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IMPROVING PUPILS ENGLISH READING COMPREHENSION THROUGH

TRAINING TEACHERS ON EFFECTIVE TEACHING STRATEGIES IN RIDGE

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL "A", SAGNARIGU DISTRICT

JAMES YUSSIF

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JAMES YUSSIF

(UDS/MTD/0089/15)

DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL FOUNDATIONS, FACULTY OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES, IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE AWARD OF MASTER OF EDUCATION DEGREE IN TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT.

2017

DECLARATION

Student's Declaration

I hereby declare that this submission is my own work towards the award of a Master degree in Training and Development, and that to the best of my knowledge, it contains no previously published material by another person nor material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree of the University, except where due acknowledgement has been made in the text.

Student's Name: James Yussif   (UDS/MTD/OO89/15)

………………………….   …………………………

Signature   Date

Supervisor's Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the Project Work was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of theses laid down by the University for Development Studies.

Supervisor's Name: Dr. Cecilia Alimah Issaka

…………………………………………….   ……………………….

Signature   Date

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ABSTRACT

The study was understaken to improve teachers' knowledge on effective teaching strategies and pupils reading regarding English comprehension at Ridge JHS 'A' using an in-service training for the English language teachers. The study employed action research. Purposive sampling technique was used to select 36 participants: 6 out of 32 teachers and 30 out of 817 pupils from Ridge JHS 'A'. The instruments used to collect data were teacher interviews and teachers/pupils observations. Themes were drawn from the responses of the participants and analysed manually using the constant comparative method. The findinds revealed that challenges that act as impediments to teaching and learning of English comprehension included: inadequate teaching-learning materials, uncondusive classroom atmosphere for learning, lack of good reading foundation in the English language and pupils truancy.The study hoped to solve the problem of lack of good reading foundation of pupils through training teachers on effective teaching strategies.

The post intervention results showed an improvement in the use of reading materials in class, teachers willingness to change to appropriate methods of teaching comprehension, and an improvement in pupils'comprehension skills through supplying pupils with readers. Recommendations made included: parents working with teachers to develop good reading habits and skills among pupils. GES to supply the school with English reading materials, GES to ensure an adequate training and development of all English language teachers on how to motivate pupils during comprehension lessons, and a strong reading foundation in English language for all pupils must be built by both parents and teachers.

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I am full of gratitude for the grace of the Supreme Maker in my life during the research. I wish to acknowledge my supervisor: Dr. Hajia Alimah Cecilia Issaka for the constructive criticisms, suggestions and advice which led to the completion of the study. I wish, also, to appreciate the effort of all the Lecturers of the Faculty of Education, especially those in Training and Development programme for their encouragement. Finally, I wish to acknowledge the effort of the training facilitator, the headmaster and staff of Ridge Junior High School "A" for their cooperation during the research.

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DEDICATION

Idedicate this work to my parents: Napri Tia Nicodemus (late), and Pagwuni Jato

"Thanks you for your sacrifices".

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CHAPTER ONE

1.1 Background of the Study

Reading is the cornerstone of a child's success in school and throughout life (Oberholzer, 2005). Similarly Baatjies (2003) indicated that the most important element of high quality education is literacy, and so one's inability to read denies the learner of significant information about health and nutrition, politics, and cultural issues, as well as pleasure and enrichment. It is one of the most important skills that we need to acquire, Texas Educational Agency. (2002). Reading is not simply about mechanical skill, it helps us understand our world by enabling us to learn about our past and plan for our future.

Understanding what we are reading is far more important to us than the mechanical skill of reading. Without comprehension, reading per se would serve no purpose. Meredith, (2016) noted that reading brings us into contact with our culture and the values and principles adhered to by our community. It can help us develop our own ideas about relationships (Chander ,(2015).

It includes the world of thoughts and emotions, (Emily, 2013). A person who can read well, can function more effectively in everyday activities and can satisfy his emotional and intellectual needs more effectively. Many of our day-to-day tasks require of good reading skills, Texas Educational Agency. (2002). For an illiterate person, many of life's seemingly mundane and ordinary tasks, which many people take for granted, become insurmountable hurdles.

Much of the information we need comes in the form of the written word such as books, newspapers, magazines and computers. The worldwide web, specifically, has made masses of information easily available to people who have access to the internet. E-Mail has transformed the world into a global village by making electronic media an effective global form of communication. Advances in computer technology have been, and continue to be, rapid because of reading. An array of software packages provides information on a wide variety of topics through reading material. In order to be able to process all of this information, reading is a prerequisite skill. Reading is well integrated into our education systems generally, such that educational success is almost synonymous with reading success. It pervades almost all work that is done in the classroom and according to Greyling and Joubert (Chander ,(2015). there is a direct relationship between successful studies and good reading skills. Reading is probably one of the most important skills that a child learns at school, if not the most important. It forms the foundation for all further learning and without the ability to read effectively, a child will experience difficulty in learning. Success in reading very often ensures success in other subjects, as a sound reading ability is the gateway to the acquisition and expansion of knowledge in all the school subjects, Texas Educational Agency. (2002). An inability to read will impact negatively on the ability to achieve in all other school subjects, as well as on the ability to succeed in life beyond school. This will have a strong influence on the child's self-esteem and on his perception of himself as a student which, in turn, will have an influence on his subject choice as well as on his choice of career (Ajibola, (2006). Adigun and Oyelude (2003) described reading as a basic life skill. It is a cornerstone for a child's success in school and, indeed, throughout life. English reading is becoming more and more

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important in that it creates almost limitless possibilities for achievement, Texas Educational Agency (2002).

For many pupils reading comes so naturally and easily that little thought needs to be given to the actual process of reading itself. For them reading is about the search for meaning and understanding and not about the mechanical task of forming letters into words and words into sentences. Yet despite the perceived importance and value of reading and despite the efforts of hundreds of teachers across the country, there are many pupils in our schools, especially Ridge JHS 'A' with inadequate reading ability. These are the pupils for whom reading is a struggle. For them, instead of providing meaning, rather words create confusion, shame and disgrace. Pupils with reading problems have to focus so much on the mechanical aspects of reading, such as the analysis and synthesis of letters and words, that the meaning of the word becomes secondary and sometimes may even be lost, (NASET, 2018).

Pupils generally need some extra assistance, which usually takes the form of reading instruction in the classroom as well as a supplementary programme such as remedial reading (Eivers, Shiel and Shortt, 2004). Reading is a skill that needs to be taught and it is viewed as a priority in the basic school curriculum, Texas Educational Agency, (2002). . In our schools, especially Ridge JHS 'A', formal reading instruction takes place in the foundation phase, but once the pupils reach grade 4 no further reading instruction is given within the classroom. At that point it is assumed by the teachers that the pupils have mastered the basics of reading. In this regard, Akinbade, (2007). stated that developmental variations in reading skills should be accepted and that because reading

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skills are measured relatively and not absolutely, the problem of the relatively poor reader will persist.

It is true that variations in reading level will occur amongst pupils of the same chronological age, (Filippos & Artemis, 2015). What is important, however, is that each child be assisted and encouraged to attain a reading level, which enables him/her to achieve his/her full potential, (Ahnert,Pinquart & Lamb ,2006). Also important is that the child develops positive feelings about reading itself. In this process, the role played by the teachers is crucial, hence the need to train them. Teachers create an environment in the classroom which is conducive to encourages reading. Their approach can be instrumental in fostering a love for reading within pupils. Damien,(2003). stated that it is logical to prescribe early pre-intervention and intervention programmes at the basic school level in order to prevent pupils from becoming at risk for reading difficulties.

1.2 Perceived Problem

A closed examination of Ridge JHS 'A' pupils' class participation and exercises showed that most of them could not finish the comprehension exercises within the class lesson, and about halve of those who finished either did not score a pass-mark or gave answers out of context. This problem cut across all the three grades (grade 7, 8 and 9). It is even worst at the end of term examinations when responding to time is highly demanded.

1.3 Diagnoses

During an observation made at Ridge JHS 'A', the researcher observed the following as possible causes of poor pupils' performance in English comprehension. These include:

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- **Teacher Attrition**: Various subject teachers including the English language teachers were posted to the school in the middle of second term, 2014/2016 academic year. In the process of carrying out this project, the grade nine English teacher was transferred in the fourth week of the third term, 2016/2017 academic year. It took the school three weeks to get a substantive English language teacher for the grade nine classes. The inconsistence of subject- teacher presence affects the quality of academic work greatly.

- **Untrained Teachers:** The school still has a number of untrained teachers in its staff. In the first and second term, 2015/2016 academic year, the grade seven pupils was handled by an untrained teacher in English language on part-time bases till a substantive teacher was found.

- **Use of in appropriate method/Strategies by Teacher:** Teachers either did not employ the recommended methods and strategies for teaching some concepts in English or had little or no idea about teaching those concepts. The result of the observation revealed that some of the teachers found it difficult to understand some concepts in English.

- **Lack of Regular In-Service Training for Teachers**: For a three-year period, the school has not organized any in-service training for its staff. This means that teachers who have problems in their subject areas have to rely on either colleagues or materials which may not give sufficient support.

- **Frequent Teacher Transfers**: Apart from demoralizing teachers, frequent transfers of teachers also discourage the headmaster from organizing in-service training for the school staff. The grade eight English teacher who was one of the participants of this study was transferred in the middle of second term, 2016/2017 academic year.

- **Teacher absenteeism**: Teachers punctuality in Ridge JHS is poor, apart from some coming and not being unstable in the school, others come to school when they are pleased to do so. There is undisputable fact that poor teachers' attendance affects the quality of academic work.

These observations led to many perceived problems as the cause of pupils poor performance in Englsh language at Ridge JHS 'A' in Tamale in the Sagnarigu Distrct.

1.4 Evidence of the Perceived Problem

For a six-year period, beginning from the year 2011-2016, no pupil in the school scored a grade one (1) in the BECE in English language, and only five pupils scored grade two (2) within this period (2011-2016). The majority of them, about 199 out of 772 recorded average grades (5), and 207 of this total scored a low average grade (6) in the BECE. This means that a total of 690 out of 772 could not progress to the next stage ,Senior High School (S H S), (WAEC,2011/2012, 2013/2014, 2014/2015, 2015/2016, 2016/2017 accademic years).The above analyses include English language which is the focus of the study.

1.5 Causes of the Perceived Problem

A close observation of lessons on Englsh Language Teachers revealed that:

- **Teachers did not use TLMs**: The District Directorate of GES doesn't supply TLMs to teachers. The teachers on the other hand do not either have the money to purchase the materials or have refused to do so. Again, they were reluctant to improvise TLM that they were taught during their pre-service training in college.

- **Teacher-centered were Methods**: Lessons in the school were not activity or discussions based. Teachers lectured throughout the lessons. In most cases, pupils are not given the options to ask questions on what they do not understand.

- **Lack of Teacher Enthusiasm**: Teachers enter and leave the classroom looking very dull. A follow up interview on this revealed that the lack of enumeration or motivation on the part of the headmaster as well as the employer (G E S).

- **Lack of Pupils' Motivation**: Many of the teachers make negative remarks on pupils, especially when they performed below average. Unfortunately, they did not equally give positive or encouraging remarks on them when they performed well. They considered it as a must that pupils have to achieve.

- **Non-citing of Environmentally Related Examples**: Unfortunately, many teachers either could not or did not want to tailor the lessons to suit the school environment or home background of pupils. Sometimes, teachers pinned pupils to remote examples in the textbooks where there are many of them abound in the environment.

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1.6 Statement of the Problem

Reading is an essential tool for learning. Inability to read (Dyslexia) affects reading and related language based processing skills. The severity may differ in each individual but can adversely affect reading fluency, decoding, comprehension, recall, writing, spelling and sometimes speech. Problems with reading tend to begin at the onset of reading instruction, then persist, and become more severe with the passage of time (Graney, 2000).

Majority of the teachers in Ridge Junior High school 'A' hold a minimum of bachelor degree including those teaching the English Language but the school continues to record degrading results from the Basic Certificate Examination (BECE). The continuous abysmal performances of the pupils in the school are even worse with English language.

It is against this background that the researcher found it necessary to put in an intervention to improve pupils' reading comprehension and teachers' teaching strategies through SBI on effective strategies for teaching English Comprehension at Ridge JHS 'A'.

1.7 Research Purpose

The purpose of this study was to improve teachers' knowledge on effective teaching strategies on English comprehension, through training on the use of graphic organizers.

1.8 Research Objectives

The objectives of the study were:

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1 To examine the difficulties teachers encounter when teaching English comprehension at Ridge JHS 'A'.

2 To examine challenges involved in organising in-service training on English comprehension at Ridge JHS 'A'.

3 To find out the effects of in-service training regarding English comprehension on teache*r*s performances in Ridge JHS.

4 To explore effective strategies that are effective for teaching English comprehensionin at Ridge JHS 'A'.

1.9 Research Questions

1. What difficulties do teachers encounter in teaching in English comprehension at Ridge JHS 'A'?

2. What are the challenges involved in organizing in-service training at Ridge JHS 'A'?

3. What are the effects of in- service training on teachers' performance on English comprehension at Ridge JHS 'A'?

4. Which kinds of strategies are effective for teaching English comprehension at Ridge JHS 'A'?

1.10 Significance of the Study

The findinds of the significance is in following ways:

➢ It will give an insight into some effective strategies of teaching English Comprehension.

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➢ It will improve teachers' knowledge on effective teaching strategies for English comprehension.

➢ It will also greatly contribute to curriculum design and development.

➢ At the institutional level, the findings will serve as a material for training and finally,

➢ The study will again serve as the bases for further research on other strategies for English comprehension.

1.11 Definition of Terms

Graphic organizers: is the use of diagrams, designs, tools, material and concepts to facilitate the understanding of pupils learning in English comprehension.

GES: Ghana Education Service.

CRDD: Curriculum Research and Development Division

Basic school: primary and Junior High School.

BECE: Basic examination certificate examination.

SBI: School based in-services training

1.12 Organisation of the Study

This study was organized into five chapters:

Chapter one consisted of background, perceived problem, diagnoses, evidence, causes, statement of problems, purpose of the study, research questions, objectives and significance of the study. Chapter two reviewed of the literature: Conceptual frame

analysis, factor under investigation and theoretical framework. Chapter three outlined methodology; profile of study area, research design, population of the study, sample and sampling techniques, data type and source, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, situational analyses, intervention, post-intervention, data analysis and presentation and quality ethnical issues. Chapter four dealt with results and findings; demographic characteristics of respondents, situational analysis, intervention, post-interventions and challenges hindering the effective implementation of programmes. Chapter five provides a summary, conclusions, implications and recommendations.

1.13 Conclusion

This chapter has presented and discussed each of the following: background, perceived problem, diagnoses, evidence, causes, statement of problems, purpose of the study, research questions, objectives and significance of the study, definition of terms and organization of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter two will present a review of literature on comprehension strategies of teaching and their benefits. The chapter will also review each of the following: conceptual analysis, theoretical framework , in-service training , difficulties in teaching English comprehension, effective strategies for teaching English comprehension, effects of in-service training on teacher' performance and challenges of organizing in-service in the school.

2.1 Conceptual Analyses.

2.1.1 Training

In Bramley's (2003) words, training involves learning and educating employee to do something to result in things being done differently. He explains that training is a process that is planned to facilitate learning so that people can become more effective in carrying out aspects of their work.

Training is a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge or skill behaviour through learning experience to achieve effective performance (Wilson, 2006). Employee Development is a process for preparing employees for future job responsibilities. This may include formal and informal training, education, mentoring, coaching etc (Armstrong, 2008).

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Although the terms training and development are often linked, these address slightly different needs. Training focuses on learning the necessary skills and acquiring the knowledge required to perform the job. It deals with the design and delivery of learning to improve organization performance. On the other hand, development focuses on the preparation needed for future jobs; it should be considered investment in the work force since its benefits are long term (Armstrong, 2006).

Effective training is paramount for survival and growth of a business. Training is not just about developing people but helping them to become more confident and capable in their jobs as well as in their lives (Wilson, 2006). The significance and value of training has long been recognized. The need for training is more prominent given today's business climate and the growth in technology which affects the economy and society at large. Employee is trained to assure that current or future needs of the organisation are met.

2.1.2 Trends in Employee Training

The employee training system emerged in ancient cultures to provide a structured approach to the training of unskilled workers by master craftsmen. This system was marked by three distinct stages: the unskilled novice, the journeyman or yeoman, and finally, the master craftsman. Together, they formed an "organic" process whereby the novice "grew" into a master craftsman over a period of years, (Steinmet, 1976).

2.1.2.1 On-Set of Industrial Age

With the onset of the Industrial Age, the training of the unskilled underwent a dramatic transformation in which vocational education and training emerged to replace the traditional apprentice system. The division of labor in an industrial factory resulted in

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specific job tasks that required equally specific training in a much shorter time span. As training activities grew more methodical and focused, the first recognizable modern training methods began to develop during the 19th and early 20th Centuries: gaming simulations became an important tool in the Prussian military during the early 1800s and psychodrama and role playing were developed by Dr. J. L. Moreno of Vienna, Austria, in 1910.

2.1.2.2 The Early 20th Century

The early 20th century witnessed the emergence of training and development as a profession, resulting in the creation of training associations and societies, the advent of the assembly linerequiring greater specificity in training, and the dramatic training requirements of the world wars. Important groups forming during this period include the American Management Association in 1923 (which began as the National Association of Corporation Schools in 1913), and the National Management Association in 1956 (which began as the National Association of Foremen in 1925). At the same time, Henry Ford (1863) introduced the assembly line at his Highland Park, Michigan, plant. Because the assembly line created an even greater division of labor, along with an unprecedented need for precision and teamwork, job tasks and assignments required more highly specific and focused training than ever before.

