

Assessment Of Advantages And Disadvantages Of Teaching Grades 1-4 In Local Languages On Learners ' Academic Achievements: A Case Study Of Selected Primary Schools In Kapiri Mposhi District.

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Abstract

The study assessed the effect of teaching in local languages on pupils and teachers (advantages, challenges and opportunities in selected primary schools of Kapiri Mposhi district. Recently, in response to poor educational outcomes the Ministry of Education in Zambia has undertaken taken measures to include local languages in the formal education sector, a practice often referred to as mother tongue instruction. Theoretically, the effect of Mother tongue instruction (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 the lower Primary section.

In view of the above mentioned, the objective of the study was to find out the advantages and disadvantage of using local language as a medium of instructions to pupils of lower Primary school grades. A study case design was employed. The questionnaires were used to collect data. The target population was hundred (100) respondents from the selected Primary Schools of Kapiri Mposhi District.

The categories of respondents were as follows: 1 DEBS, 3 standard officers, 1 District Resource Centre Coordinator, 10 School Managers, 10 Deputy School Managers, 20 Senior Teachers, 45 Teachers and 10 lower grade pupils (1-4). The methods which were used are structured questionnaires and personal in-depth interviews. The study aimed to reveal if issuing instructions in local language was more beneficial to the learners' grasping of lessons faster, learners' participations in classroom improved greatly however some pupils may face language barrier more especially the pupils who come from transfer from other regions and one issue that come out strongly was the lack of teaching and learning materials

Key words: *academic achievements, local languages, teaching and learning.*

I. CHAPTER THREE

1.0: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

In primary schools in Zambia, Language of instruction is one of the primary determinants of effective classroom communication Chongo, (2009). Globally, many countries with multiple languages like Zambia have required a single language to dominate their education sectors. This phenomenon is particularly prevalent in Africa (UNESCO, 2010). Depending on different estimates and definitions, the number of languages spoken in Africa ranges between 1,000 and 2,500 Granvilli, (2006). However, only 176 of these African languages are used in education, 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.

The colonial language policies either adopted the use of English 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 et al (2006). 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, 2001). Hence, the colonial and neo-colonial subjects tend to undermine their own language, as mentioned by Adegbiya (1994) who says: This attitude of denigration towards one's own language and the exaltation of European languages have not been easy to remove in Africa. 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 an African language, bilingual medium, and full medium for the entire primary education. Experiments in early or initial medium have been reported in Sierra Leone, Senegal, Niger and Nigeria (for languages with small school-going populations) 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 (2001). Zambia is widely claimed to have over 72 languages, although many of these might be better regarded as sublanguages. 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 vernacular languages have official status. Together these represent the major languages of each province: Bemba (Northern Province, Luapula, Muchinga and the Copper belt), Nyanja (Eastern Province and Lusaka), Lozi (Western Province), Tonga (Southern Province), and Kaonde, Luvale and Lunda (Northwestern Province) Ayo Bamgbose, (2000). However, from 2000 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%).

A retrospective look at the use of African 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 African population and to have a value that goes beyond the school, there is no alternative to mother tongue education (UNESCO, 2010). Attitudes are changing and this is borne out by more pronouncements in favor of African language instruction, pilot projects with an African language medium, increased research and teaching of African languages as a subject in Universities and Colleges of Education, and emergence of associations of African language teachers.

Areas in which further efforts are need to be made include awareness campaigns, particularly among parents and guardians, who tend to consider colonial language as superior (Bhatia 2005). 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. Primary Reading Programs (PRP) - STEP INTO ENGLISH (SITE AND NEW BREAKTHROUGH TO LITERACY (NBTL) respectively (Chongo, 2009). And now we have primary school literacy program me (PLP) Zambian primary schools. This was met with some resistance mainly in the urban and peril-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 (Chongo, M.M 2009). This research will analyze the effect of teaching in local languages on pupils' academic achievement in terms of advantages, disadvantages, in Kapiri Mposhi District of Zambia.

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1.1. Back Ground of Study

The issue of literacy in Zambia has, for some time been a subject of concern due to the low literacy levels observed among Zambian pupils, particularly those in public primary schools. After realizing that using English as the language of instruction, particularly at the primary level, did not enhance educational gains (MoE, 2002), it was decided that initial literacy be done in a local language predominantly spoken in an area (MoE, 2000). The teaching of initial literacy using the local languages was advocated for because of the low reading levels among learners in Zambia. Presently, initial reading in Zambia is done in the officially recognized local language of the region where the school is located. There are seven officially recognized Zambian languages: Bemba, Kaonde, Lozi, Lunda, Luvale, Nyanja and Tonga. The Southern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) was also concerned about the low literacy levels in Zambia. This shared concern led to the establishment of the National Language Committee and later the formulation of the national language policy, which directed that initial literacy instructions were to begin in a child's local language, preferably their mother tongue (MoE, 2003). In 1998, Break Through to Literacy (BTL), an initiative of a South African non-governmental organization, Molteno project was piloted in Kasama and Mungwi in Northern Zambia. This was among Grade One learners. Ibibemba was used as the language of initial literacy. The results of the project were positive as learners were able to read in Grade One and by the time, they reached Grade Two they were able to read at a level equivalent to those in Grade Four (Ministry of Education, 2001). The project which was renamed New Break Through to

Literacy (NBTL) in 2000 was extended to Mongu, Chipata and Lusaka where Lozi and Nyanja, respectively were used to teach initial literacy. The NBTL approach requires that a child learns to read and write in their mother tongue or familiar language before attempting to do this in a foreign language (English). The NBTL programme is based on Language Experience Approach and includes phonics, syllabic, look and-say and "real books" (Ministry of Education, 2003). NBTL-project states that the expected outcome for the Grade One is that "learners should demonstrate understanding and knowledge of the writing system of their language, knowing that letters make up words and words make up sentences" (MoE, 2003).

However, the literacy levels of most Zambian school going children are still low and undesirable. An assessment survey conducted by the Examinations Council of Zambia on behalf of the Ministry of Education revealed that reading performance on the English test was poor. Overall, 4 pupils exhibited deficiencies in reading and comprehension skills (ECZ, 2006).

Similar deficiencies were observed in the Zambian languages. This means that despite the language of initial literacy instruction being familiar to the learners the reading performance is still poor. It is clear that despite government and other stake holders working hard, very little success has been achieved with regards to improving literacy levels among learners, especially at Basic school level (Mkandawire, 2015, Wakumelo, 2011; Mwanza, 2012). In addition, although NBTL has scored some success since its inception in Zambia, many learners in Grade One do not break through despite being taught in the local languages (Luanga J.R, 2004; Matafwali, 2010). Moreover, reading and writing levels have continued to decline and factors leading to this need to be investigated. Could the low literacy levels be attributed to the teachers? The aim of this study therefore, was to compare the reading performance of grade one learners taught

by indigenous speakers of the language used for initial literacy levels be attributed to the teachers? The aim of this study therefore, was to compare the reading performance of grade one learners taught by indigenous speakers of the language used for initial literacy instruction with those taught by non-indigenous speakers.

Starting from 1924 to 1963, when Northern Rhodesia was ruled by the British, the Phelps commission was set up to examine the education system in the colonies. This commission visited the east and central Africa. Its objectives were to investigate the education needs of people in light of their religious, social, hygiene and economic conditions, in order to ascertain the extent to which their needs were being met; to assist in the formation of plans to meet the education needs of the native race. The Phelps stock commission recommended that primary education in the colony should be relevant to the practical needs of the rural Africans, particularly the Northern Rhodesians. In the same vein they recommended irrevocably the use of vernacular language in the lower primary years of school. Robinson C.W.D (2012). They recommended four vernacular languages to be used in Northern Rhodesia. These are Tonga, Bemba, Lozi and Nyanja. These were to be used when teaching in school for the Africans.

