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ABSTRACT

The study assessed the impact of teaching in local languages on pupils and teachers of grades two (2) to four (4) (advantages, challenges, opportunities) in selected primary schools of Masaiti and Luanshya Districts of Copperbelt in Zambia. Recently, in response to poor educational outcomes and political pressure, a number of Sub-Saharan African countries including Zambia have taken measures to include local languages in their formal education sectors, a practice often referred to as mother tongue instruction (MTI). Theoretically, the effect of MTI is ambiguous and a number of studies argue that MTI is superior to second language instruction in facilitating effective classroom communication, thereby increasing access and quality of education.

In view of the aforementioned, the objective of the study was to find out the impact of using local language as a medium of instructions to pupils of grades one (1) to four (4) in terms of advantages, challenges and opportunities. A survey design which used both quantitative and qualitative aspects of research was used in the study. Questionnaires and interview schedules were used to collect data. The sample included fifty (50) respondents from 10 Primary Schools of Masaiti and Luanshya Districts respectively. Three categories of respondents were identified: (i) twenty (20) Headmasters (School Managers) (ii) Twenty (20) Teachers and (iii) five (5) Grade 4 and below pupils, four (4) Ministry of Education officials, and one (1) by District Education Board Secretary (DEBS). The methods used included three sets of structured questionnaires and personal interviews. The data was analyzed using statistical software called STATA. Data was checked for validity, reliability, identification outliers and normality.

The findings of the study revealed that issuing instructions in local language is more beneficial as the pupils grasp things faster, pupils’ participations in classroom improves greatly however some pupils may face language barrier more especially to pupils who come from transfer from other regions where they speak a different local language as a medium of instruction and one issue that came out strongly was the lack of teaching and learning materials which is written in local language. This calls for the school administration and the ministry of education to stock the schools with the teaching and reading materials. The significant challenges were the lack of teaching materials in local language, language barrier to pupils and teachers who come on transfer from other regions while the main advantages were fast learning of the pupils, contribution and participation of pupils in class will be high, pupils continue with the language of play and that makes them acquire knowledge fast. The using of local language to issue instructions in class is a good development that will improve the performance of pupils in all areas of study.

Key Words: Advantages, challenges, Impact, language of play, local languages, opportunities, pupils, teachers, teaching.
BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

INTRODUCTION.

The location of schools has been a variable to reckon with when considering academic achievement of suburban and rural school-pupils; two locations that constitute the majority group of learners in Zambia (Bassey, Joshua & Asim, 2009).

Education cannot be divorced from societal activities; hence the chance of pupils being educationally disadvantaged may be significantly influenced by economic, political, social, cultural and demographic circumstances and factors. Rowland and DelCampo (1968) and Petersen, Louw, and Dumont (2009) suggest that an educationally disadvantaged child attends a school that has an insufficient number of teachers and experiences retardation in reading achievement. Moreover, educationally disadvantaged child records poor attendance in school, comes from parents of lower socio-economic family, and has limited knowledge of English that inhibits adequate communication, or combines two or more of the above mentioned characteristics. Adebayo (2009) further remarked that most schools in suburban and rural settings in Zambia are educationally disadvantaged, because they have more educational-related challenges, which put them in a disadvantaged state compared to schools in urban areas. Gender has been an enduring educational diversity in developing countries like Zambia.

Language of instruction is one of the primary determinants of effective classroom communication. Globally, many countries with multiple languages have acquired a single language to dominate their education sectors (UNESCO, 1953, 2003). This phenomenon is particularly prevalent in Africa. Depending on different estimates and definitions, the number of languages spoken in Africa ranges between 1,000 and 2,500 (Gadelli, 2004). However, only 176 of these African languages are used in schools as mediums of communication, and for many languages, their use is often limited to informal education programs (UNESCO, 2010). In formal education, most African countries use the language of their historical colonizers or the language of a dominant ethnic group. The use of unfamiliar languages as a medium of
instruction is often mentioned as an important source of low enrolment rates, retention rates, literacy levels and academic achievement (TihtinaZenebeGebre 2014).

The colonial language policies either adopted the use of English in the case of Zambia, from the first grade or only used indigenous languages as a medium of instruction in the lower classes of the primary school. Postcolonial language policies have maintained the status quo, thus perpetuating the existence of an elite group, which is characterized by relatively high economic status, high educational level and high competence in English (Robinson, 1996; Granville, Janks, Joseph, Mpahlele, Ramani, Reed and Watson, 1998).

Therefore, African nations remain prisoners of the past since they are so overwhelmed by established practices to such an extent that it is virtually impossible to break away from them (Bamgbose, 1991). Hence, the colonial and neo-colonial subjects tend to undermine their own languages, as mentioned by Adegbija (1994:33) who says: This attitude of being negative towards one’s own language and the exaltation of colonial masters’ languages have not been easy to remove from the life of Zambians. Its scars are still very visible today, particularly in the education system. At primary school level, there are basically three types of pilot projects: initial or early medium in a Zambian language, bilingual medium known as break through to literacy, and full medium for the entire primary education.

Experiments in early or initial grades have been piloted in rural provinces of Zambia (for languages with small school-going populations). An example of this is the break through to literacy, which is designed to introduce initial literacy in the so-called seven (7) languages/dialects through their use as media of instruction in the first two years of primary education. Since one of the main objections to mother tongue education is cost, one important lesson from the project is that costs can be minimized through the use of uniform formats and illustrations for primers as well as cheaper methods for producing reading materials. It is instructive that, in this project, several publications were produced in 7 languages/dialects. These publications include primers, readers, teachers’ notes, orthography manuals and dictionaries. Another lesson is that by harnessing community
interest and participation, an enabling environment is created for the project (Laxman Ghimire, 1990)

The notation employed for indicating type and level of language use in education is straightforward and easily understood. There is, however, the vagueness of medium of instruction when coupled with level of education. For example, several languages are marked as 1M, meaning that they are used as medium of instruction in primary education. In actual fact, it is only in a few countries and in certain pilot projects that African languages are used for the entire duration of primary education. In most cases, they are only used as languages of learning and teaching from one to four years in the case of Zambia.