2.1.2.3 The Influence of World War I and II

The enormous production needs of the World War I and II created a heavy influx of new workers with little or no industrial education or skills to the workplace, thereby

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necessitating massive training efforts that were at once fast and effective. In particular, the heavy demand for shipping construction during World War I resulted in a tenfold increase in workers trained on-site by instructors who were supervisors using a simple four-step method: show, tell, do, check. During World War II, large numbers of trained industrial workers left their jobs to enter the armed forces, severely limiting the organizational support normally provided by coworkers in training their replacements. Heavy demands were placed on foremen and supervisors, and the training within industry (TWI) service was formed to train supervisors as instructors. Job instruction training (JIT) was employed to train defense-plant supervisors in instructing new employees in necessary job skills as quickly as possible. Other programs included job relations training (JRT), job methods training (JMT), and job safety training (JST). During this time, the American Society for Training and Development (ASTD) was formed, (Zuboff, 1984).

2.1.2.4 Formalizing Training

By the end of World War II most companies and organizations realized the importance of training and development as a fundamental organizational tool. Training programs that originally were developed in response to national crises had become established corporate activities with long-term strategies working toward improving employee performance. In the mid 1950s gaming simulations gained popularity. Trainers began giving serious consideration to the efficacy of their training programs, and interest in the evaluation of training programs grew. The 1960s witnessed an explosion of training methods as the number of corporations using assessment centers increased from one to 100 by the end of the decade. Government programs to train young men for industrial

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jobs, such as the Job Development Program 1965 and the Job Corps, were initiated to improve the conditions of the economically disadvantaged. New methods included training laboratories, sensitivity training, programmed instruction, performance appraisal and evaluation, needs assessments, management training, and organizational development, (Cook and Mechner, 1962).

2.1.2.5 Emerging Sense of Professionalism

By the 1970s a new sense of professionalism emerged in the training community. Training programs grew dramatically. Government programs were aimed increasingly at minorities as a group and required corporations to increase their efforts to recruit minorities. With the rise of organizational development, the focus of training shifted away from the individual and toward the organization as a whole. Technological advances in training programs included the use of videotapes, satellites, and computers, (Gery, 1987).

2.1.2.6 End of 20th Century

The 1980s and early 1990s saw important social, economic, and political changes that have had a profound effect on the way corporations do business, resulting in an ever increasing need for effective training. In a time of economic constraints coupled with increasing international competition, training and development programs needed to respond more quickly and effectively to technological change. Increasing governmental regulations also require a greater breadth of training programs to reflect the greater diversity of employees, (Zuboff, 1984).

Furthermore, computers became an integral part of business and industry in the 1980s and 1990s, making knowledge of computer use essential for many workers. As a consequence, companies launched computer training and development programs to ensure that their employees possessed the needed computer skills. In addition, companies used computers as a training method known as computer-based training, relying on specially designed computer programs to impart knowledge and skills needed for a host of tasks**,** (Carr, 1992).

2.1.3 Training Benefits

Leading writers have recognized the importance of training as fundamental for management (Bratton and Gold, 2003). Keep (1989 cited by Redman and Wilkinson, 2006) describes training and development as litmus test against which other characteristics of management practice can be measured*, (*Hanushek, 2003; Barber & Mourshed, 2007*).*

- Increased job satisfaction and morale among employees,

- Employee motivation,

- Increased efficiency and effectiveness,

- Increased capacity to adopt new technologies and methods,

- Increased innovation in strategies and products,

- Reduced employee turnover,

- Enhanced company image,

- Risk management.

The right employee training at the right time provides big pay offs for the employer in increased productivity, knowledge, loyalty, and contribution. Training allows the organisation to develop and promote its own culture. Training also allows organisations to adapt to changes in the business (school) environment and can be used as a change agent to change organisational culture (Wilkinson et al. 2006). Training is a tool that can improve organisational effectiveness, especially in fiercely competitive markets. Training and development helps in optimizing the development of human resource that helps the employee to achieve the individual as well as organisational goals, (Benson, 2006). It increases the job skills and knowledge of employees at all levels and expands the horizons of their intellect and their personality. Training and development helps in indicating the sense of team work, team spirit, and inter team collaborations. It also aids the organisations to get more effective in decision making and problem solving. It also helps in developing leadership skills, motivation, loyalty, better attitudes, and other aspects that successful workers usually display, *(*Armstrong, 2008); (Bratton and Gold, 2003); (Pont, 2003); (Price, 2007).

2.1.4 Training Processes

Training process takes place within the context of the internal and the external environment of the organization. The basis for most training remains the traditional training process. According to Arte, (2016), this involved:

1. Identifying the needs for training and development of the company

2. Planning training or devising learning plan

3. Carrying out or delivering training

4. Assessing and evaluating outcomes/results.

A training need analysis is the first step in identifying the types of programs that will further organisation's goals, which helps to decide whether training is appropriate at all. The organisations have to assess why they need training (Smith and Mazin, 2004). Then plans are made on how to deliver the program and by which method. Armstrong, (2008) placed a great importance on the design of training policy because of its significance of effects on the business. It is an important issue and requires close attention to the organisation's mission, ethical stance and strategic vision. All the policies should be aligned to the company's mission and objectives, (Ross, 2016).

The stability and progress of the organization always depends on the training imparted to the employees. Training becomes mandatory under each and every step of expansion and diversification. Only training can improve the quality and reduce the wastages to the minimum. Training and development is also very essential to adapt according to changing environment, Graham, & Tierney, (2003).

2.1.5 Training Methods

Training and development can focus on different components of employees,(Ronald & Yoonhee, 2009). Organisations can adapt different techniques of training for their businesses and according to their requirement:

1. Acquisition of knowledge

2. Skills development of its staff

3. Others focus on sentimental aspects of the employees and their relationships with others

Few activities seek to integrate all the above. Staff training can be conducted on the job, which is carried out at the trainee's workplace, and off-the-job which is carried out away from employee's work place, (Mullins, 2007). Training methods include observing, questioning, interpreting, reviewing, coaching, e-learning, workshop, induction, job-shadowing, mentoring, seminars, classes, open learning, project work, workshop and simulation.

2.1.6 Types of Training

Various types of training can be given to the employees such as induction training, refresher training, on the job training, vestibule training, and training for promotions. Some of the commonly used training programs are listed below:

2.1.6.1 Induction Training

It is also known as orientation training given for the new recruits in order to make them familiarize with the internal environment of an organisation. It helps the employees to understand the procedures, code of conduct, policies existing in that organization. Induction Training is absolutely vital for new starters. Good induction training ensures new starters are retained, and then settled in quickly and happily to a productive role. Induction training is more than skills training. New employees also need to understand the organisation's mission, goals, values and philosophy; personnel practices, health and

safety rules, and of course the job they're required to do, with clear methods, time scales and expectations.

On the point of value and philosophy, induction training offers a wonderful early opportunity to establish clear foundations and expectations in terms of ethics, integrity, corporate social responsibility, and all the other converging concepts in this area that are the bedrock of all good modern responsible organisations. A good induction can increase staff retention, reduce the time needed for a new staff member to settle into the workplace and generally make for a happier work force, (Bethan, 2013).

2.1.6.2 Job Instruction Training

This training provides an overview about the job, an experienced trainers demonstrates the entire job. Additional training is offered to employees after evaluating their performance if necessary. A main advantage of the JIT method is that training is practical and realistic because work tasks are demonstrated in real-life settings that encourage personalised, hands-on learning. By using personalised training, you will be able to motivate your workers more easily and focus on areas of improvement or need specific to your farm or ranch. Be sure to evaluate the training session to determine whether the workers clearly understood the content and whether you should address additional areas in the future, (Farm and Ranch, 2014).

2.1.6.3 Vestibule Training

Vestibule training is a type of instruction using a vestibule, a small area away from the actual worksite, consisting of training equipment exactly duplicating the materials and equipment used on the job, (Cicero, 2017)

. The purpose of vestibule training is to reproduce an actual work setting and place it under the trainer's control to allow for immediate and constructive feedback. Training vestibules are useful because they allow trainees to practice while avoiding personal injury and damage to expensive equipment without affecting production. Training effectiveness is dependent on the fidelity level of the simulated equipment (Peckler, Schocken & Paula (2009).) and the trainee's ability to behave as in his or her work setting, (Asma 2016).

2.1.6.4 Refresher Training

This type of training programme designed for the old or existing employees of an organization, with a purpose to acquaint them with the new skills, methods, and processes required improving their performance on the jobs. The Refresher training is based on the assumption that the skills with the existing employees become obsolete or outdated because of the advancement in the technology and due to the human tendency of forgetting things. Thus, the retraining is conducted to keep these employees updated with the latest inventions. The need for the retraining arises when there is a continuous fall in the performance of a worker and the attitudinal conflict arises, (Navyatha, 2013)

2.1.6.5 Apprenticeship Training

An apprenticeship program combines on-the-job training with academic instruction for those entering the workforce. Also called dual-training programs because of the combined occupational and in-class components, apprenticeships help individuals put their academic skills to practical use in various careers. Whereas internships are often short-term, rarely lasting more than a year, apprenticeships can last as many as four or

five years. Apprenticeships also differ from internships in that most apprentices are paid, with salary increasing as the apprentice completes parts of the program, (Alison, 2016)

2.1.6.6 Qualities of Effective Trainers

While some of these qualities are obviously necessary for anyone in a teaching position, others may not seem as necessary, such as being patient or open-minded. All of these attributes, however, contribute to making top-notch trainers.

Therefore all the best trainers according to Stephen, (2006) are*:*

➢ **Good communicators.** They speak well, express their thoughts clearly, and have an engaging presentation style.

➢ **Knowledgeable.** They know their topic cold. They understand all the concepts and know all the details. They can answer questions thoroughly and at a level that trainees understand. If they ever can't answer a question, they know exactly where to go to get that answer and they promise to do so as soon as possible.

➢ **Experienced.** They know what they're talking about. They've been in the field doing what they teach in training.

➢ **Good with people.** Their personality styles may vary, but they enjoy working with people. They can engage groups of people and work with them to meet training goals.

➢ **Interested in learning.** They recognize the value of learning in their own lives and want to help others learn. They find satisfaction in sharing with others the skills and knowledge they have acquired through hard work and persistence.

➢ **Patient.** They understand that people learn in different ways and at different paces. They take the time to make sure each trainee understands what's going on and leaves training sessions with the skills and knowledge he or she came to acquire.

➢ **Open-minded.** They respect other people's points of view and know that there are often many ways to achieve the same objectives. They don't assume they know everything, but instead are willing to listen to and learn from trainees.

➢ **Creative.** They bring ingenuity and their own natural curiosity to the task of training. They create an environment in their training sessions that encourages learning and inspires trainees to reach beyond what they already know to explore new ideas and methods.

➢ **Well-prepared.** They know their material, their objectives, and their plan of presentation. They've checked to see that any equipment they expect to use in training is in place and operational. They've made sure that all supplies and supporting materials are available in the right quantities.

➢ **Flexible.** They are able to adjust their training plan to accommodate their audience and still meet all training objectives.

➢ **Well-organised.** Good trainers can handle several tasks at once. They know how to manage their time and their work.

2.1.7 Training Evaluation

Employees need feedback, it is important for their progress and advancement (Armstrong, 2006). Evaluation is a process of establishing the worth or value of

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something (Rae, 1999). Evaluation of training is a process of gathering information with which to make decisions about training activities (Sloman, 1999). Organizations apply performance appraisal evaluation to measure employee work performance and effectiveness, which can help in defining and developing training needs for the organisations. Having a well-structured measuring system in place can help determine where the problem lies (Mullins, 2007). Training evaluation may also help in improving quality of training activities which in turn results in greater benefits.

2.2. In-Service Training

In-service training for teachers has developed mainly in the latest decades; however there is a long history of actions undertaken for teacher professional development within the Ghanaian educational system. The traditional training model of teachers' professional development needs to be abandoned; the training institutions have also to admit the limitation of the dominant training paradigm for the purposes of achieving a reform agenda. UNICEF, (1999). in Robinson, B. & Colin, L. (2003).

For teachers, developing professionally means anticipating and governing the training process, rather than being governed by it. A few principles according to Linda, et al, (2013) .which can't be ignored when considering the professional developments of teachers are:

- Each teacher has his/her own professional biography and must be in a position to have his/her own personalised development plan. Along their career, teachers go through professional cycles and a succession of learning experiences. Being professional teachers means not only being competent

and expert teachers, but also being professionals of knowledge continually learned.

- Teachers are reflective professionals; development implies continuous reflection on experience to devise new patterns of action that more conscious and effective.

They are not only users of training courses, but also valuable resources to understand and renovate the process of teaching. The professional development and well-being of teachers must be given priority within the teacher policy framework which will subsequently improve student learning and achievement. Teachers are not consumers of training courses only but also their knowledge and competence are goods for investment. Teaching is a profession which adopts advanced standards not as means of control but as foundations of advanced performance, (Morrison,2013).

A training policy implies explicit and active teaching policies. Traditionally, government had been a major actor in teacher in-service training and development; nowadays, it is clear that training programmes and policies include a variety of new actors (Gnat, Gnarat, NGOs and researchers).

According to Factoran, (2016); In–Service training program is frequently organized every year to orient new comers or to orient the old ones. They are scheduled in such a way that after a national or regional program for a definite area or objective has been held, echo or seminars are conducted in the different divisions and later in the schools within. The contents of the programs vary from year to year and are tailored to the needs of the

teachers as well as the school system. The purposes of in–service education are the following;

1. To promote the continuous improvement of the total professional staff of the school system.

2. To eliminate deficiencies in the background preparation of teachers and other professional workers in education.

3. To keep the professional abreast of new knowledge.

4. To release creative activities

5. To give the much needed support to the teachers who are entering a responsibility or a new field of work especially the new teachers.

2.2.1 In-Service Training for Teachers

"The thirteenth yearbook of the department of superintendence on social change and education (425) mentioned social change and a too brief pre – service education as reasons for in – service training of teachers. Wightman (434) gave cooperation between teacher, employer, and training school in progressive reconstruction as the purpose of the training school follow-up programs. Edmonson (420) proposed a critical appraise of the significant findings of educational research, and their application, as suitable curriculum material for teachers and administrators in service. The national society of college teachers of education (426) designated needs for in- service programs to serve three groups of teachers:

(a)   those whose professional preparation is below the present accepted standard and who wish to upgrade themselves ;

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(b) Those who wish to prepare for another type of position;

(c) Those who, even though their preparation meets present standards, wish to increase their knowledge or skill in some phase of their work or to add to their general outlook and cultural background.

Kyte (423) suggested the growth of the teacher as the general objective, but explained that

(a) Certification requirements,

(b) Single salary schedules,

(c) Increase competitions due to numbers available,

(d) Increase opportunities for advance training,

(e) Development of follow-up services has aided the increase in university and college provisions for in-service training. Adequate rewards for teachers and increase college budgets were suggested to provide further training" (R.W. Ediston, 1937 .pp.273-275)

2.2.2 Value of In-Service Training

In-service teacher training is important for a teacher because the working conditions and the demands from the society are always changing for professionals like teachers (Gnawali, 2001). Thus, in-service training is necessary to meet the demand of time and demands of the society.

Some of the key objectives of teacher training, as Bhan (2006) mentions, are to upgrade the qualification of a teacher, to upgrade the professional competence of serving teachers, to prepare teachers for new roles, to provide knowledge and skills relating to emerging

curricular change, to make teachers aware of critical areas and issues, and to overcome gaps and deficiencies of pre-service education. These objectives of in-service teacher trainings are equally relevant to the context of Ghanaian education system, (Hargreaves, 1997).

It is the education a teacher receives after he has entered the teaching profession and after he had his education in a Teacher's college. It includes the entire programmes educational social or others, in which the teacher takes vital part. It also includes all the extra education which the teacher received at different institutions by way of refresher courses and all the travels and visits which he undertakes. It may be noted that the predictive value of the Teacher Education Course is no longer a matter of concern today.

On the other hand, it is being recognised as a continuous process, coexistence with teaching. That is why the Adiseshiah Committee, India, (1978) put emphasis on the organisation of in-service training courses for existing teachers in schools on a mass scale in addition to pre-service education. But, yet it can be treated as a corrective and pace-setting programme for the stage of general education for which it is designed. The following are the needs and importance of In-Service Teacher Training programme:

- **Every Teacher is a student**: Education is a life-long process. The teacher should continue to learn throughout his life. According to Tagore (1994, p.64). "A teacher can never truly teach unless he is still learning himself".
 A lamp can never light another lamp unless it continues to bum its own flame. Hence, no man or woman should decide to teach unless he or she is determined to learn, because a true teacher is a student all through his life.

- **Life-Long Education**: The International Commission on Education has further strengthened the need of in-service training by giving a new concept of life-long education. This report states that every individual must being in a position to keep learning throughout his life. The idea of life-long education is the key-stone of the learning society, (Bannerman-Mensah, 2008).

- **For Professional Growth**: In-service training is most essential for the professional growth of the teacher. He needs to renovate his experience, refresh his knowledge, and develop a wider outlook, benefit by the experiences of others, acquire new information and hence reoriented himself, (Vijeesha, 2015).

- **Education is dynamic:** Education is dynamic which is always changing. Educational theories which were considered true twenty years back, no longer hold good today, therefore, a teacher who received his training twenty years back, must receive new training today. He must remain in touch with latest trends in education. He must have the up-to-date knowledge of new problems, new methods, and new techniques in education, (Brian, 2017).

- **Training in democratic living**: When the teachers meet in seminars or workshops, they develop a sense of security; a like-mindedness, a team spirit and a feeling of belongingness. So, in to, the teachers get training in democratic way of living, (Zainab, 2014).

2.2.3 In-Service Training Methodology

Offering senior staff or management the opportunity to learn about the jobs of the teaching staff must be a frequent choice when schools are considering what types of training they will offer teachers. In the light of this, the study will train both the headmaster and his two deputies to support the three trained teachers for the fulfillment of the training objectives. Often, school management is unaware of the day to different methodologies abound in the teaching of various subjects. Some may belief that an understanding of the methodology of various subjects is critical to the school's academic success. Training teachers and school management encourages an understanding and appreciation among all the school and can give rise to new ideas and suggestions for improvements of current practices. Again, training both teaching staff and school heads helps you to identify the unique training needs, skills and competencies for each teacher. Good training also ensures that participants are closely involved in the training process and create a schedule that actively meets the training gaps in the school curricular, (Julia, 2013).

