paradigms, the present study has opted for a qualitative approach due to the inherent necessity of exploring and observing the classroom environment, where educators engage with learners. The study seeks to draw conclusions about these interactions, specifically concerning the pedagogical practices employed in teaching oral reading fluency within Grade 5 classrooms.

This study adopted the qualitative methodology because the nature of objectives needed exploration into teacher practices of teaching oral reading fluency. In qualitative method researchers use open-ended questions to collect in-depth information about the issues of the study. Leading questions are used to fill the gaps in the information and to encourage respondents to provide more information. The researcher also tries to be sympathetic while handling sensitive issues and shows interest in making the researcher comfortable. This study requires an in-depth examination through interviews to get rich and detail data on teachers' views in the school setting. The other objective involved the researcher observing the classroom environment where teaching and learning was taking and make conclusions from the interaction on how the teaching and learning took place.

This is the appropriate methodology for the study because all the objectives in the study are cantered on examining the participants, teachers, in their own environments (school) to allow for flexibility and gathering of in-depth data inductively for theory generation. Besides, as a researcher, I will be a primary data collection tool. The sample population used was small which has been narratively described and interpreted with no generation. This approach was relevant because it helped the researcher to generate the types of data which was both correct and appropriate for the research objectives/questions. This is a systematic subjective approach used to describe life experiences and give them meaning. The goal is to gain insight; explore the depth, richness, and complexity inherent in the way teachers teach oral reading fluency in primary schools.

4.3 Research Design

A research design is a strategy for answering research questions using empirical data. It is the overall strategy that is used by a researcher to combine different components of the study in a coherent and logical manner to ensure that the research problem is adequately addressed is called research design, (University of California Libraries, 2015). A research design works as, “a blueprint for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings” (Burns and Grove, 2003:195). Kothari (2004) says a research design deals with decisions regarding what, where, when, how much, by what means concerning an inquiry or a research study. He adds that a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure.

Creating a research design means making decisions about the overall research objectives and approach, the type of research design to be used, the sampling methods or criteria for selecting subjects (participants), the procedures to follow to collect data and the data analysis methods (Bhandari 2022).

According to Kasonde-Ng’andu, (2013:34), a research design refers to “a guideline upon which the researcher draws his/her roadmap to conduct a particular research project, spells out what type of data will be yielded, indicate the source and the nature of data, whether it is primary or secondary. A descriptive design was considered useful in this study. Data was collected from different schools, districts, and provinces. All the schools were considered as a single unit selected for the purpose of in-depth description of how oral reading fluency is taught to grade 5 learners. This is also in line with Arl (p.392) who states that case studies typically include multiple sources of data collected overtime. As a descriptive study, this design was considered fit because of its characteristics of providing detailed information from the research participants and its attempts to learn "more about a little known or poorly understood situation (Johnson & Christiansen, 2012). This study’s phenomenon was the teacher’s views on pedagogic practices used to teach oral reading fluency to Grade 5 learners in primary schools of Zambia. Therefore, a case study was adopted and used as an in-depth investigation tool among the teachers and learners teaching and learning oral reading fluency in a unit of selected primary schools.

4.4 Population

Population refers to a complete set of elements (persons or objects) that possess some common characteristics defined by the sampling criteria established by the researcher (Msabila and Nalaila 2013). White (2003) defined a population as the universe of units from which the sample is to be selected. A population is a group of elements or cases, whether individuals, objects or events that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalise results of the research (McMillan & Shumacher, 2001). Parahoo (1997) also describes a study population as the total number of units from which data can potentially be collected. The units may be individuals, organisations, or events. Target population according to Kombo & Tromp (2011:76) refers to "a group of individuals, objects or items from which samples are taken for measurement". Other scholars define a target population as an entire group of individuals, events, or objects with common observable characteristics (Crotty, 1990; Tuckman, 1991).

In addition to the above definitions, Borg & Gall (1983) states that a target population refers to all the members of a hypothetical set of people, events, or objects to which we wish to generate the results of our research. The study population for his study included all Grade 5 teachers who were teaching literacy (reading) in grade five classes and all Grade 5 learners in Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone. This population was relevant for the study because it was the population which had teachers teaching in schools found in cosmopolitan towns sharing similar conditions. Since the study was aimed at investigating how teachers teach fluency in Grade 5 classes, other officers like head teachers and standard officers were not included in the study population. It was hoped that enough data would be gathered from the classroom setting and from the documents used for teaching.

4.5 Sampling Techniques

Sampling is the act, process, or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population (Mugo, 2002). Qualitative research is considered meaningful if the sample selected is information-rich and the analytical capabilities of the researcher are high (Coyne, 1997). In research, sampling involves choosing a small group of participants that will represent a larger group (White, 2005; Fullan, 1981). Sampling of qualitative research varies from the sampling of

quantitative research because in qualitative research, samples are selected subjectively according to the purpose of the study. This study used purposive sampling which is explained in detail in the following section:

4.5.1 Purposive Sampling

Purposeful sampling is a sampling technique that qualitative researchers use to recruit participants who can provide in-depth and detailed information about the phenomenon under investigation. Purposeful sampling resides on the proposition that information-rich samples are to be selected to have an in-depth view of the phenomena (Shaheen et al., 2016). Purposeful sampling, therefore, selects information rich cases for in-depth study and the size and specific cases depend on the study purpose. Selection of respondent is possible only after several observational visits to the sites. The visit assists in selecting and locating the sample that fits well with the purpose and objective of the study. There are different types of sampling strategies in purposeful sampling. There are about sixteen (16) different types of purposeful sampling whose details can be found in Patton (1990: 169-186). These are extreme or deviant case sampling, intensity sampling, maximum variation (heterogeneity) sampling, homogeneous samples, typical case sampling, stratified purposeful sampling, critical case sampling, snowball or chain sampling, criterion sampling, theory-based or operational construct sampling, confirming and disconfirming cases, opportunistic sampling, purposeful random sampling, sampling politically important cases, convenience sampling, combination, or mixed purposeful sampling. We discuss the sampling procedure taken for each sample and site.

4.5.1.1 Grade 5 teachers

Purposeful sampling was used to select Grade 5 teachers. They were purposefully sampled on the premise that they were the ones teaching grade five classes at the time of data collection. They were teaching literacy (reading) to Grade 5 learners; therefore, they were a group from which in-depth data about views on practices used to teach oral reading fluency primary schools could be obtained. However, it is important to state right away that sampling of participants (teachers) from different districts was for the purpose of broadening the data base and not necessarily for comparison purposes. The study did not consider any specific number of teachers or gender but any teacher who was teaching grade 5 classes. The number and gender depended on the total number of classes each school had at the time of the study.

4.5.1.2 Provinces

The sample size was drawn from three provinces, Copperbelt, Lusaka and Southern provinces. The provinces were purposefully sampled based on language policy. According to the language policy, seven Zambian familiar languages, Icibemba, Cinyanja, Chitonga, Silozi, Kiikaonde, Lunda and Luvale are regionally assigned as initial language of instruction (Loi) in primary schools. The language used on the Copperbelt is Icibemba, Lusaka is Cinyanja and Southern is Chitonga. Three provinces were purposively sampled not for comparison purposes but for to broaden the sample size to include teachers and learners whose initial language of instruction was Icibemba, Cinyanja and Chitonga.

4.5.1.3 Districts

The districts were purposively sampled on the basis that they are cosmopolitan towns comprising a mixture of different local languages spoken by the pupils (Mwanza 2012). The three districts were sampled based on them being cosmopolitan cities of Zambia and learners in these towns might be subjected to similar conditions of mixed local familiar languages from which pupils were coming. The districts were also purposively sampled for the purpose of broadening the data base and not for comparative purposes. The districts, Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone were purposively sampled on premise that they are cosmopolitan towns where different languages are spoken at home and school. This method of sampling was used because it is very strong in quality assurance. It reduces on variation, simplifies analysis, and facilitates group interviewing.

4.5.1.4 Schools

Purposive sampling was used to select schools situated in low-density and high-density areas. From each district. The researcher chose schools from the two settings to help determine the challenges they experienced, if any and not for comparative purposes. This was so because of the belief that different residential areas represented different social and economic status of the people, hence the difference in language attitudes and language use (Mwanza, 2012).

4.5.1.1 Grade 5 classes

A learner (Grade 5 learner) is equivalent to a pupil or a student. This study uses learner, but other studies used student or pupil. At Grade 5, learners transition from Zambian familiar language as a medium of instruction in all subjects to receiving instruction in English. These Zambian local languages are, Icibemba, Cinyanja, Silozi, Chitonga, Kiikaonde, Luvale and Lunda. But English

language as a subject began in Grade 2 (oral language) and literacy (reading and writing) began in Grade 3. It is expected that at Grade 5 learners can read English text with fluency. Purpose sampling was used on Grade 5 classes during class observations at each school to help determine the oral reading fluency challenges they might experience when reading text in English. Grade 5 learners at a particular school were subjected to reading the during the lessons from which the reading fluency difficulties were determined. The summary of sample size and distribution of sample sites is summarized in Table 4.1 below:

Table 4.1 Sample Population and Sample Sites

PROVINCE	DISTRICT	SCHOOL	SCHOOL SETTING	NO. OF TEACHERS		
				F	M	Total
COPPERBELT	KITWE	KAM	High Density	04	00	04
		VAL	Low Density	03	00	03
LUSAKA	LUSAKA	CHA	High Density	03	01	04
		WOD	Low Density	02	00	02
SOUTHERN	LIVINGSTONE	NAK	High Density	02	00	02
		HOL	Low Density	01	02	03
03	**03**	**06**	**02**	**15**	**03**	**18**

4.6 Sample Size and Sites

Sampling in qualitative research refers to selection of a small number of individuals that can provide enough information for the researcher to understand the phenomenon under the study (Gay, Mills & Airasian, 2009). It is also argued that; the number of respondents in a study depends solely on the purpose of the study as well as the nature of population under the study (Cohen, et al., 2007). Furthermore, Patton (2002) argues that sample size selection is influenced by the time and resources available for collection of data in a particular research study. White (2005) also defined sample as a group of subjects or situations selected from a larger population. It is a subset of individuals from a larger population to help the researcher in the selection of the actual people who take part and are seen to represent those in their institutions who share the

same characteristics as those selected to study. Sample size in qualitative research depends on data saturation and data sufficiency. That is whether the collected data is sufficient to capture the themes and theories of the study and whether no new information or theme is emerging from the data. Kasonde (2013:36) in line with this statement defines sample as "the number of participants selected to constitute a desired sample". Therefore, the sample size selected for this study was: 18 Grade 5 teachers. Teachers were selected from three provinces namely, Copperbelt, Lusaka and Southern provinces. Then from the three provinces, three districts, Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone were sampled. Lastly, from the three districts, two schools were sampled as: Kitwe, 2 (1 low and 1 high density) schools. Similarly, from Lusaka, 2 schools (1 low and 1 high density), and from Livingstone, 2 (1 low and 1 high density) schools bringing the total number of schools to 6. The following sections discusses the sampling techniques on sample and sites.

4.7 Research Techniques and Data Collection Instruments

Data collection instrument is any device which is used to collect the data. Instruments can be presented in written, audio, or visual format. Responses can be gathered via paper and pencil tests, computer administered tests, video camera, or audiotape recorder (Tavakoli, 2012). Kaonde-Ng'andu (2014) says these are the tools that the researcher uses in collecting the necessary data. Qualitative data can be collected using a variety of methods, and multiple methods may be used throughout the data collection phase of a single qualitative study. Interview: Researchers can conduct in-depth, face-to-face interviews with participants. This allows them to gain insights from the participants to best understand their experience. In this qualitative study, the researcher used interview guide, class observation, document analysis and field notes to collect data from the participants. Below are detailed explanations of the various data collection techniques and instruments.

4.7.1 Interview Guide

The term 'interview' has been defined differently by researchers. An interview is defined as the form of data collection that involves direct interaction between a researcher and the respondent were the interviewer uses oral questions to gain responses from the respondents (Gall, Gall & Borg, 2007). It has also been defined as a speech event which uses at least two linguistic varieties, the language used by the researcher and the one spoken by the interviewee (Rubio,

1997). Gay, Mills & Airasian (2009) argues that an interview allows respondents to speak out their opinions, feelings, beliefs, insights, attitudes, and experiences about a phenomenon under investigation using probing questions (Hatlen, 2003). An interview can be unstructured interview, semi-structured or structured interview. Sidhu (2006) states that semi-structured interview guides are a good way of collecting information quickly and are relatively cheaper.

This study used in-depth semi-structured interviews as one of its research methods with some ethnographic aspects such as that they investigate and explore the beliefs of people involved in the research and that the interviewee is encouraged to answer questions in their own way and exchange questions with the interviewer (Pole and Morrison, 2003). The process of in- depth interviewing is a research method used in qualitative research and is described as a form of conversation with purpose that enables the construction of knowledge through social interaction (Legard et al., 2003). In addition, Boyce, and Neale (2006) noted that in-depth interviews involve conducting interviews with a small group of participants to elicit and investigate their ideas and opinions about a matter. Holstein and Gubrium (1997) argued that the researcher doing in-depth interviews does not just transmit knowledge acquired by the participant, but knowledge is created through a collaborative relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee. In doing so, interviews with the teacher in this study were characterized by such a collaborative relationship since the researcher was participating and offering his views regarding issues the participants were raising and was not focused just on transferring the opinions of the participants.

Teachers in this study were expected to answer questions on their views about, strategies used, and challenges found, and alternative strategies required for learners with oral reading fluency challenges. Interviews were appropriate to collect data from the teacher since she was the individual who was experiencing the teaching and learning process using the two strands of methodologies as indicated by Boyce and Neale (2006) who argued that in-depth interviews are appropriate when a researcher wants to examine in detail an individual's thoughts and behaviours. Individual in-depth interviews enable the researcher to explore deeply specific social and personal matters (DiCicco Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). The researcher had specific themes which were discussed in an interactive manner and through probes on each theme, sufficient information was obtained for the study. It is also important to note that specific characteristics of in-depth interviews have remained consistent through the years.

An important characteristic which is consistent is that in-depth interviews combine structure with flexibility (Legard et al., 2003). The researcher has in mind certain topics that will be explored during the interview, but these themes can be covered according to the interviewee's most suited purpose, and in this way realising the in-depth interview's flexible structure (Legard et al. 2003). Similarly interviews with the teacher in this study interrogated specific topics that addressed specific research questions and were introduced in line with the nature of each interview since it was on going.

The interaction starts with an initial question from the researcher which is performed in such a way that encourages the participant not only to provide the necessary information but also to feel sufficiently comfortable and free to provide more than a 'yes or no' answer on a theme (Legard et al. 2003). Thirdly, the interviewer used different techniques to encourage the participant to offer in-depth information when little information was coming out. For instance, the interviewer sought more explanation of specific issues or explore further some responses as well as the reasons, feelings, opinions, and beliefs behind a participant's specific answer through probes. Fourthly, the participant was asked to give their own opinions, ideas, or suggestions about a specific topic or by suggesting solutions or changes about a matter (Legard, et al. 2003).

4.7.2 Class Observation

The term 'observation' has been defined as 'a data collection method of generating data which involve the researcher immersing him/herself in a research setting, and systematically observing dimensions of that setting, interactions, relationships, actions, events, etc., within it' (Tavakoli, 2012:418). Observation has been defined as a 'research characterised by a prolonged period of intense social interaction between the researcher and the subjects, in the milieu of the latter, during which time data, in the form of field notes, are unobtrusively and systematically collected' (Wilkinson and Birmingham, 2003:118). Bogdan (1972) argued that there was no clear distinction between observation and ethnography in the practices and data collection procedures. Gold (1997) says it was possible to develop a standardised procedure that could maximise observational efficacy, minimise investigator bias, and allow for replication or to check out the degree to which these procedures have enabled the investigator to produce valid, reliable data that, when incorporated into his or her published reports, will be regarded by peers as objective findings.

Borofsky (1994) observed that it is through this that observation has been a reliable method of data collection through its different strands. Lesson observation was used to collect data on teachers' practices in teaching fluency to learners in selected primary schools. An observation checklist was devised which contained practices expected to be seen in an oral lesson class. Through observation, the researcher was able to record all the practices used by teachers and learners in a classroom environment. This instrument was used to aid in gathering information that was visible and could be noted without any explanation from the people around. Mostly, it had to do with the physical appearance in the classroom in which a reading lesson was being conducted. The purpose was to observe the way the pupils participated in reading and to observe the strategies teachers were using to execute their lessons. The schedule was used as the researcher ends Grade 5 classes. The researcher sat down in each class to observe how a reading lesson was being conducted in all the selected primary schools.

4.7.3 Document Analysis

Document review is a good method of collecting secondary data when answering research questions (Tesch (1990). Researchers can gather useful data from print documents as well as electronic records and careful analysis is needed to draw conclusions from the body of related documents (Ary, 2019). It provides a useful check on information that is in existence already relating to your study. Document analysis is another instrument that was used for data collection in this study. It was used to answer the second research question to determine what strategies teachers were using to teach oral reading fluency in class. Lesson plans, schemes of work and other independent materials like textbooks were also analysed to find out if there was any work that teachers prepared in relation to teaching oral reading fluency and to find out if learners were engaged into fluent reading or not. Therefore, document analysis provided a cross checking device to see whether teachers were engaging into any fluency teaching, alongside the interview guide and classroom observation.

4.8 Data Collection Procedure

The study was first approved by the University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Ethical Research Committee for commencement of data collection and permission was granted by the School of Education Assistant Dean Postgraduate Office conduct the study. Written

permission was granted by the District Education Board Secretary (DEBS) offices in Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone for the study to be conducted in schools. Permission was also sought from the head teacher in the sampled schools to enable access to the teachers and pupils. Collection of data began in January 2019 which is the first term in the Zambian school calendar. Teachers were interviewed and learners read the first oral reading fluency passage in Kitwe schools. All the reading sessions were recorded using a smart phone and time was recorded using the timer. Second reading of passages were done on the same learners and all the sessions were recorded. At the end of year during the third term, the researcher visited the same schools and conducted one class observations in all the 6 schools visited on all Grade 5 teachers who did the interviews in the first term. Document analysis was also conducted at the end of year. This was to check the work teachers covered with learners which may have not reflected in the actual lessons seen and to substantiate the results from reading of independent passage, interviews, and class observations.

4.9 Data Analysis

According to Patton (2002), Inductive reasoning refers to the type of reasoning from specific to making general conclusions about a particular phenomenon. The collected data from the field was analysed using inductive reasoning and thematic analysis. Thematic analysis also involves grouping, sorting, and the categorization of data according to themes and emerging themes. This allows the researcher to arrive at a general conclusion of the study. In this study, data for all the 4 research objectives were analysed qualitatively. The purpose of the study was to investigate into teachers' practices used to teach oral reading fluency. All the data obtained through teacher interview, classroom observation and documents analysis together with the pupils reading passages were analysed by coding and categorization of the emerging themes and were qualitatively presented in description form.