After independence, the political and national unity was prioritized by the new African political leaders, such that by 1966 the education act pronounced English as the sole official language in Zambia. By 1999, English was used as medium of instruction in all the grades. This gave problems to children who hardly used English at home. Cohen (2004). The majority of the citizens from various sections of the Zambian society have expressed their concern about the declining levels of reading and writing. It was clear that though the learners were physically at school, they had no access to learning due to their inadequate reading ability. (Ministry of Education, 2000). The ministry of education 1995 initiated a major study research

under the auspice Southern Africa Consortium for monitoring of education quality (SACMEQ). The report of SACMEQ was published in 1997 and its main finding indicated that only 25% of grade six (6) could read at minimum levels and only 3% could read at desirable levels (SACMEQ1997). It was clear that the children could not read materials at the grade levels. In 1998, the government created the National Assessment Programme to monitor the learning achievement levels in literacy and numeracy. Three National Assessments were conducted in 2001, 2003 and 2006 Examination Council of Zambia, (2006). These National assessments indicated that there was minimum improvement in reading levels among the learners. Ministry of education had also heightened low quality of education in the main stream where learning achievements in English were low with a mean score of 33% for grade five (5) learners. A report of the Ministry of education (2000) also observed that the quality of education had continued to deteriorate in the recent years. UNESCO, (2000) supports the argument that the quality of education in sub-Sahara Africa is low. Most of the children in basic schools can barely read or write to express themselves in any familiar language due to the fact that they lack minimum literacy skills.

The Primary Reading Programme (PRP) was a plan for seven years and was aimed at raising the levels of literacy in the lower basic education sector through (NBTL and SITE) and through middle basic school through (ROC). (Ministry of Education, 2001). The Primary Reading Programme was initiated to reverse the extremely low literacy levels or rates in Zambia. Ministry of Education, (2002). This programme had teacher training package intended to prepare the teacher to teach initial literacy through NBTL. Provincial as well as District teams were invited to national work shops where they were oriented in the Primary Reading Programme. These teams became trainer who were task to conduct similar workshops at District, Zones and school levels to build capacity

in teachers as well as head teachers, in order for them to be able to implement the PRP in schools. NBLT was piloted in 25 classes in Kasama district using Bemba language and considerable amount of success was recorded in grade two. In 2000 the programme was renamed as Zambia New Break Through to Literacy. It was also implemented in Mongu, Chipata and Lusaka where Lozi and Nyanja were used respectively to teach initial literacy. Then this rolled out to all provinces of the republic of Zambia and seven regional languages were allowed by the ministry of education to be used to be teaching initial literacy in grade one (1). 2006 survey compared to 2003 survey showed minimum improvements in the learners' performance. The report further observed that learning achievement levels were still low across the country with national levels mean percentage mark of 37.8% in Zambian languages. From 2014, Primary Literacy Programme came into play in order to teach initial literacy from grade one (1) to four (4) learners. Today the Primary Literacy Programme (PLP) is in force in the ministry of education. Teachers are using familiar language to teach initial literacy from grade one to four. The aim of this study will to investigate the disadvantages and advantages of teaching and learning in familiar or local languages in Zambia.

1.2. Statement of the Problem.

In the globalized world, international languages such as English are generally valued higher than indigenous languages (Nielsen, Baarbar, 2013). The inclusion of local languages in the Zambian 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 globalized 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 (Luangala.2004).

It is against this background that the researcher seeks to find out the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in local language to grade 1-4 learners.

1.3. Purpose of study

The purpose of the study will be to explore the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in local languages on acquisition of initial skills by learners.

1.4. Research Objectives

The specific objectives of the study will be:

- i. To assess grade 1-4 pupils' academic achievement in literacy skills when they taught in local languages in Kapiri Mposhi District.
- ii. To establish the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in local languages in Kapiri Mposhi District.
- iii. To ascertain what could be done to avert the challenges of teaching in local languages in lower Primary schools in Kapiri Mposhi District.

1.5. Significance of Study

The study is important in that the information which will be generated would be used by the teacher in teaching initial literacy effectively to beginners. The findings of this study might be important to the main stake holders, the Ministry of General Education which runs Primary Education. The findings of this study might also be used to improve upon policy patterning to teaching initial literacy in the first Grade through local languages. It would also help to improve learners' literacy skills. (UNESCO, 2005). In spite of this important fact, very little is known about Zambian teachers, 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. 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.

1.6. Limitations of the study.

Limitations are conditions which are not within the control of the researcher, hence, can restrict the conclusions of the study and applications. Thus, the researcher may not be able to isolate performance due to the above factors. Due to lack of research done on teacher's teaching in local languages and learners' performance in the district, it may not be possible to use related literature to adequately support or disapprove the findings of this study. However, this limitation was minimized by including related researches done elsewhere.

The case study was confined to selected school in Kapiri Mposhi District in the central province of Zambia. The study used a small sample size for the case study which could create problems of generalizing the finding to other schools in the province and the country at large.

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1.8.0: Theoretical Framework

The study was guided by the social constructivist theory as proposed by Vygotsky, Bruner and Piaget. Key in this theory is Vygotsky's concept of the Zone of proximal development and Bruner's notion of scaffolding. The two are used in the classroom as teaching strategies. Scaffolding instruction as a teaching strategy originates from Lev Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory and his concept of the zone of proximal development (ZPD). 'The distance between what children can do unaided and what they can achieve or do with assistance from those that know better is the Zone of Proximal Development' (Raymond, 2000). Scaffolding as a teaching strategy provides individualized support based on the learner's ZPD. Using scaffolding instruction, a more knowledgeable other provides help and thereby aids the learner's development. The scaffolds or support facilitate a student's ability to build on prior knowledge and internalize new knowledge. Mathias, (2013) defines reading as the ability to obtain meaning from print. In this respect, the goal of any form of reading therefore is to understand and interpret printed material in order to fulfill one's needs. In order for this to happen one must be able to understand the language in which the material is printed. Grade One learners are beginners and need to be assisted so that they can obtain meaning from print. In the classroom, teachers are the more knowledgeable others, and thus key in providing this assistance. According to, scaffolding instruction is the "role of teachers and others in supporting the learner's development and providing support structures to get to that next stage or level" cited by Greenfield. In addition, "the

goal of the educator when using the scaffolding teaching strategy is for the student to become an independent and self-regulating learner and problem solver” cited in Hamish McIlwraith (2013). The social constructivist theory is related to this study in that the researcher was looking at how much assistance was given to the learners in order to enable them read. The framework is linked to the study in that the researcher was looking at the two teachers as the more knowledgeable others, and the pupils as the ones that needed scaffolding.

II. CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW.

2.0: Overview

This section dealt with literature review and concerns of other scholars on the similar topic under discussion.

2.1. What other wrote about teaching in local languages.

Among a number of teachers in second language acquisition, there seem to be an increasing conviction that the first language (L1) has a facilitating role in the second language acquisition (Coleman J.S et al, (2010). Also, Ferrer, (2000) states that a good number of teachers feel and based on their experiences as learners of a second language, that the mother tongue has an active and a beneficial role to play in instructed second language acquisition/learning. Among the first advocates of mother tongue use is Adessin (2008). He pointed out from his experience that mother tongue can be used mainly in accuracy-oriented tasks. Lambert, (2007), in his presentation at TESOL’97, reported that some L1 was used approximately 90% of the time in their classes.

Some 65% of the students preferred the use of L1 in their classes. Noor, (2014) in his research found out that the learner’s L1 is very determining of second language acquisition. The L1 is a resource of knowledge which learners will use both positively and negatively to help them sift the L2

data in the input and to perform as best as they can in the L2. Bathia H.R, (2005) in a report of the outcomes of his research on the use of the mother tongue in English classes concludes that a second language can be learned through raising awareness to the similarities and differences between the L1 and L2.