2.3. Theoretical Frame

The theory that guides this literature review on the study is the cognitive approach to teaching and learning English comprehension. "To assume that one can simply have students memorized and routinely execute a set of strategies is to misconceive the nature of strategic processing or executive control. Such rote applications of these procedures represent, in essence, a true oxymoron-non-strategic strategic processing", (Alexander and Murphy 1998, p. 33)

Cognitive strategies are the mental processes used by skilled readers to extract and construct meaning from text and to create knowledge structures in long-term memory. When these strategies are directly taught to and modeled for struggling readers, their comprehension and retention improve. Reading comprehension depends on the execution and integration of many cognitive processes (Kendeou & Trevors, 2012; van den Broek & Espin, 2012; van den Broek, Rapp, & Kendeou, 2005).

To understand a sentence, one must visually process the individual words, identify and access their phonological, orthographic, and semantic representations, and connect these representations to form an understanding of the underlying meaning of the sentence. Similarly, to comprehend a text as a whole, the reader needs to process and connect individual idea units, resulting (if all goes well) in the construction of a coherent mental representation of the text. For these processes to be successful, many factors play a role, including reader characteristics, text properties, and the demands of the reading task, (Danielle S. McNamara & Walter Kintsch, 2009).

The complexity of reading comprehension is captured in theoretical models that describe the cognitive and linguistic processes involved. Some models focus on the mental representation that readers construct as a result of the process of understanding words, sentences, and their respective relations within a text1(McNamara & Magliano, 2009), whereas others focus on the developmental trajectories of various processes and skills central to reading comprehension (Seymour, P. H. K., Aro, M., & Erskine, J. M. (2003)). Although the various theoretical models emphasize different aspects of reading comprehension, they share the central notion that, at its core, reading comprehension

involves the construction of a coherent mental representation of the text in the readers' memory. This mental representation of the text includes textual information and associated background knowledge interconnected via semantic relations (e.g., causal, referential, and spatial relations). Semantic relations are identified by the reader through passive and strategic inferential processes, (van den Broek et al., 2005).

The passive inferential processes take place automatically but the strategic processes demand readers' intentional and working memory resources. In turn, intentional and working memory resources are influenced by the readers' standards of coherence, that is, the level of understanding that a reader aims to achieve during reading (McNamara & Magliano, 2009).

The outcome of reading comprehension is a mental representation of the text in the form of a semantic network but its construction occurs moment-by-moment as the reader proceeds through the text. Distinguishing between the product and processes of reading comprehension is important because it is through the process that such a product is constructed and its quality is determined. With every new piece of information that a reader encounters while reading a text, a new combination of cognitive processes is executed. To engage in the right process at the right time is essential for successful reading comprehension. Therefore, it is important to understand where the cognitive processes may fail for struggling comprehenders and how we can positively influence these processes. Indeed, reading comprehension interventions frequently implicitly or

explicitly propose activities designed to influence processing and thereby alter the product of reading (Rapp, van den Broek, McMaster, Kendeou, & Espin, 2007).

The cognitive processes of reading comprehension roughly fall into two categories:

(1) Lower level processes that involve translating the written code into meaningful language units,

(2) Higher level processes that involve combining these units into a meaningful and coherent mental representation.

With respect to lower level processes, there is general consensus that comprehension of text depends heavily on decoding, reading fluency and vocabulary knowledge (Horiba, Y., & Fukaya, K. (2015).

With respect to higher level processes, research consistently has demonstrated the critical role of inference making, which enables a reader to connect one part of the text to other parts of the text and to background knowledge (Lee, S. K. (2009), executive function processes such as the ability to organize and reflect on information within the limits of a reader's working memory capacity (Swanson and Alloway, 2012; Titz and Karbach, 2014), and attention allocation abilities such as selective attention and comprehension monitoring which enable a reader to focus on central or relevant aspects of the text,(Jaeggi S. M., Buschkuehl M., Jonides J., Perrig W. J. (2008)..

Both lower level and higher level processes of reading comprehension begin to develop before reading education starts and they independently predict reading comprehension ability at a later age (Kendeou, van den Broek, White, & Lynch, 2009). Lower level

processes such as decoding undergo tremendous changes in early childhood and typically become more automated during the first grades of elementary school (Kendeou, Papadopoulos & Spanoudis, 2012). Automatization of these lower level processes leaves more mental resources available for higher level processes of reading comprehension (van den Broek, Bohn-Gettler, Kendeou, Carlson, & White, 2011). Higher level processes become automated more slowly and go through considerable developmental changes from early childhood into adulthood (Todaro et al., 2010; Wittwer & Ihme, 2014). When a child is repeatedly unsuccessful in comprehending texts that he/she has read, this suggests reading difficulties at the processing level. These difficulties can manifest themselves in various ways: failure to recall the main points of a story, failure to answer literal and/or inferential questions, failure to complete the actual reading of the text, and so on. These failures may be due to deceits in lower level processes that involve translating the written code into meaningful language units (e.g., phonological processes, decoding processes, etc.), to higher level processes that involve combining these units into a meaningful and coherent mental representation (e.g. inferential processes, executive function processes, attention–allocation abilities), or both. Approaching the issue of reading difficulties at the level of specific processing difficulties offers an important advantage: It can inform the design or selection of appropriate instructional materials and interventions to remediate the source of the difficulty (McMaster et al., 2012; Rapp et al., 2007).

Indeed, remedial plans are likely to be most effective if they are based on a solid understanding of the possible sources of failure (Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff, & Harniss, 2001). On the one hand, comprehension by readers with difficulties predominantly in

lower level processes suffers because these processes exhaust attention and working memory resources and because the meaningful message (i.e., the translation from written code to meaning) is inadequate and presents inaccurate or incomplete input to the higher level processes. On the other hand, readers with weaknesses predominately in higher level processes such as inference making, executive function skills, and attention–allocation abilities have difficulty identifying semantic connections between text units, identifying connections between the text and their prior knowledge, identifying the important or main ideas in a text, and monitoring their comprehension (Helder, Van Leijenhorst, Beker, & Van den Broek, 2013).

For these readers, comprehension is compromised at the level of combining language units into a meaningful and coherent mental representation; even if the construction of a mental representation of the text is possible, it is likely that the quality of the representation suffers significantly. It is important to note that three processes influence, and is being influenced by each other but for pedagogical purposes we are discussing each independently of one another:

- **Inference making**: Inference making one source of reading comprehension problems concerns the ability to generate inferences. Inferences allow the reader to construct meaningful connections between text elements and relevant background knowledge and therefore are crucial to comprehension (Van den Broek et al. 2011) The development of inference making skills begins at a young age, well before formal reading education starts (Kendeou, Bohn-Gettler, White, & van den Broek, 2008; van den Broek, 1989). As children become older, the inferences they generate change in both their quantity and quality, for example,

with development children increasingly generate inferences that connect larger text units such as paragraphs, event episodes, and sections, rather than just inferences that connect individual events and facts within an episode or section. Also, they increasingly infer abstract connections (e.g., between themes, to characters' feelings) in addition to concrete connections (Lee, S. K., 2009).

As a result, with age and experience, children identify a greater number and wider variety of semantic connections during reading. Readers who are weak in making inferences almost inevitably fail to comprehend all but the simplest texts, because they are unable to identify important connections that lend coherence to their text representations. Such weakness may result in difficulty recognizing the proper referential connections that indicate that an object or person referred to in one sentence is identical to that in another sentence, (Rapp,

2008)

Inference difficulties also manifest themselves in problems making inferences those fill conceptual gaps between the clauses, sentences, and paragraphs in a text, (Rapp, D. N., & Braasch, J. L. G. (2014). Even when a reader is capable of making such inferences, weakness may result if the reader adopts standards of coherence that do not fit the goal of reading the text and, hence, makes insufficient or inadequate inferences (van den Broek, Bohn-Gettler, Kendeou, Carlson, & White, 2011).

Finally, weakness in inferential ability may result when the reader lacks the background knowledge necessary for important inferences, (Richter, T., Schroeder, S., & Wöhrmann, B. (2009). This background knowledge includes both content knowledge (e.g., when a

ball hits a window, the window is likely to break) and knowledge about text structures (e.g., narratives usually begin with a setting and problem, and end with some resolution; different types of informational texts have different structures, (Young, T.A.and BarbaraA.W.2012)**.** Readers who experience difficulty in inferring important connections, in applying the proper standards of coherence, or who lack background knowledge are likely to construct impoverished representations of the texts they read and, as a result, fail to grasp their meaning.

- **Executive Functions:** A second source of reading comprehension problems concerns a reader's executive functions. Executive functions refer to cognitive processes that regulate and control our behaviour while performing a particular task (Clancy,2013). Two important executive functions are working memory and inhibition. Working memory enables the reader to maintain information while processing incoming information, making it possible for the reader to integrate the two pieces of information (Titz & Karbach, 2014). Inhibition enables suppression of irrelevant information, and thus determines which information to maintain in active memory. Individual differences in working memory result in differences in reading comprehension in adults and predict reading comprehension skills in children over and above lower level skills (Perfetti, 2007).

Working memory capacity increases during the elementary school years (R. Development Core Team.2012). into adolescence and adulthood, (Rossana, Barbara & Erika, 2007). Readers with low working-memory capacity experience numerous constraints on how much information they can keep active as they read, resulting in lower

comprehension and recall performance (Julie, Clinton, and Anuenue,2014). The ability to keep information active is essential to inference generation and to a reader's ability to reflect on his or her understanding (or lack of understanding) of the text (Juan, Isabel, and José (2016). Therefore, weakness in working memory results in inadequate inference making and comprehension monitoring. Likewise, weaknesses in other executive functions have been found to contribute to reading comprehension problems. For example, readers with deficits in executive function skills demonstrate difficulties in planning and organizing (Locascio, Mahone, Eason, & Cutting, 2010) which, in turn, impede reading comprehension, particularly when the text at hand is complex and long. These readers are less efficient in applying reading strategies when those are needed for comprehension, (Eason, Goldberg, Young, Geist, & Cutting, 2012).

Individual differences in inhibition also result in differences in reading comprehension. Indeed, good inhibition skills relate to good comprehension and vice versa (Panayiota, Anne, Paul. van den Broek and Josefine, 2014). For example, to successfully create a coherent representation of a text, a reader must maintain in active memory the most important information while being able to inhibit less important information. Children with poor reading comprehension skills show difficulty eliminating information that is no longer relevant in both short term memory tasks and working memory tasks. Specifically, when children are instructed to ignore certain words during reading, children with poor inhibition skills fail to do so, and are more likely to remember the to- be-ignored words than children with good inhibition skills, (Cain, 2006).

In summary, weaknesses in executive functions such as working memory and inhibition may seriously hamper the   reader's ability to perform the cognitive processes necessary for adequate comprehension.

- **Attention–allocation ability:** A third source of reading comprehension problems concerns attention–allocation ability, the ability to adapt attention and processing resources to the demands of the task at hand (Liu, Reichle, & Gao, 2013). As children develop and become more proficient at reading, their ability to focus on structurally central aspects of the text becomes more selective and more efficient (van den Broek, 1989). This developing sensitivity to structural centrality is reflected in better allocation of attention to structurally central information during the processing of the text and in a more prominent position of this information in the mental representation of a text (van den Broek, Helder, & Van Leijenhorst, 2013).

Children with attention–allocation deficits may experience reading comprehension difficulties. Attention deficits may impede readers' comprehension monitoring, the ability to evaluate one's level of comprehension of a text (McInnes, Humphries, Hogg-Johnson, & Tannock, 2003). As a result, readers with attention deficits are more susceptible to being distracted by detail, especially when reading longer texts, and fail to focus on main ideas (Liu, Reichle, & Gao, 2013)).These readers have relative difficulty to detect coherence

breaks in texts, which ultimately may result in less coherent mental representations of texts (Cain & Oakhill, 2007).

In summary, inferential ability and its components, executive functions such as working memory and inhibition, and attention allocation are essential aspects of successful comprehension. Weakness in each creates a source for comprehension difficulties. Although these are main sources of difficulty, they are neither exhaustive nor mutually exclusive. Importantly, this means that struggling readers do not fit a single, specific profile but rather exhibit diverse patterns of weaknesses that influence each reader's reading development and performance in different ways (Cain & Oakhill, 2006; Nation, Clarke, & Snowling, 2002).

2.3.1 Implications of the Cognitive View on Reading Comprehension

The cognitive view of reading comprehension has implications for describing, explaining, and addressing the needs of struggling readers. A classic study by Dolores Durkin (1978/1979), "What Classroom Observations Reveal about Reading Comprehension Instruction," called attention to the need for change in comprehension instruction. Durkin found that most of the questions that teachers asked students during reading instruction required only literal responses, and she observed that very little comprehension instruction was actually taking place in elementary school classrooms.

This review, discusses several implications for readers who exhibit difficulties in higher level processes, in particular as they pertain to the selection and design of instructional materials and to the design of remedial instruction.

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- A first set of implications pertains to the types of instructional materials teachers can use with struggling readers. One such implication is that non written media can be used to foster skills that are important to reading comprehension.

Higher level processes such as inference making, executive functions, and attention–allocation skills are recruited in similar ways during reading a text, listening to a text, or even during a visual presentation of the narrative (Kendeou et al., 2005, 2007, 2008).

This generalization across media offers a unique opportunity for training higher level skills in struggling readers. This is particularly the case for readers who also have difficulty in lower level reading processes because the use of different media preserves their working memory resources (which would otherwise be expended on decoding) and allows them to engage in higher level processes. As a final example, attention allocation can be directed to potential inconsistencies in the story line to develop better comprehension monitoring skills. Recent initiatives in the field implementing such activities in the context of formal oral language interventions in struggling or even pre-readers show promise (Desmarais, Nadeau, Trudeau, Filiatrault-Veilleux, & Maxes-Fournier, 2013; van den Broek, Kendeou, Lousberg, & Visser, 2011).

- A second set related implication for instructional materials is that it is useful to adapt texts according to their purpose. For example, an important distinction is between texts used to teach reading skills and texts used to teach content knowledge. On the one hand, if the purpose is to teach higher level skills such as

inference making then one should gradually build up the difficulty level of the texts in terms of the demands on the inference processes. This should be done in a systematic and logical order, for example by leaving various types of connections in the text implicit for the reader to infer; gradually increasing the distance of the conceptual gaps in the text, and so on. On the other hand, if the purpose is to teach content (e.g., science, history) then one should design the texts such that the demands on cognitive processes are as minimal as possible, in particular those process that are involved in the sources of difficulty described above. This can be done, for example, by putting important information that needs to be connected in close proximity in the text and by making implicit connections more explicit (McNamara, Ozuru, & Floyd, 2011).

Indeed, text parts that are highly connected typically facilitate memory and are recalled more often, even by struggling readers (Espin, Cevasco, van den Broek, Baker, & Gersten, 2007). Finally, by directing attention to the important information using textual markers such as headers (Lemari´ e, Lorch, Eyrolle, & Virbel, 2008) and subheaders (Lorch, Lorch, & Mogan, 1987) and by organizing the content in a logical yet interesting way, teachers can help readers create a coherent mental representation of the text with less effort. Thus, by carefully designing texts in accordance to their instructional goal, teachers can ease the cognitive load of the struggling reader and free-up important cognitive resources that, in turn, can be allocated to the construction of a coherent representation of the text, (Williams et al., 2005).

- A third set of implications pertains to the nature of the interventions designed to remediate struggling readers' difficulties. A general implication is that, for an instructional strategy or intervention to be effective, it needs to focus on improving the online processes that occur during reading (Rapp et al., 2007). For example, one can foster the generation of important and appropriate inferences by modeling and practicing such inferences through questioning activities during reading. Indeed, the implementation of structured questioning interventions during reading shows great promise for improving reading comprehension skills in various subgroups of struggling readers (McMaster et al., 2012).

Also, readers' attention allocation during reading can be improved by implementing activities that direct attention to the important or central information in texts (McKeown, Beck, & Blake, 2009; Vaughn et al., 2000) and by practicing the detection and repair of coherence breaks (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002).

A final set of implications pertains to the role of background knowledge. Having appropriate background knowledge is essential for generating inferences (McNamara &Kendeou, 2011). When the intervention goal is to help struggling readers develop inference making skills it is important that the materials do not require background knowledge that the student does not possess; without the required knowledge the student simply would not be able to practice inference making. When the intervention goal is to have the reader acquire new content knowledge, then it is important to introduce the new knowledge in a structured, well-paced gradual manner to allow the reader to gradually

construct a coherent representation of the knowledge. An interesting situation pertains to the correction of incorrect knowledge.

Incorrect knowledge or misconceptions lead to the generation of incorrect inferences and, consequently, to misunderstanding of new texts (Blanc, Kendeou, van den Broek, &Brouillet, 2008; Kendeou, Muis, & Fulton, 2011; Kendeou & van den Broek, 2007).

From a processing point of view, misconceptions are best confronted by presenting the existing, incorrect knowledge and the new, correct knowledge explicitly and in close proximity in the text (Kendeou, Smith, & O'Brien, 2013; van den Broek, 2010; van den Broek &Kendeou, 2008). By doing so, the two types of knowledge are processed together and the chance that the misconception is corrected is optimized.

In the late 1980s the USA National Assessment of Educational Progress (Applebee, Langer, & Mullis, 1987) recommended that reading instruction should emphasize thinking skills and strategies that would enable readers to engage in higher-level interpretive responses to texts. Since Durkin's study, reading researchers have studied the strategies expert readers use as they read and how to improve readers' understanding of text through comprehension strategy instruction.

2.4 Difficulties in Teaching English Comprehension

There are various factors militating against the effective teaching and learning of reading comprehension in our primary schools.

Oyetunde and Unoh (1986) list impediments to positive reading habits and attitude. These includes lack of materials, poor preparation of teachers, lack of interest, poor libraries or none at all, home background, and lack of adult readers as models.