Data analysis begins early in qualitative and continues throughout the project. Interim analysis – cyclical process of collecting and analysing dat. Interim analysis continues until issue understood. Throughout the process, data was transcribed by converting interviews and observational notes into text documents. Then transcribed data was later analysed qualitatively in thematic analysis strives to identify patterns of themes in the interview data and used words of the research participants which were reported in verbatim.

4.10 Trustworthiness and Reliability of Instruments

According to White (2005), trustworthiness refers to the quality of research. It also refers to the degree of confidence in data, interpretation, and methods used to ensure the quality of a study (Pilot and Beck, 2014). Trustworthiness or rigor of a study refers to the degree of confidence in data, interpretation, and methods used to ensure the quality of a study (Pilot and Beck, 2014). In a study, researchers should establish the protocols and procedures necessary for a study to be considered worthy of consideration by readers (Amankwaa, 2016). These criteria include credibility, dependability, confirmability, and transferability; they later added authenticity (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The following section discusses how trustworthiness or rigor was observed in this study.

4.10.1 Credibility

Credibility of the study, or the confidence in the truth of the study and therefore the findings, is the most important criterion (Polit and Beck, 2014). Truth value helps the researcher to establish confidence in the subject and content in which the research is undertaken. In this study, the researcher established confidence through prolonged field work in data collection which took the whole year. Through much triangulation, recording learner participants' tests results, taking notes during teachers' interviews and class observation while focusing on the scope of the study. Techniques used to establish credibility include prolonged engagement with participants, persistent observation, peer-debriefing, member-checking, and reflective journaling.

4.10.2 Dependability

Dependability refers to the stability of the data over time and over the conditions of the study (Polit and Beck, 2014). Procedures for dependability included maintenance of an audit trail of process logs and peer-debriefings with teachers and the members of the department. Process logs included the researcher's field notes of all activities that happen during the study and decisions about aspects of the study, such as who to interview, when to interview, what to observe, who to observe and when to take notes and on what. Dependability was sought through the constant observation of learners who were being assessed in reading and through monitoring of the teaching and learning process that was taking place in classes that were observed.

4.10.3 Confirmability

Confirmability is the neutrality or the degree to which the findings are consistent and could be repeated. The term neutrality refers to the extent to which findings of an inquiry are determined by participants and the conditions of the inquiry and not by biases, motivations and interests or perspectives of the inquiry (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005). In this study, the researcher avoided bias to ensure the objectivity or neutrality of the data by entering the field without preconceived ideas or subjectivity. The researcher followed the prescribed data collection method and discussed and reached consensus on the findings. Confirmability was also achieved using interviews, observation, and document analysis on teachers and standard tests – reading passages, which were consistent with the planned procedures for the study as approved by the ethical committee.

4.10.4 Authenticity

Authenticity is the extent to which researchers fairly and completely show a range of different realities and realistically convey participants' lives (Polit and Beck, 2014). Selection of appropriate people for the study sample and provision of a rich, detailed description are ways the researchers address this criterion (Schou, et al., 2011). Authenticity in this study was based on the sample selected being unique to other settings and their involvement. The classroom setting provided a detailed answer to the stated objectives through classroom observation, verbatims and proof of consent or data slums authenticity. Also, the use of the standardised tests and the teachers provided authenticity.

4.10.5 Reliability

Reliability is understood to be the consistency, stability or repeatability of a particular question or technique applied repeatedly to the same object to yield the same result each time (Ary, 2016). Test Reliability is the consistency of a measurement, or the degree to which an instrument measures the same way each time it is used, under the same conditions, with the same subjects. In short, it is the repeatability of a measurement or its general dependability. A measure is considered reliable if a person's score on the same test given twice is similar (McKenna, M. & Stahl, S., 2003). LoBiondo-Wood and Haber (2014) says the reliability of the research instrument is defined as the extent to which the same instrument yields the same results on repeated measures. Reliability is concerned with consistence, accuracy, precision, stability,

equivalence, and homogeneity. In this study, the same interview schedule, and observation schedule, were used on teachers and learners in all the three districts under the same conditions.

4.10.6 Validity

The concept of 'validity' of a study refers to whether the concept being measured is what the study intended to measure, or "the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration" (Babbie 2007:146). Test Validity is the degree to which a test measures what it purports to measure (McKenna & Stahl 2003). In this study, the reading test given to participants were of their grade-level and the research instrument was valid in all its aspects to enable collect quantitative data and hence the study findings were valid too.

4.11 Ethical Considerations

The term research ethics refers to a wide variety of values, norms, and institutional arrangements that help constitute and regulate scientific activities. Research ethics is a codification of scientific morality in practice. Guidelines for research ethics specify the basic norms and values of the research community. They are based on general ethics of science, just as general ethics is based on the morality of society at large (NESH, 2016). To maintain a climate of trust in the practice and outcomes of social research, it is inevitable that systems of ethical assurance will be established and will need to be maintained by all those engaged in work of this nature. The trust of the public, professional colleagues, those who commission and fund research and those being studied requires an effective system of ethical review, clear lines of responsibility and a manageable degree of independent overview (Iphofen, 2011).

Conducting research requires not only expertise and diligence but also honesty and integrity. Bell (1995) stipulates that data collection must follow stipulated ethical measures, protect, and always maintain the interest of both the researcher and the researched. In other words, these relate to the dos and don'ts that the researcher must observe during the research process for the purposes of respecting and protecting the rights and privacy of the respondent (Cohen et al, 2000).

This study observed all ethical measures. All data collected during this study were strictly confidential and duly kept. The data were used for no other purpose other than the intended purpose. For this study to be conducted successfully, written permission was sought from the University of Zambia School of Education Directorate of Postgraduate and from the District

Education Board Secretary (DEBS) offices in the three districts, Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone to conduct research in selected schools. Verbal consent from participants was also sought and participants were informed. Confidentiality was observed by respecting the respondents' privacy and ensuring that no names were used. The researcher also maintained an open and honest approach and ensured that the names of the respondents and of the schools involved were not used in the report. While the names of the provinces and the districts and schools in the study are correct, the researcher used pseudo names for pupils and teachers who participated in this research study. Participants who did not wish to respond to a question were free to leave it and go to the next question or to remain silent; Participants were informed on how long it would take to conduct an interview; participants were free to withdraw from the study whenever they felt so, and that data collected was secured and stored.

It is important to realise that participants have the right to participate and not to participate in a study at hand. Tuckman (1994) noted that the choice to participate in the study lies in the participant and his or her will to do so. For this reason, the informed consent is signed between the researcher and the respondent (Robson, 1995). An informed consent form was presented to Grade 5 teachers through explaining the nature of the research, its impact and participant implication. It also informed the participants that they were free to withdraw from the study at any time during the study. In doing so, the researcher explained to the teachers the need for their participation, their roles and any information they needed to be known before the research could start. Permission to conduct the study on Grade 5 learners was sought from the school head teachers in sampled schools who gave the researcher a go ahead to on their behalf. The teachers signed a consent and participated in the study after understanding the purpose of the study.

4.11.1 Confidentiality and Anonymity

In this study, the identity of the participants regarding their names and the kind of data they provided was not exposed to any person. In data analysis, the names of the schools, teachers, pupils and areas are not mentioned so as to protect their image and integrity. All data recordings were kept in a password folder which was only accessible by the researcher, and this was deleted after completion of writing the document.

4.11.2 Access to results.

Results from the field will be readily accessible after the completion of the study and after the publication of the paper is done. In addition, a copy of the findings would be given to the District Education Board Secretary and the stakeholders involved after the successful completion of the program.

4.12 Limitation of the Study

Every study records several limitations which are resolved while the study is being conducted to ensure reliable data is collected. This study too had its own limitations which were resolved to ensure the findings were reliable. They only relaxed after I explained that observation was for academic purposes nothing more and that the data shall be discarded after the research Therefore, the researcher did much explanation until the concept was understood, and the learners became excited and wanted to participate in reading.

4.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the research paradigm, methodology, research design, population, sample, sampling procedure, and instruments of data collection, data collection procedure, data analysis, trustworthiness, ethical considerations, and a chapter summary. The next chapter presents the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

5.0 Overview

The previous chapter presented the methodology which was used to collect data and analysis process for this study. This chapter presents the findings of the study based on data collected using semi-structured interviews, classroom observations, and document analysis and field notes. The chapter will present findings using the following themes derived from the research objectives; views of teachers on teaching oral reading fluency; how teachers use strategies and teach oral reading fluency in Grade 5 classrooms; challenges teachers find among learners reading connected text in English and measures teachers take to support learners with specific oral reading fluency challenges. Findings based on each research question will have data from one instrument or other instrument(s) where necessary. Since this is a qualitative study, data will be presented under the main themes and subthemes in all research questions. The next subheading presents findings from the first research question.

5.1 Teacher's' Views on teaching oral reading fluency

Research data were collected from interviews with Grade 5 teachers in which participants were required to give their views on the definition of oral reading fluency, its importance to successful reading, when fluency is introduced to grade 5 learners and views on the assessment of oral reading fluency to grade 5 classrooms. Responses from 18 teachers from Kitwe, Lusaka and Livingstone were coded and presented as one whole group as Tr.1, Tr.2, Tr.3, Tr.4, Tr.5, Tr.6, and Tr.7. All the findings will be presented qualitatively in verbatim in most parts using subthemes.

5.2.1 Findings from Interviews with the Teachers

Teachers gave the following responses on what they know about oral reading fluency skill; They said that fluency is the reading aloud and observing punctuations and giving expressions while reading.

Tr.1 said that,

> *This is when learners read aloud with accuracy while observing punctuation marks as they read.*

Similarly, Tr.3 also said that.

> *Oral reading fluency is one of the best instructional strategies that help learners improve in reading skills. This is when a learner read fluently, easily, smoothly, and correctly without mistakes especially at each level.*

In the same way, Tr. 2 also said.

> *This is when learners read aloud and observe punctuation marks as they read.*

Other teachers brought in the idea of translation and described oral reading fluency as the ability to effortlessly translate letters to sound words.

Tr.1 pointed out that.

> *"Fluency is the ability to effortlessly translate letters to sound words".*

Tr 3 also added by saying that.

> *This is reading by way of speech effectively with a lot of confidence.*

To the definition, other teachers included the idea of communication and said that oral reading fluency is how accurately a learner can communicate to the listener by effective reading.

This was pointed out by Tr.2 who said that.

> *This is how accurately a learner can communicate to the listener by effective.*

Tr.3 added that.

> *This is reading by way of speech effectively with a lot of confidence.*

Teachers described reading fluency by singling out the English language and said that it is a way of using the voice to teach in English and teaching them (learners) pronunciations of the sounds at every point of learning.

This was pointed out by Tr.4 who said that.

> *Fluency is the ability to express themselves in reading English orally.*

In the same way, Tr.5 also added that.

> *Fluency is being able to express oneself in English.*

Teachers went ahead and described fluency as a measure that addresses accuracy in reading. One other definition the teachers gave was that oral reading fluency is the ability to read with speed, correctly and proper expression, the ability to effortlessly translate letters to sounds and sounds to words.

Tr.7 pointed out that.

> *This is the ability to read with speed, correctly and proper expression, to effortlessly translate letters to sounds and sounds to words.*

And then Tr.5 said.

> *Fluency is a measure that addresses accuracy and fluency in reading.*

Teachers included the idea of reading connected text and described oral reading fluency as the ability to read a paragraph or text accurately.

Tr.6 explained by indicating that.

> *Fluency is reading by way of speech (orally) effectively with a lot of confidence.*

They included the idea of reading and listening with expression of words and sentences. Oral reading fluency is reading aloud and observing punctuation and giving expressions while reading.

Tr.3 said,

> *Oral reading fluency is the ability to express themselves in reading orally or being able to express oneself in English.*

Teachers' responses on the importance of teaching oral reading fluency in reading development, teachers brought out several reasons that included the following: for employment, for safety, for assessment, for learners to become good readers, for learners to comprehend the passage and it helps learners to acquire knowledge of pronouncing words correctly and learn the skill of reading fluently in public and in school. Some teachers indicated that they did not teach oral reading fluency in grade 5 because it is a skill for lower primary not in grade 5.

Tr. 2 outrightly said,

> *"I don't teach oral reading fluency, so how can I indicate the importance of it'? They teach it in grade 1, 2, 3 and 4."*

Like Tr. 2, Tr 6 also said.

> *"I have no idea because I don't teach that."*

Other teachers pointed out that oral reading fluency is a way through which learners read while maintain the flow of what is being read. Other teachers said that oral reading fluency is important because it provides the bridge between word recognition and comprehension. The learners will know how to pronounce words and it can help them to familiarize themselves with the English language. They also indicated that fluent reading makes learners understand what they are

reading. It helps learners to become fluent readers and comprehend easily when they get the correct sound of words and observe punctuation marks as they read aloud. Other teachers said that fluency help learners to improve in their vocabulary. Learners can also gain confidence as they read and pronounce words accordingly. Fluency also helps learners to get familiar with sounds of the words and letters and it helps them to gain confidence is they read the text.

Tr.1 explained by saying,

> *It helps learners to acquire knowledge of pronouncing words correctly and learn the skill of reading fluently in public and in school. The thought should be flowing as a child reads.*

When asked when oral reading fluency is taught, teachers gave different views. Some teachers said that oral reading fluency is introduced when teaching comprehension, others said when teaching vocabulary as learners read new words.

Tr.6 said that.

> *Oral reading fluency is introduced during reading, structure and writing lessons.*

Yet, Tr 5 said that.

> *Oral reading fluency is introduced at grade 5 when learners are given comprehension activities so that they can improve their reading fluency as well as understanding at every point.*

Tr.7 said.

> *Oral reading fluency is introduced when giving instructions on the work in grade 2 and 3.*

When asked to explain what they know about assessment of oral reading fluency, teachers said that this is done when learners read comprehension passages and then they answer the questions orally and as a writing activity.

Tr. 4 said that.

> *I ask questions as they are reading the story and when they finish reading, we ask them questions, then they answer comprehension questions in their exercise books, or we give them homework sometimes.*

Some teachers said that did not teach oral reading fluency so there was no need to assess it. In fact, three other teachers did not even indicate anything to the question of assessment.

Tr. 2 indicated that,

> *I don't teach fluency; how can I know?*

Tr.3 and Tr.6 also indicated that.

> *I don't know how to assess it teach because I don't teach it, its taught in grade 1 to 4.*

5.2 Strategies Teachers Use And How They Teach Oral Reading Fluency In Grade 5 Classrooms.

Teachers were expected to bring out strategies used to teach oral reading fluency and to demonstrate how they teach oral reading fluency in Grade 5 classrooms. They were expected to show the methods they use to teach oral reading fluency and the strategies used. For the first part of findings in which participants were expected to come up with strategies they use to teach oral reading in classrooms, data was collected from the interviews with grade 5 teachers. The following were the findings.

5.3.1 Strategies Teachers use to Teach Oral Reading Fluency: Interview Data.

Teachers use the flowing strategies, read-alouds, repeated reading, reading story books below grade below, guided reading with appropriate expressions, observing punctuation, pair reading and group reading. Teachers also use the following activities, flash cards, word cards and reading charts. Before this sentence, explain how the data was collected and to answer which research question.

5.3.1.1 Read-Aloud Strategy.

The teachers revealed that they introduced reading aloud activities during comprehension lessons in class. Tr. 2 mentioned that,

> *I use different reading materials to enable my class read aloud in school*.

Tr.3 indicated that,

> *I make learners read fluently by making them be familiar with the words which seems new to them. This helps them to read faster a given passage in a lesson since they have already read aloud, and they make their reading simple.*

Tr. 1 said,

> *I make reading material for my learners according to the lesson of the day. I ensure that I isolate the difficult sight words and write them on cards which learners read aloud before reading the main passage.*

5.3.1.2 Repeated Reading

Teachers also indicated that to help learners read, they engaged them to practice reading by repeating after the teacher in unison or through chorusing. This is supported by the following verbatim:

Tr.1 said that,

> *"Through vocabulary lessons, I ensure I read the phrases to the learners with accurate punctuation. After that, I tell learners to read after me."*

Tr.2 said that,

> *To ensure the learners read fluently in a comprehension lesson, I write on the board a list of the words I feel can make my learners fail to read fluently the given passage. I will make the class to practice reading the words through chorusing before they could read them as individuals. This helps learners not to get stuck as they read.*

Tr. 6 mentioned that,

> *I ensure my learners are fluent in reading comprehension by writing the words which needs to be mastered on a chart and I expose the words to the learners before they could read the passage and meet them. I ensure they pronounce the words loudly and correctly before they could meet them in the passage.*

5.3.1.3 Guided Reading.

Teachers indicated that they used guided reading as a strategy to help learners' master fluency by guiding them to read a story while observing punctuation in a reading passage. They said that they used this strategy when learners were reading during comprehension and vocabulary lessons. Teachers also mentioned that they demonstrated how to read with expressions during reading lessons. They also said that they guided learners through the use of flash cards and reading charts.

Tr.7 mentioned that,

> *"I first demonstrate to them how to read by reading slowly to the learners and ensuring that I follow the punctuation correctly. After that, now ask learners to read slowly without touching the passage and its lines so that they be accurate. After they become accurate, that is when I now ask them to be faster a bit and continue reading without touching the lines using fingers."*

Through guided reading, teachers said that they used some materials to support learners reading. They cited flash cards, word cards and reading charts or even reading from the board.

On guided reading, one participant indicated that she guided learners who read like they were reading in local languages, who were pronouncing English words like local languages. These were guided to avoid being laughed at by other classmates.

Tr.3 said,

> *"Some learners read in a 'vernacular' tone, so I ensure that they read slowly in English with constant corrections from the teacher and the desk mate. This helps the learners to gain confidence unlike laughing at them or shutting them up."*

While Tr. 3 said,

> *I use flash cards to enable my learners to acquire reading fluency in comprehension lessons. I usually sample some words which have difficult pronunciation and write them on cards then flash them to learners before they could read the passage. This makes them read the passage with some fluency than when they are not exposed to such a strategy.*

Tr.5 similarly said that.

> *I use flash cards by writing new and unfamiliar words on the board and on the chart as materials to support learners to read fluently in class.*

In Kitwe, Tr.2 indicated that,

> *"I have made a chart which has phrases and short sentences which are well punctuated. This is the chat I use to make learners practice reading punctuation on."*

5.3.1.4 Reading Story Books Below Grade Level.

Teachers also cited another strategy of using story books which were below grade 5 level. They pointed out that they use graded textbooks which are used in grade 4 or 3.