Adessin (2008) states that L1 provides a sense of security and validates the learners’ lived experiences, allowing them to express themselves. The learner is then willing to experiment and take risks with English. Adessin (2008) suggests the following possible uses of the mother tongue: negotiation of the syllabus and the lesson; record keeping; grammar, phonology, morphology, and spelling; discussion of cross-cultural issues; instructions or prompts; explanation of errors; and assessment of comprehension .When teaching English through lexical items is the students' ability to find an equivalent in L1 to match a lexical phrase in L2. As all teachers of English probably realize proficiency in L2 implies the ability to be bilingual -- using appropriately and interchangeably L2 and L1. (Granville et al, 2006). As English acquisition/learning and teaching usually start with mother tongue language, it is important to find out whether the developmental sequences of English as a first and second language are not different. It is also of importance to establish the sequences between the mother tongue and acquisition of English.

Language of instruction is one of the primary determinants of effective classroom communication. Globally, many countries with multiple languages have required a single language to dominate their education sectors (UNESCO, 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 (Adedbija, 2004). However, only 176 of these African languages are used in education, 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 ((CAR-Hill 2014). The colonial language policies either adopted the use of English 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, 2006). 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, 2001). Hence, the colonial and neo-colonial subjects tend to undermine their own language, as mentioned by Adegbiya (2004) who says: This attitude of denigration towards one 's own language and the exaltation of European languages have not been easy to remove in Africa. 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 an African language, bilingual medium, and full medium for the entire primary education. Experiments in early or initial medium have been reported in Sierra Leone, Senegal, Niger and Nigeria (for languages with small school-going populations). An example of this is the Rivers Readers Project in Nigeria, which is designed to introduce initial literacy in about twenty so-called minority languages/dialects through their use as media of instruction in the first two years of primary education.

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, 40 publications were produced in 15 languages/dialects between 1970 and 1972 at a cost of 20,000 US dollars. 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 (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000) 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. 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 many African countries are either already using, or planning to use, them by embarking on experiments and pilot projects. One of the problems often decried in language educational policy is the dearth of information on what is going on in different countries (Ayo Bamgbose 2001). Zambia is widely claimed to have over 72 languages, although many of these might be better regarded as sublanguages. 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 vernacular languages have official status. Together these represent the major languages of each province:

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Attitudes are changing and this is borne out by more pronouncements in favour of African language instruction, pilot projects with an African language medium, increased research and teaching of African languages as a subject in Universities and Colleges of Education, and emergence of associations of African 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) (Ayo Bamgbose 2001). 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 Kapiri Mposhi District of Zambia. It is hoped that at the end of this study the partners in the education, parents and

guardians of the children in the District will understand the role the local language plays in the learning process of the pupils at primary school.

As Adam et al, (2011) states attitude is considered both as input and output. For example, a favourable attitude to Math or to language learning may be a vital input in Math or language achievement. In this sense, attitude is a predisposing factor, or affecting the outcomes of education. Values and attitudes are some of the basic components of motivation in any given situation, language use included. Motivation in this case refers to what Keller as cited in Coolican, (2004) describes as “the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect”. The way teachers feel about the languages they are exposed to within the school setting influences how they use these languages during classroom instruction. How they use these languages also influences how their learners use the languages. Basically, when an individual is confronted with more than one language, it leads to a consideration of linguistic attitudes of the individual (Car-Hill, 2005). The attitude towards a language, the value placed on a language determines the way a language is received and used by an individual or group of individuals. It can therefore, be concluded that the higher the value of language, the warmer the reception and the more the patronage of the language; the lower the value the colder the reception and the less the patronage of the language. Therefore, in relation to the language’s teachers are exposed to, evidence from the findings show that the value placed on English in relation to Mother Tongue by teachers has a bearing on the attitude they have towards Mother Tongue and English. Bathia, (2005) points out that, ‘The status value and importance of a language is most often and mostly easily measured by attitudes to the language’.

Mother Tongue is disregarded for its lack of instrumental motivations while English is preferred for both its instrumental and integrative

motivations. In this, teachers' preference for English is in recognition of its utilitarian as well as its economic value. As a result, they are motivated to use English for instruction and to want their learners to use it. On the other hand, they disregard Mother Tongue and would want to dissuade learners from using it because of its lack of utilitarian and economic advantages. The opinions of teachers on languages through which learners find it easier to learn yielded the following results: Over half of the respondents agreed that learners found it easier to learn through Mother Tongue.

Where these studies have been carried out in ethnically homogenous classrooms, it is assumed that the findings will hold in similar contexts in different regions. 1. The case for mother tongue-based education the 2010 EFA report on reaching the marginalised sombrely notes that, "children who are members of an ethnic or linguistic minority [or] an indigenous group ... enter school with poorer prospects of success and emerge with fewer years of education and lower levels of achievement". The report advises that to effectively teach the around 221 million children worldwide who speak a different language at home from the one used for instruction in schools, there is need to first teach them in their home language (L1) while gradually introducing the national or official language (L2). This chapter will look at some of the benefits of a mother tongue-based education system under three main sub-headings: learning outcomes, inclusion and indigenous language development. Learning outcomes most developing countries are characterized by multilingual societies yet foreign languages of instruction pervade a majority of education systems. A system where instruction is carried out in a language child do not speak is referred to as submersion, as it is comparable to forcibly holding a child under water (Karan, 2006).

However, research has shown that mother tongue-based schooling significantly improves learning (Chongo M.M 2009; Bathia, 2005; SIL 2006;

UNESCO 2006; Coolican, 2009; Young 2009). The use of a familiar language to teach children literacy is more effective than a submersion system as learners "can employ psycholinguistic guessing strategies" to learn how to read and write (Bathia, 2005). This means that since children can already speak the language, they can learn to associate sounds with the symbols they see, thus facilitating understanding. When literacy skills, such as reading, are taught in a foreign language, the children first have to gain familiarity with the sound before they can master the symbol. Such cognitive development takes time, which is a luxury submersion does not allow. This forces learners and teachers to resort to rote teaching and learning, where the children merely memorise what the teacher says without necessarily understanding the meaning. Yet, despite the poor learning outcomes associated with submersion education, it is wrongly regarded the fastest way to teach children the L2 (Kothari, 2005, Cholora, 2002 and Bathia, 2009). Granville et al, (2006) note the prevalence of the myth that the more time spent educating a child via a language of wider communication, the more they master it. But in most cases, such practices tend to push children out of schools as learners fail to find meaning in what they are hearing and intellectually disengage.

This makes it much harder to regain their attention later on, or even retain them in the schooling system beyond the primary level. Teaching in a child's home language however means that the learning of new concepts does not have to be postponed until learners, grasp L2. As a result, teachers and learners are able to negotiate meanings together, thus competency in L2 is gained through mutual interaction rather than memorisation and rote learning. Adam et al, (2011) proposes the interdependence theory to explain the positive transfer of literacy skills from L1 to L2. He argues that the level of literacy competence in L2 that a child attains is partially a function of the level of competence the child has in L1 at the time L2

teaching begins intensively. Thus, if an education system submerges learners in L2 without first trying to further develop the skill they already have in L1, the school risks impeding their competency in L2 for years to come, while also limiting continued, autonomous development of their L1. This is because the sustained use of a foreign language of instruction in schools negatively impacts the way children learn to think, thus interfering with their cognitive development. Coeman, (2010) support the idea that a child's initial acquisition of language is vital to their learning how to think. Therefore, when an education system imposes a foreign language on children, disregarding their initial contact with language and pattern of processing new information, it inhibits their development of cognitive function.