The negative attitudes that impede the use of African languages for teaching and learning are shown to be unwarranted, particularly when it is demonstrated in practice that all the provinces of Zambia are either already using, or planning to use them by embarking on experiments and pilot projects. One of the problems often described in language educational policy is the dearth of information on what is going on in different countries (Ayo Bamgbose 1991). Zambia is widely claimed to have over 72 languages, although many of these might be better regarded as sub-languages. All of Zambia’s vernacular languages are members of the Bantu family and are closely related to one another, together with English, which is the national language and the major language of business and education. Seven (7) vernacular languages have official status.

Together these represent the major languages of each province: Bemba (Northern Province, Luapula, Muchinga and the Copperbelt), Nyanja (Eastern Province and Lusaka), Lozi (Western Province), Tonga (Southern Province), and Kaonde, Luvale and Lunda (Northwestern Province). However, from 2010 census report, Zambia’s most widely spoken languages are Bemba (spoken by 52% of the population as either a first or second language), Nyanja (37%), Tonga (15%) and Lozi (11%) (CSO 2010). A retrospective look at the use of local languages as languages of instruction in schools will show that much progress has been made over the years.
From outright opposition or grudging acceptance, there is now a realization that, if education is to be meaningful for most of the Zambian population and to have a value that goes beyond the school, there is no alternative to mother tongue education. Attitudes are changing and this is borne out by more pronouncements by government through the ministry of General Education in favor of Zambian language instructions, pilot projects with Zambian language medium, increased research and teaching of Zambian languages as a subject in Universities and Colleges of Education, and emergence of associations of Zambian language teachers. Areas in which further efforts need to be made include awareness campaigns (particularly among parents and guardians, who tend to consider language instruction in an imported European language as superior.

A recent matter of interest is the introduction of the main Provincial Zambian languages as the vehicle for all primary school teaching until Grade 4. This was met with some resistance mainly in the urban and peri-urban areas where other Zambian languages are spoken at home and outside the home by sizable minorities whose mother tongue is not that of the majority in the Province. This research investigated the impact of teaching in local languages on pupils and teachers in terms of advantages, disadvantages, challenges, and opportunities in Masaiti and Luanshya Districts of Zambia. It is hoped that at the end of this study the partners who are the parents and guardians in the education of the children in the two Districts, Masaiti and Luanshya will understand the role the local language plays in the learning process of the pupils at primary school.

**RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

This project will utilize both quantitative and qualitative data collection tools, but it is more on the qualitative epistemological position that recognizes the importance of locating the research within a particular social, cultural, and historical context. It also takes seriously the social construction of these contexts and the identities participants construct within them.

**Data Collection**

Data collection consisted of surveys, classroom observations and interviews with [host schools] teachers and pupils as well as journal logs from teachers. Initially, a questionnaire to measure teacher attitudes and beliefs regarding professional roles and responsibilities was administered to a broad spectrum of participants (ideally, n=50). Subsequently, a purposeful sample was identified to provide responses to a questionnaire that was so instrumental in my coming up with my findings. A structured observation protocol was developed to aid in field note collection and
an interview protocol rooted in the literature was developed to act as a guide for the semi-structured interviews.

Multiple interviews were planned with each participant in order to provide more in-depth data collection and opportunities for follow-up. The goal is to interview approximately 50 participants who possess a range of identity positions and who come from different schools and communities. I will work with [host schools] teacher training programs, and with faculty at the Resource Centers in [host districts], to identify potential participants. I also asked teachers to respond to a series of journal prompts over the course of the project that allow them to provide a more detailed and longitudinal view of their daily lives as teachers their experiences in the teaching through vernacular language, reactions, beliefs, and ideas about their roles and responsibilities as educators.

**The Research Design**

Descriptive cross-sectional survey was utilized to provide an accurate portrayal or account of the characteristics, for example, behavior, opinion beliefs, and knowledge of a particular individual situation or group. The research used a cross-sectional survey adopting qualitative methodology to a smaller extent and qualitative method to obtain evidence to answer research questions. The design describes the procedure for conducting the study, including when, from whom and under what conditions the data will be obtained.

**The Research Population**

The target population comprised of Headmasters (School Managers), Teachers and Grade 4 and below all from 20 selected Primary schools of Masaiti and Luanshya Districts in Copperbelt Province.

**Sample strategies**

The probability sampling called Simple Random Sampling (SRS) was used in the study, so that the selection of elementary units depended purely on chance and no personal bias was involved, (Sharma, 1983). White (2005) also stated that the probability random sampling technique ensures that every element in the sampling frame has an equal chance of being included in the sample. The sample of 20 primary schools was drawn from a total of 30 primary schools which were selected by the researcher in Masaiti and Luanshya Districts respectively. The names of the primary schools were assigned a three-digit number from 001 to 020 on the cards and these were mixed thoroughly, and then 20 cards were drawn one after the other which constituted the sample.
Data Collection

Secondary data for the research was obtained through the use of sources such as; the public documents, such as Educating our future, journals, past researches and the internet. Primary data was collected from the field using three sets of survey questionnaires. The three sets of questionnaires were administered to three categories of respondents in primary schools of Luanshya and Masaiti Districts: the Headmasters, teachers who teach grades 4 and below and the grade 4 and below learners.

Research Instruments

The data collection instruments used in this phase of the study was a set of four (4) survey questionnaires for the respondents; (District Education Board Secretaries(DEBS),Headmasters, Teachers and grade pupils) developed by the researcher. The researcher also carried out personal interviews informally as a way of collecting information for the research.

The research questions are:

1. To investigate the advantages and disadvantages of local language in the learning and teaching process of children in Zambias’ Schools?

2. To establish the characteristics of current classroom interaction in lessons used for teaching subject knowledge and basic literacy through mother tongue and English?

3. To discover the long-term effects of different approaches to instruction on biliteracy development for students from one language backgrounds?

1.3 Background context of Masaiti and Luanshya Districts

The two districts Masaiti and Luanshya are made up of different ethnic groups of people; Masaiti has a larger group of people who speak Lamba as their native language, while luanshya is a cosmopolitan district with mixed tribes who mostly use English for communication purposes. A few speak different mother languages in their homes. There is significant language diversity with some 72 ethnic groups represented in Luanshya being a cosmopolitan district. With the diversity of languages spoken in these districts, it is clear that students come to school from different language backgrounds; icibemba is used in schools as the common language
spoken on the Copperbelt, it is decided by the government that this is the local language that should be used as a medium of instructions in schools across the Copperbelt Province Districts.