This was highlighted by Teacher Kam2 who said,

> *I used some story books which were a grade below at times to make learners read with emphasis on punctuation. The stories were of different magnitude and levels of difficulty with precise punctuations.*

Then Tr. 2 said,

> *"I advise my learners to get swallowed in the story and laugh with the passage or feel for the characters. Such behaviours make the learners to read the story in a more stable manner and try to be faster and fluent when they learn the story line."*

Yet, Tr.1 said,

> *I use specific phrases on specific charts to teach the dominant punctuation of the day. I have charts for practicing question marks, comma, exclamation marks and direct speech among others. So, I choose what is closer to the lesson of the day and make learners practice before reading so that they can read fluently.*

Tr.6 said,

> *I use a song to rehearse punctuation with the learners in class. There are some songs which have very good punctuation practices like: the greeting song. (How are you, my partner? How are you today?.....). This is among the many songs I use to improve reading fluency in relation to punctuation.*

5.3.1.5 Pair Reading and Group Reading

Pair work and group reading was another strategy that teachers mentioned to improve reading fluency in classrooms. They said that learners help each other to read difficult words when they are in pairs or in small groups.

Tr.4 said,

> *"I usually use small pieces of writing in form of a paragraph on similar topics according to the vocabulary of the day. I then ask learners to read to each other on their desk although it works well with a small class."*

Another one, teacher Tr.2 said,

> *"I use pair reading to help learners practice the difficult words which need mastery in pronunciation. Learners read words to each other with emphasis on pronunciation."*

5.3.2 How Teachers Teach Oral Reading Fluency in Grade 5 Classrooms: Observational Data.

In the second part of research question two, teachers were expected to demonstrate how they teach oral reading fluency in Grade 5 classrooms. Data were collected from the lesson observations in sampled classrooms of Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone districts to bring out pedagogic practices from a cross-section of Grade 5 classrooms. The researcher observed teacher to establish if they use any strategies and how they use these strategies and activities to teach oral reading fluency in grade 5 classrooms. Classroom interactions were captured through the voice recorder while other cardinal points not captured through the voice recorder, were captured through field notes. Presented below are three excerpts of the lessons observed, one from each of the three sampled districts Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone, respectively. The excerpts of reading comprehension lessons are presented below to make a full representation from all the districts. The lesson plans are placed in the appendices.

5.3.3 Excerpt 1: Reading Comprehension Lesson from Kitwe.

In Grade 5B class at a school in Kitwe, there were 36 girls and 23 boys, making a total attendance that day to 59. The classroom was quiet, and everyone stood up as I entered the classroom. I was immediately greeted by learners:

Class: Good afternoon, madam *(dragging their voices so much that the greeting in English sounded like a song).*

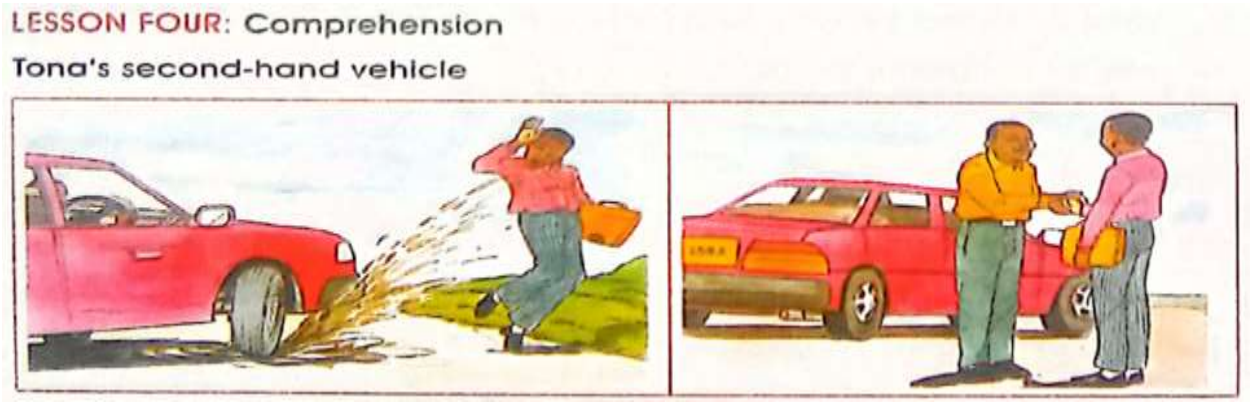
Me: Good afternoon, class. How are you?

Class: We are very well, thank you and how are you?

Me: I'm very well, thank you. You may sit down.

Class: Thank you, very much.

After the greeting formalities, the teacher quickly swung into action and wrote the topic on the board. Gave out available books to the class. Each copy was shared among 4 or 5 learners who sat on each desk. She engaged learners in picture discussion using the picture below that was on the passage that was to be read.



MK Primary English Grade 5 (page 3)

Before reading.

Picture discussion

Teacher: What can you see in picture 1?

Learner 1: (*Several hands were raised up (especially) from boys).* A car!

Learner 2: A man!

Teacher: How many people are in picture 2?

Learner 3: 2 people!

Teacher: Who can explain what is happening in picture 1?

Learner 4: (explanation was given in Icibemba) [*nabamusabukisha amenshi kuli motoka*] (The car splashed water on the man).

Teacher: We are going to read a story about Tana's Second-Hand Vehicle.

Word discussion

The teacher writes the following words learning word from the passage on the board:

sorry	thank	please	can	requested	pleasure	accepted

The teacher discusses with the learners the meaning of the words displayed on the board.

While reading.

Teacher demonstration

The teacher reads the first paragraph aloud and then asks oral questions on the first paragraph, thereafter, learners give individual answer orally.

Teacher: Why was Tona overjoyed?

Learner: Because he was sold a car.

Teacher: Yes, he was overjoyed because he bought a car. From whom did Tona but a car?

Learner: From a car seller.

Teacher: Yes. What did Tona say to the seller after buying a car?

Learner: He said, thank you.

Teacher: Good. Now, I would like Natasha (pseudo name) to read paragraph 2 loudly to the class. The rest of you must follow and listen carefully because I will ask you questions afterwards.

Natasha reads the paragraph, and the teacher asks oral questions. The same is done to the rest of the paragraphs. The teacher guides the learners to take turns and read the passage paragraph by paragraph while pausing in between paragraphs to allow learners answer oral questions.

After Reading.

Writing activity

Teacher: Now read the passage once again and then answer the comprehension questions on page 9. As learners did a written activity, individually, the teacher went round guiding and marking pupil's work.

Answer the following questions about the passage.

1. Why was Tona overjoyed when the car seller brought the car?
2. What shows that the driver who splashed water onto Tona was kind?
3. Why was is it dangerous to stop a vehicle in the middle of a forest?
4. Which of these words is not good to use when making requests?
   a) May b) must c) thank d) please.
5. Which of the following statements is correct?
   a) Bupe did not like going to the village at first.
   b) The driver who offered a spare tyre was not kind.
   c) Tona's car had a serious problem.
   d) Tona's vehicle was not brand new.

Conclusion:

In conclusion, the teacher went through comprehension questions and allowed learners to bring out the answers. The teacher wrote the correct answers on the board and asked them to make corrections where they got wrong answers.

5.3.4 Excerpt 2: Reading Comprehension Lesson from Lusaka School

The lesson that I observed in Lusaka was a comprehension lesson. In a Grade 5 class at a school in Lusaka, there were 52 girls and 26 boys, making a total attendance that day to 78. The learners stood up to greet me as I entered the classroom.

Visobe's first day

Visobe was sitting next to a boy and she didn't know his name. Her book and pencil lay on the desk in front of her. Visobe felt like she was going to cry.

"What's the answer to question two?" asked Mrs Lungu kindly.

Visobe looked down. She felt like she didn't know anything. Then the boy next to her pointed quietly to the answer in his book. Visobe read the sentence aloud and the teacher nodded.

At break time Visobe sat on her own. Then the boy sat with her.

BOOKWORLD AFRICA Primary English Learners' Book for Grade 5 (Page 1 – 3)

Teacher: 'Let us say the Lord's prayer together'.

Class: "Our Father, which art in heaven…." *The learners said the Lords's prayer in unison.*

Then through question and answer, the teacher revised the previous work by displaying the word cards containing vocabulary words they learnt. The words on the word cards are from the same text to be read for comprehension.

Before Reading:

Teacher: Today we are going to read a story about "Visobe's first day" *Then the teacher wrote the heading on the board and asks the class to read the sentence. The teacher allowed the learners to repeat to read the sentence several times.*

Whole Class: "Visobe's first day"

Teacher: Distributes the photocopied papers of the story to be read, one on each desk and asks; "What do you think the story is about?"

Learner 1: "About Visobe"

Learner 2: "About Visobe's school" *Different learners give different answers of what they this will be in the story.*

During reading

Teacher: Alright. Now, I'll read the first paragraph to you. Look at the first paragraph as I read and follow along. The teachers read the first paragraph and pauses.

Teacher: To whom was Visobe sitting next to?

Learner 2: Visobe sat next to the boy.

Teacher: Did Visobe know this person's name?

Learner 3: Visobe did not know the boy's name.

After asking a few more other questions on the first paragraph, the teachers asked one learner to read the second paragraph. Then the teachers repeated the same procedure of asking questions after learners had read the second paragraph and all other paragraphs.

After reading.

Teacher: Can you tell me what the story was about?

Learner 4: The story was about Visobe's first day at school.

The teacher continues by asking learners to confirm their predictions. After the oral questions and after confirming their predictions, the teacher and the learners read through the vocabulary words on the flash cards.

Written activity - spellings

The teacher asked the learners to write numbers from 1 to 5 in their books. Then the teacher dictated the words and learners wrote the dictated words in their books. When learners finished writing, the teacher asked the learners to exchange their books then the teacher wrote the words on the board and the learners marked their friend's books. Then the teacher asked the learners to answer the comprehension questions about the whole story as follows:

Comprehension

Answer the Questions

a. How does Cheelo help Visobe answer Mrs Lungu's question?
b. What does Cheelo ask Visobe?
c. Why is Visobe new at school?
d. What does Cheelo ask in orange group?
e. What does Visobe know how to do?

Conclusion:

The learners did a written activity while the teacher went round guiding the learners as they did the activity. After the activity, the teacher collected the books for marking later. End of the lesson.

5.3.5 Excerpt 3: Reading Comprehension Lesson from Livingstone.

The teacher I observed in Livingstone was teaching English lessons to all the classes in the school. The lesson that I observed in Lusaka was also a comprehension lesson. In this Grade 5 class there were 38 girls and 23 boys, making a total attendance that day to 61. The learners greeted me and their teacher as I entered the classroom.

Teacher: Good morning, class?

Class: Good morning, teacher and good morning, madam (*they greeted us*)

Me: Good morning, thank you and how are you?

Class: We are very well, thank you and how are you?

Me: I'm very well, thank you. You may sit down.

Class: Thank you, very much.

Before Reading

Teacher writes the topic on the board. "Resisting Early Marriage" and asks an oral question for class discussion.

Teacher: How would you help a friend whose parents want her to drop out of school and get married? (Teacher allows three learners to give the answers and a discussion continues as more learners give their opinions.

Read the story below and answer the questions that follow.

Biso saw the girl walking ahead of him cry. He hurried to catch up with her and politely greeted her. "Hallo Sena, is anything wrong with you?" he asked. Sena ignored him and walked faster. Biso also hastened his steps to catch up with her again.

"Sena I will help you! Talk to me please!" Biso said again.

"Will you really help me? How?" Sena looked at him hopefully.

Excel in English Learner's Book Grade 5 page 95 - 97

Teacher: Open the book on page 95 and tell me what you can see in the picture.

(*Learners open Excel in English Learner's Book Grade 5 page 95 – 97)*

Learner 1: I can see a boy and a girl.

Teacher: Where do you think they are going?

Learner: They are going to school.

Teacher: Is it good to go to school or to stop and get married?

Learner: It is good to go to school not to get married.

Teacher: Why?

Learners give various reasons why school and not marriage, is important.

While reading

Teacher asks one learner to read the first paragraph of the story loudly to the whole class. Then the teacher asks oral questions based on the paragraph read. The same is done to the rest of the story followed by oral questions and answers based on each paragraph.

After reading.

Teacher: Read the story again and answer the following questions:

The class does a written activity in their books as the teachers goes round guiding and marking the learner's work.

Now, answer the following questions.

1. Name three polite words/expressions used in the passage.
2. Name two regular verbs used in the passage.
3. Describe Biso. What kind of person was he?
4. What did Sena become after her schooling?
5. How do you think Sena felt when she was rescued?
6. Give this passage another suitable title.

Conclusion:

The teacher together with learners went through the questions. The teacher wrote the answers on the board and the learners did the corrections in their exercise books.

5.3.6 Findings from the Teaching Documents

5.3.6.1 Grade 5 English Syllabus

The teachers were using the 2013 English Language Syllabus for Grades 2 – 7. It is prepared and published by Curriculum Development Centre (CDC). After studying the syllabus, the findings on Grade 5 English is that; the outcomes include, developing listening, speaking, and reading skills and an appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills. The syllabus key competences include expressing feelings, thoughts, experiences, and convictions clearly and effectively in speech and writing. Applying life skills as solutions to challenges in life using English language. Applying reading skills to comprehend written texts in English language for use in academic work.

The other finding was that the syllabus has four components. The first one is listening and speaking taught through story reading and storytelling. The second one is intensive reading where learners are expected to read a passage and answer multiple choice, surface, and inference questions. Learners also read and interpret information presented in print resource and they are supposed to demonstrate reading skills such as skimming and scanning. The third component is reading-aloud. This is where learners are expected to read a given passage at an appropriate pace, acceptable pronunciation and with understanding and to observe good reading habits. The fourth component of the syllabus is extensive reading. In this component, learners are expected to read materials from other subject areas like science, social studies, etc.

5.3.6.2 Schemes of Work

Findings on the schemes of work was that teachers did not prepare any individual schemes in all the schools visited. Teachers had common schemes of work in Kitwe and this one was criticised and refuted citing confusion in language teaching. No scheme of work was found with any teacher.

5.3.6.3 Details of Comprehension Lesson Plans

Teachers did not prepare individual lesson plans but used common lesson plans that were prepared in advance for 13 weeks based on a topic or the title of the story passage to be read that week. The story changed every week and formed topic and subtopic for each reading lesson. All lesson plans observed had a rationale of a comprehension lesson. The rationale of a

comprehension lesson is for learners to appreciate and acquire skills, knowledge, and values of reading types of texts**.**

5.3.6.4 Teaching methods in the syllabus and common lesson plans

To execute each lesson, teachers were expected to use the following methods, group work, teacher exposition and question and answer methods based on the number of a lesson in the series. The common lesson plans in the lessons observed also included the methods such as storytelling, teachers' exposition, question and answer, group discussion and individual work (activity). The lesson plans that teachers used during observation also had similar specific outcomes for all comprehension lessons and were similarly set as: 1. To read through the story within the specified period. 2. To identify key words in the story. To describe the key words and answer the questions.

5.3.6.5 Content of each reading lesson observed.

The content of each comprehension lesson in the syllabus includes the introduction when the teacher tells a story, a poem, a song, or debate. As a pre-reading activity, teacher asks oral questions about the story. While reading, learners were allowed to read a story aloud individually or in groups. Reading for the tasks (vocabulary) - Identify some of the difficult words and phrases/ testing pupils' spellings. As a class activity, learners were allowed to answer comprehension questions based on the story read. Conclusion/Post Reading is when the teacher concludes by emphasizing main points of the lesson.

Teacher's activities were also indicated in the lesson plans. Teacher involvement in a comprehension was mainly to narrate a brief story to introduce the lesson. To guides learners in pre-reading activity and to guide learners to take turns to read the passage. The teacher was also involved in asking learners to present difficult words (vocabulary) and phrases and have a class discussion. The other teacher activity was to go round to guide and mark pupils' work while they were writing a comprehension activity. Lastly, the teacher's activity was to go through the passage and remind learners the main points of the day's lesson.

According to the lesson plans analysed, learner's activities included learners to listen attentively and to ask questions. Learners also took turns when reading the passage. Then in groups, learners to identify difficult words and phrases, and Group leaders to present their findings. Then learners answered comprehension questions and made corrections were necessary during the post.

5.4 Challenges teachers learner's face when reading connected text in English

Findings for this objective were from teachers' interviews, while other challenges were observed from selected learners who read one common passage using the words correct per minute (WCPM). Learners read this common passage outside the normal lesson. The challenges found from teacher's interviews and from the reading observation activity are as follows.

5.4.1 Failure to Read Correct Words in English.

Several challenges were cited by participants during interviews include failure to read correct words in English, but they read words in Bemba.

Tr.3 said.

> *Pupils read English words in Bemba, e.g., 'cholera' as 'kolela'.*

Similarly, Tr.2 said,

> *Pupils are fond of pronouncing English words in Nyanja and spelling English words like Nyanja words. Pupils failing to relate Nyanja words to English.*

Yet another Participant, Tr. 5 mentioned that,

> *Some learners …(mmm)… they have problems understanding and problems in reading. They read English words like Tonga words hence failure to respond or to do comprehension.*

5.4.2 Difficulties in Pronunciation of English Words.

Respondents cited difficulties in pronunciation of English words and understanding English words leading to failure to comprehend.

One Participant, Tr.6 said,

> *Pupils have difficulties in pronunciation of English words disturbed, overtaken by Zambian languages and Poor pronunciation resulting in bad vocabulary.*

5.4.3 Stammering when Decoding Words.

Participants cited difficulties in saying correct phonics, blending of consonants.

One Participant, Tr. 3 said,

> *Pupils fail of to relate letters to English sounds e.g., letter 'C' pronounced at 'K'. Difficulties in English. Difficulties in relating English sounds. Difficulties in blending English sounds and syllables.*

5.4.4 Difficulties in Understanding English.

Difficulties in understanding English Participants mentioned that learners are unable to understand English. Unable to understand the meaning of some English words, they often use direct translation of Nyanja words into English and have difficulties in comprehending English words and phrases.

One participant Tr. 4 said,

> *Pupils have difficulties in understanding English because of the use of different Zambian languages at home. They use English at school, in class but outside class they use Cinyanja, its bad here…*

Another one, Tr. 7 said,

> *Spellings are bad and they have difficulties to read long English words.*

This following section presents learners' challenges as was observed while reading the common passage in all the participating schools.

5.4.5 Decoding Word for Word

Some learners were seen decoding word for word, e.g.,

[it--is--a--cold--day].

They were also reading without appropriate phrasing, e.g.,

[soon the game was almost over…]

and reading the text without appropriate intonation/expression.

5.4.6 Not Observing the Punctuation.

Another challenge was where learners were not observing the punctuations e.g., apostrophes as in

[baby's] read as [baby is] or [aunty's] read as [aunty is]

and they sometimes made addition of words and letters, e.g.,

[touch] as [touched], [show] as [showed].

5.4.7 Errors on Multisyllabic Words

Learners made frequent errors on multisyllabic words. They were reading words as in;

[confident]as [confidant], [surprised] as [saprised], [rising] as [lising]; [busy] as [basy], [rush] as [lush]. [took] as [tuku].

5.4.8 Omission of words, skipping lines and self-corrections

Learners were seen making frequent omission of words as they read the passage. Others were seen skipping lines as well as making self-corrections when reading the passage.