An educational model that encourages mutual learning rather than submersion is referred to as immersion. Here, "the immersion teacher is familiar with the child's language and cultural background and can therefore respond appropriately to his needs. The immersion child's LI is never denigrated by the teacher (Coolican, 2009). So, while the L1 of a child in a submersion system is viewed as a handicap hindering competency in L2, in the immersion system, it is viewed as an asset to the acquisition of a new language. As Cummins summarises: "what is communicated to children in immersion programs is their success, whereas in submersion programs children are often made to feel acutely aware of their failure" (ibid.). Immersion programmes therefore validate a child's home knowledge, culture and language. Such positive reinforcement decreases rates of repetition, failure and dropouts, and "provides long-term benefits like higher self-esteem, greater self-confidence and higher aspirations for schooling and life" (UNESCO 2006). L1 classrooms allow children to express themselves, contribute to discussions and develop their intellects as conversations are carried out in a

familiar language. This is thought to lead to more satisfaction from the education system, therefore reducing dropouts. And because learners are able to keep up with what is going on or at least feel they can ask questions when they do not understand, rates of failure and repetition decrease. In contrast learners in submersion classrooms are forced to sit silently or repeat mechanically, leading to frustration and ultimately repetition, failure and dropout (Benson 2004).

The use of a foreign language in schools, in Friesian terms, makes children objects of their world, rather than subjects. Adegbija (2004) notes that as we all have human experiences and participation in our world, we all have something of value within us. The role of educators is to offer children instruments to enable them to critically understand the value of their experiences and express them through reading and writing. In this way, the educational experience comes from the inside out. To adequately express their experiences and articulate their knowledge, children require an environment that uses the language they speak. Submersion in a foreign language denies children the opportunity to articulate their world. An American counsellor in conversation with the then US Senator Barack Obama notes that a real education is one that gives a child "an understanding of himself, his world, Kagure Gacheche POLIS Journal Vol.4, Winter 2010 8 his culture, his community....that's what makes a child hungry to learn – the promise of being part of something, of mastering his environment" (Obama 1995). Inclusion A learner's ethno linguistic heritage, which refers to the ethnic and speech community the child is born into, determines the degree to which they will have interacted with and have access to the language of the dominant group (Adessin, 2008). An education system that fosters instruction mainly in the language of the dominant group greatly disadvantages minorities and marginalised communities, denying them their right to a quality education. An L2-dominant

education system therefore allows the elite unequal access to the language of education, governance and other official domains (UNESCO 2005). UNESCO further notes, “over 50 percent of citizens of low-income countries work in the informal sector.... these activities do not usually expose either children or adults to the dominant official language that would help them in school” (ibid.).

With such a high proportion of the population in developing countries being excluded, the gap between the rich and the poor is bound to keep growing, creating tensions and disaffection. And as Wilkinson and Pickett (2009) show, the more unequal a country is, the worse children’s educational attainment is. An L1-based system, however, presents the opportunity to even out the playing field and improve access to education for all sectors of society, which can improve the growth and development of a country. As evidenced by Bhatia, (2005), mother tongue-based learning has been found to “help rural or poor urban working-class schoolchildren to acquire global, standard languages and literalises for wider communication and socioeconomic mobility”. Unfortunately, policy decisions about which language to teach in schools are rarely made based on the needs of the majority but rather favour the dominant class. Chongo M.M, (2009) notes, “The language question is about power redistributing power, privilege and resources internationally”, something dominant groups are resistant to. This often means the needs of the vulnerable and marginalised populations, even if they form the majority, are likely to be ignored as decision makers cater to the elite. Kagure Gacheche POLIS Journal Vol.4, notes that the central aim of language in education is to help people articulate and be consciously aware of the full range of their experiences, knowledge and understanding, which as earlier mentioned, is greatly aided by a mother tongue-based education system, especially in

communities where access to the dominant language is limited.

When a foreign language dominates instruction, learners are bound to have questions, doubts and hesitations that remain unexpressed, which could lead to dangerous resentments. In agreement with this, Cholera, (2002) notes that as education is structured, especially for the poorest and weakest, all it does is disregard the experiences of learners, censor their knowledge and confirm them as objects for manipulation. Lambert, (2007) notes, “between five and twenty thousand languages are spoken in the world, each of them reflecting a unique view of the world, pattern of thought and culture”. A mother tongue-based system therefore allows learners to articulate their heritage, helping them appreciate their history and raising the status of their linguistic group. As the International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP) in 1997 noted that people educated in foreign languages cannot confidently express their worldview if they have to “compete with those embodied in the foreign language of prestige”. If people are deprived of the chance to express their knowledge or needs, the deprivation may increase feelings of resentment and exclusion, which could fragment a country. The use of L1 in schools has been found to reduce the incidence of political instability and conflict as it draws linguistic minorities into wider society, while the enforced use of L2 entrenches feelings of being the Other (Chongo M.M, 2009). There is, however, the risk of increased ethnicization and even greater division within a country if mother tongue-based learning is overly focused on. The Department for International Development (DfID) cautions that, “a narrow focus on a minority language of instruction may reinforce social and economic marginalisation”. Kothari, (2004). If developed extensively, the focus on local languages may create tribal enclaves that reduce attempts at building a unified nation-state. However, this should not derail attempts at creating L1-based schools, as fragmentation concerns can

be addressed by an education system that uses a learner's first language for the first few years of primary schooling as a bridge to learning the national or official language. This engages learners, validates their culture and keeps them grounded in their identity while enabling them to integrate with wider society.

As the Kagure Gacheche POLIS Journal Vol.4, Winter 2010 UNESCO paper, Education in a Multilingual World (2003) urges, schooling systems should strike a balance between enabling people to use their local languages and providing them with access to literacy in the national language. The use of a mother tongue also elevates indigenous languages' status and usefulness, "which has the potential to improve social relations and political participation as well as education", thus reducing competition between ethnic groups (Car-Hill, 2004). The potential to improve the status of indigenous languages is important as in several countries, local languages came to be associated with primitiveness. Cholera, (2002) notes that during colonial times, African children learnt to associate their mother tongues with stupidity, humiliation and low status, and the language of the colonisers, English, with intelligence and success. Benson (2004) adds that "many ex-British colonies inherited mother tongue schooling as part of separate and unequal development", particularly in South Africa. This legacy of undermining local languages and placing foreign ones on a pedestal still prevails in several developing countries. A mother tongue-based education system, however, enables the development of local languages thus increasing their value. An L1-based programme also improves kinship ties (Bhatia, 2005; UNESCO 2005; Chongo M.M, 2009). If schooling progresses with little influence from the home and family, children, especially for those from remote areas or villages, may find it hard to reintegrate into their society after finishing school, destroying important social ties.

However, the use of local languages in schools means that members of a community can play a more active role in the education of their children, discussing concepts and ideas negotiated in the classroom. It also provides an opportunity for community members to participate in preparing instructional materials for learners thus preserving cultural heritage (Chongo M.M, 2009). A mother tongue-based system also allows parents greater social control over what teachers do and what decisions schools make (UNESCO 2005; Bhatia, 2005). Bhatia notes that in villages where English is mainly inaccessible, teachers are not immune to exploiting their power as holders of a language the community views as valuable. But when a school uses the same language as that used in the community, it reduces the risk of learners, especially girls, being abused. It also provides the opportunity for parents to express their needs, making schools more responsive to the community's needs. Indigenous language development has been reservations about the lexical capacity of indigenous languages to express the realities of modern science and technology and thus be effective in classroom instruction. Critics also note local languages' limited geographical significance, lack of standardisation and orthography of most of them and the proliferation of dialects (Chongo M.M, 2009; Herman 2009). In considering the use of local languages for instruction, however, their subjective and objective characteristics must first be considered, in line with Stern (1983). The objective characteristics of a language medium have to do with its standardisation. That is, to make a suitable language of instruction (LOI), a local language should be codified – organised into a system or code – to minimise its variations; elaborated to enable it to be adapted to a wide range of functions; and, written down so people can have material to read in it.