Ojo (1993) found that the major causes of students' poor performance in English and other school subjects is their inability to read effectively, which, in turn, is largely is due to the attitude of learners toward reading. Lawal (1982) did diagnostic testing of reading achievement of selected secondary schools in Samaru, Zaria, and described such reading problems as: omission, substitution, reversal, mispronunciation, sight, vocabulary, not up to grade level, nervousness, slow reading, and lack of comprehension. Teachers must take responsibility for solving these problems, but (Folaranmi, 2007) believes that the government should involve teachers in working out effective ways of making the teaching profession viable for serving teachers and attractive to incoming ones, in order to address the problem of student poor reading culture. Adekoya and Arua (1997) believe that many bilingual students fail to comprehend what they read in the school situation because they lack the vital firsthand experience necessary to widen their knowledge and general information of their culture which are not included in the school text. Akinbade (2007) stated that a good environment is necessary to promote effective learning in primary schools.

Problems in reading can affect performance across several academic content areas, occupational endeavors, and other functional skills that are used in everyday life activities. Two types of students with reading problems that school psychologists and educators are likely to encounter are students with IQ-reading achievement discrepancies

and students with a combination of low ability and low reading achievement. Students who have IQ-reading achievement discrepancies tend to have average to high average IQ and listening comprehension scores (Aaron & Joshi, 1992).

Children with developmental dyslexia are included in this group of poor readers. Dyslexia is often associated with some neurological impairment that results in poor word recognition skills including phonological processing. Slow rate of reading, erratic oral reading, misuse of function words and suffixes, and reading comprehension difficulties on timed reading tasks are among the symptoms commonly associated with dyslexia (Aaron & Joshi, 1992).

Low ability readers make up the largest number of poor readers. They tend to have lower than average IQ and have below grade level listening comprehension, word recognition, and reading comprehension performance. Although we tend to classify children with severe reading problems as low ability readers or IQ-achievement discrepant readers, current research indicates that there are no significant differences between these two groups of readers on how they develop reading precursor skills (Wristers, Francis, Foorman, Fletcher, & Swank, 2000).

Earlier research conducted by Stanovich and Siegal (1994) also suggested that IQ did not predict reading difficulties among low ability (garden variety readers) and IQ-discrepant readers. Instead, they found that phonological core variables were better predictors of reading skills. Therefore, differential diagnoses based on IQ scores do not yield different growth patterns in reading development. For this reason, the remainder of this section will describe poor readers according to specific cognitive processes and behaviors they

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exhibit rather than according to diagnostic categories. Poor readers with word recognition difficulties generally over rely on textual cues such as pictures and other words to identify words in a passage that are unknown to them (Kim & Goetz, 1994). Overusing textual cues to identify unknown words reduces the likelihood of transforming unknown words into sight words (Pressley, 1998).

Many errors are made when children use semantic contextual approaches rather than sounding out words. Children need opportunities to sound out words even if this means they have to struggle (Adams & Henry, 1997). This may be easier said than done as many children do not know how to begin to sound out words. Some poor readers have limited letter-level knowledge or an understanding of the alphabetic principle. Typically, these types of readers are limited to being able to sound out only the beginning letter of a word. The inability to sound out words can be attributed to phonological processing difficulties. Weak phonological processing accounts for the largest population of students classified as having dyslexia or individuals with severe word recognition difficulties (Pressley, 1998).

Phonological awareness is a crucial component to becoming literate. This has been verified through studies that examined long-term effects of phonological awareness training in preschool and kindergarten on subsequent reading achievement performance of first, second, and third graders (Ball & Blachman, 1991; Byrne & Fielding-Barnsley, 1993).

Phonemic awareness knows that spoken language is made up of discrete, operable sounds. Rhyme production, sound blending, sound deletion, sound substitution, and

sound segmenting are among the many ways individuals can operate on spoken words. Developmentally, children begin with rhyme activities and then progress to segmenting sounds in words. Among phonemic awareness exercises, phonemic segmentation is the best predictor of word identification for primary grade children (Nation & Hulme, 1997). An example of a phonemic segmentation exercise would be to pronounce a word such as "cat" and ask a child to say each sound as three separable sounds in the word such as /c/ /a/ /t/.

Some children develop phonemic awareness through literacy experiences at home before entering school while others have limited exposure to print and role models who engage in reading and writing. Some children, regardless of their environmental conditions, struggle with grasping phonemic awareness. Thus, children who lack phonological skills and have a limited vocabulary will have difficulty phonologically "recoding" letters back into their constituent sounds when they encounter print (McCormick, 1999).When most children initially encounter a printed word, they go through a process of sequentially decoding the word by attempting to make letter-sound conversions. Phonological recoding occurs as children check to see if the word they made matches a word that has been stored in their memories (Daneman, 1991).

 At advanced stages of this process, children learn to decode words hierarchically. Hierarchical decoding involves using letters in words to cue the sounds of other letters. For example, using the "e" at the end of the word "came" to say the "a" as a long vowel sound. Related to phonological recoding is orthographic processing. Orthographic processing refers to recognizing and remembering letters which includes noting

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sequences of letters in words and being able to distinguish among spelling patterns of words. Although smaller in population compared to those with phonological deficits, some children with reading and spelling problems have difficulty processing words orthographically (Stanovich & West, 1989).

Children need to become automatic at recognizing words to free up their cognitive energies to gain meaning from text. Poor readers not only struggle with recognizing words in text but also have difficulty suppressing irrelevant information in text which places limitations on the use of their short term capacity for comprehending printed material (Pressley, 1998). These students have particular difficulty grasping an understanding of texts that contain words with multiple meanings (McCormick, 1999).

Beyond the word reading level, poor readers have difficulty making inferences about the content presented in text. Poor readers do not connect ideas well and may not grasp the conceptual nature of the material. Problems with making inferences are partly due to poor readers' lack of prior knowledge about the content. On the other hand, good readers read more and gain more knowledge each time they read material. Good readers also have a repertoire of comprehension strategies to help them construct meaning from text. Poor readers know very few, if any, strategies that aid in the construction of meaning from text and strategies for monitoring understanding of text (Pressley, 1998).

What every teacher needs to know about comprehension characteristics that are distinctly applied with eachtext and situation (Butcher & Kintsch, 2003; Fletcher, 1994; Narvaez, 2002). The most importantof these characteristics is likely the reader'sworld knowledge (Fletcher, 1994). The more backgroundknowledge a reader has that connects withthe text

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being read, the more likely the reader willbe able to make sense of what is being read(Butcher & Kintsch, 2003; Schallert & Martin,2003). The process of connecting known information to new information takes place through a series of networkable connections known as schema (Anderson & Pearson, 1984; Narvaez, 2002).

In schema theory, individuals organize their world knowledge into categories and systems that make retrieval easier. When a key word or concept is encountered, readers are able to access this information system, pulling forth the ideas that will help them make connections with the text so they can create meaning. Schema theory involves the storage of various kinds of information in long-term memory. Because long-term memory appears to have infinite capacity (Pressley, 2003), it is likely that readers have many ideas stored in long-term memory. When a key word or concept is presented to the reader (through a title, heading, or someone who has recommended the text), some of this stored information is brought forward and temporarily placed into short-term memory so that the reader can return to it quickly as he or she reads.

Short-term memory has limited capacity, and often the information pulled from long-term memory prior to or during reading is only available for a short time and then is placed back in long-term memory. Short-term memory shifts and juggles information, using what is immediately pertinent and allowing less pertinent information to slip back into long-term memory (Schallert & Martin, 2003).

The amount and depth of a reader's world knowledge vary as do other individual characteristics. Readers vary in the skills, knowledge, cognitive development, culture,

and purpose they bring to a text (Narvaez, 2002). Skills include such things as basic language ability, decoding skills, and higher level thinking skills. Knowledge includes background knowledge about content and text and relates to the available schema a reader has for a particular text. A reader's cognitive development causes that reader to evaluate text in different ways—for example, to make moral judgments. Comprehension is affected by a reader's culture, based on the degree to which it matches with the writer's culture or the culture espoused in the text, (Narvaez, 2002).

Readers also read in particular ways depending on the purpose for reading. Another individual difference that exists in readers is motivation. Motivation can influence the interest, purpose, emotion, or persistence, with which a reader engages with text (Butcher & Kintsch, 2003; Schallert & Martin, 2003).

More motivated readers are likely to apply more strategies and work harder at building meaning. Less motivated readers are not as likely to work as hard, and the meaning they create will not be as powerful as if they were highly motivated, (Marva and Barbara, 2009).

Oyerokun (1993) emphasizes the need to use appropriate techniques and materials in teaching. She further states that in order to achieve this, the school, teacher, and parents should work together to ensure improvement in reading performance. Bond and Tinker (1973) share the same view as Onibokun, maintaining that school, students, teachers, and parents should work to improve English language reading skill. Chihemen (2007) states that government has an interest in this matter, and put in place a training programme called " The Special Teacher Upgrading Programme (STUP)" to address the deficiency among pupils.

But the fact is; there are so many challenges in teaching reading comprehension in schools in Ghana. Teaching a reading text is taken as the easiest task among all the activities that teachers do in a language classroom. Generally, teachers come in the class without any preparation and they deliver a long lecture on the content. They do not care whether the text is appropriate to the learners or not. Moreover, they hardly give any importance to language teaching and language learners and their interest. There is nearly no any task for students except memorizing word meaning and question answers. In most cases, teacher explains the words for the students and later they remember them for test. Students who have difficulties in reading choose neither to read nor to engage in other tasks involving reading (Stanovich, 1986, as cited in Ahmad, 2006).

Students do not get chance to read on their own, as a result they struggle with the new text in making sense out of it in the real life situation. From close study and careful observation of English lessons in the school, I found that about 350 (42%) of the 817 pupils manifested various degrees of difficulties in reading comprehension passages. The following challenges as explained by (Tunley, 1997), was related to the pupils in English comprehension. as explained: These were;

- Selecting appropriate text

- No reading culture

- Designing reading task

- Lack of Schema activation

Moreover, there are some other related issues such as lack of knowledge of target culture, difficult vocabulary, too much emphasis on bottom up approach by the teacher, lack of

motivation to read on the part of the students, no sufficient preparation in teaching etc. All these challenges, as a whole, make reading text difficult and boring to learners. In fact, teachers seem unaware about the fact that reading text is for students. They practice reading in the classroom and develop their reading proficiency instead of letting students enhance their reading skills. Gnawali, (2005) stated that it is teacher who improves his/her English in highly teacher-centered classroom but not the learners. Moreover, they are not even clear about the purpose of teaching reading text. Generally, they believe that they need to teach reading text simply because it is given in textbook and is going to be asked in examination. Ahmad (2006, p.70) states, "They (teachers) said that passing exam were more important than spending time on extra reading". So, the main aim of teaching reading text for them is to help students in securing good score in exam. Above all, we can say that teachers do not know exactly why they do what they do in language classroom.

Reading is more than just picking up words, phrases, and sentences written in the text; it is, an activation of the prior knowledge that we already have in our mind. When we read any text, we use our knowledge of the world to understand the text. Reading is, therefore, a 'psycholinguistic guessing game' (Goodman, 1967, p.127 as cited in Hedge, 2010). We make guesses and match them with what is given in the reading task. When our prediction is similar to information given in the text, we easily comprehend it but when our mental script is challenged or when we don't have any similar kind of experience; we face difficulty in understanding the text. Hudson (2007, p.37) states, "The reader makes guesses about the meaning of the text and samples the print to confirm or disconfirm the guess. In this way reading is an active process in which the reader brings to bear not only

knowledge of the language, but also internal concepts of how language is processed, past experiential background and the general conceptual background". Thus, schema activation in teaching reading is a key factor in understanding the text.

However, the mental schema is activated only when we are familiar with the context and the information given in reading text. "…the first part of a text activates schema…which is either confirmed or disconfirmed by what follows" (Wallace, 1992, as cited in Stott, 2001).

In other words, in order to make students able to use their schema, reading text must be similar to their background knowledge. Similarly, teacher must be able to prepare appropriate task to encourage students in using their knowledge of the world. But in context of Ghana, as I have already mentioned, there are so many problems with the reading texts and the tasks that teachers design while teaching reading passage. Therefore, these two issues: first selecting right kind of reading text and second preparing suitable reading tasks for students need to be discussed in details, (Richard, 1994).

2.5 Effective Teaching Strategies

Collins and Smith, (1982) were among the first to provide a framework for using these strategies as an integral part of comprehension instruction. They categorized reading strategies into two general classifications:

- Comprehension monitoring, hypothesis generation and evaluation.
- Revision.

That is, they suggested that readers construct meaning in response to an unfolding text by integrating textual information with their prior knowledge to generate predictions,

inferences, and questions about the piece. Readers build a "working hypothesis" about the meaning of the text as it unfolds, and as they encounter new information or activate relevant knowledge they confirm, revise, or reject initial predictions, assumptions, or interpretations.

Readers monitor comprehension as the text unfolds by evaluating their working hypothesis to identify gaps or problem areas that need rethinking and revision. The instructional plan presented by Collins and Smith featured teacher modeling and student engagement. That is, the teacher models both comprehension monitoring and hypothesis generation while reading a text aloud. Then the teacher invites student participation in these strategic activities. The goal is for students to internalize these strategies so they can use them as thoughtful, independent readers.

- Strategic instruction was also a central part of the studies in "reciprocal teaching" conducted by Annemarie Sullivan Palincsar and Ann L. Brown (1984; 1988), who focused on teaching four comprehension monitoring and comprehension-fostering strategies. What was unique about this plan was the use of dialogue to help students internalize the strategies. The teacher supports the students as they work in small groups interacting with a text and engaging in a dialogue about the text. Their dialogue is guided by the use of the four basic strategies, (Anita, 2015*).*

- asking questions

- identifying sections in the text that require clarification

- Summarizing the text

- making predictions

The reciprocity of the dialogue emerges as the students take turns assuming responsibility for leading the group. This work reflected the shift from identifying and teaching discrete skills to focusing on students' efforts to make sense of ideas or to build their own understanding of text and their own active involvement as readers as they construct meaning in a social context.

The research of the 1970s and 1980s served as a point of departure for further studies of strategy instruction, and other researchers have expanded on this earlier work. For example, Michael Pressley and his colleagues (1992,p.515) used the term transactional strategies instruction to describe an approach in which students are taught to coordinate a repertoire of strategic processes and Teachers and students jointly construct understandings of the text as they interact with it. This collaborative construction of meaning results in a small interpretive community. The long-term goal is for students to internalize the strategies used in the group setting and to use these strategies as independent readers. That is, students internalize these processes: development and practice of a repertoire of reading strategies; regular discussion of metacognitive information, such as when, where and why to use particular strategies; building a nonstrategic world knowledge base; and motivation to use the strategies and world knowledge being learned. The term transactional as applied to this approach is based on the reader-response theory of Louise Rosenblatt (1978).

The new view of reading that evolved out of the research of the 1970s and 1980s emphasized the cognitive and interactive nature of the reading process and the constructive nature of comprehension (Rumelhart, 1980; Spiro, 1980). This research highlighted the active role of readers as they engage in cognitive and affective

transactions with text and generate meaning by bringing their prior knowledge and experience to the text (Adams, 1977; Golden, 1986; Goodman, 1967, 1985;Rosenblatt, 1982; Rumelhart, 1976; F. Smith, 1978, 1988).

Frank Smith, (1978, p. 5), introduced the term non-visual information to refer to this prior knowledge used to construct meaning. According to Smith, "The meaning that readers comprehend from text is always relative to what they already know and to what they want to know" (Smith1988, p. 154). He refers to organized knowledge or cognitive structures as "the theory of the world in our heads," which enables readers to make predictions as they interact with a text (Smith, 1988. p. 7). "Prediction means asking questions, and comprehension means being able to get some of the questions answered.

There is a flow to comprehension, with new questions constantly being generated from the answers that are sought" (Smith, 1988, p. 19). In the interpretive dialogues featured in this book, the children were encouraged to develop their own questions to guide the reading-thinking process as they encountered literary texts. The literature experiences that formed the core of the literary/literacy program described in this book were cumulative, and, as such, provided opportunities for the children to expand and revise the theory of the world in theirheads and to build new cognitive structures (or prior knowledge) to bring to and enrich each new experience with literature. These literature experiences set the stage for readers to engage in cumulative meaning-making processes. According to Langer, (1987a).

Reading as a meaning-making process involves envisionment building: I use the term envisionment to refer to the understanding a reader has about a text what the reader understands at a particular point in time, the questions she has, as well as hunches about

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how the piece will unfold. Envisionments develop as the reading develops. Some information is no longer important, some is added, and some is changed. What readers come away with at the end of the reading, I call the final envisionment. This includes what they understand, what they don't, and the questions they still have. The final envisionment is also subject to change with time, as the result of "conversations with others, the reading of other works, or pondering and reflection," (Langer, 1990, p. 812*).*

Envisionments are text-worlds in the mind, and they differ from individual to individual. They are a function of one's personal and cultural experiences, one's relationships to the current experience, what one knows, how one feels, and what one is after**,(** Langer, 1995, p. 9).

In the context of the interpretive dialogues described in this research, children were invited to articulate their initial understandings or envisionments of a text and to revise or extend these envisionments as they gained new information from the unfolding text. The children were encouraged to use their prior knowledge in conjunction with text knowledge to explore possible meanings, perspectives, and interpretations and to reflect on their own understandings in light of their life experiences and their "conversations with others, the reading of other works, or pondering and reflection.", (Langer, 1995, p. 9)

Rosenblatt (1982) focuses on the nature of readers' responses to unfolding texts, and her transactional theory of reading provides a framework for exploring a reader's responses to literature. According to Rosenblatt, (1982, p. 268), reading is a "transaction, a two-way process, involving a reader and a text at a particular time under particular circumstances"

.The nature of this transaction is determined by the reader's stance or "mental set," which is related to a reader's expectations and the way he or she approaches the text. Rosenblatt uses the term aesthetic to refer to a stance that allows a reader to focus on the "lived through" experience of reading. She argues that the most effective way to read fiction and poetry is from an aesthetic stance. The aesthetic reader enters into the story world and "lives through" it as a personal and emotional experience. Rosenblatt, (1982) uses the term efferent to refer to the stance of the reader who focuses on accumulating information to use in the real world. Thus, nonfiction texts are most effectively approached from an efferent stance by readers who are interested in facts and knowledgeto be "carried away at the end of the reading", Rosenblatt, (1982, p. 269).