The next section presents teachers' challenges to teach oral reading fluency to grade 5 learners.

5.4.9 Lack of Reading Materials

Teachers cited the lack of books to read in schools. Since this new curriculum was introduced, materials are not available. Now, Grade 4 and 7 books are not there. They called for Ministry of Education through Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) to provide suitable supplementary reader books which could suit each grade with simple words like the ones that were used in Zambia Primary Course (ZPC) syllabus. Teachers here is need for lots of story books in schools so that learners can read and practice reading in their own time. Reading materials are not enough in the schools. The syllabus and the pupils' books do not correspond. No teachers' guide to guide the teachers. Not having books would also be the cause of not teaching oral reading fluency.

5.4.10 Teachers Not Familiar with English Sounds

Most teachers were not familiar with English sounds and were not able to follow the guidelines in teaching oral reading fluency. There is need to monitor learners' reading pace. Teachers indicated that education starts from grade 1 and fluency is a very cardinal foundation skill that

teachers teach from grade 1 to 4. They further indicated that teachers must make sure that learners break through before proceeding to another grade. By doing this, the system will be easy as learners progress to higher grades without reading problems.

5.4.11 Language of Instruction

They cited teaching in local Zambian languages as another challenge when learners transition to grade 5 where they find it difficult to adapt from local language to English language. As a result, it takes time to learn and understand English language. Oral reading fluency should start from grade 3 not grade 4. When introducing new curriculum, they should be involving grade 5 teachers to check on the correct materials. Grade 5 teachers should have regular workshops on reading programmes. This will help teachers and learners improve on teaching and learning on reading fluency in English. Teach phonics in English at grade 4 term 3 and continue in grade 5

5.4.12 Over-Enrolment

Over enrolment was also cited by teachers as one of the challenges in teaching oral reading fluency. This, they said, causes teachers not teach oral reading fluency so often. Learners do not have much contact with books because of too many pupils in a class. Over enrolment causes teachers to just read aloud to learners to provide a model of fluent reading and learners do not have chance to read due to the shortage of books in class.

5.5 Measures Teachers Take to Support Learners with Specific Oral Reading Fluency Challenges

In the fourth research question teachers were required to present measures they take to help learners with specific oral reading fluency challenges. Data for this objective was obtained from interviews with the teachers. The following were the responses from the teachers.

5.5.1 “Made by Fwebene” Programme.

Teachers from Copperbelt schools cited a programme called ‘Made by Fwebene’ programme. This is a district programme used by teachers to help learners with difficulties in reading. Teachers said that the programme was used to give remedial work to such learners by using below-grade-level books to teach reading to Grade 5 learners. In this programme, they said,

learners are taught how to blend vowels to the consonants. Participants also said that they also asked learners to read grade 4 story books.

To emphasise the point, one Participant said.

> *We follow a district programme called 'Fwebene' to teach remedial work in reading. We teach the vowel sounds /a/ /e/ /i/ /o/ /u/ and then teach pupils to blend with consonants. Pupils read the syllabic chart like the one below* (the teacher produced syllabic chart printed on a card as evidence. The card was laminated and was securely kept on the shelf. The teacher also displayed two grade 4 books).

Table 5.1 'Made by fwebene' syllabic chart.

	VOWELS					
CONSONANTS		a	e	i	o	u
	b	ba	be	bi	bo	bu
	c	ca	ce	ci	co	cu
	d	da	de	di	do	du
	f	fa	fe	fi	fo	fu
	g	ga	ge	gi	go	Gu
	h	ha	he	hi	ho	hu
	j	ja	je	ji	jo	ju
	k	ka	ke	ki	ko	ku
	l	la	le	li	lo	lu
	m	ma	me	mi	mo	mu
	n	na	ne	ni	no	nu
	p	pa	pe	pi	po	pu
	r	ra	re	ri	ro	ru
	s	sa	se	si	so	su
	t	ta	te	ti	to	tu
	v	va	ve	vi	vo	vu
	w	wa	we	wi	wo	wu

One participant displayed the syllabic chart and explained that they used it to read with the learners. Using the syllabic chart, learners were expected to revise the vowel sounds, /a/ /e/ /i/ /o/ /u/ from the chart. Learners revised the consonants or the remaining letters of the alphabet b-z. The task was to allow learners use the syllables from the chart to form different words. The participants said that they used this strategy on learners who were unable to read in grade 5 as remedial work.

5.5.2 'Catch Up' Programme, using Teaching at the Right Level Methodology.

The second programme that was suggested by participants from Lusaka schools was the 'According to the participants, 'Catch Up' programme is the Ministry of General Education intervention that allows using the Teaching at the Right Level methodology. This methodology focuses on teaching basic skills in literacy and numeracy to learners in grades three, four, and five based on evidence from researcher's network. This programme involves teachers assessing learners accurately and grouping learners by ability and generally taught as expected, with learners handling simple materials.

When giving this information, one participant passionately said,

> *We use Catch up on learners in grades 2, 3, 4, and 5 to teach them literacy and numeracy. In literacy we prepare lessons for learners who have difficulties to read and teach them separately before the lessons begin. We use empty classes or movable boards and teach them even under a tree. We teach them sounds then they blend the sounds to form words.*

The participant added by complaining about change of reading programmes and spoke,

> *Ba Ministry balacinja-cinja ama programmes lyonse. Kuti tatulapwisha iiyi, baletako fimbi. Mulebeba baleleka twamona ifyo programme yabomba elyo twaya kulifimbi. This confuses both learners and the teachers. (The Ministry changes programmes before we see how the one, we are using is working. Tell them to stop changing programmes anyhow).*

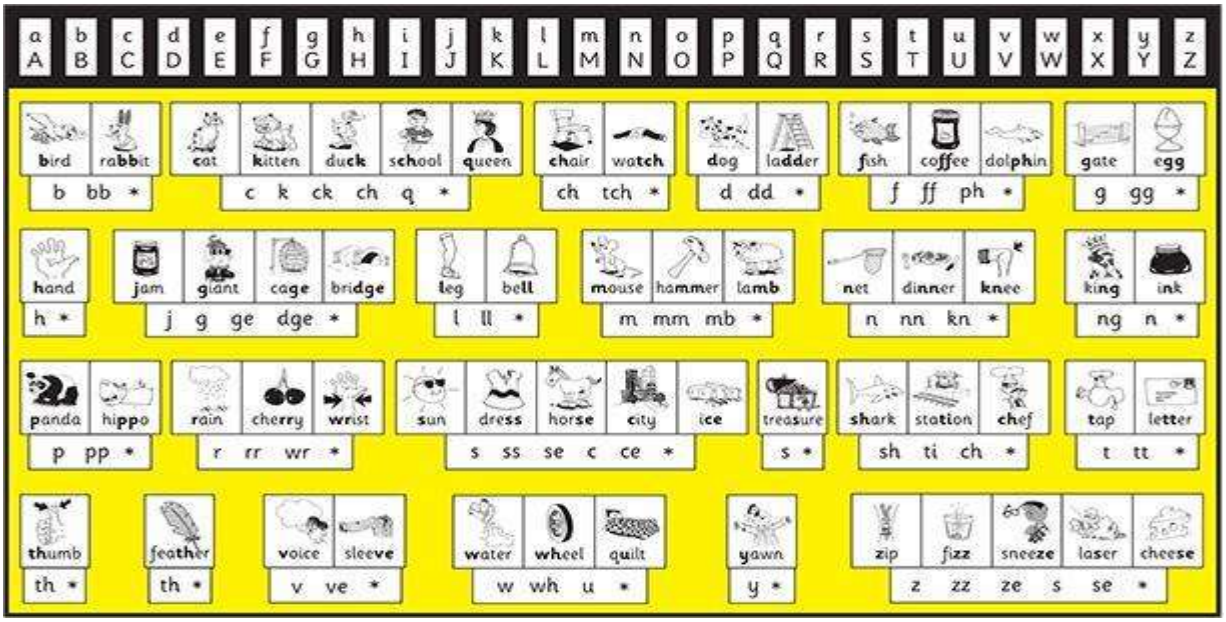
Participants explained that in reading, teachers first assess learners and pace them according to their performance. This allows teachers to teach learners different activities according to their performance. These lessons are conducted before the actual lessons as remedial work. Then after teaching them, they are again assessed to see if they have improved or not.

Catch Up in progress - Teacher assessing a grade 5 learner in reading at a school in Lusaka.

5.5.3 THRASS Programme

Participants from Livingstone in Southern province recommended the use of a programme called 'THRASS' to teach oral reading fluency. The acronym 'THRASS' stands for 'Teaching Handwriting Reading and Spelling Skills'. This programme encourages teachers to teach phonics to learners who have difficulties is reading and help them in spellings. The teachers said that if the programme can be used in grade 5, it can help learners facing challenges in fluency. During the interviews, one participant displayed the sample of a THRASS chart below.

Figure 5.1 THRASS Chart



The Participant also said that,

> *THRASS Programme must be introduced which is the Teaching Handwriting Reading and Spelling Skills. Children listen and follow along with audio recording. The children learn phonics by practicing sight words using playful activities like songs.*

Another participant recommended the idea of engaging learners in a lot of free reading and reading a variety of books and pointed out that,

> *Children can do a lot of free reading, but a variety of reading books is required when we use THRASS Programme.*

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter has presented the findings of the study on teacher practices of teaching oral reading fluency to Grade 5 learners in selected primary schools of Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone towns of Zambia. All the findings were qualitatively presented, including findings that were presented with basic statistics and graphs. The next chapter will present a discussion of the findings.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSIONS

6.0 Overview

The previous chapter presented findings regarding teachers' pedagogic practices of teaching oral reading fluency (ORF) in selected Grade 5 classrooms in Zambia. The purpose was to investigate teachers' views on teaching ORF, how ORF is taught in grade 5 classrooms and strategies teachers use to teach ORF. Further, the study hoped to establish any challenges learners face when reading connected text in English and to find out measures that teachers take to support learners with specific ORF challenges. This chapter will now present a discussion of findings in reference to literature and theories presented in earlier chapters to reflect, confirm, and extend the current knowledge base around ORF as a pedagogical practice. The discussion is presented under four research objectives of the study and have been discussed separately under four headings. Below is the discussion of the findings:

6.1 Teachers' Views on Teaching Oral Reading Fluency in Grade 5.

It is clear from the findings that teachers do not teach oral reading fluency (ORF) in Grade 5 classrooms. The teachers view ORF as just a foundation skill that is only taught in lower grades (1-4) and not in upper grades (5-7). This was evident from teachers' verbatims indicating that they did not teach ORF because it is a foundation skill that is taught in lower primary grades. It is also clear from the findings that teachers view ORF as a skill which has three components namely, speed, accuracy, and prosody (expression). This was evident from teachers' definition of ORF as the ability to read text quickly, accurately, and with expression. Teachers also view ORF as an important skill for learners' reading comprehension. This was also evident during interviews when teachers agreed that fluency is very important as an indication that learners are capable of comprehending what they read, and it helps them to answer comprehension questions. This study has also established that teachers do not assess ORF because they do not teach it in grade 5 classes. This was evident during interviews when teachers expressed ignorance on assessment of ORF to grade 5 learners. They indicated that they do not know when and how ORF is assessed because they do not teach it to grade 5 learners.

Results in this study are an indication that teachers have basic knowledge about ORF. They have dictionary meaning of fluency and they acknowledge its importance, but they deny its power on struggling learners in grade 5 classrooms by not teaching it. Teachers have content knowledge of what ORF is and they understand its importance in reading, but they lack deep pedagogical understanding of how it is taught, when it is taught and how it is assessed. They lack deep understanding that pedagogy is as the vehicle that develops the skills of ORF and that it can be taught even to Grade 5 learners in primary schools of Zambia. From the answers given during interviews, we can tell that teachers also understand that oral reading fluency is an activity that entails reading aloud, observing punctuations, and showing expressions while reading. They also understand that oral reading fluency is a measure that addresses accuracy and involves a learner reading smoothly and correctly with less effort or the ability to effortlessly translate letters to sound words, but they fail to translate this knowledge into how it can be taught to learners. Evidence on the importance of pedagogy is summarised by Schwartz, (2009) who concluded that 'the most important school-related factor in student learning... is teaching'. This means that teachers pedagogic knowledge play an important role in the learning process of learners. This is in line with Husbands & Pearce (2011) who emphasised that effective pedagogies depend on behaviour (what teachers do), knowledge and understanding (what teachers know) and beliefs (why teachers act as they do). Effective pedagogies embed assessment for learning. Literature considers pedagogy as the method and practice of teaching that can help and guide with instructions used. This is supported by Samosa (2021) who said, "Pedagogical innovation may serve as a steppingstone to ameliorate students' poor reading comprehension, attitude, and engagement". This implies that teachers with the pedagogic knowledge would utilize their knowledge to help interact in scaffolding collaborative learning approaches in reading sessions to improve learners' academic performance. The other implication is that, since pedagogy refers to all levels of teaching, from nursery and primary, all the way up to higher education, oral reading fluency also has its own pedagogy to be taught at primary school or even secondary school where learners struggle with reading. Fluency was once the "neglected reading goal" (Allington, 1983) but today this view is no longer the case because there has been an increased interest in developing fluency and research findings confirming the guided reading approaches in developing comprehension (Stahl, Flanigan & Mc, 2020).

These results also suggests that teachers have a misconception about fluency being taught only as a foundation course in lower primary schools. Significantly, teachers' views obtained in this study differs with literature (Honig, Diamond, & Gutlohn, 2018; NICHD, 2000; Rasinski, 2004) who regard ORF as a foundational literacy skill and an essential component of comprehension and that deficiency in this foundational aspect of reading prevents learners from adequately comprehending texts. Reading fluency is essential in literacy development because the reader must possess the ability to accurately and automatically decode words to read sentences in a text (Rasinski, 2006). When the reader does not read fluently the voice does not sound natural. According to Ehri's theory of stages of reading development, if fluency problems are not addressed in the early grades, problems will likely hinder learners' educational progress in subsequent years. Fluent readers read connected text accurately, at a natural rate, and with appropriate prosody. Fluency has been a focus of elementary reading instruction for decades, and recent research suggests that it is also a significant variable in secondary students' reading and overall academic development (Chard, 2012; Rasinski et al., 2005; Rasinski, Reutzel, Chard, & Thompson, 2011; Rasinski, Rikli, & Johnston, 2009). Therefore, non-teaching of ORF in Grade 5 might be an explanation to why learners still face challenges comprehending what they read. Fluency does not stand on itself but works in connection with other skills and all aspects of fluency should be connected to comprehension (assessment and instruction). Therefore, lack of knowledge on assessment of ORF by teachers may be an indication why teachers fail to come up with appropriate instructions necessary to promote reading fluency among learners in grade 5. The way we assess fluency and the way we teach fluency should be connected to comprehension because emerging empirical evidence shows a strong correlation between teachers' knowledge of essential components of the reading process and classroom practice, and students' reading performance (Binks-Cantrell et al., 2012).

Therefore, our argument in this study on Research Objective 1 is that if literacy is taught at any level of learning where reading and writing lessons are taught then ORF skills must be taught, too (ZECF, 2012: Washburn, 2022). We further argue that since learners in primary schools of Zambia "learn to read" in local familiar languages at lower primary school level (1-4), they should also be taught to "read to learn" with fluency at upper primary level (5-7) in English language. And this goes with appropriate and effective instruction at each level. Lack of pedagogic knowledge by teachers may result in failure to develop the ability to recognise or

decode words correctly, to read connected text quickly and accurately with expression (Hudson et al., 2005). Literature reviewed in this study also support the suggestion that fluency is considered as the bridge between word recognition and comprehension (Armbruster et al., 2001; Pikulski & Chard, 2005; Walczyk & Griffith-Ross, 2007). Therefore, ORF must be acknowledged at every educational level, and it should be regarded as a crucial component and a tool for academic success.

We further argue that learners need to attain a certain fluency level to succeed in their reading development for successful reading. This may be attained through assessment of ORF as this may be a reliable way that would help teachers to distinguish between fluent and non-fluent readers and informs instruction. One possible reason for poor comprehension abilities among most learners could is due to teachers' failure to assess oral reading fluency and failure to implement clear reading fluency instructions. Therefore, a comprehensive reading programme should integrate reading assessments that measure students' skills at the beginning of the programme (Rasinski (2004); Tindal et al., 2016) to help teachers determine the fluency instruction that works best for the learners' needs and abilities. Through this study, teachers have been presented with different pedagogic approaches, practices and strategies that can be used to teach and assess oral reading fluency in grade 5 classrooms and to the entire primary school. This argument is supported by Moats who said, "Give teachers the Knowledge they need to make an impact on every young learner (Moats, 2020:2).

6.2 Strategies Teachers use and How They Teach Oral Reading Fluency to Grade 5 Learners.

During interviews, teachers said that they use read-alouds, repeated readings, reading story books below grade below, guided reading with appropriate expressions while observing punctuations, pair reading, and group reading as strategies to teach oral reading fluency. These findings were only evident from the interviews with teachers. However, teachers' responses were not consistent with the findings established during lesson observations in all selected Grade 5 classrooms which is a normal occurrence in research studies. Teachers were not using the fluency strategies suggested during the interviews, but they just used some of the activities like word cards to teach comprehension. After a close analysis into teachers teaching documents like

syllabus, the schemes of work and the lesson plans there was no evidence of teachers teaching ORF strategies in Grade 5 classrooms. Teachers were teaching and testing comprehension instead of ORF. It was also clear that even the syllabus is silent on teaching ORF in upper primary grades. The syllabus briefly mentions that learners must read fluently but does not give any guidance on how learners read fluently or how fluency can be attained. These results confirm the allegations we made in chapter one of this study that apart from professional speculations, no study has been done on pedagogic practices that teachers must follow to teach ORF. Professionals and educators are hopeful that every learner must be fluent but have not given learners a pathway to the attainment of the fluency skills.

Further, these results put into question the notion that teachers said they use these ORF strategies, but they do not teach ORF, and they did not use any of the strategies during lesson observations. These findings confirm what was earlier established that teachers lack instructional knowledge of how to use the strategies to promote fluency skills among learners. The inconsistence in these findings is related to psychologists David Dunning and Justin Kruger's Dunning-Kruger effect (1999). The Dunning-Kruger effect is a cognitive bias in which people who are unskilled in a particular task overestimate their own abilities. In this instance, the dunning-Kruger effect might be an explanation to teachers' knowing the strategies for teaching oral reading fluency and to speak of their importance but failing to demonstrate how to use them in class due to lack of pedagogical knowledge. The root cause of this effect is thought to be lack of self-awareness or metacognition, combined with lack of knowledge or experience in the task in question. This can lead to a lack of knowledge or experience in the task in question. This can lead to a lack of understanding of one's own limitations, and a tendency to overestimate one's abilities and the ease of completing a task. Additionally, the Dunning-Kruger effect is often seen in individuals who have a high level of confidence in their own abilities but lack the actual ability to perform the task they are attempting. In this case, teachers agreed that they use ORF strategies but in practice they do not actually use them. This might be that the teacher is not fully aware of their own behaviour and is overestimating their use of the strategies. Another possibility could be that the teacher may be aware of the strategies but faces barriers to implementing them effectively. In this instance, they may lack the necessary resources or support to properly incorporate the strategies into their teaching, or they may have competing demands

on their time and attention that prevent them from fully integrating the strategies into their practice coming from policy concerning the curriculum.