The higher up in an education system a language is to be used, the more standard it needs to be. The

subjective characteristics of a language are: the language should be considered suitable by users and worth the effort to acquire; it should be teachable to the required standard with sufficient resources for its dissemination; and, it should be experienced in use in a natural, informal, undirected language environment such as the home (ibid.). In most cases, an L2 meets these criteria better than an L1. However, L1s can be developed to satisfy these criteria. Henri G.C, (2002) notes that the lexical capacity of indigenous languages can be increased and that even with dialectal differences, most languages have similar structures that can be standardised. An education system that utilises L1 enables the development of agreed orthographies in order to transmit curriculum content to learners. These agreed-upon writing and spelling systems will however need to accurately represent speech patterns acceptable to speakers of the language and be easy to transcribe in order to produce reading materials. This requires collaboration between linguists, educators, publishers and local community members (Chongo M.M, 2009).

This chapter has identified and discussed some of the major benefits of an effective mother tongue-based education system under three main subheadings: learning outcomes, inclusion and language development. While there is a vast array of evidence showing an L1-based system can improve education in developing countries, it can only work where “basic human Kagure Gacheche POLIS Journal Vol.4, Winter, (2010) needs are being met so that schooling can take place, and ... mother tongue-based schooling can be properly implemented” (Hanish m, (2013). Thus, merely changing the language of instruction without addressing pressing political and social issues in a country will not significantly improve educational outcomes. But even if minimally implemented, because language cuts across issues of race, ethnicity, gender and poverty, an L1-based system has the potential to reach those traditionally left

behind or marginalised (ibid). The following chapters will discuss why effective implementation of a mother tongue-based education system is problematic using Kenya as a case study. Language-in-Education Policy in Kenya This chapter introduces the case study, Kenya, in three sections. The first section gives an overview of language in Kenya, the second documents the development of the current LiE policy in the country, and the third section highlights aspects of the current state of education in Kenya that are important for the discussion in this dissertation.

Language in Kenya is a multilingual and multiethnic country with an estimated population of 40 million people who speak about 50 languages and dialects, though estimates range from 30 to 70 (Adessin, 2008). The range in number of languages is most likely because the boundary between language and dialect is blurry. As Lambert W.E notes, dialect boundaries tend to be obscured when culture or ethnicity is used as a criterion for demarcating the difference between language and dialect, rather than linguistic criteria of structure or typology. That is, people with a common culture may end up grouped as speaking a similar language but with different dialects, as opposed to them being grouped as having different languages. As evidenced by Githiora, the Abaluyia in Kenya, who share common cultural beliefs and practices, are identified as speakers of the Luluyia language, but they in fact speak a cluster of closely related dialects, estimated to be 16 to 26, rather than the same language. Other examples include the Kalenjin, who are identified as a single community yet comprise seven different ethnic groups—Kispigis, Nandi, Pokot, Marakwet, Keiyo, Tugen and Sabaot – each with its own dialect and some, mutually unintelligible. Also, the Mijikenda community Kagure Gacheche POLIS Journal Vol.4, Winter 2010 13 is made up of nine different ethnic groups the Kauma, Chonyi, Jibana, Giriama, Kamabe, Ribe, Rabai, Duruma and Digo (The UNITED NATIONS EDUCATION SCIENTIFIC

COOPERATION (UNESCO 2003). About 98% of Kenya's population is African and the languages they speak are classified into three main linguistic families: The Bantu, the Nilotes and the Cushites. About 65% of Kenyans speak a Bantu language (for instance, Kiswahili, Kikamba, Gikuyu and Luluyia), 30% speak a Nilotic language (for instance, Maa, Kalenjin and Dholuo) and 3% speak a Cushitic language (for instance, Somali, Orma and Borana).

Some indigenous languages such as El Molo and Ogiek, which are very nearly extinct, have been assimilated into larger language communities such as the Maasai and Kalenjin. The Kikuyu are Kenya's largest ethnic group and make up 22% of the population.

The next largest groups are: the Luyia at 14%, Luo at 13%, Kalenjin at 12%, Kamba at 11%, and Kisii and Meru at 6% each (United States Library of Congress 2007). The remaining 2% non-African population speak Indo-European languages including Punjabi, Gujarati, Hindi and English (UNHCR, 2003). Kenya has the enviable potential to carve out a national identity using an indigenous language, Kiswahili, which an estimated two-thirds of the population speak (Adessin, 2008). Adessin adds, "Swahili is widely accepted as ...the language of communication among Kenyans of all regional and social backgrounds". It is considered a unifying language that cuts across ethnic and socioeconomic barriers, and that perpetuates a feeling of "shared fate" and "intimacy". Development of Kenya's language-in-education policy Language policy (LP) refers to "all the language practices, beliefs and management decisions of a community or polity" (Miti M, (2005). Language policy therefore determines which languages should get status and priority in society by being labelled 'standard', 'official', 'local', 'national' and so on. LP also has the potential to legitimise marginalised languages and therefore manipulates and imposes language behaviour (Kara, 2006). Formal education was

started in Kenya by missionaries in 1846 with the setting up of a school in Rabai, a town along the coast.

Early language policies in education encouraged the use of mother tongues as local languages were used in the communication of religious messages; missionaries were convinced people better understood the Bible if it was taught in Kagure Gacheche POLIS Journal Vol.4, Winter 2010 14 their home language (Nielsen P and Barbra N; 2013). And when the country was later colonised by Britain, the use of mother tongue in schools persisted following recommendations from the Education Commission for Africa, an American organisation the British requested to organise an education system for its colonies in 1922. The report published in 1924 recognises the importance of local languages in preserving what is good and fostering self-respect in indigenous populations. It notes that imposing the use of European languages "...is unwise and unjust. The disregard of the Native language is a hindrance even to the acquisition of the European language" (Jones 1924). Later, the African Education Report recommended the use of Kiswahili as the language of instruction in lower primary schools across the country as communities migrated and regions became more ethnically mixed (Colony and Protectorate of Kenya 1949). However, a report on the educational policy in East and Central Africa in 1951 insisted on African students learning in one of 20 indigenous languages, thus Kiswahili was banned as the LOI (Mathias S.C, 2013). In 1952, researchers were commissioned to analyse Britain's education policies in its protectorates and colonies in Tropical Africa.

The report recommended mother tongue-based learning and the 1951 ban was lifted; from 1953, pupils were to be instructed for the first four years in their mother tongues with areas that had mixed ethnicities using Kiswahili (Nuffield Foundation and Colonial Office 1953. Cholera, (2002) notes that the recommendations of the 1953 report were

fully implemented by the colonial government, thus for most of the 50s, Kenyan pupils learnt in their L1 for the first four years with English taught as a subject before becoming the LOI from class 5-8. The major vernacular language of each locality was used for instruction. Later, however, the use of mother tongues as languages of instruction was blamed for the poor performance of African and Asian children in examinations which were written in English – compared to European pupils. To improve performance, the Ministry of Education established a special centre in 1957 to prepare materials and teachers for the experimental introduction of English as the LOI in all schools from Class 1 Bamgbose, 2001). The experiment, initially undertaken in schools for Asians in the late 50s, spread rapidly to African schools. Termed the English-Medium Scheme in 1957, it was later renamed the New Primary Approach (NPA) by the Ministry of Education following its “explosive expansion” across the country. For instance, in 1961, only one Kagure Gacheche POLIS Journal Vol.4, Winter, (2010) 15 African standard one class was using the new materials but the Ministry of Education reported that by 1965, standard one classes were using NPA materials, though Kiswahili remained a compulsory subject. Use of NPA materials spread to even more schools with independence in 1963 (Miti M, 2005).