This country is a multicultural nation with an estimated population of 15,000,000 (Fifteen million people) in the 2010 census and with an average growth rate of 2.3 Percent. 4 percent are Africans from various African countries. The remaining 1.5 percentage includes Europeans, Chinese and other nationals beyond the continent of Africa. About 74 percent of the population live in the rural settings and depend on peasant agriculture for survival and income. About 26% percent of Zambia’s population lives in urban areas, with an estimated 100,000 living in the capital city of Lusaka. The country is rich in resources, language and culture. It is a multilingual environment, with different speakers of languages and dialects living in the same country. Students come to school with various language backgrounds but one common goal; to learn through English as a medium of instruction. The language of education and its characteristics will be discussed in the next chapter as it is important to understand the background of language and its use and importance in education, which is the focus of this study.

1.2 Personal Background and Interest in the Topic

I am a teacher in Masaiti district, with over 20 years of teaching experience at both primary and secondary school levels of education. Informal and formal observations of the researcher reveal that many in-service and pre-service teachers who teach English language struggle to engage learners in class discussion. In most cases, during the teaching practice, the instructional processes were teacher -centered. Most teachers of English and student-teachers on teaching practice often do most of the talking in the classroom, thereby giving learners little or no opportunity to talk. When learners talk, they use simple and closed-ended words as answers to teachers’ questions. Such words do not often give room for self-expression of ideas. Moreover, the researcher noticed a high level of the demonstration of pupils’ lack of confidence to express themselves in English.
It is unarguable that the problem of mass failure in English language proves pupils’ low levels of fluency in English. As it happens in most countries across the globe, the researcher also observed that, on a few occasions, when the teachers needed to ask questions, extroverts who raise their hands to indicate their willingness to answer questions, are most favored during the instructional process. Evidences from empirical reports, as well as the researcher’s observations, leave little doubt about Christopher’s (2008) concern. According to Christopher, the ways and manner teachers teach English in most Zambian schools do not engage the desired students’ competence in language skills. Kennedy and Cutts (2005) observe that traditional methods of teaching using English as a medium of instructions are inadequate to achieve instructional objectives because of learners’ failure to demonstrate a reasonable understanding of the subject. The researcher also observed that one of the main causes of Zambian learners’ poor performance in learning through English medium has been pedagogical shortcomings.

1.3 Teacher-learner Interactions

Modern theories of teaching suggest that the instructional process should be learner-centered for teaching and learning of pupils to be effective. In the traditional classroom, students do not demonstrate reasonable understanding of concepts while only a few of them dominate the instructional process because significant interaction is absent (Duggan, Palmer & Devitt, 2007; Jackson, 2007). A strategy that promotes interaction between the instructor and the learners, as well as among learners, is the pivotal tool to improving pupils’ communicative skills in English (Farrell, 2002; Long, 1997). Vygotsky (1978) stressed the significance of learning in a socio-cultural framework through what he described as the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD).

According to Vygotsky, ZPD is the difference between the learner’s independent capacity to solve problems and his capacity to solve problems under the guidance of a more competent person (teacher) and in collaboration with his peers. Socio-cultural theorists believe that cognitive development and language acquisition take place in a child as he interacts with his environment (teacher, peers and other tools) through dialogues. Cook (2001) and Gamez (2009) describe peer interactions and teacher-learners interactions as facilitators of
improved language skills. Oyinloye (2008) reiterates that if teachers provide learners with interactive opportunities in a familiar language of pupils in schools, then the quality of learning process would improve.

1.4 The present study

This research project was situated in 20 separate national schools, 10 primary schools in Masaiti and 10 in Luanshya respectively; the two districts are situated on the Copperbelt province of Zambia. Luanshya is located in an urban area and Masaiti is in a rural set up. It is a qualitative study that investigates teachers’ and students’ English language use in both districts’ primary school classrooms, specifically in English as a medium of instructions in the teaching and learning process. In particular it focuses on how teachers and students do make best use of the language resources they have to access curriculum content. The teachers’ and students’ conceptions and practices associated with their language use, and specifically their academic benefit of English use were explored in this multilingual context.

In my current career as a teacher I have taught both senior secondary and primary students for the past 20 years and have seen a great need for both teachers and students to be competent in Language use and specifically in the language needed for Academic study. All curriculum subjects are examined in English but students find it difficult to express ideas in English. The reality is that in most schools, students are more comfortable in expressing their ideas using local language, which is the mother tongue. I have observed that teachers are also challenged when students experience difficulty in using academic Language.

The students understand better if I discussed concepts in English followed by an explanation in mother tongue. This approach has the advantage of providing students with critical information in a language they are more comfortable using. Teachers’ lack of knowledge on how to scaffold curriculum learning in English by using the vernacular or first language of the students is minimal in the two districts Masaiti and Luanshya. “Trans-languaging” and code switching (see Franken & August, 2011; Garcia, 2009a, Willans, 2011) may provide one way of understanding such scaffolding. I am interested in seeing if teachers teaching using English
medium use this approach even though they may not know about it in any theoretical sense. Furthermore, I am interested in looking at how students use language and whether the status of their English language proficiency is sufficient for academic learning.

My experience as a teacher has challenged my beliefs. Having a preconceived notion that the English-only policy was the best way to support students’ learning of the subject; I was an advocate of this language. My bias toward using solely English in the classroom resulted in students having difficulties in understanding concepts. However, I naturally resorted to code-switching when I found my students struggling with understanding concepts. This misconception and lack of awareness of my own practice motivated this study on language use in primary school classrooms, with a particular interest in teachers’ and students’ conceptions, their language proficiencies and language practices.

A conception is best described as “a dynamic and interdependent trilogy of actions, intentions, and beliefs” (Pratt, 1992). One’s beliefs, intentions and actions are interwoven to influence how one perceives his/her world and expresses his/her understanding of something. Pratt (1992) adds that we “view the world through the lenses of our conceptions, interpreting and acting in accordance with our understanding of the world” (p. 204). An exploration of teachers’ and students’ conceptions about academic Language and how languages should be used for curriculum learning provides an insight in how they understand the complexities of language and what they see as important in their learning in the classroom context.

In identifying what teachers and students believe about language use, I explore what they say and what they do in their classrooms, what languages they use to communicate and access curriculum content, the frequency of the languages used and the benefits of these practices to both the learner and the teacher. I had hoped to justify the place of students’ L1 in learning curriculum content in schools.