Accordingto Rosenblatt (1991), readers can switch stances while reading andstance can move along the efferent/aesthetic continuum within a singlereading event. Most reading is predominantly, rather that solely, one or the other. Rosenblatt (1991) again observes that teachers need to be clear aboutthe different purposes of efferent and aesthetic reading, and that differentpurposes lead to different modes of reading. Thus the teacher needsto decide whether the emphasis is on verifiable information or practicalapplication or whether the purpose is literary. Rosenblatt, (1991, p 277) calls for literature instruction that emphasizes aesthetic reading: "Preciselybecause every aesthetic reading of a text is a unique creation, woven out of the inner life and thought of the reader, the literary workof art can be a rich source of insight and truth".During the read-aloud sessions described in subsequent chapters, the children entered into the story world and shared their spontaneous personal responses to this experience. They were also invited to stepback from this aesthetic experience and to explore the story objectivelyas a literary text, and to

engage in reflection, analysis, and interpretation. The term critical/analytic has been used to refer to a third stance,which is defined as a "focus on a major dilemma or problem facing acharacter, a consideration of reasons for different courses of action, and appeals to the text for evidence and for interpretive context" (Chinn,Anderson, & Waggoner, 2001, pp. 381–82).

By stepping back from thetext, the children shifted from the aesthetic stance to the critical/analytic. Over time, they learned to adopt the stance appropriate to their purposes in their transactions with texts. Langer (1994) also distinguishes between a literary orientation and reading to gain information:

A literary orientation can be characterized as exploring a horizon of possibilities. It explores emotions, relationships, motives, andreactions, calling on all we know about what it means to be human. It is one of exploring horizons where uncertainty is a normal part of response, and new-found understandings provoke still other possibilities. When the purpose of reading is primarily to gain information (as when students read science and social studies texts), the reader's orientation can be characterized as "maintaining a point of reference.",(Langer, 1994.p. 204–5).

 James Baumann and Gay Ivey (1997) conducted a yearlong study featuring strategy instruction integrated within a rich literature-based environment. They conceptualized their study in terms of two of what Hudelson and Lindfors (1993) call delicate balances: "a curriculum balance between literature envisionment (Langer, 1995) and skill/strategy instruction, and an instructional balance between teacher-initiated instruction and instruction responsive to students' needs and interests" (Baumann & Ivey, 1997, p. 244).

They used Langer's concept of literary envisionment as the framework for promoting literary appreciation and response.

2.6 Effects of In-Service Training on Teachers' Performance

A meta-analysis related to in-service teacher training conducted by Oorsouw, Embregts, Bosman, and Jahoda (2009) signified the specific ingredients (i.e., goals, format, and techniques) for in-service training that are related to improvements in teacher behavior and/or skills. The research discovered that:

(a) The combination of in-service training with on-the-job coaching was the most powerful format; that is, this type of format yielded the most significant changes in teacher behavior.

(b) Training packages containing multiple techniques (i.e., in-service lectures or presentation of information, modeling, and role playing) produced the greater changes in teacher behavior and (c) Training packages that included verbal feedback on-the-job, as well as praise and correction produced greater improvements in teacher behavior.

The current study will incorporate the training components found effective; that is, training in the current study will include in-service training with on-the-job coaching, verbal feedback, praise, and correction. This multi-component training package will include live in-service trainings, video modeling and role playing of assessment and instructional procedures, on-the-job coaching, and feedback regarding teachers' performance, (Fuller's, 1949).

Jacob & Lefgren (2004) find that marginal increases in-service training have no statistically or academically significant effect on either reading or math achievement,

suggesting that modest investments in staff development may not be sufficient to increase the achievement of elementary school children in high poverty schools. Training teachers is more likely to lead to diversity in practice at all levels of instruction. According to Asu (2004, p.15) there are several outcome areas that are potentially affected by teacher training program. These include:

1. Teacher knowledge,

2. Teacher attitudes and beliefs,

3. Teaching practice,

4. School-level practice, and

5. Student achievement.

Purpose of training is to generate the conditions that enable the practice to be selected and used appropriately. There are many critical elements in teacher training that should be given due attention. Hoffman and Pearson (2004, p.3) have summarized from Cruickshank and Metcalf (1990), the findings from the literature on training in terms of the following critical elements of teacher training: According to Mcber (2000, p.7) there are three main factors within teachers' control that significantly influence pupil progress. These are:

- **Teaching skills:** These are those behaviors that the effective teacher constantly exhibits when teaching a class. These include involving all pupils in the lesson, using a variety of activities or learning methods, applying appropriate teaching methods, and using a variety of questioning techniques to probe pupils' knowledge and understanding.

and transformation. Therefore, this research seeks to scrutinize issues and challenges of in-service teacher training.

In-service teacher training in Ghana is usually seen ineffective because English language teachers are not adequately trained to teach at school (Shrestha, 2008). There are questions to be addressed in relation to the quality, transformation of knowledge, effectiveness, methodology and approaches of in-service teacher training. School administrators, the major stakeholder, often complain that training is provided only when there is a revision or changes in core curriculum. Neuman (2010, p.18) states that many teachers who are interested in exploring processes of teaching and learning in their own context are either unable, for practical reasons, or unwilling, for personal reasons, to do collaborative work. However, in our context, teachers are hardly willing to collaborate with each other. On the basis of my own interaction with major stakeholders, besides collaboration, these are some major issues and challenges of in-service teacher training.

- **Eduaction does not reflect pupils' cultural settings**: Reflecting westing culture in our educational system, especially at the basic level is one of the major challenging issues where scholars strive on imitation of what happens in the western countries. Our curricula, pedagogical approaches, assessment methods continue to be derived from the West. For instance, Vygotsky, Piaget, Bruner and Maslow continue to be perceived as gift for the scholars of education in Ghana. Similarly, practicum or teaching practice models are imported from another context. These concepts need to be contextualized rather than adapted. Teacher training institutions and schools have not valued indigenous epistemologies or the

culture and value systems of Ghana children. This has led in significant ways to schools being perceived as an alien and unfriendly place, with seemingly irrelevant content and practices that marginalize students and lead to underachievement. Therefore, the need for a culture sensitive pedagogy in teacher training program is crucial.

- **Shortage of trained trainers and trained teachers**: In Ghana, while there had been a 61-per cent increase in the number of primary school teachers over the past decade, the percentage of trained teachers fell gradually from 72 per cent in 1999 to 53 per cent in 2013.

The country needs to expand teacher recruitment by just 10 per cent per year to achieve Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 2020, while reducing its pupil-teacher ratio to 40: This is below its five per cent average annual growth rate of teachers since 1999. Yet, the number of existing teachers needing to be trained must grow by almost 10 per cent per year to ensure that there will be 40 pupils per trained teacher in 2020, down from 59:1 in 2013. This is well above the two per cent average growth rate of trained teachers since 1999, (Bonney, 2014)

- **Teaching conditions**: One cannot talk about teacher training or education without adequately looking at their teaching conditions. An inescapable fact in Ghana context is that teachers are underpaid but overworked. Unreasonable demands and pressures are laid at their shoulders, more so when they get transferred to rural communities where the living standard is generally lower than urban centres. Policy makers need to ensure that teachers are treated equally so that they could

contribute the best in term of effort and outcome in the classroom and communities. Therefore, their teaching conditions need careful re-evaluation.

- **Ongoing professional development**: It is not unusual in Ghana for teachers to continue working without further upgrading of their knowledge or skills for the rest of their teaching careers. For example, it is common for primary or Junior High School teachers in either rural or urban schools to fail to undergo any refresher courses for a very long time. They require attending short in-service training courses only when there are changes made to curricula. This has serious implications for the quality of their teaching. It is imperative that Ministry of Education devises strategies whereby their teachers would be continually upgraded on curriculum, pedagogical and assessment area in their respective fields.

- **Shifting from knowledge to practice**: Teacher trainings require a shift of focus from what teachers know and believe to what teachers do in the classroom. In this regard, (Freeman, 2001) states that as there are many problems with this knowledge-transmission view, it depends on the transfer of knowledge and skills from the teacher education to the classroom in order to improve teaching. This does not mean that knowledge and beliefs do not matter but, rather, the knowledge counts for practicing entailed by the work. A practical knowledge generates tasks and involves teachers in practice. But, practice-focused curriculum for learning teaching needs to include significant attention not just to the knowledge demands of teaching but to the actual tasks and activities involved in the work.

The concern on focusing to the practical tasks is that if the teachers become aware of the practical tasks, they can develop different tasks and apply in the classroom. Getting knowledge means being aware and applying in the daily behavior. For instance in a classroom, the novice teacher needs to know how to conduct a short warm-up language activity at the beginning of the day, it is easy to shift into a discussion of the uses of warm-ups, an analysis of possible language activities, or a reflection on how well a particular activity worked. Thus, teacher training needs to offer deliberate opportunities for teachers to practice the interactive work of instruction. Shifting of training must be observed in classroom context rather than documentation.

Besides the above mentioned challenges, teacher trainings are mostly based on aid dependency where concerned authorities conduct training to get aid form the foreign agencies. Thus, teacher trainings are just in name, not in work. Without blaming anyone, training should be conducted for knowledge transferring into classroom, improving teacher skills, and attitudes – but not for imposing latest development theories.

Another area of concern is the lack of induction program to new-inexperienced teachers after joining schools. Even national curriculum doesn't talk about new teacher induction, this situation needs rectifying. A teacher goes to school and the head-teacher or principal asks him/her to start immediately, and even sometimes the teacher is assigned to teach Social Studies or Population. What needs to be remembered is that ultimately, it is the students who will suffer the consequences of inadequate support for teachers starting out on their teaching careers.

- **Top-down:** In most cases, seeing the 'large number of teachers' to be trained, the focus has been on centralised models, where training modules are designed and developed at state capitals and then sought to be implemented across the entire state in a homogenous manner, so much so that the biggest fear here is 'cascade dilution'. We are familiar with the large size of the trainee groups so as to be able to conduct the program within the expenditure norms allowed, or cases of some teachers repeatedly attending training programs, while others bypass such programs (since the basic reporting is in terms of 'person days of training', an aggregate number that does not reveal such practices).

There is often no process/system in place to capture/record the each teachers own perception/expectations regarding professional growth and development and no engagement with teacher educators/educationists to mentor/develop such expectations. However, in all large organisations in the corporate sector for eg, the drawing of 'individual learning plans' (ILPs), in consultation between the employee and his/her supervisor and the HR department is the starting point for development processes.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter two has presented a review of literature on comprehension strategies of teaching and their benefits. The chapter also reviewed the following: conceptual analysis, theoreticalframework, in-service training, and difficulties in teaching English comprehension, effective comprehension strategies, and effects of in-service training on teacher' performance a nd challenges of organizing in-service in the school.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter deals with the methodology of the study which comprises the profile of thestudy area, research design, population of the study, sample and sampling techniques, data collection instrument, data collection procedure, pre- intervention,intervention and post- intervention, data analyses and presentation, data quality, ethical issues and conclusion.

3.1 Profile of Study Area-Education Ridge

Ridge JHS 'A' which was established in 1987 as part of the nationwide educational reform, has a total population of 817 pupils; 443 females and 374 males currently (2016/2017) on role. The school has a staff capacity of 31 members; 9 females and 22 males with the head master inclusive.

Administratively, the school has a headmaster, two deputies-Assistant, 'A' and 'B', and a staff secretary. Assistant 'A' is in charge of administration and the 'B' is in charge of academic affairs. The assist 'B' is in charge of conducting internal examinations only. The school has a laid down procedure in communicating within its rank and file. Information passes through the headmaster, the two assistants, and form masters to class prefects. General announcements are often given during morning and closing assembles by either the headmaster or teachers on duty.

Academically, the school has unstable academic records since its inception. An informed interview with the headmaster revealed that the school scored a 90% pass mark in BECE in the 2006/20007 academic year and in the other way round, the school registered its worst (40%) performance in the BECE in the 2012/2013 academic year. The headmaster is of the view that the staff is doing well but they are overwhelmed by the over enrolment of pupils. Each form has a minimum of 60 pupils in a class for the four streams, and this is a serious challenge in improving the quality of academic performance in the school.

In terms of site, Ridge Junior High school is located right behind the Regional Education offices at Education Ridge in the newly created Sagnarigu district in the Northern Region of Ghana. Education Ridge is land mass which stretches from the new Sports Stadium along the Radio Savanna road to Choggu Hill-top runabout. It then continues westward from the Hill-top runabout to the Tamale Technical University (then T-Poly) and continues southwards to the fringes of Wurishe local community. It again stretches South-westwards long the borders of Sagnarigu local community to the old Airport. The border also continues from there northwards along the old Airport road to the new sports stadium.

The area has three high learning institutions which are closely located and share common boundaries which mostly overlap one another. The institutions are Tamale Technical University (then T-Poly), Tamale College of Education and Bagabaga College of Education. The area also harbours Tamale Senior High School, Ridge Junior High School and primary, Choggu Demonstration JHS and primary, Bagabaga Demonstration JHS and primary. It also contains the Northern Regional Education offices along the main

Sagnarigu entry road from Tamale Main Township, and the Sagnarigu District education Directorate right in the heart of Tamale Senior High School.

Socially, the place is both a residential area for G E S and other administrative officers. The occupants of the low cost (government buildings) are a blend of various tribes as there is no dominant tribe in the residency. There is no predominant religion among the people as one could sight only the Cathedral church in Tamasco and a mosque around Choggu Demonstration JHS as the only big places of congregational worship. Dagbanli and English dominate all other languages spoken by the people.

Traditionally, the area belongs to two chiefs; the paramount chief of Sagnarigu and the chief of Choggu, though there is no mark point's in separation in terms of land jurisdiction but they know where and when one oversteps his boundary. In recent times, the chiefs seems to have relinquished most of their authorities over the land because they are coming to terms that the area now belongs to government though it was acquired freely from the local authorities through their ancestor.

3.2 Research Design

The design for the study is action research in nature. Teachers that engage in action research process are immersed in examination "what it means to make disciplined- as opposed to intuitive- statements about teaching", (Freeman, 1998, p. 9). Therefore, the teachers' account of the teaching processes is derived from evidence that has been gathered through a systematic and evaluative research process. "Teaching is highly complex, and most teachers have scant opportunity to explore   common problems and

possible solutions, or share new pedagogical approaches with their colleagues" (Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p. 24). Action research process is collaborative and investigative where practitioners work together to design and follow through with research on practical problems in their classrooms. Educational action research practitioners are involved in the process of inquiry to improve educational practice by studying the literature and research related to their questions and then choosing an approach or designing an alternative that might result in refining current practice.

This study's planned intervention involved participants in Ridge JHS 'A'. The school is a public one that serves a wide- community (Sagnarigu, Choggu, Wurishei and Nyohini) and addresses a multitude of broad social and academic problems; it is the aim of the study to facilitate focusing the school's attention on training teachers on effective strategies for teaching English comprehension through the use of graphic organizers. Since this situation is relatively unique, and not typical of most Action Research projects because the researcher isn't an outside party been called in by a domain-based insiders to apply methodological expertise in addressing an already-perceived problem. It will also provide a baseline for reflection on the methodology as the project proceeds

3.3 Population

The population of this study is 817 people from Ridge JHS 'A'. This comprised 374 males and 443 females. The school has a staff capacity of 31 teachers of which 9 are females and the rest males with the headmaster and the assistants inclusive. Each of the staff holds minimum of bachelor degree mostly in basic education inclusion the six participants in the study.

The two categories of staff were trained together in the setting. The philosophy behind training the administrators in addition to the focal group (English teachers) is to enable them support the participants when implementing the intervention strategies.

3.4 Sample and SamplingTechnique

3.4.1 Sample Size

A sample size of 36 people which comprised of 6 out of 31 teachers and 30 out of 817 pupils from Ridge JHS 'a' were selected and interviewed for the research, and observation conducted on them during lessons.This was to enable the researcher have a sample size that can be effectively handled due to limited time and fun in conducting the research.

3.4.2 Sampling Technique

Purposive sampling technique was used to select Ridge JHS 'A'. With this sampling technique, the sampling units are carefully selected subjectivity to obtain a sample that is representative of the population (Bryman, 2008). Robson (2005) also noted that this sampling technique allows the researcher to use his /her judgment to select cases that best enable him to answer his research question and to meet the research objective. In this method, the units of the sample are selected, not by a systematic random process, but are intentionally selected for the study because of their peculiar characteristics or because they meet certain qualities which are not randomly distributed in the population but exhibit most of the characteristics of interest to the research (Bryman, 2008). This technique was used because the school had been recording poor results from the BECE every year. Purposive sampling technique was also used to select the 36 participants in

the school. The assumption was that selecting this number of participants will give enable the researcher make a fair assessment of the situation for the appropriate intervention.

3.5 Data type and Source

The data type was primary and secondary. The primary data is made up of the actual data collected from Ridge JHS 'A' and analysed in this study. The secondary data was made up of this information gathered from books, and other document.

The study relied heavily on primary source of data since there are no much published materials on the school's programme. This source of data for the study was the school's records (report cards, lesson notes, and staff and pupils attendance registers), 6 teachers and 30 pupils from Ridge JHS 'A' in Sagnarigu District in Northern Region. Because the study focused on equipping teachers with effective teaching strategies on English comprehension through the use of graphic organizers, it had therefore narrowly focused on one school setting (Right Junior High Scool 'A') as its source of data. "By concentrating on a single phenomenon or entity, this approach aimed to uncover the interaction of significant factors characteristic of the phenomenon", (Merriam, 1991, p. 10).