The popularity of the NPA approach, however, was not necessarily as a result of its use of English as the LOI. As Nielsen P and Barbra N (2013) note, the reason the new English medium curriculum became so popular so quickly was because, it solved a multiplicity of practical and political problems brought about by giving instruction in a variety of languages; it brought with it a concept of education centred around learners and activities, it provided much more adequate texts and teaching materials than had been available before; and it was carried out under the ideal conditions of close supervision and continuous in service training of teachers. However, with increased demand for the

NPA system in schools, meeting the demand and sustaining these four key points that made it successful proved to be untenable. As Miti M, (2025) reports, rapid expansion had outstripped the stock of human and material resources available for implementing it properly. An increasing number of untrained teachers had been assigned to NPA work possibly after a brief preparation course at a teachers’ college. Supervision was grossly inadequate and classroom and teaching facilities were very poor. The end result of these conditions was lack of uniformity in the quality of the NPA programme. These problems tended to be most common in rural schools, with only areas that had effective supervision such as urban and high cost primary schools able to keep up with the NPA approach (ibid.).

In the 70s, arguments for the use of mother tongue from local and international education practitioners and development institutions returned in earnest, with educators such as Anderson (1970) reminding governments, “... a vernacular medium is educationally preferable because sound teaching must, to some degree, interact with the home life of the child and must initially be based on concepts formed during the child’s pre-school experiences”. Thus, as debate in the education sector shifted to L1 use and with NPA not being the panacea it was thought to be, Kenya revised its language-in-education policy. In Kagure Gacheche POLIS Journal Vol.4, Winter, (2010), the Ministry of Education’s (MoE) policy stated that the language of instruction in classes 1-3 should be the language of the school’s catchment area until class 4 after which English would be the main LOI (MoE 2006). The MoE notes that the policy would work as follows: learners who come from a common ethnic community within the neighbourhood of the school be taught in the language they speak at home; those with a mixed ethnic background be taught in Kiswahili, “which is the national language of Kenya and a lingua franca for many countries in Africa”; while those in urban schools be taught in

English as it “would be used widely where such learners were from” (Ibid p.1). The benefits of using a child’s home language were acknowledged as useful for the establishment of basic language skills which can then be transferred to the learning of English and Kiswahili. This was a constructivist approach, as the policy intended to help learners make sense of new information and skills by utilising previous knowledge (Bamgbose, 2001).

The teacher’s role is identified as to build on what the child already knows (MoE 1996). The 1996 National Language Policy warns that should the country not fully implement the policy, it risks: high repetition rates; lack of national unity as some communities will feel marginalised; alienation of learners from their heritage culture, home community and parents; higher rates of crime, alcoholism and suicide; underutilisation of human resources; and, loss of linguistic and cultural diversity, among others. This 1976 policy is still the current official language-in-education policy of Kenya. The current state of education in Kenya the issue of indigenous languages in education has not received as much attention as it deserves in the country. Lambert, (2007) notes that even the last major review of the education policy in 1999, popularly known as the Koech Commission, hardly addressed the “problems and contradictions Kenya has with regards to LOI in schools”. Bhatia, (2005) adds that when in 2002 Kenya revised its curriculum and published the language policy in local newspapers, it sparked controversy. Critics of the policy, unaware it had been in place since 1976, insisted that teaching in mother tongue was archaic, a waste of time in this era of globalisation and irrelevant given the status English commands as the language of technology. When such opinions are expressed, it is hard to disagree with Waruingi’s, Kagure Gacheche POLIS Journal Vol.4, Winter, 2010) observation that learning in Kenya is not about imparting knowledge or culture but grasping English and therefore earning the right to claim being educated. However, Chongo M.M, (2009)

notes that contexts where risks associated with teaching in a language unfamiliar to children are serious include those where: 1. there is a high level of conflict or fragility; 2. high linguistic fractionalisation; 3. less developed with high number of rural population; 4. large population without access to mother tongue-based learning. Kenya is listed as meeting all criteria, which has the associated effects of: 1. likelihood of extended fragility; 2. exclusion from education in rural areas; 3. inappropriate language strategies contributing to long-term instability and division along linguistic and ethnic lines; and, 4. strong likelihood of educational failure. Pinnock further notes that 99.44% of Kenyan learners do not have access to L1 education. The Kenyan education system employs an 8-4-4 format, where learners go through eight years of primary school, four years of secondary school and then four years in university. At the end of eight years in primary school, learners across the country sit for their Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) examinations. They are tested on their grasp of three compulsory subjects, Mathematics, English and Kiswahili, plus two optional subjects. Except for the Kiswahili paper written in Kiswahili, examinations are written in English.

There are over 17,000 primary schools offering formal education in the country (Karan, 2006). The Kenyan government declared primary education free and compulsory in 2003 and an estimated 1.3 million new children enrolled in public primary schools that year, raising the total number of learners to approximately 8 million (Chongo M.M, 2009). On average, Kenya’s primary schools have a teacher: pupil ratio of 1:47, but in some areas, it is as high as 1:100 (UNESCO 2005, p. 6; Kinuthia 2009; UIS 2010). Already, 17.9% of government spending is on education, which accounts for 7% of the Gross Domestic Product (GDP). Fifty-five percent of this amount is spent on primary education (UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS). National averages show impressive progress in

education in Kenya. For instance, primary enrolment rates were at 82% for girls and 81% for boys in 2008, there is a 90% survival rate to the last primary grade and the country has a literacy rate of 80% among youth aged 15-24 (UIS 2010; UNICEF 2010). However, on a district by district level, the findings paint a grim, Winter, (2010) picture of inequality and underachievement. As a result, the government established the National Assessment Centre (NAC) to monitor literacy levels and learning achievements on a regional rather than national level. And in 2010, the Uwezo Kenya organisation, in collaboration with the NAC which harmonises all assessment activities, released the first Annual Learning Assessment (ALA) report on levels of basic literacy and numeracy in the country.

The researchers conducted field tests in 70 out of the 158 districts in the country, in about 10% of primary schools in the country and assessed 102,666 pupils aged 3-16 on their understanding of Class 2 tests (Coleman J.S et al 2010). This level of competency was selected as, “It is internationally recognised that after two years of schooling a pupil should demonstrate sufficient reading fluency and comprehension” (ibid., p. 12). The findings were: 85% of children in Class 2 cannot read a passage in English, 25% in Class 5 cannot read the same passage, and 4% in Class 8 cannot read the passage meaning they leave primary school without being able to read English (ibid. p. 15).

The ALA report also notes that there are children in pockets of arid and semi-arid regions who are overlooked in national averages. For instance, while the national average for children out of school in the country is 5 out of every 100, in arid and semi-arid regions (particularly in the Eastern and North-Eastern regions), the figure is almost eight times worse. In some arid districts, 40% of primary school-age children do not attend any school, while in the more fertile districts in the Central region of the Country; a much lower 1% of children are out of school. Countrywide, an

estimated 1 million primary age children are not in school. This chapter has given an overview of language in Kenya and discussed the development of the multilingual LiE policy. It has also highlighted statistics that indicate the state of education in the country, showing that education in Kenya is plagued by low competency levels in districts traditionally marginalised. This helps highlight the need for the government to provide greater support for its language policy, in light of the benefits it holds for improving learning outcomes for the large percentage of children being left behind. But to do this adequately, the country will have to address and overcome the policy challenges discussed in the following two chapters. Winter, (2010). Educational challenges in implementing a mother tongue-based language in education policy. As illustrated in the first chapter, mother tongue-based education has been shown to have sound pedagogical advantages and various developing countries have attempted to institute various models of it (Chongo M.M, 2009). However, for its effective use in the Kenyan system, a number of challenges need to be addressed. For the purposes of this dissertation, these challenges are categorised into two parts: educational challenges and political challenges, and will be discussed in this and the following chapter.