Finally, my having observed teachers’ and students’ practices in the classroom adds weight to this study, in that teachers’ pedagogical practices with regard to how they best scaffold students’ learning in the language can be documented. Students’ code-switching practices
provide insights into how teachers can exploit this and support it to help student’s access curriculum content.

1.4 Interactive Teaching Approaches

The didactic or teacher-centered methods of teaching and learning through English medium involve activities done by the teacher. In the classroom, more attention should be focused on facilitating learners’ understanding of concepts in a familiar language as well as providing them the opportunity to use the language in an appropriate context. In order to assess the feasibility of interaction in English classrooms, this present study focuses on exploring the efficacy of two approaches (the communicative approach and the personal response system) that seek to encourage active learning and peer to peer interaction.

The instruction of English in Zambian schools causes quite some challenges to scholars due to its rich linguistic diversity. With more than 72 languages currently recorded in the country, linguistic power struggle is unavoidable, although it may be silent. To make the situation even more complex, the Zambian Government recently launched a new educational policy that promotes learning in mother tongues in earlier years of primary education. While this policy is based on sound research, it poses quite some challenges to linguists due to the various linguistic backgrounds found in almost every classroom around the nation. This survey research investigated 20 teachers’ perceptions about the importance of this policy. Findings were inconclusive on teachers’ perception about the policy’s importance on general learning and the nation’s preparedness. Findings were positive, however, about teachers’ perceptions about the role this policy plays on first language learning, students’ culture, and the Copperbelt as a cosmopolitan province.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

In the globalized world, international languages such as English are generally valued higher than indigenous languages. The inclusion of indigenous languages in the school system is therefore a tricky and sensitive issue since English is associated with socio-economic and political upward mobility (Coleman 2010, 2011). As such, parents and other
stakeholders would argue that what an African learner needs is an international language such as English, and not the so-called good-for-nothing’ African languages. Such people would normally press for more English in the school curricula so that schools are able to produce learners who are able to face the globalised world from a point of linguistic strength or advantage. In addition, there is also a fear that mother tongue education would frustrate learners’ efforts to gain competence in English. On the other hand, there is fear that the use of mother tongue education would lead to the lowering of standards in education. Such fears have been expressed in Botswana, Malawi and other African countries with respect to English and mother tongue education (Hamish McIlwraith 2013).

For Zambia, linguistic diversity has presented a problem with regard to the selection of languages for official and educational use. It is estimated that Zambia has about 73 language groups which could be collapsed into 30–40 mutual intelligible linguistic families (Miti and Daka 2007: 2). This was one of the main factors that persuaded the government to adopt English as Zambia’s official language; there was a fear that the choice of one language over another might promote ethno-linguistic rivalry and be a recipe for divisions across the country. It was therefore assumed that the use of a neutral, non-indigenous language as the official language would foster national unity hence English (Hamish McIlwraith 2013). It is against this background that the research was formulated to establish the impact of issuing instructions in local language to pupils with the main focus being advantages, challenges and opportunities.

1.3 Significance of the study

Many research studies have acknowledged the importance of teachers in ensuring high quality education for learners, regardless of the country (Carr-Hill, 1984; Riddell, 1998; Motala, 2001; O’Sullivan, 2020; VSO, 2002; UNESCO, 2005). In spite of this important fact, very little is known about the impact of issuing instructions to pupils in local languages, especially first grade teachers of literacy and their competences in local language as a medium of instruction. This study is therefore designed to contribute to this limited body of knowledge. It is hoped that the information generated in this study would contribute to current
literature on factors that impact the use of local languages as medium of instruction. The study was important because the findings provided very important information that would be useful to school administrators, teachers, pupils, the Ministry of General education and the government at large. The findings would further help educators, policy makers and other stakeholders strengthen strategies and policies of transforming the education sector from using English to local languages as medium of instructions.

**REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE**

About a decade ago, the world was believed to have between 6,000 and 7,000 languages (UNESCO, 2005). Of those thousands of languages, only 300 were widely spoken by 90% of the people worldwide. Back then, about 50% were classified as endangered languages.

This statistics may be even worse today, a decade later. Six in ten of the endangered Languages were found in the Asia-Pacific region. This discovery led to the important focus on major concepts such as “first language first”, “mother tongue first bilingual education”, and “mother-tongue based bilingual education” (UNESCO, 2005). A decade later, the impact is felt in publications, academic conferences, and more importantly in national language policies. Today, theorists, researchers, scholars, educators, and politicians are all involved in the discussion of mother tongue based education.

In different publications, UNESCO has been consistent in their claim on the commitment to the support of MTBE and multilingual education and the diversity that is reflected in different languages and cultures (Ball, 2010; UNESCO, 2005a, 2005b, 2007, 2010). UNESCO is even more interested with disadvantaged groups of people. It is no surprise that one of the Millennium Development Goals is on offering universal primary education, while promoting MTBE. Citing from Wa Thiong’o (1992), Alexander (1994), and Achebe (1992)—three of some of the most influential linguistics on the African continent Phillipson (1996) reiterated that only a couple of decades ago, 90% of Africans spoke only African languages, 70% of South Africans understood Zulu, while the arbitrary classification of different types of English in Africa was incorrect. More than half a century after UNESCO declared the importance of MTBE for minority children, “and despite a plethora of books, articles, numerous conventions declarations and recommendations addressing this issue most African countries continue to use” the European languages inherited from their colonial masters (UNESCO, 2010). While some may see it as an opportunity offered to Africans to contribute to the global discourse, others see this as neocolonialism. For them, African languages face Stigmatization because of
English imperialism (Phillipson, 1992, 1996). Yet, all languages are expected to have equal right to be “protected, respected and developed” (McIlwraith, 2013). This situation has led parents in some Asian countries, for instance, to the hard choice between fighting English imperialism or accepting English because of the socioeconomic opportunities that it provides (Li, 2002).

In the case of Africa, “there are objective, historical, political, psycho-social and strategic reasons to explain this state of affairs including their colonial past and the modern-day challenge of globalization” (UNESCO, 2010, p. 5). This is despite the understanding that proficiency in one’s mother tongue (L1) is known to be somehow beneficial to second language (L2) learning and the protection of indigenous languages (Kirkpatrick, 2008, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2011a, 2011b; Nunan, 2009). UNESCO (2007) gives some strong reasons why MTBE and multilingual education should be promoted around the world, in the countries that offer a multilingual setting. With UNESCO’s “Education for All” policy, everyone has the right to quality education, preferably in their own mother tongue. According to UNESCO, this is even more important for minority groups who are often disadvantaged with national educational programs. While students from minority or indigenous groups try to learn to read and write, they must do so in a language new to them. This double challenge does not help them learn effectively and efficiently. According to UNESCO, such a disadvantageous educational system can only lead students from minority groups to higher levels of illiteracy, dropouts, poverty and undesirable life (UNESCO, 2003, 2005a, 2007). Such system affects female students even more in many minority group settings (UNESCO, 2005b).