From the lesson observations, it was clear that teachers use flash cards, word cards and reading charts to teach comprehension in grade five classes. For instance, the charts and word cards teachers were used to discuss difficult words from the comprehension text could be used to practice fluency for about ten minutes before they could read the passage. These findings are supported by Rasinski (2006) whose study found that teachers used charts which had handwritten sentences with mixed words of different levels of difficult. The study found that reading fluency started with the teacher exposing learners to words of the day which would be found in the passage using a chart. After that, learners read the words with pronunciation accuracy and intonation in reading. When this procedure was followed, some learners were able to read the passage with enough fluency in class while others failed to read fluently. Tracey and Morrow (2012) states that to elicit desirable behaviour calls for exposing learners to a given stimuli which they must respond to so that they can be prove acquisition of a given skill. By exposing learners to difficult words contained in the passage, the learners are meant to adopt new behaviour and quickly read the words so that they can show fluency in the passage and thereby lead to content comprehension. Through charts with targeted words from the passage, desirable behaviour in the form of reading fluency is achieved in the reading class which results in higher comprehension levels. Our argument on this result is that strategies and activities which teachers used in comprehension lessons could be extended to accommodate oral reading fluency practice. Learners should be given ample time of about 8-10 minutes to practice fluency skills during comprehension lessons.

The study established that teachers used flash cards to enable learners acquire reading fluency. Though this was in comprehension lessons, there can be an extension to accommodate teacher modelling to the learners the pronunciation of difficult words on flash cards. This activity could help learners become fluent in their reading when they know and practice pronunciation of difficult words in the passage and enhanced comprehension. These findings are supported by Chard et al., (2012) who established that the use of role cards at a higher grade influenced individual reading faster than pointing at learners. Further, the study found that the use of word cards is a good teaching activity that could compel learners to read the passage at a minimal pace

to match their grade level. Chard et al., further supported that when teachers used role and cue cards, the learners were able to read better than when these strategies were not used. In addition, it was learnt that the use of role and cure cards resulted in learners reaching their reading and word automatisation in their reading of classroom passages. When learners are exposed to the new words in the passage, they become more confident to read the passage since they know that they would not make errors. With such confidence at hand, learners can easily understand the passage and make meaning from it.

The other strategy which the study established to be useful in the teaching of oral reading fluency was the exposure of learners to the reading of story books which were below their grade level. The teacher's emphasis was on the punctuation and telling stories on the pictures which were exposed to them. Pictures are part of the teaching materials which are used to enhance the learner's retention of materials in the short term from selected story books. By making learners read the story books frequently, they managed to become fluent even after exposing them to their grade level materials and managed to punctuate their reading with accuracy better than before. Binder (2013) agrees to the findings by stating that teachers used some story books which were a grade below at times to make learners read with emphasis on punctuation. Some selected songs were also used in class for specific punctuation practice. The study also found that teachers used specific phrases on specific charts to teach the dominant punctuation of the day. The teacher had a bank for charts for practicing question marks, comma, exclamation marks and direct speech, among others. Lower grade level books help learners build their reading skills from the lower comprehension skills to higher ones as well as fluency. The continuous use of the lower grade level reading materials helps learners to build the basic foundations of language or grammar which is later used to read grade level complex passages. Therefore, it should be noted that pictures and lower grade level books enable learners to have confidence and develop word attack strategies for their grade level reading and in turn they build comprehension skills in what they read.

Comprehension of words and passage is associated with the learner's ability to make known of the meaning of the words. Teachers used specific phrases on specific charts to teach the dominant punctuation of the day so that learners can read the passage with fluency. The study found that the teachers used charts for practicing question marks, comma, exclamation marks

and direct speech among others so that when the learners came across these punctuation marks, they should be able to read with the correct punctuation in school. These findings are supported by Courbron (2012) who noted that in ensuring that the learners were well trained, the teacher used demonstration on reading without pointing fingers to train learners on how to read without showing body movements linguistically known as prosody or reading with expression. This reading strategy also made the teacher to demonstrate to learners on how to read by reading slowly to the learners and ensuring that the punctuation is correctly followed. With this demonstration, the teacher was now able to ask learners to read slowly without touching the passage and its lines. Readers who used fingers to read the passage failed to punctuate their reading effectively thereby making the listeners fail to make meaning of the passage. Consistent to the findings, Rasinski (2014) holds that if the student pronounces the word incorrectly, the teacher should correct (scaffold) the student's pronunciation. This can happen by providing sufficient opportunities to pronounce the word repeatedly until the student has perfected it. In making learners read the passage with fluency and enable them to understand it, there was need for the teachers to ensure they build the mastery of the punctuation reading behaviour in them so that it becomes automatic in the passage. In this case, learners adopt a good reading behaviour which make them comprehend the passage better than before.

The study further established that the teacher used read aloud strategy for the sake of making learners master what was being taught on that day. The study found that the dominant punctuation marks of the day were read aloud by the teacher so that the learners could read fluently after the teacher and repeat the punctuation for the sake of mastering it. The continuous rehearsal by the learners made them understand the passage and since the reading was with easy. These findings are supported by Kuhn (2005) that this method of repeated reading allows students to focus on the main components of reading fluency including accuracy, automaticity, prosody, and they read following the punctuation which is in the passage. When given the opportunity to read text multiple times, children can focus on the aspect of fluency rather than decoding, which ultimately leads to increased reading comprehension since they are able to punctuate effectively in their reading for meaning making. Read aloud strategy, though it sounds colonial, can improve the learner's ability to remember, model and master the pronunciation of the target words at hand. Padak and Rasinski (2008) states that a modelled behaviour brings about accuracy in word pronunciation and correct word meaning is realised at the end. Therefore,

read aloud strategy brings learning with easy since words are explained, and their meaning is known thereby making a passage comprehensible.

The study findings established that rereading with model enabled the teachers to teach learners oral reading fluency and facilitated learner comprehension of the passage. In ensuring that oral fluency was taught to learners, and they read fluently the given passage, the teachers isolated difficult words from a passage, the teacher read, and learners followed by group reading, pair reading and individual reading. To these findings, Samuels (1979) states that although comprehension may be poor with the first reading of a text and increases with each rereading. Hence, teachers should use the repeated reading strategy more often to enable learners reach automatisation in text recognition. The study concluded that the method of repeated reading improves both fluency and comprehension through chorusing, practicing, prior reading of words before the main reading and syllabic reading of the same word. Fluency in this case comes with continuous practice of reading different words with varying difficulty. With routine explanation, learners can comprehend the passage with easy.

Some findings from classroom observations suggest that some teachers did not read the passage for the learners before they could read on their own. It was also found that unfamiliar or new words were not explained to the learners before they could read the passage. Further, vocabulary was not taught to the learners based on the text to reinforce the understanding of the words which needed defining. Learners read at their own pace, and they were not fluent enough to meet the grade level. Despite the findings suggesting that teachers failed to use appropriate teaching strategies to ensure reading fluency was taught to learners, Alshehri (2014) presented a divergent view. He stated that after the teacher isolated and explained the words which were difficult for the learners, the learners were able to read the text and passage at a faster rate than the learners who read the passage without discussing vocabulary or difficult words. The study concluded that the reading aloud strategy showed positive effects on the development and improvement of Saudi students' comprehension. The participants were able to connect their own experiences and personal knowledge with the daily texts to share their opinions and demonstrate a high level of understanding. With the teacher's inability to teach vocabulary, this leads to slow reading and lack of effective understanding of the read contents.

The study further established that the teacher used class reading and later narrowed down to individual reading of the text so that they can answer comprehension questions. In the oral reading fluency extension, learners can learn to pronounce and master the meaning of the text when they practice reading target words on flash cards. This strategy may help learners become fluent as they would not get stuck whilst reading. These findings are supported by Ravid and Mashraki (2007) whose study found that teachers used chorus reading by making the class to practice reading the words through chorusing before they could read them as individuals. This helps learners not to get stuck as they read because they would have the knowledge of the spellings and pronunciation of the words which are in the passage. With such a teaching strategy, the class was able to develop pronunciation accuracy and spelling at the same time as a class and as individuals before they could read to partners and as individuals. Oral reading fluency and comprehension should be developed in every individual learner through group practice because in groups, learners are able to listen to how others are pronouncing words and either learn from them or control them. With the individual reading strategies, learners then able to practice on their own as individuals the reading for understanding. Consistent with the findings is LaBerge and Samuels (1974) who believed that teachers should ensure that students recognise all the letters in the early stage of reading through repeated reading. Letter recognitions also help learners to read the passage with fluency at their grade level so that they can understand what they are reading about. For this reason, these strategies were relevant to the teaching of reading fluency in the Zambian schools as the provided teachers with enablers for building on the learners.

Despite other teachers using the different reading strategies to teach oral reading fluency in teaching comprehension, the study further established that in some schools, teachers did not allow learners to read the passage loudly to enable them to master the spellings and pronunciations of the words they encountered in the passage. This demonstrate that teachers in some schools did not use the repeated and rereading strategies like read aloud, among others, to make learners become fluent readers and consequently comprehend the passage. These findings concur with Benjamin and Schwanenflugel (2010) who argued that despite teachers stating that they used choral reading in their classes, it was established that learners did not read the passage loudly to enable them to master the spellings and pronunciations of the words they encountered in the passage. Even after the few readers read the passage, the teacher did not try to have other

learners try to read the same passage. In addition, Sajid and Fraidan (2019) contends that there was a relationship between loud reading strategy and the learner's ability to master the word spellings and fluent reading of a text in a foreign language.

The study further found that there was a direct relationship between learner's ability to recognise sight words and correct pronunciation of the same work when teachers read words loudly before the passage was read individually. Therefore, in cases where the teachers did not use the needed teaching strategies to teach reading comprehension and oral reading fluency, learners were unable to read fluently and comprehend the passage they read. Significantly, the roles of drilling, repetition, and error correction are vital in the previous approaches. The foregoing does not agree with automaticity theory which calls teachers to ensure that they drill learners in certain roles, make them repeat concepts or words and teacher correct errors so that they become fluent in their reading and word attach approaches. Teaching oral fluency should make the teacher inculcate the reading mannerism which should make learners improve their speed of reading speed which contribute the learner's reading comprehension.

The study findings established that in some schools, even after the few readers read the passage, the teacher did not try to have other learners try to read the same passage. The selected few readers also read in a low voice and the teacher asked the learners to keenly follow the reading through their textbooks. This reading pattern can be seen to be none progressive because fluency can only be attained by learners if all learners are able to practice the reading as individuals in class repeatedly. Kuhn (2005) supports those repeated readings are effective because rather than encountering new text, readers are given the opportunity to repeatedly read a given text until they can read it fluently with mastery. This gives them an opportunity to make them master the words and comprehend the passage. It can further be agreed that repeated practice of reading will improve accuracy and automaticity in word recognition and this stand to prove that repeated oral readings with feedback are effective in improving reading skills in second language teaching. Repeated reading also increases reading comprehension because with each reading, students are working on decoding, and eventually the decoding barrier to comprehension is overcome (Samuels, 1979). In doing so, teachers have the role of exposing learners to progressive reading strategies which can be used to make learners practice reading so that they can be fluent enough to develop behaviours of automaticity and comprehension of passages.

The study established teachers' claims that they use partner reading as a teaching strategy to enhance learner reading fluency in the classrooms. Indeed, partner reading works well with small classes because it is these small classes that help the teacher control the activities and ensure that everyone is participating. Armbruster et al. (2001) support the findings that by using guided oral instruction, reading fluency can also increase through reading with a partner after the teacher reads. Some techniques include choral, echo, phrase, and punctuation reading. It is also significant to ensure that the teachers use the available texts which are enablers to make the learner's minds be captivated and read the passages as partners. To this, Ertem (2010) suggests that electronic texts with animation may improve reading comprehension in students reading below grade level when they are reading with a partner and retelling a story to themselves. As much as this strategy is very relevant and make partners read the passage with friendly corrections leading to fluency increase, Meisinger (2010) argues that the challenge was the scarcity of reading textbooks resulted into learners' not practicing partner reading in the English lessons. This leads to selected reading of the passage in the Zambian schools. It was also observed that no reading of passage multiple times was observed in class and no speed, accuracy or expression was recorded during the reading time in the lesson.

Consistent with the findings, TeachSafeSchools (2014) and Kailani (1998) stated that the teacher should pre-read the story/book and highlight the words that are key to understanding the story/book. The teacher should relate the story/book to the students' previous knowledge by asking them some questions pertaining to the story/book. The reader should read the story/book once without interruption and the teacher should read the text more than once because reading the same text several times will help the students comprehend. It can be concluded that reading fluency is habit formation and these habits should enable the learners to reach reading fluency. Ehri (2002) argues that considering factors that can affect students' progress in oral reading fluency, he pointed out that having knowledgeable teachers is critical to build a strong foundation of literacy skills. The teacher's role has come to be important in the teaching of comprehension and reading fluency. It should be realised that reading fluency comes with word familiarisation and consistent practice of reading with friends and colleagues in class or at home with supervision. Therefore, literacy teachers need knowledge of how fluency develops and the instructional practices that support fluency's development for their classrooms. They also need details on how they can assess fluency and modify instruction to meet the needs of all learners

including those whose first language is not the language of instruction or those with special educational needs.

6.3 Challenges Teachers find among Learners Reading Connected Text in English

It is clear from the study that learners face difficulties when reading connected text in English. The study established that some learners pronounce certain English words in Zambian languages, they have difficulties pronouncing some English words, they stammer when reading in English and fail to decode to relate letters of the alphabet to English sounds. Learners have difficulties to understand English. They sometimes use direct translation from Zambian to English resulting in difficulties comprehending what they read. Learners have spellings challenge sight words and long words in English. It was clear that learners have challenges decoding words in English, and they read text without appropriate phrasing and without appropriate intonation/expression. It was established that some learners were failing to observe punctuation as they read the text. It was also established that some learners made errors on multisyllabic words. Learners have difficulties in blending English sounds and syllables. It was established that some learners were omitting words, skipping lines and they made self-corrections as they read the text. These findings continue to reflect that of several other findings (Mwanamukubi, 2013; Banda, Tambulukani & Chabala, 2012); Chipili, 2016; Baseline Report, 2018; Ndila, 2019; Mulenga et al., 2020; Kaani, et al., 2022).

It is clear from the findings that teachers face challenges to teach oral reading fluency because of Lack of reading materials like books to read in schools, the syllabus and pupils' books do not correspond. Lack of reading books would also be the cause of not teaching oral reading fluency. It was also established that over enrolment of learners is another challenge hindering teachers to teach oral reading fluency. Most learners do not have much contact with books because they are often too many pupils in a class and too few books to go round. Shortage of books and over enrolment may have led to teachers reading aloud to learners, Modeling fluent reading without not allowing learners to practice reading individually. It was also established from interview that teachers found it difficult to teach fluency in English because of learners did not transition well from local Zambian languages to English. Regardless of the cause, it is important for teachers to be honest with themselves and their colleagues about their teaching practices and to continually strive to improve their skills and knowledge. If a teacher is struggling to implement certain

strategies, they should seek out resources and support to help them overcome these challenges and improve their teaching practice.

According to literature, learners with ORF problems in English are often with automaticity where learners are dysfluent with slow and labored reading, frequent stopping at unknown words, lacking expression appropriate to the meaning in oral reading. They have inefficient or inaccurate decoding of unfamiliar words. Fluent readers do not have to concentrate on decoding the words, they can focus their attention on the meaning of the text. They can make connections among the ideas in the text and their background knowledge. In other words, fluent readers recognize words and comprehend at the same time. However**,** learners reading text in English as the second language like in a case of Zambia, face various kinds of challenges such as cognitive factors, linguistic factors, and affective factors (Wang, 2014). The ability to fluently read a text is called reading fluency. Those who can read a text with accuracy, smoothness, and with expression are said to be fluent readers. Reading aloud with smoothness, ease, and correct pronunciation is known as oral reading fluency. Fluency Matters because it is described as a set of foundational skills that are essential to developing literacy. In short, fluency makes reading easier because learners who are fluent in reading will struggle less with difficult words and will more easily comprehend complex texts. A reader who must focus his or her attention on decoding words may not have enough mental energy left over to think about the meaning of the text. However, a fluent reader who can automatically decode the words can instead give full attention to comprehending the text. Even though teachers were not teaching oral reading fluency, the non-fluent challenges were noticed during reading comprehension lessons where few learners read the text for comprehension purposes.

6.4 Measures Teachers Take to Support Learners with Specific ORF Challenges.

It is clear from the findings that teachers use various programs as measures to support learners with specific reading fluency challenges. One group of teachers use ‘Catch Up’ programme, the other group use ‘Made by Fwebene’ programme while the other use THRASS methodology. The study also established that apart from the three programs, teachers also use books below learners’ grade level (grade 4) as a measure to support learners with reading fluency challenges.

This study established that ‘Made by Fwebene’ program is a syllabic method that teachers use to teach learners with reading difficulties in grade 5. It is used on learners who did not break

through to read and write in local familiar languages. It is a form of remedial program that focuses on teaching phonics mainly in local familiar languages in which learners are taught to blend vowels to the consonants. Literature on these findings dictates that the syllabic method is a method that starts teaching reading at the beginning by presenting words that have been arranged into syllables, the last word stringing the words into sentences (Suyadi, 2020). This method works well as it allows children to start by getting familiar with the spellings and sounds and to end up being able to read a text, and not only that, but also to understand it. It also favours autonomous learning to write sentences, clauses, and even short texts. Teaching students the syllable types help them understand how to break longer words into manageable parts. It allows them to read longer words more accurately and fluently, helps to build their confidence as readers, and gives them a strategy for attacking these longer, more challenging words. Similar results on the syllabic method were found by Alagbela (2021) which showed that the challenges that teachers face regarding the use of the syllabic method are multifaceted. Therefore, he proposed that the syllabic method can be used as an effective instructional strategy that could improve the reading skills of pupils. Incorporation of the syllabic method of teaching with other methods of teaching could help pupils overcome their reading difficulties.

The use of 'Catch Up' programme is in line with the Ministry of General Education (MoE) as an intervention that allows using the Teaching at the Right Level methodology. From the findings, we realized that this methodology focuses on teaching basic skills in literacy and numeracy to learners in grades 3 to 5 based on evidence from researcher's network. However, we established that this programme involves teachers assessing learners accurately and grouping learners by ability and generally taught as expected, with learners handling simple materials based on learning outcomes in which the learners did breakthrough within a term (Zulu (2021). Similar findings on Catch Up programme considered this as a better methodology for remedial teaching to learners struggling in literacy and numeracy (Chulu & Chitondo 2022). Catch Up lessons are conducted outside the main timetable as it is not formally timetabled. This method teachers use could work well when used with activities to promote text in English.