There are several educational barriers preventing the effective implementation of a mother tongue-based system; this chapter will discuss some significant ones under the following subheadings: teachers, instructional materials and LiE policy and planning. Teachers One of the issues that predominates discussion on the effectiveness of L1-based systems is the ability of teachers to efficiently and effectively transmit cognitive skills and values in the learners’ L1 (International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP) 1997). However, most education systems that attempt to institute policies that encourage learning through a child’s home language suffer from an acute

shortage of teachers who speak or have access to these home languages, yet one of the criteria for effective usage of local languages for instruction is that there must be enough teachers to teach in it (Miti M, 2005; Chongo M.M,2009). A majority of out-of-school children, as earlier mentioned, are speakers of minority languages meaning that eventually there will be a dearth of educators literate in these languages if little is done to make quality education available to all sectors of society. In Kenya, the 2009 ALA report notes that traditionally marginalised communities report a much higher percentage of out-of-school children. Chongo M.M, (2009). For instance, districts in Central province that have a large Kikuyu population have only 1% of primary age children out of school while arid districts with a high number of marginalised communities have up to 22% out of school children.

This unequal access could sour relations between ethnic groups further as dominant groups continue to benefit from the availability of educated teachers and those marginalised are left even further behind. Winter 2010 20 however, increasing the number of available teachers is not going to be easy. One of Kenya's reports there is a shortage of 66,000 teachers in the country, yet pupils at a recent awards ceremony all indicated they would rather become engineers and doctors than teachers (Mathias, 2013). Despite teachers at the ceremony blaming the low salaries they receive for the lack of interest from learners for their profession, it could also be because of the negative experience learners get in classrooms. Coolican H, (2004) found that when teachers are not native speakers of the child's L1 or lack sufficient training on how to carry out mother tongue-based teaching, they avoid the 'unknown good' and regress to the 'known bad'. That is, teachers revert to old systems of teacher-controlled interactions, where pupils are merely required to repeat content after the teacher and given little room to ask any questions or express hesitations they may have. In L2-dominant

systems, this interaction characterises all years of primary schooling, making the experience unpleasant for children. Bhatia H.R's (2005) ethnographic study of Kenyan lessons showed that classroom interactions in an L2-dominant school are dominated by safe talk where the teacher makes little demand on learners encourages choral answers, repetition of phrases and copying of notes from chalkboards or textbooks, undermining efforts to bring up a new generation of teachers. When teaching becomes mechanical and stifling, pupils are likely to want to distance themselves from primary school as soon as possible.

Thus, without adequate support for an L1-based language policy, schools end up encouraging an orientation towards error-free regurgitation of curriculum content rather than the expression of ideas and interaction with new information (Stenhouse 1971). One of the reasons cited for teachers regressing to the 'known bad' is that they often fail to implement "the child-centred teaching strategies in which they were trained - and reportedly believed in - because of the pressure of high-stakes examinations for their students" (Capper 2000). This means teachers are more likely to focus on acquisition of the L2, which in most cases is done through submersion, as it is the language of examination even though the language policy advocates use of L1. In Kenya, the Ministry of Education sent out a memo in 1976 to all schools to inform them of the new policy, but within a few years of inadequate support for the development of local languages and poor accountability structures, the policy was soon ignored. Most teachers, motivated by the fact that English would be the language of instruction in higher classes and of examinations, chose to teach in English, Henri S.C, (2002) opposed to the mother tongue, in the mistaken belief that the earlier it is introduced as the LOI, the faster pupils are likely to attain competency in it (Henri S.C, 2002; Bhatia H.R 2005). This reaction received little protest from

parents and learners as many believed that submersion in the L2 would help pupils gain speedy access to greater socioeconomic opportunities (Bhatia H.R, 2005; Adegbija E, 2004; Chongo M.M, 2009).

But perhaps such opinions are expressed because local languages have not received sufficient attention, making L1-based programmes ineffective. And as Benson (2004) found, parents tend to favour L2 learning only when governments present them with an either-or choice for their children's schooling – either an L1-dominant system or an L2-dominant system. However, if parents are presented with a well-developed mother tongue-based educational system, they overwhelmingly choose this over an L2-dominant system. Bhatia's study (2005) exemplifies this result with the PROPELCA programme in Cameroon which won over minority language speakers in the north as it offers “pedagogical and cultural relevance to local realities”, while still providing access to the official languages, French and English. Another challenge that must be addressed as concerns teachers is the wrong assumption that if teachers can speak a child's L1 then they can teach in it, which makes education ministries lax about providing specific training for L1 teachers. Coolican, (2004), however, notes that without specific formal training on multilingual strategies and practices, instruction is likely to be ineffective. Primary school teachers, who undergo a three-year training course after completing their secondary education, are trained in over 10 subjects, which include all subjects taught in primary school plus professional pedagogical courses. Such a system can be ineffective as it fails to equip trainees with intensive, specialist knowledge in a few subjects and instead gives them a general idea about everything. This kind of training means that teachers lack the opportunity to gain the necessary competence and specific training in mother tongue-based teaching and how to use it as a bridge to competency in L2. The ideal

situation for a mother tongue-first education system is to “identify teachers who culture respected by others in the community” (Young 200).

2.2: Studies outside the African continent

In 2003 Hamish McIlwraith (2013) in United States of America did a study which indicated that a long time ago, indigenous languages thrived in Turtle Island which is in North America. More than 500 years ago foreigners arrived from lands afar and brought with them their Languages. Through many events such as genocide, colonialism, linguistic imperialism, forced relocation brought up the upset of indigenous communities. The most influential factor for the existence of indigenous languages was the enforcement of the English as the only language residential school for all indigenous children (Lambert W.E, 2007). In his findings, Mcivor argues that the only strategy for indigenous language organization and the future direction for the continuation of the indigenous language was teaching the language. Some countries train the teachers for indigenous languages as a strategy for retaining and acquisition of the indigenous languages. Kotharl C.R, (2004), Dezin w and Linkoln (2000) recommended having appropriate, certified training programs available to enable our people become language teachers, linguists, interpreters, translators, curriculum developers and researchers.

More recently, the Enowkin centre in partnership with the University of Victoria created a post in secondary school training certificate called Aboriginal language acquisition. In the same vein, the Canadian research indigenous knowledge and learning at the University of Vitoria is in the process of creating bachelor and master's degree programmes in indigenous and cultural acquisition. University of Albert also runs a summer institute called the Canadian indigenous language and literacy development institute (CILLDI), which is similar to the one based at the University of

Arizona called American Indian languages development institute (AILDI) both of which focuses on learning and literacy of indigenous languages (Cohen, (2004).

The barrier to informal education in many countries is the use of foreign language in teaching. In New Guinea a small island of the nation of Papua New Guinea which is located north of Australia is challenge of multilingual which causes difficulties in conducting training for teachers to teach in for teaching familiar language. In New Guinea, the teachers were teaching in English since this was medium of instruction in the nation. This means that more often than not, teachers were unable to speak the familiar languages of the society or community. Since the people in the rural areas were not able to speak English, this means that teachers were isolated and could not communicate children`s progress was owed to the parents and community

In London, according to Henri G.C (2007) Break through to literacy (BLT) is a scheme which was designed in the early 1960`s and launched in 1970 to help young children acquire early reading and writing skills. This intervention was designed to prepare the teachers to go through short courses to assist children who could not read and write in the early school years. It was reported that the work by David Mckay, the former head teacher of Beatrix potter Primary School. BTL later spread to Australia, Ireland and the United States of America (Littlebear, 2010).

In Philippians, teacher training provided for the teacher in mother tongue based multilingual education before coming or opening the classes. It also further stated that the department of education provides with clear understanding of the principles and practice as well as their roles and responsibilities in implementation of mother tongue-based education. It was recognized that children learn fast and easily develop life skills. The Philippians saw the importance of teaching in mother tongue and as result they developed a

summer institute of linguistics and translation association of Philippians` in developing a continuing and self-sustaining education programme beginning in local language of the learners and building into a solid foundation. This type of a programme also took place in Singapore (UNESCO, 2010).

In 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 2009).

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. 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).