Citing a speech by Luis Enrique López, Dutcher (2001) outlines five major reasons why MTBE should be promoted. First, with MTBE, young learners develop strong L1 competencies. Those learners perform well in all subjects. They develop a higher level of self-esteem. They develop a solid foundation on which all additional languages can be built if the students want to learn an additional language. Last, MTBE promotes more participation of the parents and community in the school activities. In the case of the Philippines, however, this may not necessary be as attractive as it sounds because one classroom can easily have the representation of more than five linguistic backgrounds. MTBE seems to be more challenging in such multilingual settings (Ghimire, 2012), unlike settings where both students and teachers share the same local language (Kang, 2012). In fact, while long-term effects of MTBE may have been proven in Western countries, it has not been clearly conclusive in countries of the South (D. Malone, 2008).

In the case of MTB-MLE in the Philippines, Mahboob and Cruz (2013) believe that due to the last century that was mainly focused on English instruction, this new policy is a major Paradigm shift. According to them, the success of MTB-MLE will highly depend on the change in attitude towards languages. This is a conclusion they reached after their study revealed some positive attitude towards the MTB-MLE policy.
2.0 Introduction

2.1.1 Education for All

Local languages are not only introduced into the educational system to increase their chances of survival; they are also introduced as the medium of instruction to help students succeed educationally. Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights asserts that everyone has a right to education (United Nations 1948). But statistics in the 1980s were disappointing:

• More than 100 million children, including at least 60 million girls, have no access to primary schooling

• More than 960 million adults, two thirds of whom are women, are illiterate.

• More than 100 million children and countless adults fail to complete basic education programmes; millions more satisfy the attendance requirements but do not acquire essential knowledge and skills (UNESCO 1990).

Basic education, in many countries, especially the least developed ones, was suffering setbacks rather than making progress. In response, the World Declaration on Education for All and the Framework for Action to Meet Basic Learning Needs were adopted by the World Conference on Education for All, held in Jomtien, Thailand in 1990. Each country was to determine what actions would be necessary to turn the situation around.

One of the issues to be reconsidered was which languages should be used in education. At a follow-up conference held in Dakar in 2000, the Dakar Framework for Action was drawn up. There were six goals to be achieved by 2015. Basically they related to universal primary education, gender equality and reducing adult illiteracy rates by 50%. Clearly, those who do not know a language that is already in use in education would be disadvantaged and vulnerable to continued discrimination and illiteracy. The second of the six stated goals was: Ensuring that by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete, free and compulsory primary education of good quality (UNESCO 2001).

Desiring to remedy this situation, several nations have changed their policy regarding the use of minority languages in education. For example, Papua New Guinea (PNG), with 820
living languages (Gordon 2005), abandoned its English only policy. By 1995, more than one fourth of PNG’s languages had three-year initial vernacular literacy programs in their elementary schools (Litteral 1999). It is instructive to note that Malaysia has recently overturned its policy of teaching mathematics and science through English from primary one and has reverted to using Malay for the teaching of these subjects.

Overturned its policy of teaching mathematics and science through English from primary one and has reverted to using Malay for the teaching of these subjects. The government’s reasons for abandoning the policy of using English as a medium of instruction for mathematics and science in primary schools were twofold: first, many rural children were failing in these subjects, as their English proficiency simply was not high enough for them to be able to engage with cognitively complex subjects such as science and mathematics; second, there were not enough mathematics and science teachers who were proficient enough in English to be able to teach these subjects through English (Gill in press) (Hamish McIlwraith 2013).

In 1996 government of Malawi announced an extension of the existing school language policy. In a letter that was circulated to all Regional Education Officers, District Education Officers and heads of other educational institutions, government stated that “with immediate effect all standards 1, 2, 3 and 4 classes in our schools be taught in their own mother tongue or vernacular language as a medium of instruction. According to a follow-up government press release on this new school language policy, vernacular language and mother tongue was defined as language commonly spoken in the area where the school is located (Ministry of Education: 1996). The reason that was given in this press release for making this extension to the school language policy was twofold. It was stated that this new language policy would give children an opportunity to participate fully in classroom discussions using a language that they are more familiar with than to struggle in a language that they are just learning (Henri G Chilora 2000).

A separate study by the Zambian Ministry of Education under the auspices of the Southern African Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) in 1995 (report published in October 1997) showed that only 25% of Grade 6 pupils could read at defined
minimum levels and only 3% could read at defined desirable levels. It was evident that the first thirty years of English medium had been less than satisfactory. Teaching and learning in an alien language had meant that, for the vast majority, school was unrelated to real life. Rote learning was the only way to approach a situation where understanding was absent from school, with mindless repetition replacing problem solving and inventiveness. By 1995, there was a growing awareness within the Ministry of Education that reading and writing were better developed first in a language with which children were familiar.

i) it follows the basic principle of working from the known to the unknown, i.e. learning first in a known language (L1) and later moving into the unknown (L2);

ii) it enables pupils to express themselves in a meaningful way and therefore participate in their own learning processes;

iii) it prevents cognitive overload in pupils, since they are concerned with only one thing at a time, that of learning to read and write in a familiar language instead of having to negotiate both the reading skill and the new language;

iv) it reinforces pupils’ self-esteem by validating their cultural identity. The implementation of bilingual education is very complex. It not only requires materials and favorable policy, but also enthusiastic teachers and the approval of parents. And to risk stating the obvious: teachers need to know the language of their students. Unfortunately, teachers are often assigned without due consideration of their linguistic resources. Briggs (1985), in reporting on bilingual education programs in Peru and Bolivia, offers principles for successful bilingual education programs. High on her list were parental involvement and good teacher preparation, including some training in the basic linguistics of the official language and of the language of the students (Elke Karan 1996).
3.0 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 The Research Design

A descriptive cross-sectional survey was utilized because it provides an accurate portrayal or account of the characteristics, for example, behavior, opinions, abilities, beliefs, and knowledge of a particular individual, situation or group. The research used a cross-sectional survey design adopting qualitative methodology to a smaller extent and quantitative method to obtain evidence to answer research questions. According to McMillan and Schumacher (1997:162), the design describes the procedures for conducting the study, including when, from whom, and under what conditions the data will be obtained.