We also established that THRASS methodology is used to teach phonics at word level to learners who have difficulties reading and help them with spellings (Condy, et al., 2010). Our argument is that fluency teaching at word level is necessary but should also be done in context and within

texts. Phonics had been recognized by the Ministry of education as a key instrument to improve English teaching and learning (Siik & Hawkins, 2013). The potential effectiveness of THRASS will depend upon how the resources are used. Teachers will need to determine the degree of explicit instruction according to the individual needs of students. Not all students will require the same amount or same methods of instruction. It is also important that phonics do not dominate instruction. The THRASS methodology should be carefully balanced with literature based, functional and whole language approaches. THRASS can be used as an accelerant tool for some of our struggling readers and how it can be successfully incorporated in Programmes for our special needs students. The flexible, multisensory, and interactive nature of THRASS resources and methodology caters well for the varying abilities and demands of differentiated learners. We see THRASS as a new strategy in providing our differentiated learners with a tried-and-true tool to accelerate student learning in all areas of language. Our argument in this study is that insufficient time and practice reading connected text with accuracy once basic decoding is secured. Insufficient exposure to and practice with fluent, expressive oral reading. A core problem with processing speed/orthographic processing which affects speed and accuracy of printed world recognition (Moats & Tolman, 2019).

The findings on the three Programmes are inconsistent with literature on measures teachers use to teach learners with different fluency challenges. Our argument is that ORF is better thought of as an outcome of multiple and not as an independent reading process. This is because when the lower level reading skills function in a synchronous and efficient manner, it results in smooth, expressive reading that's critical to understanding text (Paige, 2020). Fluency is the effortless, automatic ability to read words in connected text and a fluent reader reads with expression and appropriate inflection. Fluent reading means a learner is reading text accurately and at a sufficient pace so that comprehension is not impeded. Therefore, learners should be taught explicitly to read fluently. Fluency instruction means attention to four elements: accuracy, rate, prosody, and meaning (National Literacy Framework, Zambia MESVTEE, 2013:9).

When we consider Scarborough reading rope, we should understand that fluency is demonstrated by the tightly woven part of the rope. The tightly woven part of the rope is the representation of fluent execution and coordination of word recognition and text comprehension. That is the target of reading that allows reading comprehension. So, if our goal is that tightly woven rope in fluent

reading, then we should remember that the development of reading fluency starts early. Fluency develops in progressions and skilled development becoming the individual skills becoming fluent and automatic. The passage level fluency starts early with accuracy then automaticity at the letter, letter-pattern, sound level and word levels plus semantic and syntactic process at word and phrase level (Wolf & Katzir-Cohen, 2001). Therefore, to rid of the various challenges in learners, we can start with accuracy for each of these component skills and then we try to move towards instructional practice to automaticity at those individual skill levels and then we hope that this leads to passage level fluency.

This study focused on passage reading fluency defined as reasonably accurate reading at an appropriate pace/rate with suitable expression that leads to accurate and deep comprehension and motivation (Hasbrouck & Glaser 2019: NRP, 2000). Fluency is not automatic, but it has often been described as a bridge to comprehension. Though it does not guarantee comprehension but rather the stuff that needs to happen. However, if learners have no fluency, they may not have comprehension. This means that accuracy needs to be established first in fluency progression if we do not want to lose a connection in comprehension. Accuracy saves as the foundation of fluency for successful independent reading and remains an important component of fluency starting from first grade up to other reading levels. Suitable expressions, which is primarily an outcome of comprehension rather than contributing to comprehension, implies that one does not use suitable expression if they do not know the meaning of a word. One would not know when to smile, laugh or do any expression if they do not know the meaning of the words they are reading. Lastly, prosodic competence is best seen as making an indirect contribution to reading and reading comprehension" (Wade-Woolley et al., 2021).

Dealing with challenges learners face when reading connected text in English, teachers must consider all the three components of fluency together with all mechanics of fluency such as: word decoding skills: phonemic awareness, letter sounds, phonographs: text decoding skills: orthographic knowledge, sight words, decoding connected text, multiple cue efficiency and comprehension skills: Metacognition, content knowledge, vocabulary, passage context, social context that makes fluency complex. So, this is where a below benchmark of word score of number of words read correctly per minute should trigger some diagnostic assessments to make sure that all those other things are in place and then we can use some intervention time to

appropriately target what that student need and continue to work with them through all those skills together to develop their passage reading fluency. The teacher can work on all the problematic skills individually rather than just practicing how to read faster.

To support learners with fluency challenges, teachers may use repeated reading, a useful technique when instructing students to read fluently when it is combined with partner reading. This is because as partners, they would correct themselves to ensure they gain enough reading fluency (Armbruster et al., 2001; Hudson et al., 2005; Kuhn, 2004; Rasinski, 2006). Repeated reading is a successful fluency strategy in increasing reading comprehension and should be a major focus of instruction among students (Cotter, 2012). Repeated practice of reading would improve accuracy and automaticity in word recognition and that would stand to prove reading skills in second language teaching (Kuhn (2005). Repeated reading also increases reading comprehension because with each reading, students are working on decoding, and eventually the decoding barrier to comprehension is overcome (Samuels, 1979). This method of repeated reading allows students to focus on the main components of reading fluency including accuracy, automaticity, prosody, and they read following the punctuation which is in the passage. The study concluded that the method of repeated reading improves both fluency and comprehension through chorusing, practicing, prior reading of words before the main reading and syllabic reading of the same word (Samuels, 1979). When given the opportunity to read text multiple times, children can focus on the aspect of fluency rather than decoding, which ultimately leads to increased reading comprehension since they are able to punctuate effectively in their reading for meaning making (Kuhn, 2005). Secondly, by using guided oral instruction, fluency could also increase through reading with a partner after the teacher reads. Some techniques include choral, echo, phrase, and punctuation reading (Armbruster et al., 2001). Reader's theatre gives the at-risk adolescent readers multiple opportunities to read the text with emotion and to practice reading the same words repeatedly. This is because there is a correlation between the three reading fluency subskills and reading comprehension in at-risk adolescent readers (Courbron (2012).

Countless research studies also support key principles and strategies for teaching fluency which have been modified to include comprehension. Fluent reading is not meaningful if learners do not comprehend what they read (Rasinski & Padak, 1996; Reutzel, 2006; Worthy & Broadus,

2002; Shannahan, Fisher & Frey, 2012 as cited in Reutzel & Cooter, 2021). We outline the principles and strategies of fluency instruction that teachers may apply in practical ways in grade 5 classroom: 1. Practice, practice, practice: Learners build their fluency skills through repetition, and this is done through repeated reading tasks. Repeated reading means just what the phrase implies. Learners should practice reading the same text multiple times until desired fluency levels are attained. Research has found that learners benefit the most after reading texts three or four times (Therrien, 2004, as cited in Honig et al., 2018). There are many ways for student teachers to include repeated readings in their instruction. 2. Modelling: Learners need more than practice. They also need to hear an expert reader model fluent reading. By listening to reading that is accurate with the right pace and expression, learners can become fluent readers themselves. Rasinski & Padak (2013) describe a teacher's voice as the 'greatest asset' that shows how a 'reader breathes life into words on the page and enhances comprehension' (pp. 11). 3. Explicit instruction and feedback: Learners need to be explicitly taught what fluent reading is and what it is not. When teachers model fluent reading, they should point out their fluent behaviours, and when they are listening to their learners read, they should provide constructive feedback that helps learners understand what they can do to improve their reading fluency. Teachers should teach learners how to self-monitor, evaluate, and self-regulate while reading. This means helping learners monitor how they are reading, judge their progress, and adjust their reading according to what they notice about their reading (Reutzel & Cooter, 2021). 4. Scaffolding Instruction: Most learners in the classroom will read at different rates and with varying levels of prosody and accuracy. Teachers must design fluency instruction that meets learners at the right level and supports learners in ways that help them make learning gains that are appropriate for their needs. Then, when learners meet their goals, the scaffolding is removed, and learners work towards another goal to help them continue to progress (Hougen & Smartt, 2020). 5. Practice with phrasing: Words combine into phrases and then into sentences. Fluency practice can be broken down into practice with phrases. Rasinski & Padak (2013) suggest that English teachers teach high frequency word phrases. High frequency word phrases contain words that occur the most often in English texts. These words are often referred to as sight words. There are English sight word lists that teachers can help learners to memorize. This helps with developing their automaticity with words. Teaching high frequency word phrases teaches learners that 'fluent reading means reading smoothly and in meaningful phrases that are marked

with appropriate expression' (Rasinski & Padak, 2013, pp. 64). 6. Reading appropriately with challenging materials: Texts for teaching fluency should match learners' instructional levels. If texts are not challenging enough, learners will not be able to make progress with more complex texts. If texts are too challenging, learners will become frustrated and demotivated with reading. Honig et al. (2018) further recommend that teachers pay attention to text length, genre, and content. Texts should be between 50 and 200 words, with beginning readers reading shorter texts and more advanced readers reading longer passages (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborne, 2001, as cited in Honig et al., 2018). Teachers should choose various genres - short stories, newspapers, magazine articles, biographies, expository texts, songs, or poetry. As for content, the more engaging or interesting the content, the better as this will be more motivating for learners. Additionally, considering that Zambia is multilingual and learners have challenges to comprehend the text because they are also unfamiliar with the medium of instruction, it would be helpful for teachers to translanguage and to allow translanguaging to take place in the classroom in order to free the classroom and promote understanding on the part of the learners ((Nyimbili and Mwanza, 2021; Mashinja and Mwanza, 2021; Mwanza, 2020; Mubita and Mwanza, 2020; Banda and Mwanza, 2020; Mwanza and Bwalya, 2019, Banda and Mwanza, 2020)

6.5 How the Findings Connect to the Theoretical Framework.

The purpose of this study was to investigate into teachers' pedagogic practices of teaching ORF in selected Grade 5 classrooms in Zambia. The aim was to find out teachers' views, strategies they use and how they teach ORF in Grade 5 classrooms and to further establish challenges teachers find among learners when teaching ORF in English and the measures they take to support learners with fluency challenges. This study has revealed that teachers do not teach ORF, but they acknowledge its importance in the reading development of every learner. The study has filled the gap from the theoretical lenses and supports the arguments that ORF may reflect overall reading competence. Based on Information Processing Model, ORF can be addressed through various systems that lead readers to engage in specific skills, such as recognising letters and sounds rapidly and retrieving knowledge that is stored in the long-term memory (Slavin 2002). This theory promotes reading practice, repeated reading, assisted reading, and rhyming methods to encode data, in this case, recognition of letters, sounds, sight words, and high-frequency words. Based on the Automaticity Theory, learners can be allowed to focus highly on

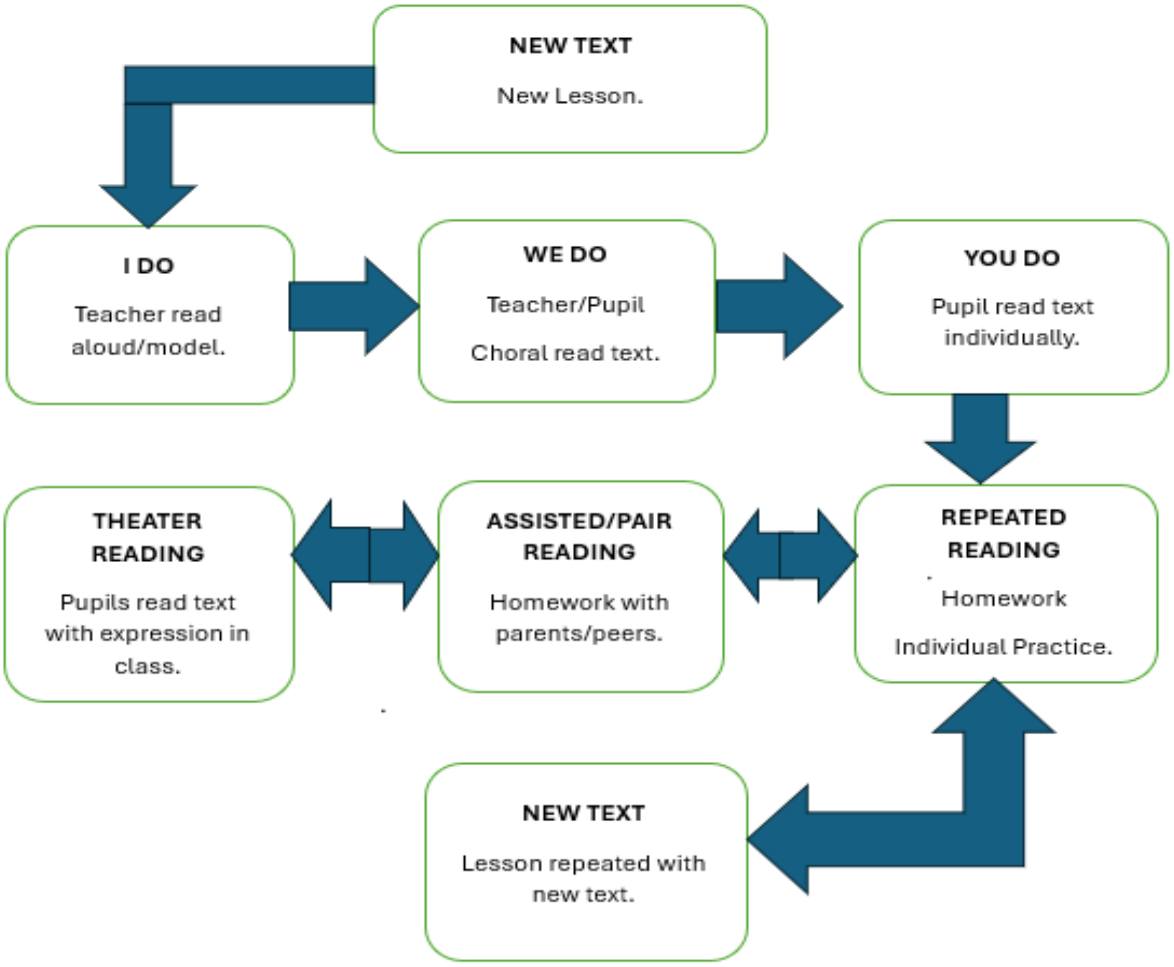
word recognition. In this case, reading fluency is identified as the ability to decode and comprehend a text at the same time (Samuels 2007). Reading text has many sub-skills (or processes) such as recognising letters, associating sounds with the letters, blending, segmenting, chunking, skimming, and scanning (Tracey & Morrow (2012). Based on Ehri and McCormick Word Learning Theory, teachers may be able to identify the stages for the development of reading words in stages at pre-alphabetic, partial-alphabetic, full-alphabetic, and consolidated-alphabetic, and automatic-alphabetic levels based on the learners' level of reading ability (Ehri & McCormick, 1998). This is because each of these stages has its own characteristics, which are used to develop instructional implications for learners to read words fluently. They also guide teachers in their reading instructions and inform their practices. This study supports the idea of early identification of learners' reading challenges in upper grades to help decide on differentiated instruction to support learners with specific oral reading fluency challenges. Connection with theory here Ehri (1995) suggested that words become sight words through a thorough analysis of the word's orthographic structure. The resulting mental representation enables a reader to access the word quickly and automatically. She further argued that, on each additional encounter, the sight of such words triggers the memory of these words in the learner. This identification includes information about the word's spelling, pronunciation, and meaning. Based on Behaviourism theory, the study argues that this can inform fluency instructions meaningfully by leading teachers to use specific strategies and assessment methods. In ORF development, this theory is important in that it is associated with direct instructions and implications for reading that could improve the students' achievement (Tracey & Morrow 2012).

The purpose of this study was to answer the question; 'what are effective reading fluency instructional strategies for struggling primary school learners?' From the findings, we can conclude that effective instructional strategies such as repeated reading, assisted reading, choral reading, guided reading, pair reading, and theatre reading may help improve struggling readers in Zambia. Teachers and other fluent readers need to model uninterrupted, positive examples of rate, expression. As an answer to the research question, struggling learners may improve with the exposure to fluent reading behaviours both inside and outside of the classroom environment is critical in helping students develop fluency, and meaning while reading a variety of texts. In addition, students need to be given opportunities to read several texts. They also need to be

given opportunities to reread texts under the guidance of a supportive teacher until an appropriate level of fluency which allows for comprehension, is achieved.

To support such learning, this study presents a fluency instruction model in fig. 1 that may help teachers teach struggling readers in Zambian schools. It is a Fluency Development lesson used as an explicit intervention model to help learners improve their reading fluency skill. The model combines the 'I do', 'we do', and 'you do' with repeated, assisted, pair, theatre, and choral reading with learners to practice reading the text fluently as shown in the figure below:

Fig 6.1. Fluency Instruction Model.



6.6 Chapter Summary

ORF is very important in the early grade reading classroom. Teachers must have expert knowledge of what fluency is, how it develops, and how they can support all their learners in achieving proficiency. A fluent reader has automaticity with words. They read at an appropriate rate, with accuracy and prosody (or expression). Moreover, fluent readers are better at comprehending texts because they can spend more time comprehending than decoding. This study has provided a model of research-based strategies and interventions for teachers to teach and assess fluency in a typical Zambian classroom.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented the analysis and discussion of findings. This final chapter is meant to show that the research questions raised in chapter one has been answered and has tried to show that the research gap in knowledge that was identified in literature review has been filled. The chapter also presents the conclusion, recommendations, and the contribution this study has added to the body of knowledge. Lastly, suggestions on areas of future research and interventions have been identified for more academic debate.

7.2 Conclusions

This study was an investigation into teachers' pedagogic practices of teaching of ORF in selected Grade 5 classrooms in Zambia. The study was informed by four objectives and the conclusion has been drawn in line with each objective.

7.2.1 To Establish Teachers' Views on Teaching ORF in Grade 5 Classrooms.

Teachers do not teach ORF in Grade 5 classrooms. In their view, ORF is a skill that can only be taught in lower primary grades (1-4) and not in upper primary grades (5-6). Teachers have the content knowledge of ORF but lack the pedagogical knowledge to teach fluency to Grade 5 learners. Teachers acknowledge the importance of ORF but deny its power on struggling learners in Grade 5 classrooms. Therefore, non-teaching of oral reading fluency in Grade 5 might be an explanation to why learners still face challenges comprehending what they read. From the classroom observation, document analysis and interviews, the results showed that teachers do not teach fluency. They know what ORF is and its importance, but they lack pedagogical knowledge of how to teach it and support struggling readers in grade 5 classrooms in upper primary grades.