3.6 Data Collection Instruments

The instruments for data collection were interviews and observations which discussed in the following sub-headings:

3.6.1 Interviews; Conducting interviews was one of the methods the researcher used to gain understanding of the participants' perceptions of changes in their teaching, instructional and reflective practices. Seidman (1998, p.4) states, "If a researcher's goal is to understand the meaning people involved in education make of their experience, then interviewing provides a necessary, if not always completely sufficient, avenue of inquiry". The researcher's goal was to understand the meaning of teachers' experiences with instruction, as related to action research. The structured interview questions corresponded with the research questions and were aligned with the action research process. The interview prompts were open-ended. Follow-up questions were used when needed for clarification or to invoke further response to the question. The interview questions were reviewed for clarity and content by members of the dissertation committee, individuals versed in action research and doctoral students from Ridge JHS 'A'. In addition, pilot interviews were conducted to ensure clarity and alignment with research questions. The pilot interviews were conducted with teachers that were conducting action research at other schools. After the pilot interviews, there were no changes made to the interview questions because the teachers being interviewed and the researcher found them to be clear. Two formal and structured interviews were conducted with the six participants. Each interview was conducted individually. Interviews were conducted both at the beginning and end of the study. The interview meetings accommodated the schedules of the participants, which included time slots that were before, during and after school. Therefore, these interviews were conducted between 6:15 A.M. and 5:00 P.M. The interviews provided data to answer all three of the study's questions. The two structured interviews were audio recorded by the researcher. Each

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interview was transcribed by the researcher. Following the transcription of each interview, each participant was asked to review the transcription of his or her interview. This member check helped to ensure the accuracy of the data. The interviews which were self-constructed provided the researcher with a context which offered a better understanding of the behavior being discussed.

3.6.2 Observations: Observations were conducted to gather supporting evidence to the teachers' interview responses. In addition, the researcher used these observations to gather evidence to support the four areas in which this study focused: the overall teacher role, teachers' knowledge about teaching, teaching practices, reflective practices. The original plan was for the researcher to conduct formal observations as a follow-up to the formal interviews. For example, if a teacher stated in an interview that they were analyzing student work to make decisions about changing teaching practices, the researcher would attempt to observe that specific action during the formal observation. To record specific observation data related to the formal interviews, the researcher created a classroom observation instrument. The researcher conducted three formal observations and found that the formal observations were not providing the researcher with the tue reflections of the pariticipating teachers practices. The researcher observed that the teachers were not behaving in a comfortable manner when the formal observations were being conducted on them. Because of this reaction from the teachers, the researcher changed from formal observations to more frequent and shorter informal observations. This change provided the researcher with more authentic data. With this, the teachers became accustomed to the researcher's observations, which helped to support the researcher's role as a non-obvious participant and researcher. The researcher

recorded his observation data in an observation field notes journal. This allowed the researcher to record all the information observed more completely and without restriction.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The first day at the school, the researcher sought the consent of the head teacher and other staffs to enable him carry out the study. During the first visit, teachers were informed about the impending interview and rationale behind it. They also were made aware of the intent of the exercise that it was meant for academic purpose only. The researcher used the first two weeks to observe the way teachers taught English comprehension, and the pupils' participation level. Interviews with teachers were conducted to establish the challenges teachers face in teaching English comprehension.

On the second day which was still within the first week, the researcher went from class to class to observe English comprehension lessons, pupils participation and materials used in teaching & learning. The researcher interviewed the pupils to see if their teachers were teaching them English comprehension regularly and how they taught them. The essence of the pre-intervention was to establish the difficulties teachers encounter when teaching English comprehension.

3.8 Pre-Intervention (Situational analyses)

The data collection procedures are discussed in the following subheadings:

3.8.1 Informal participant and researcher

The researcher in this study was actively involved in the professional lives of the individuals being researched. In conducting qualitative research, Merriam, (1991, p.52) stated, "The researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis". The researcher plays a dual role of an informal participant and researcher. Stoddart (1986) stated that being non-obvious is simplified by taking part in the ongoing activities of the participants, without bringing specific attention to oneself. Being a non-obvious informal participant and researcher provides the researcher with a unique lens that was influenced by the expertise and background of the researcher.

The researcher had expertise in both instructional technology and action research. Therefore, the researchers' expertise enabled her to fulfill the role as an informal participant and researcher with more ease than someone without these expertises. The researcher attempted to be as non-obtrusive as possible by active involvement in three of the participants' formal work sessions. At these work sessions the researcher responded to questions that were directly related to the action research process. In addition, the researcher conducted informal observations on an average of three times per week. During these informal observations the researcher answered questions about action research and in a few cases about the use of instructional strategies. The researcher's consistent attendance at the school allowed for a more trusting relationship with the participants. This acceptance allowed the researcher to gather more data from the participants. The researcher also observed that more differentiated staff development opportunities should be available for teachers. For that reason, the researcher chosed this

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study to investigate the influence of action research, to better understand if and how this type of professional development can be considered as an option for more differentiated staff development. Therefore, given the focus of many educational reform efforts on accountability and measurements of student performance, the researcher did believe it is important that action research be investigated to measure its realistic worth in promoting professional improvement.

In addition, it is possible that because the researcher played a dual role as an informal participant and researcher, the findings may have been influenced. On that account, the researcher paid close attention to the biases these expertise and beliefs presented. The researcher sought consultation about evidence of bias with her committee chair, a committee member and two colleagues. In addition, the researcher sought the expertise of her committee chair, a committee member and a colleague to verify coding of the data for identification of themes.

Interviews: Conducting interviews was one method the researcher used to gain anunderstanding of the participants' perceptions of changes in their teaching, instructional and reflective practices. Seidman (1998, p.4) states, "If a researcher's goal is to understand the meaning people involved in education make of their experience, then interviewing provides a necessary, if not always completely sufficient, avenue of inquiry". The researcher's goal was to understand the meaning of teachers' experiences with instruction, as related to action research. The structured interview questions corresponded with the researchquestions and were aligned with the action research process. The interview prompts were open-ended. Follow-up questions were used when

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Observations: Observations were conducted to gather supporting evidence to the teachers' interview responses. In addition, the researcher used these observations to gather evidence to support the four areas in which this study focused: the overall teacher role, teachers' knowledge about teaching, teaching practices, reflective practices. The

original plan was for the researcher to conduct formal observations as a follow-up to the formal interviews. For example, if a teacher stated in an interview that they were analyzing student work to make decisions about changing teaching practices, the researcher would attempt to observe that specific action during the formal observation. To record specific observation data related to the formal interviews, the researcher created a classroom observation instrument. The researcher conducted three formal observations and found that the formalobservations were not providing the researcher with authentic data. The researcherobserved that the teachers were not behaving in a comfortable manner, but were more or less performing while the formal observations were being conducted. Because of this reaction from the teachers, the researcher changed from formal observations to more frequent and shorter informal observations. This change provided the researcher with more authentic data. The teachers became accustomed to the researcher's observations, which helped to support the researcher's role as a non-obvious participant and researcher. In addition, the researcher found that the classroom observation instrument did not support the data collection for the informal observations. The researcher found the instrument to be too restrictive. The researcher found that he was attempting to fit the observation data into the format of the instrument. The researcher became concerned with losing the data that did not fit into the instrument. Therefore, instead of using the observation instrument, the researcher recorded his observation data in an observationand field notes journal. This allowed the researcher to record all the informationobserved more completely and without restriction.

Researcher Observation Field Notes; The researcher kept a journal of observation field notes and discussions. Aftereach informal observation the researcher recorded her

observations in her journal.Maykut and Morehouse (1994, p 73) corroborated this data collection technique. They stated, "The keen observations and important conversations one has in the field cannot be fully utilized in a rigorous analysis of the data unless they are written down". The descriptions of the setting and informal discussions were recorded as specific examples of observed behaviors, quotations, and pictures.

Artifacts; Artifacts were used as evidence of common themes from field notes, observationsand interviews. The field and observation notes helped the researcher to collect noted artifacts. Also, artifacts were collected in a spontaneous manner. For instance, if a teacher stated that he or she created a system to record and analyze student work data, the researcher asked the teacher for an example of this record system.

3.8.2 Intervention

The researcher organized a day school based in-service training for the teachers on effective strategies for teaching English comprehension.

3.8.3 Post Intervention

The researcher conducted an analysis of the post-intervention studies to examine the relationship between pre-intervention assessments and post-intervention level, and the changed in teaching strategies.

3.9. Data Analyses and Presensation

The data collected from this study were analyzed on an ongoing basis using the constant comparative method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This non-mathematical data analysis

process was used to guide the researcher through identifying themes and patterns within individual cases and across the three streams (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994)

This approach provided the researcher with the means to analyse each individual cases for emerging themes and patterns, and then compare those results with the cases before the intervention to identify emerging themes and patterns. The data collected were organized and assembled by date and data collection method (observation and interview). This helped the researcher to identify change and growth associated with the intervention.

These results were analyzed and compared for emerging themes and patterns. In addition, the results from each case; participant interviews, classroom observations, researcher field notes, student and teacher artifacts were combined, analyzed and compared across all the three streams for emerging themes and patterns. This was done by listening to the audiotapes of the scripts for key words and phrases. This step was completed by initially listening to each participant's tape from beginning to end on two separate occasions. Then the tapes were listened to according to each individual question. Themes were categorized using the research questions as a framework from which to start. To help ensure the reliability of the data, themesand patterns were distinguished if they were evidenced from two different participants and when appropriate two different sources. Dates were used to identify when specific data sources were recorded.

3.10 Data Qualities and Ethics

There are three formal subjectivity checkpoints within this study which are discussed in the following subheadings;

Theses Committee and Peer Review

Throughout the data collection and data analysis processes the researcher sought the expertise of the dissertation committee members. The researcher also requested analysis assistance from four educators and one non-educator employed in the field of research science. These external checks were incorporated to obtain the viewpoint of the devil's advocate (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Participant Review

At the end of the final analysis the findings were shared with the participants. The participants were asked to further assess the validity of the findings. Lincoln and Guba (1985) suggested that having participants in the study check the data helps to verify the data collected and the interpretations of that data.

3.11 Ethics

In a school setting, the researcher was acting not only as a researcher but also as teaching agent (Hammack, 1997). Minors are asked to decide whether to participate in the research being conducted by their teachers or not. In addition to being unable to formally consent to research study participation, minors are unlikely to possess the maturity or independence necessary to decline participation in studies conducted by the researcher on whom they are dependent for their grades, access to resources, and enriching experiences while in school.

Another issue to consider is the freedom of the student to choose whether to participate in research that is part of the normal schooling process. In this case, the researcher clearly

defined the study as different from the normal school classroom process so students will have no difficulty making an informed decision and freely choosing (or choosing not) to participate. (Nolen & Vander Putten, 2007, p.402).

A third application of the foundational principle of respect for persons involves the intertwined issues of the teacher researcher's prior relationships with the participants and, more important, the participants' perceptions of the voluntary nature of participation in the research study. (Nolen & Vander Putten, 2007, p.403)Nolen and Vander Putten offered advice for the teacher researcher. Establish a relationship between the researcher and participants that was as democratic as possible. In doing so, the participants became part of the decision-making process in all phases of the research. Consequently, the participants commented on the findings and, together with the researcher, developed more effective strategies for English comprehension.

3.12 Conclusion

This chapter has dealt with the methodology of the study which comprises the profile of the study area, research design, population of the study, sample and sampling techniques, data collection instrument, data collection procedure, pre intervention ,intervention and post- intervention, data analyses and presentation and, data quality and ethical issues.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented and discussed the research method, the research design, the population and sample, the research instrument, the data collection procedure, ethical aspects, validity and reliability. This chapter four (4) presents the analytical method used in analysing the data. It also presents the interpretations of the participants' responses to each of the questions asked. The chapter presents the findings both from the interview and the observation. The chapter also explains how the intervention activities will be done, how the results of the post interventions look like and conclusion.

4.2 Analytical Method Used

The researcher captured the direct words of the participants in both the interview sessions and the observation session. The researcher then used the manual method to transcribe the interview transcripts generated from these participants. The researcher when analysing the data read and became familiar with the data and then identified the main themes from the data. The researcher examined the data and provided detailed descriptions of the participants' words and responses. The researcher categorised and coded the data and then grouped them into themes. The researcher interpreted the organized data so as to draw up the conclusion.

Below is the analyses of the responses both from the interview and the observation are presented as 4.3 and 4.4 respectively:

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4.3 Findings from the Interview

4.3.1 Difficulties Teachers Encounter in Teaching English Comprehension

Rearch Question 1: What Difficulties do Teachers Encounter in Teaching English Comprehension?

Based on the pre-intervention data collected on the challenges teachers encounter in teaching English Comprehension which was discorcered during the interview and the observations made on English lessons; the study revealed that there was lack of reading habit and skills among pupils, lack of reading materials in Ridge JHS 'A', inadequate time for teaching English comprehension, and overcrowding of pupils in the classrooms.. Thi was the opinion of a teacher: *I think there is lack of reading ability, habit and skills among pupils.*

Oyetunde and Unoh (1986) list impediments to positive reading habits and attitude as lack of materials, poor preparation of teachers, lack of interest, poor libraries or none at all, home background, and lack of adult readers as models.

Findings on the question of school related challenges that act as impediments to teaching and learning of English comprehension were: lack of audio visual materials and teacher absenteeism. A teacher had the following to say: *The teaching of English comprehension was mostly done in abstraction becausare of lack of textbooks and other materials for teaching.*

On the question on pupil's related factors that act as impediment to the teaching and learning of English comprehension; the findings were that most pupils do not have good

foundation in the English language; pupils do not understand the English language, truancy, absenteeism, inattentiveness, hyperactivity, laziness and noise in class. The voice below was presented by a teacher: *Most of these pupils absent themselves from schools and have less English language foundation.*

Readers with low working-memory capacity experience numerous constraints on how much information they can keep active as they read, resulting in lower comprehension and recall performance (Just & Carpenter, 1992; Linderholm & van den Broek, 2002).According to Liu, Reichle and Gao (2013) a third source of reading comprehension problems concerns attention–allocation ability, the ability to adapt attention and processing resources to the demands of the task at hand.

The findings on the environmental related setbacks to the teaching and learning of English comprehension were that: pupils are not living in environments that encourage reading and speaking of English language, noise and distractions from people and poor lighting and ventilation in the school and pupils homes. Assertions from a teacher were*: our school is surrounded by noise and not conducive for teaching.*

Adekoya and Arua (1997) believe that many bilingual students fail to comprehend what they read in the school situation because they lack the vital first hand experience necessary to widen their knowledge and general information of their culture which are not included in the school text.

4.3.2 Challenges of Organizing In-Servi Trainingproblems of In-Service Education

Resarch Question 2: What are the Challenges of Organizing In-Service Training the School?

On the basis of my own interaction with major stakeholders, besides collaboration, these are some major issues and challenges of teachers' in-service training.

Reflecting western culture in Ghanaian educational system is one of the major issues that strive on imitation of what happens in the western countries in text and in practice. Our curricula, pedagogical approaches, assessment methods continue to be derived from the West. For instance, Vygotsky, Piaget, Bruner and Maslow continue to be perceived as gift for the scholars of education in Ghana.

Teacher training institutions and schools have not valued indigenous epistemologies or the culture and value systems of Ghanaian children. This led in significant ways to the school being perceived as an alien and unfriendly place, with seemingly irrelevant content and practices that marginalize students and lead to underachievement. Therefore, the need for a culture sensitive pedagogy in teacher training program is crucial. A teacher has this to say: *There is disparity between pupils backgroung knowledge and what they learn at school.*

In Ghana, while there had been a 61-per cent increase in the number of primary school teachers over the past decade, the percentage of trained teachers fell gradually from 72 per cent in 1999 to 53 per cent in 2013**,** *(Emmanuel, 2014).*

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This is below its five per cent average annual growth rate of teachers since 1999. Yet, the number of existing teachers needing to be trained must grow by almost 10 per cent per year to ensure that there will be 40 pupils per trained teacher.This was the opinion of a teacher: *Each class contains atleast 60 pupils and sometimes we are compelled to use two registers.*

One cannot talk about teacher training or education without adequately looking at their teaching conditions. An inescapable fact in Ghanain context is that teachers are underpaid but overworked. Unreasonable demands and pressures are laid at their shoulders, more so when they get transferred to rural communities where the living standard is generally lower than urban centres.

During the interview, some participants mentioned that many teachers continue to working without further upgrading of their knowledge or skills for the rest of their teaching careers. They further revealed that teachers require attending short in-service training courses only when there are changes made to the curricula, and that this has serious implications for the quality of their teaching. A participant has this to say*: Education comes to a halt as far as the there is no continuous upgrading of teachers knowledge.* It is imperative that Ministry of Education devises strategies whereby their teachers would be continually upgraded on curriculum, pedagogical and assessment area in their respective fields.

Teacher trainings require a shift of focus from what teachers know and believe to what teachers do in the classroom. In this regard, (Freeman, 2001) stated that as there are many

problems with this knowledge-transmission view, it depends on the transfer of knowledge and skills from the teacher education to the classroom in order to improve teaching. This does not mean that knowledge and beliefs do not matter but, rather, the knowledge counts for practicing entailed by the work. A practical knowledge generates tasks and involves teachers in practice. But, practice-focused curriculum for learning teaching needs to include significant attention not just to the knowledge demands of teaching but to the actual tasks and activities involved in the work.

Besides the above mentioned challenges, teacher trainings are mostly based on aid dependency where concerned authorities conduct training to get aid form the foreign agencies. Thus, teacher trainings are just in name, not in work.

Another area of concern is the lack of induction program to new-inexperienced teachers after joining schools. Even national curriculum doesn't talk about new teacher induction, this situation needs rectification. A teacher goes to school and the head-teacher or principal asks him/her to start work immediately. What needs to be remembered is that ultimately, it is the pupils who will suffer the consequences of inadequate support for teachers starting out on their teaching careers.

In most cases, seeing the 'large number of teachers' to be trained, the focus has been on centralised models, where training modules are designed and developed at state capitals and then sought to be implemented across the entire state in a homogenous manner, so much so that the biggest fear here is *'cascade dilution',which means sacrificing quality for quantity*. These were the words of teacher: *Teacher training still relays on the centralised principle and not specific to each situation.*

In-service education programme is capital intensive and most of the participants are self sponsored. As a result, many of them cannot cope with exorbitant school fees and other incidental expenses on textbooks and personal upkeeps.

The time factor is a major constraint as contact hours for lectures and examinations are inadequate. Therefore, the effectiveness and scope of instruction is in doubt. Equally important are the problems of inadequate facilities in terms of classrooms, laboratories and boarding facilities to accommodate the size of enrolment. A teacher has this to say: *The school infrasture is over burdened by overenrolment.*

4.3.3 Effects of In-Service Training on Teachers Performance

Research Question 3: What are the Effects of In-Service Training on Pupils' Performance?