3.2 The Research Population

The target population comprised of Headmasters (School Managers), Teachers and Grade 4 and below all from 20 selected Primary schools of Masaiti and Luanshya Districts in the Copperbelt Province of Zambia.

3.3 Sample strategies

The probability sampling called Simple Random Sampling (SRS) was used in the study, so that the selection of elementary units depended purely on chance and no personal bias was involved, (Sharma, 1983). White (2005) also stated that the probability random sampling technique ensures that every element in the sampling frame has an equal chance of being included in the sample. The sample of 20 primary schools was drawn from a total of 45 primary schools which were selected by the researcher in Masaiti and Luanshya Districts. The names of the primary schools were assigned a three digit number from 001 to 020 on the cards and these were mixed thoroughly, and then 20 cards were drawn one after the other which constituted the sample.
3.4 Data Collection techniques

Secondary data for the research was obtained through the use of sources such as; the public documents, such as Educating our future, journals, past researches and the internet. Primary data was collected from the field using three sets of survey questionnaires. The three sets of questionnaires were administered to three categories of respondents in primary schools of Masaiti and Luanshya Districts: the Headmasters, teachers who teach grades 4 and below and the grade 4 and below learners.

3.5 Research Instruments

The data collection instruments used in this phase of the study was a set of three (3) survey questionnaires for the respondents (Headmasters, Teachers and grade 4 pupils) developed by the researcher. The research also carried out personal interviews informally as a way of collecting information for the research.

3.6 Data Analysis and interpretation

Data that was collected was systematically entered on Microsoft data excel sheet and later analyzed using the statistical package (STATA) a software programme which interpreted the quantitative data into tables, frequencies and graphs while qualitative data was analyzed following the emerging themes and sub-themes which were objectively described analyzed and interpreted.

4.0 Findings and Discussion

In order to establish whether the impact of issuing academic instructions in local language to pupils of grades one (1) to four (4) in terms of advantages, challenges and opportunities in primary schools respondents were asked to give their views of the matter and below are the views respondents gave to the researcher.

4.1 Views held by Headmasters and Teachers on the advantages of pupils learning in local language easily understands the instructions due to the familiar language. Pupils understand
better and faster than in foreign language. Because it is their language of play which is easily understood and better still pupils who know their local language will do better even when they use foreign language they easily understand the concepts.

Pupils learn very fast and are able to grasp and understand the concepts easily. Pupils are able to relate what they learn in their mother language to English. Pupils are able to understand better. Some pupils can only understand better in the local language. Learners learn better in the language spoken at home. Pupils will be able to read by the end of grade 2. Slow learners would be able to understand the concepts and be part of the learning process.

4.2 Views held by Headmasters and Teachers on the challenges of teaching in local language to teachers. Some words are difficult to know their meaning in local language. Lack of teaching materials and some teachers may not be familiar with the local language meanings of some terms. Certain instructions and lessons cannot be taught in local language. Some terminology may be difficult to explain to pupils such as those from Science and mathematics. Teachers who come on transfer from other regions may face language barrier. Some words are difficult to translate into local language for pupils to understand. Some concepts cannot easily be translated into local language. Some words may be wrongly spelled due to language barrier some parents think that English is better than local language. Planning for teachers is a challenge as the books are written in English. A lot of local language will make teachers forget English grammar.

4.3 Views held by Headmasters and Teachers on the challenges of learning in local language to pupils. Some pupils may not be familiar with the local language. Pupils who come on transfer from other provinces face combination Challenges. Lack of reading materials for pupils. It may be difficult to break through in English, hence it takes time for learners to learn English If the teacher is not conversant with the language then pupils will lose out academically. Some pupils may face pronunciation challenges of some words in English. Pupils may not learn English faster Adjusting to English is not always easy when they cross from grade 4 to grade 5. Pupils who come from private schools may face challenges as they are taught in English. Learners who have had the exposure of English at an early stage i.e. pre-school in the private schools have challenges reading becomes a challenge to some pupils due to the challenge
with the language. Local languages are not internationally recognized, so are not very useful to pupils’ future.

This section presents findings obtained from the 45 non-native teachers. During the analysis of the data, three main categories (also sub-categories) emerged: non-native teachers ‘perceptions on allowing the use of L1 in classrooms, non-native teachers’ perception not allowing the use of L1 in classrooms, and limitations non-native teachers of English face owing to the English-only policies. Perceptions on Allowing the Use of L1 in Classrooms All the 20 teachers participating in the study clearly stated in the interviews that L1 should be used in place of L2 classrooms, and they also mentioned that it was unavoidable. Many also emphasized the benefits of using L1 in classrooms. Frequently, the instances when L1 should be used in classrooms were given as follows: when giving instructions, when explaining difficult topics, when defining vocabulary, and when socializing in the classroom.

4.4 Views held by the Headmasters and Teachers

On the opportunities of learning in local language to pupils fast learning and good interaction by pupils Continuity with the first language Pupils learn fast and feel part of the learning activity. Explanation of some terminologies would be much easier Pupils feel to be part and parcel of the lessons. Learners are able to communicate and understand easily. Pupils will develop skills of analyzing issues broadly and they do not forget easily what they learn. There is no communication barrier between the pupils and the teacher. Most parents think English is better than local language; therefore, they do not use local language at home. The advantages of issuing instructions in local language as suggested by the respondents were that pupils learn better and faster in their mother tongue than in a foreign language. It is as well believed that pupils participate fully in class and contribute to the learning activity effectively. Even the pupils themselves believed that the local language can help them improve their academic performance as the fully understand the materials taught to them by the teachers.

Some of the advantages included; good communication between teachers and pupils due to language, learners will be learning from known to unknown, pupils are able to understand
a given instruction faster. Pupils have a sense of belonging since it is their language that is being used, Reading becomes easier because they read English easily in their language and it is also believed that pupils can easily remember what they learn in class. On the hand most of the respondents had a view that the teaching materials were not readily available in local language which was very difficult to teach in local language. They believed that teachers have to translate the teaching materials from English to local language which was a big task and time consuming to most of the teachers and they observed that translation of these teaching materials posed a great challenge as some words were difficult to translate into the local language. They also believed that some teachers were not familiar with the local language hence teaching was very difficult to such teachers due to language barrier.