7.2.2 To Analyse Pedagogical Strategies that Teachers Use and how they Teach Oral Reading Fluency in Grade 5 Classrooms.

Teachers claim that they use read-alouds, repeated readings, reading story books below grade below, guided reading with appropriate expressions while observing punctuations, pair reading, and group reading as strategies to teach oral reading fluency. However, this study established that teachers do not use research-based oral reading strategies as it should be, because they teach and assess learners in reading comprehension and not oral reading fluency. Teachers understand fluency strategies such as repeated reading, choral reading, theatre reading, are fluency strategies but they do not practice them on learners in Grade 5 classes. Instead, teachers use flash cards, word cards and reading charts as activities to teach comprehension while claiming that they teach fluency. From these findings, we established that teachers lack instructional knowledge of how to use the strategies to promote fluency skills among learners. We relate the teachers' inconsistence to the Dunning-Kruger effect, a type of cognitive bias that causes people to overestimate their knowledge or ability, particularly in areas with which they have little, to no experience. The dunning-Kruger effect might be an explanation to teachers' knowing the strategies for teaching oral reading fluency and to speak highly of their importance but failing to demonstrate how to use them in class due to lack of pedagogical knowledge.

7.2.3 To Establish Challenges that Teachers Find Among Learners Reading Connected Text in English.

We established that learners face various challenges when reading connected text in English. Teachers too face challenges that prevent them from teaching oral reading fluency to Grade 5 learners. Learners pronounce certain English words in Zambian languages, they have difficulties pronouncing some English words, they stammer when reading in English and fail to decode to relate letters of the alphabet to English sounds. Learners have difficulties to understand English. They sometimes use direct translation from Zambian to English resulting in difficulties comprehending what they read. Learners have spellings challenge sight words and long words in English. It was clear that learners have challenges decoding words in English, and they read text without appropriate phrasing and without appropriate intonation/expression. It was established that some learners were failing to observe punctuation as they read the text. It was also established that some learners made errors on multisyllabic words. Learners have difficulties in

blending English sounds and syllables. It was established that some learners were omitting words, skipping lines and they made self-corrections as they read the text. Teachers fail to teach oral reading fluency due to lack of lack of reading books. The syllabus is silent on instruction and implementational strategies to teach oral reading fluency in Grade 5. Lack of reading books would also be the cause of not teaching oral reading fluency. It was also established that over enrolment of learners is another challenge hindering teachers to teach oral reading fluency. Most learners do not have much contact with books because they are often too many pupils in a class and too few books to go round. Shortage of books and over enrolment may have led to teachers reading aloud to learners, modeling fluent reading without not allowing learners to practice reading individually. It was also established from interview that teachers found it difficult to teach fluency in English because of learners did not transition well from local Zambian languages to English. These findings might be an explanation why learners face challenges comprehending what they read.

7.2.4 To Establish Measures that Teachers take to Support Learners with Specific Oral Reading Fluency Challenges

The study has established that teachers use 'Catch Up' program, 'Made by Fwebene' programme and THRASS methodology. The study also established that apart from the three programs, teachers also use books below learners' grade level (grade 4) as a measure to support learners with specific oral reading fluency challenges. The study established that two of these methodologies suggested by teachers are both remedial methods whose focus is on teaching phonics not fluency. This study investigated the pedagogical practices among leaners reading text in English, but these suggested methods have a focus on teaching reading in local familiar languages (L1 and not L2). Therefore, this study has outlined several research-based implementations and instructional strategies for decoding and word recognition development that teachers may use as measures to support learners with specific oral reading fluency challenges.

7.3 Contribution to Knowledge

This study investigated the teachers' pedagogic practices of teaching oral reading fluency in selected Grade 5 classrooms in Zambia. Through the objectives of the study, the findings have contributed to body on knowledge in the reading development field and to be specific, to

pedagogical practices of teaching oral reading in upper grades. To start with, there has been no study which has been conducted in Zambia to investigate on the teaching of oral reading fluency in upper grades in Zambia. Various studies researched on have been on in lower grades where learners learn to read in local familiar languages. But this study investigated what happens in upper classrooms to see what teachers teach and how they teach ORF in English. This informs the Zambian educational practitioners on the need to teach oral reading fluency in upper grades for the development of reading comprehension among learners. The other contribution to the body of knowledge lies in the pedagogical knowledge which supported the study. The other contribution to the body of knowledge is in the manner the language orientation theory has been used to inform the Zambian literacy policy and practices of teaching ORF in upper primary classes. Lastly, the findings of the study add to the pedagogical, theoretical and policy discussion regarding pedagogical practices in the teaching of ORF in upper primary classes. This study provides a contextual understanding on the teaching of reading fluency in Zambia and beyond with the view of making all learners achieve the comprehension skills, the ultimate goal of reading.

7.4 Recommendations

Considering the findings and conclusions of the study, we make the following recommendations:

7.4.1 For Teachers

a) Grade 5 teachers need to learn and understand the pedagogical practices involved in teaching oral reading fluency and must understand the role that assessment plays in developing learners' fluency so that they can choose appropriate texts for fluency practice at the right level for each learner.
b) With careful planning and execution, teachers need to modify all the fluency strategies to meet learners' needs at their level and to be implemented through explicit instruction use systematic, explicit differentiated instruction on a gradual release model might to help learners struggling with word recognition, accuracy, and fluency.
c) Teachers must provide learners with varied opportunities to practice reading with appropriate guidance and support in a practice that allows for learner engagement in repeated and assisted reading practice through teacher modelling, choral reading, pair

reading and theatre reading for enhancement of fluency and eventually comprehension, the goal of reading.

d) Teachers to intensify the teaching of fluency in all reading lessons at all levels of learning. For instance, teachers can allow learners to practice reading different passages for ten to fifteen minutes while using repeated and assisted reading strategies in every reading comprehension lesson.

7.4.2 For Policy

a) The Ministry of Education to consider reviewing the curriculum to include instruction and assessment of oral reading fluency in upper primary grades.
b) For policy is to provide ultimate support in the implementation of research-based instructional strategies necessary for the development of oral reading fluency in learners.
c) There is a need for colleges and universities, and the Ministry of Education to consider training teachers to intensify training students in fluency.
d) The Ministry of Education must review the syllabus to include instruction necessary to teach oral reading fluency at upper primary level.

7.5 Suggestions for Further Research

Based on the findings of the study, we suggest the following as areas for further research.

a) There is need to carry out a similar study on a larger population and more towns of Zambia.
b) This study investigated how oral reading fluency is taught in selected classrooms, there is need to carry out another study on assessment of learners to determine their reading fluency levels using an intervention.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Semi-Structured Interviews

I'm carrying out a study on an exploration of Teachers' Pedagogic Practices of Teaching Oral Reading Fluency in Grade 5 Classrooms in Zambia. This questionnaire will help me answer some of the questions pertaining to the teaching of Oral reading fluency in Zambia.

QUESTIONS

1. What are your views on how to teach oral reading fluency:
2. What is reading fluency?
3. How do you define of Reading fluency?
4. Is oral reading fluency important in reading?
5. Why is it important for children to develop reading fluency?
6. What is the importance of teaching Oral Reading Fluency?
7. When is oral reading fluency introduced to Grade 5 learners?
8. How can reading fluently be assessed?
9. What knowledge and skills do children need to become fluent readers?
10. What strategies do you use to teach oral reading fluency?
11. What challenges do learners face when reading connected text in English?
12. What instructional strategies and interventional strategies do you use to assist learners with specific fluency challenges?

Appendix 2: Verbatim Coding: Semi-Structured Interviews

1. Definition of Oral Reading Fluency

Tr.	*Definition of ORF - Kitwe*	*Definition of ORF - Lusaka*	*Definition of ORF - Southern*
Tr.1	It is the reading aloud and observing punctuations and giving expressions while reading.	Ability to effortlessly translate letters to sound words.	It is the ability to read a paragraph or text accurately.
Tr. 2	This is when learners read aloud with accuracy.	This is how accurately a learner can communicate to the listener by effective	This is reading by way of speech effectively with a lot of confidence.
Tr. 3	This is when learners read aloud and observe punctuation marks as they read.	Using my voice to teach in English and teaching them pronunciations of the sounds at every point.	This is reading by way of speech effectively with a lot of confidence.
Tr. 4	This is when learners read aloud and observe punctuation marks as they read.	A measure that addresses accuracy and fluency in reading.	The ability to express themselves in reading orally.
Tr. 5	This is one of the best instructional strategies that help learners improve in reading skills	This is the ability to read with speed, correctly and proper expression.	Being able to express oneself in English
Tr. 6	This is when a learner read fluent, easily, smoothly, and correctly without mistakes.	This is the ability to effortlessly translate letters to sounds and sounds to words.	It is reading fluently especially at each level.

2. Importance of Oral Reading Fluency

Tr.	*Importance of ORF - Kitwe*	*Importance of ORF - Lusaka*	*Importance of ORF - Livingstone*
Tr. 1	For employment	Teacher doesn't teach ORF so didn't indicate the importance of it	They improve in their vocabulary.
Tr. 2	For safety	Because it provides the bridge between word recognition and comprehension	Learners can gain confidence as they read and pronounce words accordingly.
Tr. 3	For assessment	The learners will know how to pronounce words. They will familiarize themselves English language	To help learners to get familiar with sounds of the words and letters.

Tr. 4	To become good readers	Fluency reading makes learners understand what they are reading.	We help learners to be aware with sounds and letters.
Tr. 5	To comprehend the passage	It helps learners to become fluent readers and comprehend easily.	Creates confidence in learners.
Tr. 6	For assessment	It helps learners to get the correct sound of words.	To improve fluency in learners
Tr. 7	For assessment	It helps learners to observe punctuation marks.	For employment
Tr. 8	They do not understand what they read about	It helps learners to read aloud.	The thought should be flowing as a child reads.
Tr. 9	It helps learners to acquire knowledge of pronouncing words correctly and learn the skill of reading fluent in public and in school.	They do not understand what they read about	To improve fluency in learners (orally)

3. Challenges Learners Face When Reading Text in English

Tr.	*Challenges - Kitwe*	*Challenges - Lusaka*	*Challenges - Livingstone*
Tr. 1	Failure to read correct words in English. Read words in Bemba e.g., 'cholera' as 'kolela'.	Pronouncing English words in Nyanja	Difficulties in understanding English because of the use of different Z/L languages at home
Tr. 2	Difficulties in pronunciation of English words.	Difficulties in understanding English words.	Failure to relate letters to English sounds e.g., letter 'C' pronounced at 'K'
Tr. 3	Difficulties in understanding English words leading to failure to comprehend.	Direct translation of Nyanja words into English	Difficulties in English spellings
Tr. 4	Difficulties in pronunciation of English words.	Spelling English words like Nyanja words	Difficulties in relating English sounds.
Tr. 5	Pronunciation of English words disturbed, overtaken by Z/L	Difficulties in comprehending English words and phrases.	Failure to pronounce English words.
Tr. 6	Poor pronunciation resulting in bad vocabulary.	No challenges	Not all learners are Tongas, so they have problems understanding.
Tr. 7	Lack of good fluency	Pronunciation of English words in Z/L	Problems in writing Tonga words hence failure to respond.

Tr. 8	Stammering (decoding of words).	Failing to relate Nyanja words to English.	Difficulties to read long English words.
Tr. 9	Difficulties in blending of consonants	Unable to understand English.	Difficulties in blending English sounds and syllables.
Tr. 10	Wrong pronunciation of English words.	Unable to understand the meaning of some English words.	No challenges.
Tr. 11	Difficulties in saying correct phonics.	They use phonic sounds in Bemba to read English	Difficulties in attacking words in phonics.

4. Other Information on Challenges to the Teaching of ORF – Kitwe

Tr.	*Other Challenges - Kitwe*	*Other Challenges - Lusaka*	*Other Challenges - Livingstone*
Tr. 1	Provide more learning and reading books.	Oral reading fluency should start from grade 3 not grade 4.	Read aloud to children to provide a model of fluent reading.
Tr. 2	Make more workshops for teachers because most teachers are not familiar with sounds.	When introducing new curriculum, they should be involving grade 5 teachers to check on the correct materials.	Children listen and follow along with audio recording.
Tr. 3	Provide lot of story books so that learners can read and practice in their own time.	Grade 5 teachers should have regular workshops on reading programmes. This will help teachers and learners improve on teaching and learning on reading fluency in English.	Practice sight words using playful activities.
Tr. 4	There is a need for lots of story books.	Teach phonics in English at grade 4 term 3 and continue in grade 5	Do pared reading.
Tr. 5	Workshops for teachers	Reading materials are not enough in the schools.	Try echo reading.
Tr. 6	All teachers should follow the guidelines in teaching oral reading fluency.	The syllabus and the pupils' books do not correspond.	Do choral reading.
Tr. 7	Need to monitor learners' reading pace.	No teachers' Guide to guide the teachers.	Do repeated reading.
Tr. 8	CDC should provide suitable supplementary books which can suit each grade with simple words like what happened in ZPC.	Over enrolment of learners would make a teacher not teach ORF so often.	A variety of reading books is required.

Tr. 9	Prepare or publish supplementary Readers at the back of the books write some meanings of the difficult words.	Not having books would also be the cause of not teaching ORF.	Children do a lot of free reading. THRASS Programme should be introduced.
Tr. 10	Education starts from grade 1. This is cardinal. It is a foundation teacher teaching from grade 1 to 4 must make sure that learners break through before proceeding to another grade. By doing this, the system will be easy i.e., there is going to be no problems to the other grades.	Since this new curriculum was introduced, materials have not been available. Now, Grade 4 and 7 books are not there.	THRASS Programme to be introduced.
Tr. 11	Too many pupils in class (over enrolment)	Child contact with books is not much.	Use THRASS Programme
Tr. 12	The other thing is teaching locally. This possesses a challenge when learners come into grade 5. They find it difficult to adapt from local language to English language as a result, it takes time to learn and understand English language.	Workshops for teachers	Non availability of story books

5. Assessment of Oral Reading Fluency

Tr.	*Assessment - Kitwe*	*Assessment - Lusaka*	*Assessment - Livingstone*
Tr. 1	Check if learners observe punctuation marks as they read.		

6. When Is Oral Reading Fluency Taught in School?

Tr.	*When ORF is taught - Kitwe*	*When ORF is taught - Lusaka*	*When ORF is taught- Livingstone*
Tr. 1	At comprehension point.	At grade 5 when learners are given comprehension	Not answered
Tr. 2	At vocabulary point	Activities so that they can improve their reading fluency as well as understanding.	At grade 3
Tr. 3	At comprehension point	At every point	When giving instructions on the work
Tr. 4	At vocabulary point	Not answered.	At grade 2 when giving instructions

Tr. 5	At comprehension	Vocabulary	When giving them instructions
Tr. 6	At vocabulary level	Vocabulary teaching	When reading the new words
Tr. 7	Reading, Structure & Writing.	No idea	During comprehension passages

7. Learners Problems When Reading Connected Text In English

Tr.	*Challenges when reading text - Kitwe*	*Challenges when reading text - Lusaka*	*Challenges when reading text - Livingstone*
Tr. 1	They fail to comprehend.	Pronouncing words correctly	No comprehension challenges.
Tr. 2	They don't understand the questions.	Copying the correct words	They fail to understand what they read.
Tr. 3	Not understanding questions.	Lack of understanding of the passages.	Memorising what they were reading.
Tr. 4	Lack of comprehension	Not knowing how to read	No challenges indicated.
Tr. 5	Leaners have no problems answering comprehension questions.	Not able to read the passage.	To exactly recall what they were reading.
Tr. 6	Learners do not understand the story or dialogue.	Not able to understand the passage.	At grade 5 they face problems to understand big words because they are now using English as a medium of instruction (SUBJECT?) for the very first time
Tr. 7	Learners fail to understand the meaning of the difficult words.	Failing to understand some English words.	Lack of story books for them to read.
Tr. 8	Learners are unable to read and understand. Learners forget easily as they finish reading the story.	Three quarters of the learners did not breakthrough in literacy in Zambian Language	On average, it's because they need individual attention.
Tr. 9	They are not able to read.	They are unable to read.	Some need to be helped a lot more.
Tr. 10	Those who read do not understand the passage. They are not fluent in their language.	Some are lazy to read.	Not able to understand the passage.

Appendix 3: Grade 5 English Language Syllabus

Republic of Zambia
Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education

ENGLISH LANGUAGE SYLLABUS
GRADES 5

GRADE 5 ENGLISH

GENERAL OUTCOME:

- Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills.
- Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills

Key competences

- Express feelings, thoughts, experiences, and convictions clearly and effectively in speech and writing.
- Apply life skills as solutions to challenges in life using English language.
- Apply reading skills to comprehend written texts in English language for use in academic work.

Component	Topic	Specific outcomes	Knowledge	Skills	Values
Listening and speaking	5.1.1 Stories (characterization)	5.1.1.1 Name major and minor characters in a story	Major and minor characters	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge
	5.1.2. Language in a social setting seeking and giving directions.	5.1.2.1 Seek and give factual information.	to a place. Question: Where can I find the clinic? Answer: The clinic is near the market.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.1.3. Proverbs/ sayings	5.1.3.1 Use proverbs and sayings	E.g., Not all that glitters is gold. Once beaten, twice shy.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.

	5.1.4. Drama	5.1.4.1 Dramatize stories.	Role play Voice projection Confidence Fluency	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.1.5. Poetry	5.1.5.1 Recite common praises.	Praises about God, chiefs, heroes, and natural beauties Intonation rhyming	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.1.6. Processes	5.1.6.1 Describe simple processes.	E.g.: How to prepare nshima; how to make fire etc. Using sequence indicators e.g. First, Second, then…etc.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.1.7. Calendar Vocabulary	5.1.7.1 Recognise and discuss calendar vocabulary.	E.g.: dates, days, weekend, holiday, month, month end, year, leap year etc.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.1.8. Polite requests	5.1.8.1 Make polite requests.	Extension of an invitation e.g.: I would like to invite you…, May I invite …	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.1.9. Debate	5.1.9.1 Debate on familiar topics	E.g., Gender stereotype; boys are stronger than girls; It is better to be a teacher than a nurse.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.1.10. Messages	5.1.10.1 Transmit messages to another person	E.g., by word of mouth, phone, or radio	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.1.11Language use in a social setting	5.1.11.1 Deny and affirm statements. 5.1.11.2 Express and accept apologies.	E.g., I deny, I don't agree … I accept……., I agree…… E.g., I am sorry; I forgive you	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
Reading	Intensive Reading	5.2.1.1 Read a passage and answer multiple choice, surface, and inference questions.	Knowledge of the text, back referencing, inferring meanings of unfamiliar words, phrases, idiomatic expressions, figurative language	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
		5.2.1.2 Read and interpret information	Interpreting Charts, Graphs, Tables, Maps	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness

		presented in print resources.			of Knowledge.
		5.2.2.1 Demonstrate reading skills such as skimming and scanning.	Reading for specific information Reading to get the general/overall impression of the passage	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	Reading Aloud	5.2.2.1 Read a given passage at an appropriate pace, acceptable pronunciation and with understanding. 5.2.2.2 Observe good reading habits.	Reading with fluency and comprehension Avoid finger pointing, head movement, whispering	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.2.5. Extensive reading	5.2.5.1 Read materials from other subject areas.	E.g., Science, Social Studies etc.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
Writing	5.3.4 Sequencing	5.3.4.1 Re-arrange sentences in logical order to form paragraphs.	Sequencing sentences to make paragraphs.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.3.5. Narratives	5.3.5.1 Narrate a story based on a series of pictures.	Composing sentences on given picture strips	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	5.3.6. Keeping and writing a Diary.	5.3.6.1 Keep and write a diary.	Note making. E.g. Sunday- I went to church with my mother. Mon- got 10/10 in math. Tues – punished for reporting late at sch.	Application of knowledge	
	5.3.3. Notices and advertisements	5.3.3.1 Write notices and advertisements.	Notices E.g., Be aware/Take notice/Be informed that there will be… Advertisements E.g., Job opportunity; Baby seaters wanted at…qualifications… first come first served!!	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge. Application of knowledge
	5.3.2 Letter writing	5.3.2.1 Write informal/ friendly letters.	informal letters one address Salutation Body of letter	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.