On the question on the effects of in-service training on the performance of teacher on the English comprehension teaching; the findings were that: in-service training helps in equiping teachers with effective teaching methods, gives them proper guide on classroom management. Views from a teacher were: *This in-service training helps us to acquire the necessary teaching methods for effective teaching.*

According to Maricel and Factoran, (2009) the purposes of in–service education is to promote the continuous improvement of the total professional staff of the school system and to eliminate deficiencies in the background preparation of teachers and other professional workers in education in order to improve pupils performance.

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That is why Manu (1993) claims that in-service training is most essential for the professional growth of the teacher. He needs to renovate his experience, refresh his knowledge, and develop a wider outlook, benefit by the experiences of others, acquire new information and hence reoriented himself**.**

With regards to the effects of in-service training of English teachers on the academic performance of pupils; the study revealed that there are always pupils high performances in exams, pupils learn to speak English fluently, they read confidently in class, teachers will acquire knowledge on identifying individual pupil's needs and how to solve them. Opinions from a teacher were: *It increases pupils' performance as teachers teach them well in class.*

On the question of the effects of lack of in-service training of English language teachers on the academic performance of pupils; the study revealed that English language teachers lack the effective teaching strategies: they lack sufficient knowledge and skills to motivate learners to read and speak the language, teachers will become rusty and not abreast with latest trend on teaching, not able to address individual learner challenges, they use outmoded methods of teaching, and poor lesson notes preparation. Views from a teacher were: *If the English teachers were not trained well there will be poor lesson preparation and delivery in class.*

4.3.4 Effective Strategies for Teaching English Comprehension

Research Question 4: Which Kinds of Strategies are Effective for English Comprehension?

To find out the various teaching strategies used by English language teachers in class; the study revealed that teachers did not use discussions method, role play, brainstorming, questions and answering methods, look and say method and guided comprehension method. Words from a teacher were: *I did not engage my pupils much during lesson presentations; I always put to them what they have to do.*

On the question on the type of teaching strategy being considered the best by English language teachers; the study revealed: discussions and role-play, asking questions and generating questions from text and comprehension through pictures. A teacher claimed the following: *The best method of teaching English comprehension is role-play.*

Based on the teaching strategy of self-monitoring, it was observed in class that teacher did not guide pupils to understand the whole story and what happens during the lesson or story telling, teacher did not assist pupils to discover what happens to the characters, teacher did not assist pupils to identify when the character changes, teachers did not focus pupils attention to identify problems and how to solve problems.

On the strategy of reflecting on story; it was observed that teacher somehow asked students questions to recall the story as result pupils were able to identify the characters, settings or order of events.

On the strategy of finding the main idea; it was observed that teacher failed to guide pupils to focus on what the story was all about and could not also guide pupils to find the main ideas.

On the strategy of asking and answering questions; it was observed that teacher did guide pupils to ask and answer questions but this was not adequate, teacher could not guide

pupils to identify what the topic and how it connects to the story, teacher did somehow assist pupils to focus their attentions on important areas and main events in the story.

On the strategy of making connections; it was observed that the teacher guide pupils to relate text to each other but failed to ask pupils to relate text to time and world outside the classroom.

With regards to the strategy of understanding character; it was observed teacher did not ask pupils to assess the character from the outside.

The mental representation of the text includes textual information and associated background knowledge interconnected via semantic relations (e.g., causal, referential, and spatial relations). Semantic relations are identified by the reader through passive and strategic inferential processes, (Kintsch, 1988; van den Broek et al., 2005).

With regards to making inferences; it was observed that the teacher did not guide pupils to make inferences based on guess as there were lack of information and lack of instructions to guide pupil to make inferences.

This is why McNamara and Magliano, (2009) explains that the complexity of reading comprehension is captured in theoretical models that describe the cognitive and linguistic processes involved. Some models focus on the mental representation that readers construct as a result of the process of understanding words, sentences, and their respective relations within a text.

The passive inferential processes take place automatically but the strategic processes demand readers' intentional and working memory resources. In turn, intentional and working memory resources are influenced by the readers' standards of coherence, that is,

the level of understanding that a reader aims to achieve during reading (van den Broek, Lorch, Linderholm & Gustafson, 2001; van den Broek, Risden, & Husebye Hartmann, 1995).

4.4 Intervention

To improving pupils English reading comprehension, a day workshop of four hour (4hrs) was conducted by the researcher for training English teachers on effective teaching strategies on each of the following: self-monitoring, reflecting on story, finding the main idea, asking and answering questions, making connections, understanding character and making inferences.

The following shows the topics as well as the effective teaching strategies that were covered in the workshop:

4.4.1 Self-monitoring as a Teaching Strategy

Teachers were taught to guide their pupils to understand the whole story and what happens during the lesson or storytelling. Teachers were also taught to assist pupils to discover what happens to the characters, when character change and to help focus pupils attention to identify problems and how to solve problems in their comprehension lessons.

Teachers were also made to understand that self-monitoring is key for success in reading comprehension at all levels. They were asked to give pupils some questions to ask themselves as they read, when done well is a great first step toward understanding.

Sorce : Life in Five Grade.

4.4.2 Reflecting on Story as a Strategy

English teachers were taken through on how to help their pupils reflect on stories read, through questions methods and to guide pupils to retell stories. Teachers were also made to try as much as they could to guide pupils to identify characters in stories, the settings where the story takes place and chronological or events and how they unfold.
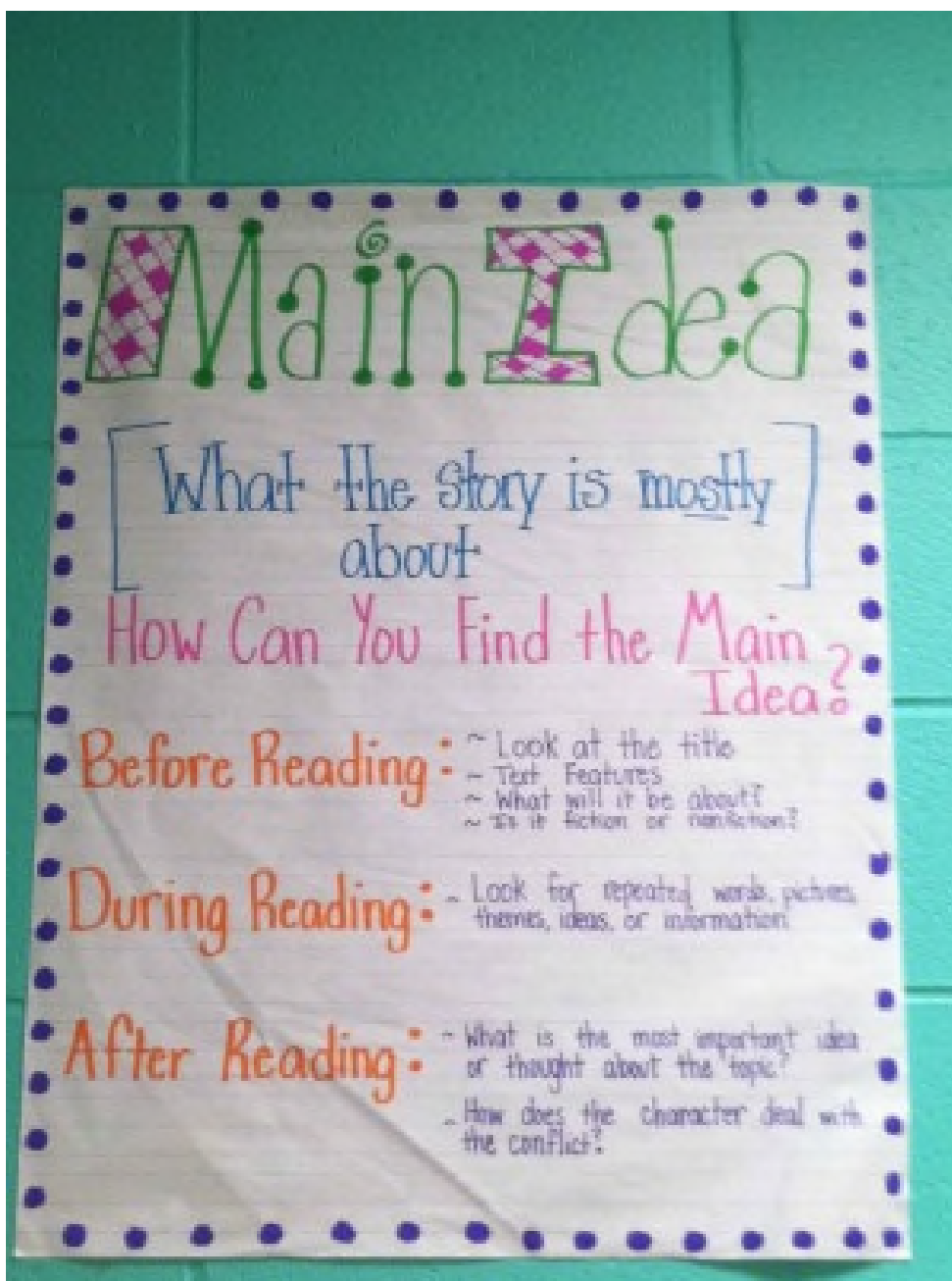
SOURCE: The Techy Teacher

4.4.3 Strategy on Finding the Main Idea

Teachers were also taken through on how to assist pupils understand what a given story is all about and how to identify main ideas in paragraphs. Teachers were taught to know that understanding the main idea is one of the first higher-level tasks of comprehension and so must encourage pupils to identify what the text is mostly about, even if it's not explicitly stated.
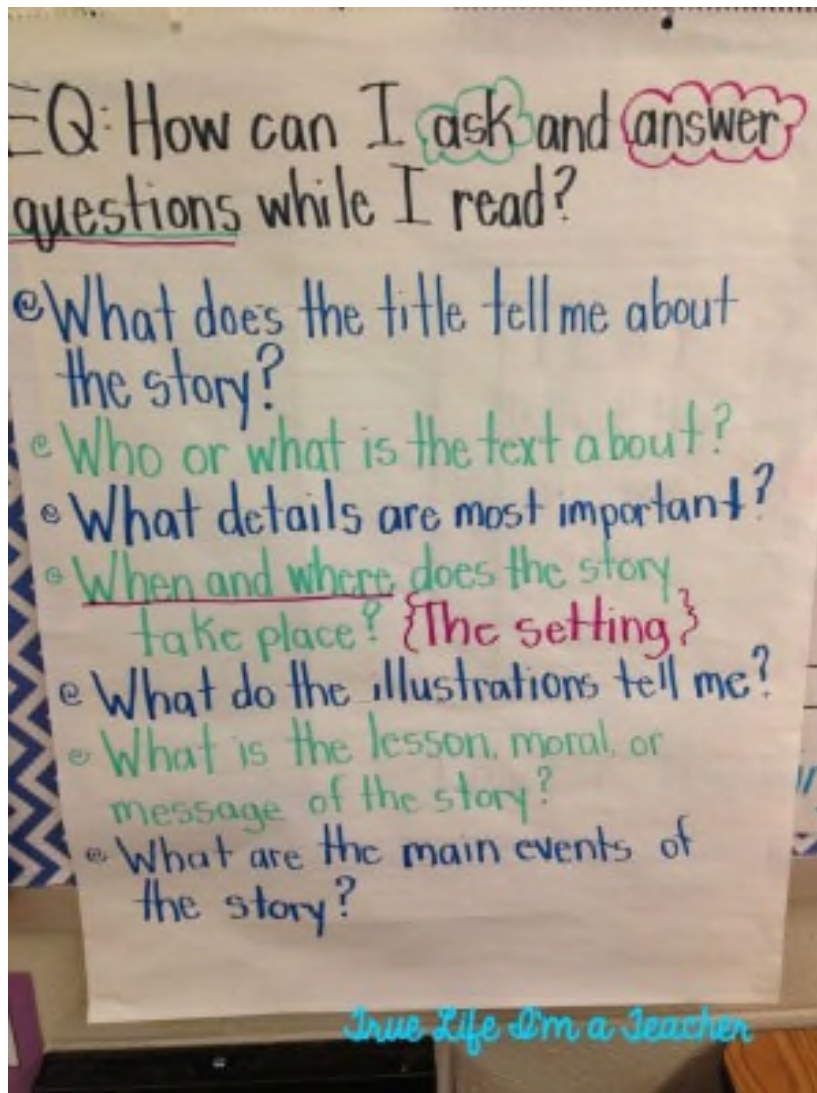
UNIVERSITY FOR DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

SOURCE: Life in First Grade

4.4.4 Strategy on Asking and Answering Questions

The English teachers were also taught how to guide pupils to ask and answer questions

in, these teachers were also guided on how assist pupils identify topics and how they

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connectwith a story in a comprehension lesson. Teachers were also guided on to assist pupils focus their attentions on important areas and main events in a story.

Teachers were also taught to understand that questioning is at the heart of comprehension and so they must help their pupils to bridge the gap between surface-level understanding (what happens in the story) and deeper meaning (the theme or moral).
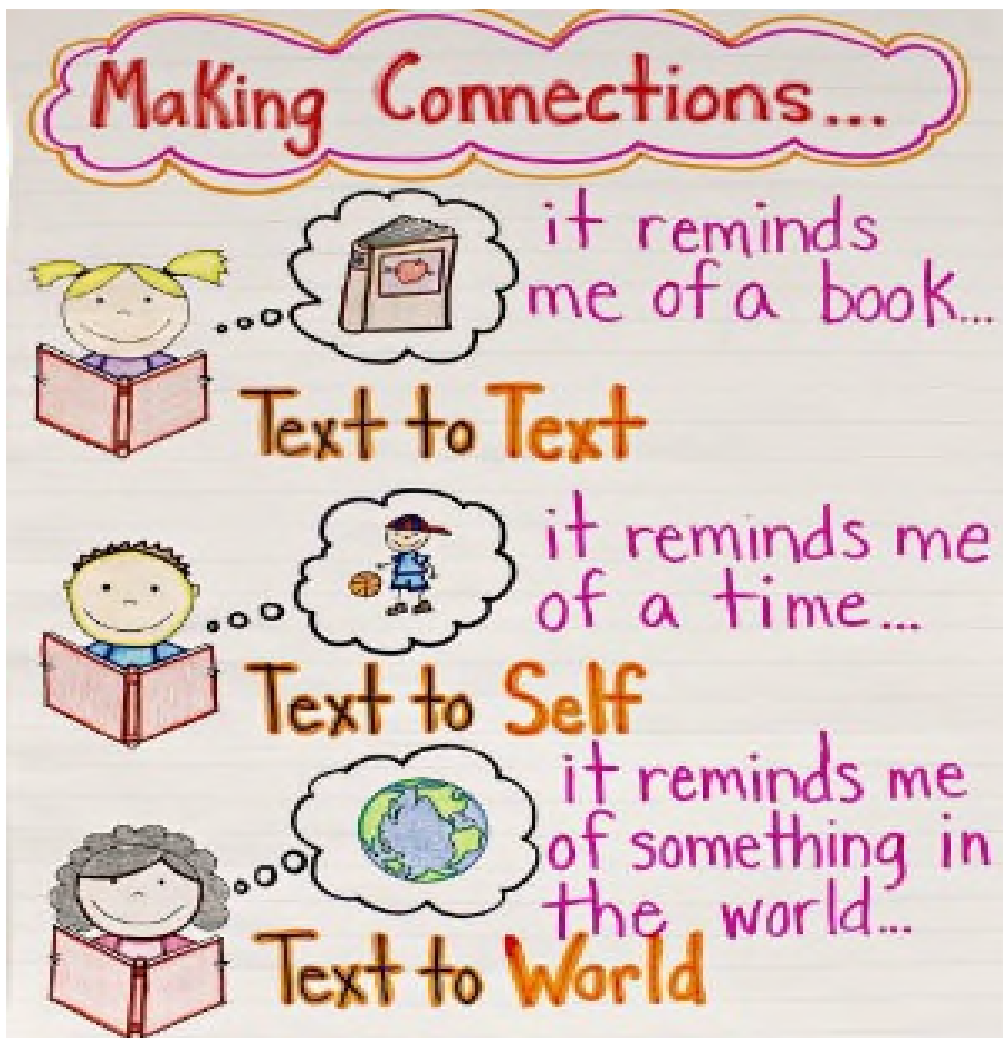
SOURCE*:* True Life I'm a Teacher

4.4.5 Strategy on Making Connections

This strategy was taught to the English teachers to ensure in their comprehension classes that pupils must be guided to relate text to each other and to relate text to time and world outside the classroom. Teachers were also made to understand that we can be sure pupils comprehend what they read when they can start connecting it to themselves and to the world around them.
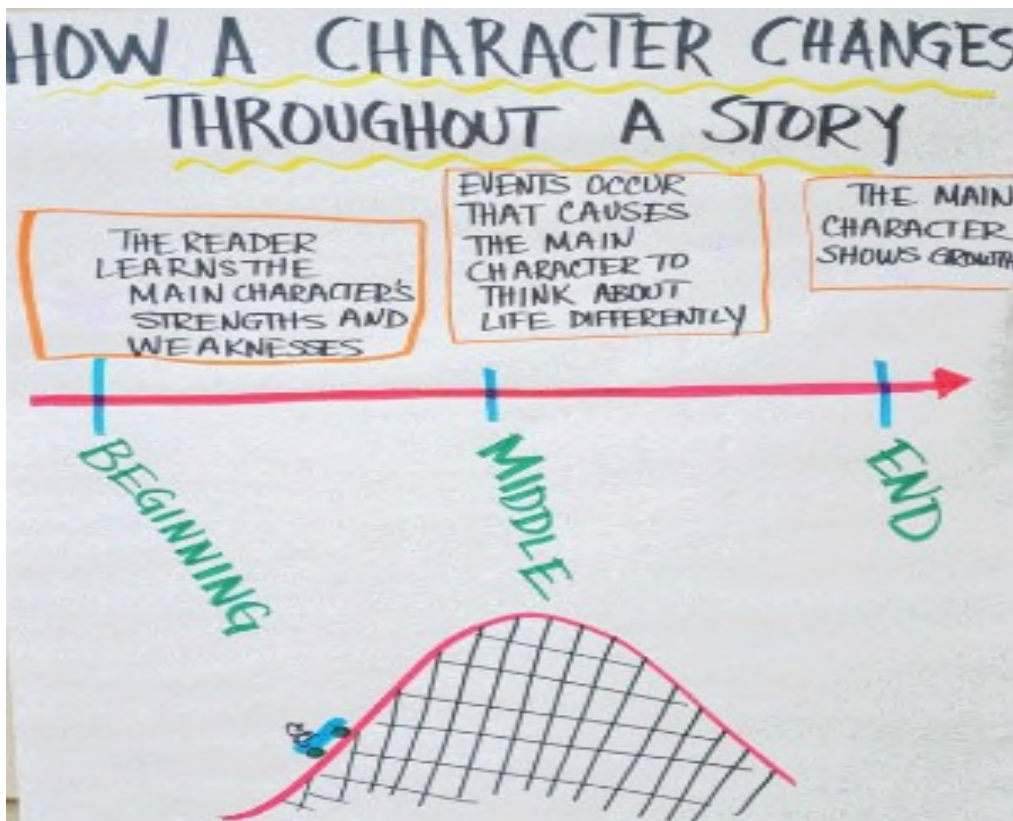

SOURCE: Teacherific in 2nd Grade

4.4.6 Strategy of Understanding Character

With regards to this teaching strategy, teachers were taken through on how to assist pupils assess the character from the outside. Teachers were also taught how to ask students to distinguish between what's on a character's outside versus their inside to help garner their understanding of the text.