Some of the views held by Head Masters and Teachers were that teachers from other Provinces who come on transfer would be unable to teach well due to language barrier and that also applies to pupils who come on transfer from other regions. Some pupils may not be familiar with the local language used to issue instructions at school because they may have been using a different language at home. The other major challenges were lack of reading materials in local language to pupils, the local languages are not recognized internationally hence may be received by most of the parents with mixed feelings, too much of local language to some teachers will make them be very poor in English grammar and pupils may face difficulties to change from local language to English.

The district administration acknowledged the lack of teaching and reading materials which they attributed to be in short supply and they hoped that the Ministry would supply the district with enough materials. From the findings it was also reviewed that the views held by both Headmasters and teachers was in support of the use of local language to pupils as they believed that the language of play if it was continued from home to school will allow the pupils to fit easily in their new environment. Use of a familiar language to teach beginning literacy facilitates an understanding of sounds-symbol or meaning-symbol correspondence. Learning to read is most efficient when students know the language and can employ psycholinguistic guessing strategies; likewise, students can communicate through
writing as soon as they understand the rules of the orthographic (or other written) system of their language (Carol Benson 2005). They also had a view that pupils find the school environment friendly as they are able to express their feelings freely and interact with everyone.

**RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION**

6.0 This chapter presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study. The study sought to investigate the impact of teaching in local language to pupils and teachers (opportunities, challenges, and advantages) in Masaiti and Luanshya districts of the Copperbelt Province. The research has highlighted a good number of the findings. However, it was not an easy task as each and every respondent had his or her own view on the subject matter. Never the less most of the respondents believe that it was a good move to take in order to improve and add value to the education system in Zambia as they know that the use of local language will in hence pupils’ understanding.

6.1 Recommendation

Further research needs to be carried out on a larger population and sample size to increase the generalizability of the findings. Though there are a large number of studies on use of local language to issue instructions in class a research should be carried out on nationwide level. It will be very important that the in-service training is provided to the teachers for them to fully understand and appreciate what they are supposed to do and also the college training must as well incorporate the local languages. Teaching and learning materials should be delivered to schools on time and the Standards Officers should be touring the schools regularly to check on the progress and requirements.

**Challenges of Mother Tongue-Based Education**

Despite the many benefits outlined for Mother Tongue Based Education (MTBE), it also presents some drawbacks (S. Malone & Paraide, 2011; Oyzon & Fullmer, 2014; Wa-Mbaleka, 2014) that cannot be ignored in this discussion. First, instructional materials are not readily available in the majority of local Languages. Secondly, teachers are not trained in the local languages used
for instructions where they teach. Thirdly, primary school teachers may not have solid training on L1 or L2 learning research and theories. Fourth, some local languages may not be perceived as important for formal education. Lastly, parents may see MTBE as a disadvantage for future employability where English is highly valued. All these are major issues that any government promoting an MTBE policy must take into consideration. Ignoring any of them can certainly lead to certain failures. Although a strong proponent of MTBE and are optimistic about the success of this policy in Zambia, Nolasco (2008) concluded that “the road to multi-literacy and multilingual education in Zambia will be a difficult and tortuous one.

Challenges listed above are easily seen in many places around schools in Zambia today. The turmoil is already happening. The future of MTBE, however, will be determined by how the Zambian government is able to handle the turmoil. The historical foundations of English instruction in Zambian are usually traced back to the British occupation era, although some scholars may debate that (Bernardo, 2004). At least, the British are known to have made the first attempt to formally teach English to the Zambian people. This instruction was meant to “civilize” the Zambian people. Just like it is still the case today (Wa-Mbaleka, 2014), English instructional materials for students whose L1 is not English were almost non-existent (Bernardo, 2004). English was also introduced in order to create a level ground for all the different Zambian linguistic groups. This practice was common during and after the colonization era in many parts of the world (Kachru, 1990; Kachru, Kachru, & Nelson, 2009).

In the contribution to the discussion of the English-only policy that was looming in the government discussions a famous linguist called Jose V. Aguillar conducted some experiments in the early 1950s, teaching students in the Hiligaynon language in Iloilo City (Bernardo, 2004). The positive findings of these experiments would influence the language policy in Zambia in the years and decades to come. Interestingly enough, as MTBE discussion became heated, another study led to positive findings in favor of the policy where the students’ L1 was used to teach Maths (Espada, 2012). Walter and Dekker (2011) also found students who were involved in MTBE performed significantly better than those who were not; although they believe that some of the successes may have been due to the quality of the teachers. Besa (2013)
also referred to another recent study that led to positive outcome in learning in a high school, but with the use of code switching between L1 and L2.

Although the discussion continues to go in all directions on whether or not MTBE, some challenges remain today as they were when MTBE and English only were first introduced in Zambia, as in other similar multilingual settings in Africa, Asia, and even Europe (Brigham & Castillo, 1999; Gacheche, 2010; Ghimire, 2012; KIrkgoz, 2009; Liddicoat, 2007; Nunan, 2003; Wa-Mbaleka, 2014). First, English is taught as a set of structures rather than being taught from a functional or pragmatic perspective. Students are led to know about the language more than they know how to utilize it. Second, since training in schools is highly limited in the country, English is not taught in the best way possible to learners whose L1 is not English. On the other hand, because most educators have not been taught how to teach L1 (or teach in L2), they either do not know how or they do not know the L1 technical language.

This is a concern on many lips of educators who are asked to teach in a Zambian language different from the major three or four ones. Next, because Zambia as a country has more than 72 languages, there is a linguistic power struggle between the languages. For instance, people in regions and provinces far away from Copperbelt have some level of resistance towards Icibemba, the provincial language. This attitude is due to the fact that probably more than 90% of Lamba words come from Icibemba, the language spoken primarily in 4 provinces of Zambia. Only a third of the people on the Copperbelt speak Lamba, therefore, it is seen as yielding too much power to the Icibemba linguistic group, which the rest of the country is not ready to do.