			Ending Signing off		
	5.3.5 Summary	5.3.5.1 Identify titles and themes of stories	Title and Theme titles and themes of stories	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
Structure	Tenses	Change word form to suitable tenses	Regular verbs e.g., walk/walked. Irregular verbs e.g., sleep/slept	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	Punctuation	5.3.10.1 Punctuate given paragraphs.	E.g., Speech marks, Question and Exclamation marks.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	Direct speech	Recognise and use direct speech.	Words directly spoken by someone and use of speech marks.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	Synonyms and antonyms	5.3.13 Write synonyms and antonyms of words.	Synonyms- Words that have similar e.g., halt/stop; red/scarlet. Antonyms -words that are opposite in meaning cold/hot; up/down	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	Homographs	5.3.12.1 Identify homographs in sentences.	Similarly spelt words with different meanings e.g. A *live* debate/I *live* in Kitwe. Produce (noun) The company produces mattresses/ produce (verb) The company has reduced prices on their produce.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	Sentence construction	5.3.11.1 Change sentences from positive to negative form and vice versa.	E.g.: I like nshima. /I dislike nshima. This class is clean. / This class is unclean. I'll come with you. I'll not come with you.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	The Noun	Recognise and use different types of nouns.	Types of nouns: Proper, Common, Collective, and Countable and uncountable.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	The Verb	Recognise and use different types of verbs.	Types of verbs: regular and irregular	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	Conjunctions	Join phrases using because, since and yet.	E.g., I am late because I woke up late. Njekwa will write an exam this year since she is in grade 7.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.

			Debora is still writing, yet; it is time up.		
	Adjectives	Recognise and use adjectives.	Adjectives- words that describe nouns e.g., small/big/tall/ short/ beautiful/handsome Bupe is handsome.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	Adverbs	Recognise and use adverbs.	Adverbs- words that describe how an action is taking place e.g., Mwamba is walking slowly.	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.
	Spellings	Spell the given words correctly.	Phonemic awareness (Letter sounds)	Application of knowledge	Knowledge and awareness of Knowledge.

Appendix 4: Grade 5 Schemes of Work

MINSTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION
SOUTHERN PROVINCE
SCHEMES OF WORK
SUBJECT: ENGLISH LANGUAGE

GRADE: 5 **TERM** 1 **YEAR**: 2018

WEEK	TOPIC/CONTENT	GENERAL OUTCOME	METHODS	T/L RESOURCES	REFERENCE
1	**GROWING UP** • Listening and speaking • Language structure • Writing • Reading • Spellings	- Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (1-7) English Syllabus grade 5
2	• Proverbs and saying • Use of adjectives • Poems • Reading • Nouns and verbs	- Develop listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (8-13) English syllabus G 5
3	**LEARNING ABOUT BOOKS** • reading • summary • Verbs • Spellings • direction	- Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	English grade 5 pupils' book (14-19) English syllabus grade 5
4	**LEARNING ABOUT BOOKS** • homographs • punctuations • information • adjectives • interpreters	- Develop listening, speaking, reading. and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture,	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupils' book (22-23) English syllabus 5

		and life skills			
5	**LEARNING ABOUT BOOKS** • tenses • proverbs and saying • comprehension • adjectives • writing	- Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (24-25) English syllabus grade 5
6	**BIBIANA AND THE ENORMOUS ELEPHANTS** • Comprehension • Reading • Writing • Spelling • Structure	- Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (26-29) English syllabus grade 5
7	**BIBIANA AND THE ENORMOUS ELEPHANTS** • Reading • Drama • Theme • Sequencing • Narrating **Mid-term assessment**	- Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills **Mid-term assessment**	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (30-34) English syllabus grade 5 **Mid-term assessment**
8	**BIBIANA AND THE ENORMOUS ELEPHANTS** • reading aloud • extensive reading • debate • polite request	- Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (36-39) English syllabus grade 5

9	**THE SKY** • Reading aloud • Comprehension • Poem • Structure • Rhyme • Writing	- Develop listening, speaking, reading and writing skills - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (40-44) English syllabus grade 5
10 11	• Summary • Proverbs and saying • Reading • Comprehension	- Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (45-50) English syllabus grade 5
11	**THE SKY** • SPELLINGS • CALENDER VOCABULARY • POETRY	- Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (51-52) English syllabus grade 5
12	• CALENDER VOCABULARY • POETRY	- Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. - Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment	- Textbooks - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupil's book English syllabus grade 5
13	**END OF TERM TESTS, COMPILATION AND RESULTS ANALYSIS**				

GRADE: 5 **TERM 2** **YEAR**: 2018

WEEK	TOPIC/CONTENT	GENERAL OUTCOME	METHODS	T/L RESOURCES	REFERENCE
1	**SYMBOLS AND SINGS** • Interpret • Poem • Reading • Comprehension	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Text books - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (53-59) English syllabus grade 5
2	**SYMBOLS AND SINGS** • Polite request • Interpret signs. • Reading • Summary	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Text books - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (60-63) English syllabus grade 5
3	**BRENDA'STORY** • Comprehension • Proverbs • Narrate • Sequencing • Language structure	Develop listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Text books - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (65-71) English syllabus grade 5
4	**BRENDA'STORY** • Structure (direct /indirect speech) • Punctuation • Language structure	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	- Story telling - Miming - Role play - Discussion - Question and answer - Assignment - Debate	- Text books - Charts - Posters - Bulletin boards	Longman English grade 5 pupils' book (65-71) English syllabus grade 5
5	**INSECTS** - Reading - Comprehension - Structure	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards maps	Longman English grade six pupils' book (77-80) English syllabus grade six
6	Insects ➢ Interprets ➢ Structure ➢ Reading	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation	story telling miming role play discussion	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin	Longman English grade six pupils' book (81-84)

		of literature, culture, and life skills	question and answer assignment debate	boards	English syllabus grade six
7	Insects ➢ Reading ➢ Structure ➢ Interpretation ➢ Mid-term assessment	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupils' book (85-87) English syllabus grade six
8	➢ Extensive Reading ➢ Debate ➢ Poetry ➢	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupil's book English syllabus grade six
9	➢ Process ➢ Instructions ➢ structure	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupil's book English syllabus grade six
10	TREES • interpretation • structure • reading	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupils' book (89-92) English syllabus grade six
11	TREES • interpretation • Comprehension • writing	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupils' book (93-95) English syllabus grade six
12	Revision and assessment	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture,		Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	

		and life skills			
13	**END OF TERM 2 TEST**				

GRADE: 5 **TERM** 3 **YEAR**: 2018

WEEK	TOPIC/CONTENT	GENERAL OUTCOMES	METHODS	T/L RESOURCES	REFERENCE
1	TREES ➢ Interpretation ➢ Structure ➢ reading	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupils' book (89-92) English syllabus grade six
2 3	**TREES** ➢ writing ➢ interpreting ➢ structure ➢ spellings **TREES** ➢ Proverbs and sayings ➢ Comprehension ➢ Structure.	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupils' book (93-95) English syllabus grade six
4	**TREES** • Reading • Comprehension • assessment	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupils' book (95-101) English syllabus grade six
5	**DRUGS** • Reading • Comprehension • spelling	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupils' book (103-106) English syllabus grade six
6	**MID – TERM TEST** **Drugs** • Writings • Polite request • structure	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of	story telling miming role play discussion question and	Test items and marking keys. Textbooks Charts	Longman English grade six pupils' book (107-109) English syllabus grade six

		literature, culture, and life skills	answer assignment debate	Posters Bulletin boards	
7	**DRUGS** • Article writing • structure • debate • MID- TERM ASSESSMENT	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards Test items and marking keys	Longman English grade six pupils' book (110-113) English syllabus grade six
8	**TOUR THROUGH AFRICA** • reading • interpret	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards maps	Longman English grade six pupils' book (114-116) English syllabus grade six
9	**TOUR THROUGH AFRICA** • advertisement • writing • poem •	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupils' book (118-120) English syllabus grade six
10	**TOUR THROUGH AFRICA** • Reading aloud • Structure • punctuation	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupils' book (121-124) English syllabus grade six
11	**TOUR THROUGH AFRICA** • structure • intensive reading	Develop listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills. Develop appreciation of literature, culture, and life skills	story telling miming role play discussion question and answer assignment debate	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards maps	Longman English grade six pupil's book English syllabus grade six
12	**TOUR THROUGH AFRICA** • comprehension • writing	Develop listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Develop appreciation of	story telling miming role play discussion question and	Textbooks Charts Posters Bulletin boards	Longman English grade six pupil's book English syllabus

		literature, culture, and life skills	answer assignment debate	maps	grade six
13	**END OF TERM 3 TEST**				

NB: For Mid-Term, Test Two Subjects Per Day and Teach the other Subjects that Appear on the Timetable that Day.

Appendix 5: Grade 5 Sample Lesson Plans

Sample lesson plan 1 (Kitwe)

SCHOOL:	Kam Primary (Pseudo name)	**DATE:**	22nd February 2021
TEACHER:	Mrs. C. Williams (Not real name)	**TIME:**	08:10 – 09:30
GRADE:	5B	**DURATION:**	80 minutes
TOPIC:	Tona's Second-hand Vehicle	**NO. PUPILS**:	59 Boys: 23 Girls: 36

SUBTOPIC: Reading
LESSON TYPE: Comprehension

REFERENCES: G5 MK English book, page 3 - 6. G5 Teacher's Guide
T/L AIDS: Learner's book**,** Chalk board, Board ruler and Charts

RATIONALE: This lesson is on the topic 'Tona's Second-hand Vehicle. Learners will appreciate and acquire skills, knowledge, and values of reading types of texts. Group work, teacher's exposition and Question & Answer methods will be used to execute this lesson which is number two in the series of four.

SPECIFIC OUTCOMES: Having taught the lesson, PSBAT:

1. Read through the story within the specified period.
2. Identify key words in the story
3. Describe the key words and answer the questions

STAGES/ TIME	CONTENT	TEACHER'S ACTIVITIES	LEARNER'S ACTIVITIES	METHODS
Introduction	Story telling	Teacher narrates a brief story to introduce the lesson	Pupils listen attentively	Story telling
Pre- Reading	Picture discussion. • What can you see in picture 1? • Explain what is happening in picture 1. • What is happening in picture 2?	Teacher guides learners	Learners listen and asks questions	Teachers Exposition
While Reading	• Reading the story aloud in groups • Learners to read individually	Teacher guides learners to take turns and read the passage	Learners take turns when reading the passage	Question & Answer
Reading for the task (Vocabulary)	Identify some of the difficult words and phrases/ testing pupils' spellings. (Second-hand, Request, overjoyed, splashed, muddy, pleasure)	Asks learners to present difficult words and phrase and have a class discussion	Groups identify difficult words and phrases, and Group leaders present their finding	Group Discussion
Class Activity	**Class Exercise** Comprehension 1) Answer questions on Lesson five Exercise on page 9	Teacher goes round to guide and mark pupils work	Learners to answer the questions	Individual Work

Conclusion Post-Reading	Teacher concludes by emphasizing main points of the lesson	Teacher goes through the passage	Learners to make corrections were necessary	Questions and Answers

LESSON EVALUATION:

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Sample Lesson plan 2 (Lusaka)

SCHOOL: Hol Primary School **DATE:** 05/06/2021
TEACHER: Mrs. V. Chanda **GRADE:** 5C
TOPIC: The Poetry lesson

SUBTOPIC: Reading **DURATION:** 80 minutes
LESSON TYPE: Comprehension **NO. PUPILS**: 58 Boys: 27 Girls:31

REFERENCES: G5 Excel in English book, page 6. G6 Teacher's Guide
T/L AIDS: Learner's book**,** Chalk board, Board ruler and Charts

RATIONALE: This lesson is on the topic the poetry lesson. Learners will appreciate and acquire skills, knowledge and values of reading types of texts**.** Group work, teacher's exposition and Question & Answer methods will be used to execute this lesson which is number two in the series of four.

SPECIFIC OUTCOMES: Having taught the lesson, PSBAT:

1. Compose songs and poems on cross cutting issues.
2. Identify key words
3. Describe the key words and answer the questions

STAGES/ TIME	**CONTENT**	**TEACHER'S ACTIVITIES**	**LEARNER'S ACTIVITIES**	**METHODS**
Introduction	Poetry/ Song	Teacher narrates a brief song or poetry to introduce the lesson	Pupils listen attentively	Poetry telling
Pre- Reading	Answer the following questions in pairs. • How many jobs do you know? • What job does your father/mother/brother/sister do?	Teacher guides learners	Learners listen and asks questions	Teachers Exposition
While Reading	The poetry lesson. • Reading the story aloud in groups • Learners to read	Teacher guides learners to take turns and read the passage	Learners take turns when reading the passage	Question & Answer

	individually			
Reading for the task (Vocabulary)	Identify some of the difficult words and phrases/ testing pupils' spellings. (Internet, pin-drop silence, destroyer, rumours, abstinence)	Asks learners to present difficult words and phrase and have a class discussion	Groups identify difficult words and phrases, and Group leaders present their finding	Group Discussion
Class Activity	**Class Exercise** Comprehension 1) Answer questions on the page 76	Teacher goes round to guide and mark pupils work	Learners to answer the questions	Individual Work
Conclusion Post-Reading	Teacher concludes by emphasizing main points of the lesson	Teacher goes through the passage	Learners to make corrections were necessary	Questions and Answers

LESSONEVALUATION:

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Sample Lesson plan 3. (Livingstone)

SCHOOL: _____ **DATE:** _____
TEACHER: _____ **GRADE:** _____
TOPIC: Kalulu and the Lion **TIME:** _____
SUBTOPIC: Reading **DURATION:** _____
LESSON TYPE: Comprehension **NO. PUPILS**____ Boys___ Girls__

REFERENCES: G6 Excel in English book, page 6. G6 Teacher's Guide
T/L AIDS: Learner's book**,** Chalk board, Board ruler and Charts

RATIONALE: This lesson is on the topic Kalulu and the Lion. Learners will appreciate and acquire skills, knowledge and values of reading types of texts**.** Group work, teacher's exposition and Question & Answer methods will be used to execute this lesson which is number two in the series of four.

SPECIFIC OUTCOMES: Having taught the lesson, PSBAT:

1. Read through the story within the specified period of time.
2. Identify key words in the story
3. Describe the key words and answer the questions

STAGES/ TIME	CONTENT	TEACHER'S ACTIVITIES	LEARNER'S ACTIVITIES	METHODS
Introduction	Story telling	Teacher narrates a brief story to introduce the lesson	Pupils listen attentively	Story telling
Pre- Reading	Answer the following questions in pairs. • Who do you think is the king of the jungle? • Tell your friend a short story about the king of the jungle.	Teacher guides learners	Learners listen and asks questions	Teachers Exposition
While Reading	• Reading the story aloud in groups • Learners to read individually	Teacher guides learners to take turns and read the passage	Learners take turns when reading the passage	Question & Answer
Reading for the task (Vocabulary)	Identify some of the difficult words and phrases/ testing pupils' spellings. (Reserved, lure, hatched, disguised, invoking, modest)	Asks learners to present difficult words and phrase and have a class discussion	Groups identify difficult words and phrases, and Group leaders present their finding	Group Discussion
Class Activity	**Class Exercise** Comprehension 1) Answer questions on the Exercise on page 65	Teacher goes round to guide and mark pupils work	Learners to answer the questions	Individual Work
Conclusion Post-Reading	Teacher concludes by emphasizing main points of the lesson	Teacher goes through the passage	Learners to make corrections were necessary	Questions and Answers

LESSON EVALUATION:

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Appendix 6: Published Article

https://bjmas.org/index.php/bjmas/index

Published by the European Centre for Research Training and Development UK

Teachers' Views on Teaching Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) in Grade 5 Classrooms in Zambia

Margaret Nambao and David Sani Mwanza

1. Ph.D. Student, University of Zambia, Lusaka, Zambia
2. Professor David Sani Mwanza, University of Zambia

Citation: Nambao M. and Mwanza D.S. (2023) Teachers' Views on Teaching Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) in Grade 5 Classrooms in Zambia, *British Journal of Multidisciplinary and Advanced Studies*: English Lang., Teaching, Literature, Linguistics & Communication, 4(5),74-82

ABSTRACT: *The purpose of the study was to establish the teachers' views on teaching oral reading fluency in grade 5. The research objective was 'What are the teachers' views on teaching oral reading fluency in grade 5?' A phenomenological research design was used in this study because the research question called for interaction with the participants in their environment. The study sampled six schools, two schools each from Kitwe, Lusaka, and Livingstone towns of Zambia. From these schools, 12 grade 5 teachers were purposively sampled in the study. In this study, grade 5 teachers who were teaching language were interviewed in the selected primary schools in Zambia. The study found that teachers held a view that Oral Reading Fluency (ORF) is a skill that can only be taught in lower primary grades (1-4) and not in upper primary grades (5-6). Teachers have the content knowledge of ORF but lack the pedagogical knowledge to teach fluency to Grade 5 learners. Teachers acknowledge the importance of ORF but deny its power on struggling learners in Grade 5 classrooms. Therefore, non-teaching of oral reading fluency in Grade 5 might be an explanation to why learners still face challenges comprehending what they read in the Zambian primary schools. It was then recommended that teachers should ensure they teach ORF to enable learners to become fluent in reading whilst in primary schools.*

KEYWORDS: oral reading fluency, grade five, teachers

INTRODUCTION

Teachers have their own understanding of the pedagogy they have to use in delivering their lessons in schools and this influences their opinions on how best they have to teach a given linguistic component. Other scholars have argued that teaching techniques must allow for the active involvement and participation of learners in the learning process. Teachers should structure their classes to facilitate this active learner role (Nyimbili, Namuyamba and Chakanika, 2018). In primary schools, teachers teaching different language components like phonemic awareness, reading, comprehension and fluency according to the way the syllabus prescribes in the Zambian system.