Teachers were taught to encourage their pupils to think about how a character changes from the beginning, to the middle and to the end of a story. Ask them questions like, "What made them change? Who was involved in the change? What did the character learn along the way?"

SOURCE: Literacy & Math Ideas

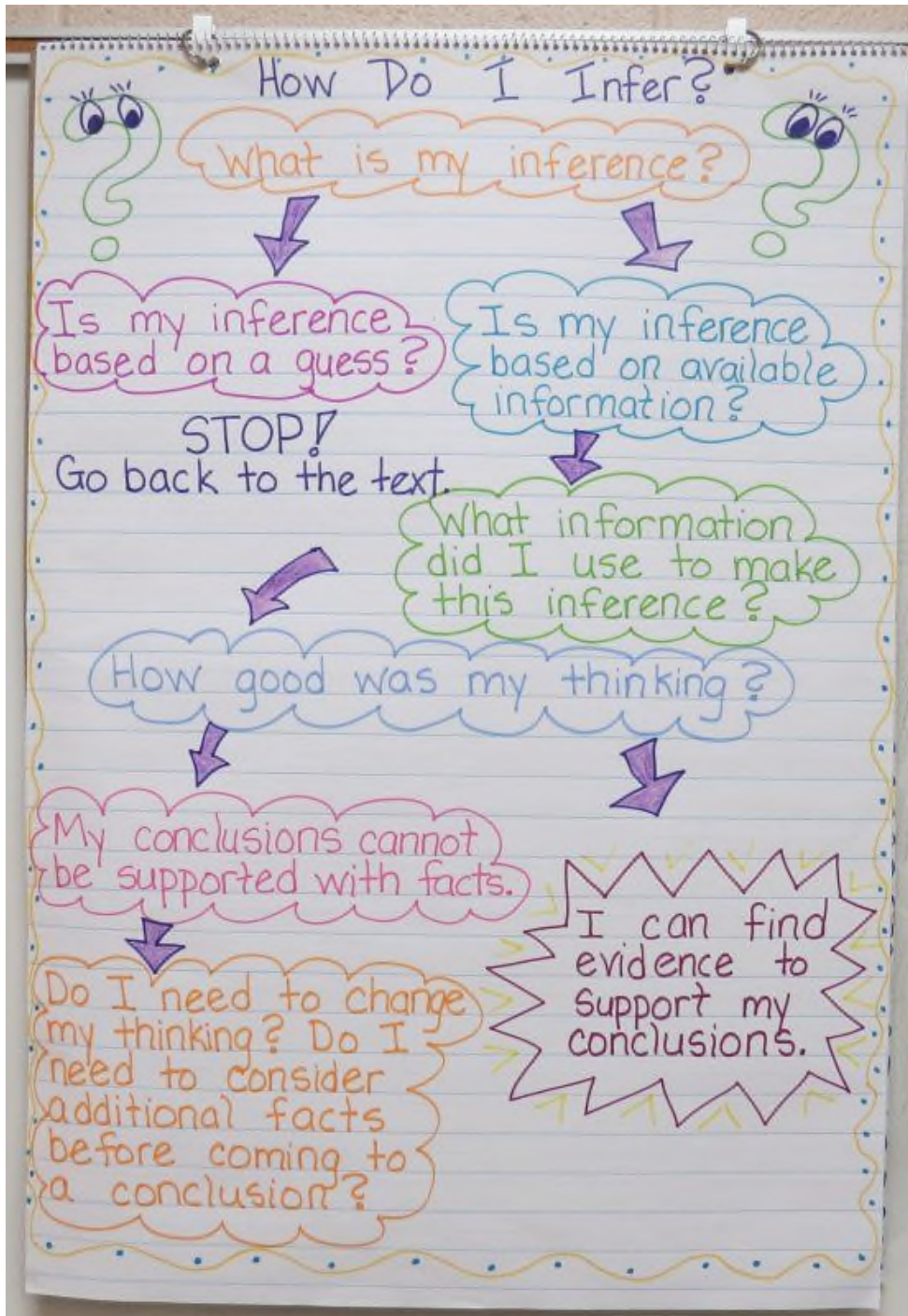SOURCE*:* The Teacher Next Door

4.4.7 Strategy on Making Inferences

Teachers were taught on how to guide pupils to make inferences based on guess and how to differentiate between what is being said on the page and what is not.

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SOURCE: Book Units Teacher

It was also found that teacher asked students questions to recall the story as result pupils were able to identify the characters, settings and order of events. It was also found that teacher guided pupils to focus on what the story was all about and to find the main ideas. The study also revealed that the teacher in class guided pupils to identify the topic and how it connects to the story. What was not properly done was how the teacher could assist pupils to focus their attentions on important areas and main events in the story.

The study also revealed that the teacher guided pupils to relate text to each other and also to ask pupils to relate text to time and world outside the classroom. In class, it was also revealed that the teacher asked pupils to assess the character from the outside. The teacher also guide pupils to make inferences based on guess as there was adequate information and instructions given to pupils help them make inferences.

4.5 Conclusion

The chapter four has presented the analytical method used in analysing the data. It also presented the interpretations of the participants' responses to each of the questions asked. The chapter also presented the findings both from the interview and the observation. The chapter also explained how the intervention activities were also carried out and how the results of the post interventions looked like.

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CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter will present a summary of the findings from respondents' points of views and what was observed at the pre-intervention stage and the intervention stage concerning improving pupils' English reading comprehension through training teachers on effective teaching strategies at Ridge Junior High school 'A'. This summary will be followed by the researcher's conclusions as well as recommendations.

5.1 Summary of the Study

Reading is an essential tool for learning. Inability to read (Dyslexia) affects reading and related language based processing skills. The severity may differ in each individual but can adversely affect reading fluency, decoding, comprehension, recall, writing, spelling and sometimes speech. Problems with reading tend to begin at the onset of reading instruction, then persist, and become more severe with the passage of time (Graney, 2000).

Majority of the teachers in Ridge Junior High school 'A' hold a minimum of bachelor degree including those teaching the English Language but the school continues to record degrading results from the Basic Certificate Examination (BECE). The continuous abysmal performances of the pupils in the school are even worse with English language. It was against this background that the researcher found it necessary to take up a project of improving reading comprehension through strategies for teaching Comprehension in the study area.

The purpose of this study was to improve teachers' knowledge on effective teaching strategies on English comprehension for the teachers in Ridge JHS 'A'. The study hoped to achieve the following outcomes as its primary objectives:

1. To examine the difficulties teachers encounter when teaching English comprehension at Ridge JHS 'A'.

2. To examine the challenges involved in organizing in-service training at Ridge JHS 'A'.

3. To find out the effects of in-service training regarding English comprehension on teachers performance at Ridge JHS 'A'.

4. To explore strategies that is effective for teaching English comprehension at Ridge JHS 'A'.

The aim of the literature review was to analyse critical existing literature on how to improve teachers' knowledge on effective teaching strategies on English comprehension and how to improve pupils' English reading comprehension through training teachers on effective teaching strategies. The chapter also assessed the relevant conceptual, theoretical, and empirical literature that underpins the quality of teacher training.

The researcher, in order to attain the purpose and objectives of the study used action research method in collecting and analyzing of the data. Teachers that engage in action research process are immersed in examining "what it means to make disciplined- as opposed to intuitive- statements about teaching", (Freeman, 1998, p. 9). Therefore, the teachers' account of the teaching processes is derived from evidence that has been gathered through a systematic and evaluative research process. "Teaching is highly complex, and most teachers have scant opportunity to explore   common problems and

possible solutions, or share new pedagogical approaches with their colleagues"
(Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p. 24).

Data was collected through interview and classroom observation of the teaching and
learning of reading comprehension. Data was analysed through capturing the patterns and
direct words of the participants that were interviewed and lesson observed in class.
Collected data was thematically analysed where raw data was set into meaningful
segments, codes and categories. Related categories were grouped into patterns and
emerging themes were scanned. Findings were derived from emerging themes out of
data. Teachers and pupils used in the study had understanding of the purpose of the
research. They were frank and honest in their responses. The main findings were:

- There is lack of reading habit and skills among pupils and there is lack of reading
  materials in schools.

- There were challenges that act as impediments to teaching and learning of English
  comprehension such as: inadequate teacher learner support materials and
  uncondusive atmosphere for learning.

- Pupil's related factors that act as impediment to the teaching and learning of
  English comprehension included; lack of good foundation in the English language
  and pupils truancy.

- Environmental related setbacks to the teaching and learning of English
  comprehension included: pupils are not living in environments that encourage
  reading and speaking of English language, noise and distractions from people and
  poor lighting and ventilation.

- The effects of in-service training on the performance of teacher on the English comprehension tseaching are: in-service training helps in improving teachers' teaching methods, gives them proper guide and classroom management.

- The effects of lack of in-service training of English language teachers on the academic performance of pupils include included: lack of knowledge and skills to motivate learners to read and speak the language.

- The various teaching strategies used by English language teachers in class include: discussions method, role play, brainstorming, questions and answering methods, look and say method and guided comprehension method.

- Teaching strategy been considered the best by English language teachers include: discussions and role-play, asking questions and generating questions from text and comprehension through pictures.

- Teacher did not guide pupils to understand the whole story and what happens during the lesson or storytelling,

- Teacher did not assist pupils to discover what happens to the characters, teacher did not assist pupils to know when the character changes, teachers did not focus pupils attention to identify problems and how to solve problems.

- Teacher somehow asked students questions to recall the story as result pupils were able to identify the characters, settings or order of events.

- Teacher failed to guide pupils to focus on what the story was all about and could not also guide pupils to find the main ideas.

- Teacher did guide pupils to ask and answer questions but which was not adequate, teacher could not guide pupils to identify what the topic and how it connects to the story,

- Teacher did somehow assist pupils to focus their attentions on important areas and main events in the story.

- The teacher guide pupils to relate text to each other but failed to ask pupils to relate text to time and world outside the classroom.

- Teacher did not ask pupils to assess the character from the outside.

- Teacher did not guide pupils to make inferences based on guess as there were lack of information and lack of instructions to guide pupil to make inferences.

5.3 Conclusion

Based on the objectives and the research question certain inferences were drawn. Some the findings were as follows:

There is lack of reading habit and skills among pupils, there is lack of reading materials in schools, inadequate time for teaching English comprehension. Challenges that act as impediments to teaching and learning of English comprehension were: inadequate teacher- learner support materials, uncondusive atmosphere for learning, and inadequate textbooks. Pupil's related factors that act as impediment to the teaching and learning of English comprehension; lack of good foundation in the English language, pupils do not understand the English language, truancy, absenteeism, inattentiveness, hyperactivity, laziness and noise in class.

The environmental related setbacks to the teaching and learning of English comprehension were that: pupils are not living in environments that encourage reading

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and speaking of English language, noise and distractions from people and poor lighting and ventilation. The effects of in-service training on the performance of teacher on the English comprehension teaching are: in-service training helps in improving teachers' teaching methods, gives them proper guide and classroom management.

The effects of lack of in-service training of English language teachers on the academic performance of pupils include: lack of knowledge and skills to motivate learners to read and speak the language, teachers will become rusty and not abreast latest trend on teaching, not able to address individual learner challenges, they use outmoded methods of teaching, poor method of teaching and poor lesson notes preparation.

The various teaching strategies used by English language teachers in class include: discussions method, role play, brainstorming, questions and answering methods, look and say method and guided comprehension method. Teaching strategy being considered the best by English language teachers include: discussions and role-play, asking questions and generating questions from text and comprehension through pictures.

Teacher did not guide pupils to understand the whole story and what happens during the lesson or storytelling. The teacher did not assist pupils to discover what happens to the characters, teacher did not assist pupils to know when the character changes, teachers did not focus pupils attention to identify problems and how to solve problems. The teacher somehow asked students questions to recall the story as result pupils were able to identify the characters, settings or order of events.

The teacher failed to guide pupils to focus on what the story was all about and could not also guide pupils to find the main ideas. The teacher did guide pupils to ask and answer

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questions but which was not adequate, teacher could not guide pupils to identify what the topic and how it connects to the story. The teacher did somehow assist pupils to focus their attentions on important areas and main events in the story.

The teacher guide pupils to relate text to each other but failed to ask pupils to relate text to time and world outside the classroom. The teacher did not ask pupils to assess the character from the outside. The teacher did not guide pupils to make inferences based on guess as there was lack of information and instructions strategies to guide pupil to make inferences.

5.4 Recommendations

On the basis of these findings the researcher wishes to present the following recommendations:

It is recommended that parents in working relations with teachers must develop reading habits and skills among pupils. GES must supply the school with English reading materials; there should be adequate time for teaching English comprehension in the classrooms.

It is also recommended PTA must work with the school to ensure all classrooms are conducive for learning. A strong and good foundation in the English language for all pupils must be built, the school must instill in discipline in pupils that will prevent them from being truant and absentees in class.

GES must ensure an adequate training and development of all English language teachers on how to motivate pupils to read and speak the language, how to address individual learner challenges and how to use each of the following: discussions method, role play,

brainstorming, questions and answering methods, look and say method and guided comprehension method.

The school must also work hand-in-hand with the GES to organize more in-service training on effective teaching strategies for all English language teachers that covers each of the following reading comprehension strategies: teaching strategy of self-monitoring, strategy of reflecting on story, strategy of finding the main idea, strategy of asking and answering questions, strategy of making connections, strategy of understanding character and making inferences

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

CONSENT LETTER TO PARTICIPATING HEADMASTER

Dear Headmaster,

I, Yussif James, is a student of University for Development Studies conducting a research on "Effective strategies for teaching English Comprehension" in Ridge Junior High School at the Sagnarigu District in the Northern Region with Dr. Cecilia Alimatu Issaka as my supervisor.

I write to seek your consent to conduct a research in your school on effective strategies for teaching English comprehension at your school. The research will last for two weeks. I would be grateful if you give your consent to this letter by signing the consent agreement portion below.

Thank you

Yussif James

(Researcher)

Yes, I,……………………….., have agreed to participate.

No, I,…………………………., have disagreed to participate.

Sig.,………………………………

(Headmaster)

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CONSENT LETTER TO PARTICIPATING TEACHERS

Dear Teacher,

I, Yussif James, is a student of University for Development Studies conducting a research on "Effective strategies for teaching English Comprehension" in Ridge Junior High School at the Sagnarigu District in the Northern Region with Dr. Cecilia Alimatu Ramatu as my supervisor.

I Write to seek consent to conduct an interview with you and do observation during your English lessons in the school with each session taking 30 munites. I would be grateful if you give your consent to this letter by signing the consent agreement portion below.

Thank you

Yussif James

(Researcher)

Yes, I,……………………….., have agreed to participate.

No, I,…………………………., have disagreed to participate.

Sig.,………………………………

(Participanting-Tearcher)

CONSENT LETTER TO FACILITOR

Dear Facilitor,

I, Yussif James, is a student of University for Development Studies conducting a research on "Effective strategies for teaching English Comprehension" in Ridge Junior High School at the Sagnarigu District in the Northern Region with Dr. Cecilia Alimatu Issaka as my supervisor.

I write to seek your consent to facilitate the in-Service training in Ridge junior high school on effective strategies for teaching English comprehension. The training will take two weeks with each session lasting two hours. I would be grateful if you give your consent to this letter by signing the consent agreement portion below.

Thank you

Yussif James

(Researcher)

Yes, I,……………………….., have agreed to participate.

No, I,……………………………., have disagreed to participate.

Sig.,………………………

(Facilitator)

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APPENDIX B

TEACHER INTERVIEW

1. What are the challenges teachers encountered in teaching English Comprehension?

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2. Which are the school related challenges that act as impediments to teaching and learning of English comprehension?

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3. Which are pupil's related factors that act as impediment to the teaching and learning of English comprehension?

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4. Which are the environmental related setbacks to the teaching and learning of English comprehension?

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5. What are the effects of in-service training on the performance of teacher on the English comprehension teaching?

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6. What are the effects of in-service training of English teachers on the academic performance of pupils?

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7. Which are the effects of lack of in-service training of English language teachers on the academic performance of pupils?

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8. List the various teaching strategies used by English language teachers in class.

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9. Which are the type of teaching strategy been considered the best by English language teachers when teaching comprehension?

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THANK YOU

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APPENDIX C

OBSERVATIONAL CHECKLIST

CATEGORY OF BEHAVIOUR TO BE OBSERVED	ACTUAL BEHAVIOUR RECORDED
1. Teaching strategy of self-monitoring	
2. Strategy of reflecting on story	

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3. **Strategy of finding the main idea**	
4. **Strategy of asking and answering questions**	
5. **Strategy of making connections**	

6. Strategy of understanding character	
7. Strategy of making inferences	