On the issue of power, Martin (2012) indicates that legal work in Zambia is done primarily in English, and sometimes with some code switching between English and any Zambian vernacular language more work is now being done in Language. Last, with the Critical Period Theory (Gass & Selinker, 2001; Krashen, 1981; Nunan, 2009; Scovel, 1998), it seems appropriate to promote L2 learning at an early age. This early learning gives young learners a better chance to develop well their linguistic skills in more than one language.
Theoretical Framework

This study is based on a few theories that make it interesting to the field of TESOL. First, both the Input Hypothesis and the Critical Period Theory (Krashen, 1981, 1985, 1989; Nunan, 2009) propose something that seems to be fairly in contradiction with the MTB policy, as far as English teaching in Zambia is concerned. According to the MTB policy, children learn better when they study in their own mother tongue. This policy is based on solid research that has been done in different countries around the world (Abadzi & Prouty, 2012).

On the other hand, Krashen’s Input Hypothesis claims that for someone to learn a second language, or any language for that matter, they must have large exposure to the target language. Input should come from reading and listening, in this case. This view has already been supported by other scholars in the field (Paradis, 2004; Spada & Lightbown, 2002), although some believe that it is of course more than just input (Doughty & Long, 2003). So, with the limited number of hours of English teaching and the limited exposure to English materials and English instruction in the MTBE era, it is possible that English language learning will slow down in Zambia. In fact, with this new policy, the number of hours for English instruction in the elementary schools is believed to be considerably reduced (WaMbaleka, 2014).

Krashen’s Critical Period Theory claims that humans can easily learn a language up to a critical period, a period situated between puberty and end of adolescence (DeKeyser, 2000; Johnson & Newport, 1989; Krashen, 1981; Nunan, 2009; Scovel, 1998). Beyond that period, it becomes harder and harder to learn another language, although not impossible. From this perspective, it would be important to introduce English at an early age. The Zambian universities have come to be known as the best provider of English teachers and English instruction in the whole Asia. Starting English language learning at later academic grades may negatively affect the learning of English in the country. This may have a negative impact in the preparation of students for tertiary education, given that higher education in the Zambia depends on English as the official medium of instruction. In fact, this can lead to a “clash of policies” (Besa, 2013) between MTB and English-only policies at the tertiary level.
Zambians can easily be found working in several countries around the world. English has played a very important role in the international labor market that depends so highly on the Zambian human resources. Additionally, the Zambian is increasingly attracting foreigners. English is certainly playing a role in attracting the market to the Zambia from the socio-economic, socio-political, touristic and educational perspectives. Maintaining an edge on English proficiency in Zambia is therefore something that both the Zambian government and Zambian educators cannot overlook. This study provides important insights from English teachers, who are at the frontline of this challenge that the MTBE policy poses to the English language teaching and learning in Zambia. The purpose of the current study was to investigate the perceptions of English teachers on the new language policy that went into effect a few years ago.

It has some impact on the way English will have to be taught and learned in Zambia. To train English teachers in the MTBE era will require deep understanding of the intricacies of this new language policy. Understanding the views of English teachers about this policy provides some important insight for the training of English teachers and contributes new knowledge to the ongoing discussion of this new language policy. The following are the major research questions of the study.

1. How do English teachers view the impact of MTBE policy on learning in general?

2. How do English teachers view the impact of MTBE policy on language learning?

3. How do English teachers view the impact of MTBE policy on the nation and its competitiveness on the global level?

4. How prepared is the Philippines for the implementation of MTBE?

**METHODOLOGY**

To investigate the perceptions of language teachers about the MTBE policy in Zambia, three aspects were considered in this survey research. First, the study investigated the English teachers’ perceptions on the possible effect of policy on learning in general. Second, English teachers’ perceptions on the effect of the policy on language learning was examined. Third,
the study evaluated perceptions on the potential effect of the policy on the nation (inside and outside). Last, the focus of the study was on English teachers’ perceptions on preparedness of the Philippines for the implementation of MTBE.

Research Design

Considering the main purpose of the study, a survey design was used. A survey design is used when “investigators administer a survey to a sample or to the entire population of people to describe the attitudes, opinions, behaviors, or characteristics of the population” (Creswell, 2012, p. 376). A survey was the tool used to collect the data from English teachers. This design was preferred because the study is focused on English teachers’ opinions on their perceptions.

Sampling

The population of this study was made of teachers of English at the primary school levels. Random sampling was used to regions and schools accessible to the researcher and the research assistants. Data was collected from Luanshya and Masaiti District. Research participants had to be English educators at mentioned educational level. Recruitment of the participants was done through interviews, observations and questionnaires through school Head teachers, Teachers, and Languages department heads. Participation was voluntary and a statement of the informed consent was included on the questionnaire. In the end, 20 teachers participated in the study.

Instrument

The survey used in this study was self-made. After it was made, it was given to experts for improvement and validation. The final version of the survey, which comprised 25 questions, was a 4-point Likert Scale that varied from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree”. Before the 22 questions, a section was presented for demographics where participants needed to provide important information such as their gender, whether or not their college degree major was English, and the number of years they had been teaching.
Data Collection

English teachers voluntarily participated in the survey. The survey took about 15 minutes for each participant. At some schools, the researcher or the research assistants gathered small groups of teachers who were interested in participating. In one setting, one research assistant collected separately the surveys from individuals due to their conflicting schedules. At two schools, the researcher simply distributed the questionnaire copies to the participants who were willing to participate in the study. They were enthusiastic about participating because most of them were teachers of English.

In all the cases, permission was sought from the school administrators, departmental Heads, or the District Education Board Secretaries (DEBS). It was 100% return because participants filled their surveys before leaving the room where they gathered. Despite this high return, there were some missing values in a few of the demographic data. These missing values explain the reasons why some of the data presented below do not reflect the maximum sample size, which was 45.

Data Analysis

For the purpose of this study, SPSS was used to encode the data and run statistical analysis.

To be able to address the research questions, the study relied on descriptive statistics, tests, and analysis of variances.

RESULTS

The study presented several interesting findings, which can be seen below. First, this paper presents demographic data needed to have a good understanding on the research participants. Second, this section presents the descriptive statistics. Additionally, the study presents some deemed important for the purpose of the study.
Demographics

The study included 45 participants. From this number, 15 were Head teachers, 20 Teachers and 10 were pupils from grade 1 to grade 4. Many of whom did not report their gender. Most of the respondents were from primary schools. Of the total sample, 10 teachers were non-English majors, 5 were English majors, and 5 did not report their majors. All the grades at lower primary levels of education were represented. Synthesizes some other important descriptive statistics related to gender, the teacher’s L1, and teacher’s major.
REFERENCES