2.3: Studies within Africa

In Africa Break Through to literacy` (BTL) was first developed by a South African nongovernmental organization called Molteno project in 1998. The Molteno project highlights a literacy training course which was originally a project Rhodes University which has now developed into a community-used mother tongue curriculum called Break Through to Literacy. This curriculum is popular transition to English curriculum called Bridge to English. The Molteno project has been also implemented in Botswana and

Namibia was declared a success (Cohen and Manion, 2004).

Bloch (2003) highlights the problem concerning language teachers' education background. She argues that although linguists and language scholars are passionate about African language and are keen to get teachers transmit correct language. Teachers however have not been trained in their mother tongue.

Mathias Shimanga Chunga, (2013) in her presentation to the all African conference on children's reading in Pretoria lamented that many teacher and librarians do not read enough to acquire even the most basic general education. She wondered if professional educators, who were expected to promote reading, when they did not read themselves, how could the children they teach to love reading. This concern was echoed throughout the conference, which brought together the teachers, teacher trainers, researchers, writers, publishers, book activist, literacy experts and policy makers from all over Africa and other parts of the World. It is clear that for those who are teaching should get proper result, teachers should intensify on actual reading activities with a variety of teaching materials in local language or familiar language.

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 (Cholora, 2001). 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 (UNESCO, 2000)

In Kenya, the language of instruction is English, and some learners in urban and some cosmopolitan settings speak and understand some English by the time they join school. But learners in the rural areas enter school with only their home language. For these learners, using the mother tongue in early education leads to a better understanding of the curriculum content and to a more positive attitude towards school. There are a number of reasons for this: First, learning does not begin in school, Learning starts at home in the learners' home language. Although the start of school is a continuation of this learning, it also presents significant changes in the mode of education. The school system structures and controls the content and delivery of a pre-determined curriculum where previously the child was learning from experience (an experiential learning mode) (Karan, 2006).

. In the capital Addis Ababa for instance, English, a foreign language, is introduced as medium of instruction in the sixth year.

2.4: Studies conducted in Zambia.

To our knowledge, no studies on the indigenous and non-indigenous speaking teachers have been conducted in Zambia. What are there are issues of language in education policy and reading difficulties of learners especially at the lower grade levels. In Zambia, the issue of language and education was clear and straight forward throughout the colonial and much of the federal period (Folotiya, 2014). Both the colonial and federal governments favored the use of the local languages to teach in the early years of school. After independence, however, the medium of instruction in the country changed to English from Grade One to the highest level of education which is University. This policy seems to have led to a decline in reading performance among learners in Zambia especially at primary school level. Several attempts were made to alter the language in education policy. In 1977, despite there being a broad agreement that learning using English as the

medium of instruction was 19 detrimental to educational achievement, educational principles were subordinated to the need for political harmony.

The final report, "Educational Reform: Proposals and Recommendations" acknowledged that "it is generally accepted by educationists that learning is best done in the mother tongue", decided that "this situation is found to be impracticable in multi-lingual societies, such as the Zambian society" (Ministry of Education, 2000). However, the new policy made provision for the teacher to explain concepts that might not be understood through the medium of English, in one of the seven official local languages, provided a majority of pupils in a class could understand this vernacular language. The 1992 Focus on learning policy document which was a response to the 1990 World Conference on Education for All tackled the issue of language in education. It is clearly stated in the document that using local languages in education would lead to better education gains (Ministry of Education, 2000).

In 1996, government through the Ministry of Education produced Educating Our Future policy document. It was in this document that a separation was made between the medium of instruction and the language of initial literacy instruction. The document outlined that initial literacy and numeracy would be developed through a language which was familiar to children. In addition, the status of Zambian languages was enhanced and a rationale for future initiatives was provided through the same policy. The separation of medium of instruction from medium of initial literacy allowed Educating Our Future to set down initial literacy in a familiar language as a child's right while maintaining English as the medium of instruction (MOE, 2001). 20 The National Reading Assessment Programme was created in 1998 by government through the Ministry of Education to monitor learning achievement in literacy and numeracy. Three national assessments were

conducted (2001, 2003 and 2006). As of 2006, the assessment survey conducted by the Examinations Council of Zambia on behalf of the Ministry of Education revealed that reading performance on the English test was poor. Overall pupils exhibited deficiencies in reading and comprehension skills (ECZ Report, 2006). Similar deficiencies were observed in the Zambian languages. This means that despite the language of initial literacy instruction being familiar to the learners the reading performance is still poor.

The one-year initial literacy course has been translated in the seven official Zambian languages and has so far had significant success. After conducting an evaluation of the pilot programme carried out in Kasama in 1998 it was reported that: "The programme was an unqualified success; children in Breakthrough to Literacy (BTL) classes were reading and writing at a level equivalent to Grade 4 or higher in non-BTL classes" (Kotze, Higgins, & Simwinga, (2003). The review team further claimed in oral presentations of their findings to the Ministry of Education, that children in pilot schools in Kasama were performing in literacy tests at a level above what they would expect of children of similar age in South Africa, the United Kingdom, and Ireland, areas with which they were familiar. Basic school teachers in Zambia were initially trained under a programme known as Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC). This was a two-year course that was offered in all the basic teacher education colleges. The programme has since been changed and the teachers are now trained for three years at the end of which they are awarded a diploma. In Zambia, all the teachers trained to teach Grades One to Seven are trained in the Zambian New Breakthrough To Literacy (ZNBTL) course. In addition, the Primary Reading Programme (PRP) contributes to the training of teachers to teach initial literacy in local languages.

However, this does not resolve the reading problems that are as a result of the language of

initial literacy instruction because in most cases teachers are deployed away from the region where they are trained. Mitii, (2007) adds that all Primary Teacher Training Colleges have a Zambian Languages Section where all teachers are trained in the teaching of local languages. Kashoki and Ohannessian (2008) cited in O'sullivan, (2002) have provided one of the most detailed studies of the socio-linguistic situation of Zambia. This survey reveals that more than seventy-three dialects or language varieties exist in Zambia. Out of this number, only eight languages, including English, Cibemba, Cinyanja, Citonga, Silozi, Kikaonde, Cilunda and Ciluvale, have been selected as official languages. "Since there was no systematic study to establish precisely the socio-linguistic situation especially when the English medium policy was adopted, a claim could be made that these languages were chosen more for political and geographical reasons than as a result of socio-linguistic or educational considerations" (Coolina H, 2009). Mkandawire's findings further revealed that there was a cognitive relationship between language and thought, and owing to this, the PLP course which requires that initial literacy be taught in the mother tongue could be effective. It was also revealed that low levels or a total lack of language proficiency in the target language were a typical feature of poor reading and writing skills among most Zambian learners (Mkandawire, *ibid*). She further supports the teaching of Grade one learners in a familiar language, preferably their mother tongue. However, she recommends that the Ministry of Education should consider teacher training in local languages as a priority. Similar to Mkandawire's study is a study conducted by Miti (2007). This study was conducted in Zambia's Northern Province where the language of initial literacy instruction is Bemba. In this particular study, Mitii involved 60 poor second grade readers from selected schools. It was revealed in this study that only 13% of the learners could read two

syllable words and only 8% were able to identify 20 letters of the alphabet.

. Before the advent in (PLP) primary literacy programme, the aim of the ministry of education has been to find a way of achieving high literacy in Zambia. there were programmes like Zambia teacher education which ran a two-year programme to train teachers to teach initial literacy to beginners at lower basic level. The PLP course had been institutionalized to preserve training and college lecturers were trained through week long workshops in august 2002 (primary reading programme 2002, Ministry of General Education 2001). Colleges of education directed by government to incorporate ZNBTL programme in their course in order to enhance the teaching of initial literacy in a local language. Ministry of General Education (2004) holds the view that the primary reading programme has potential of raising high levels of literacy (reading as well as writing).

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 learners 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. 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); It enables learners to express themselves in a meaningful way and

therefore participate in their own learning processes; It prevents cognitive overload in learners, 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. It reinforces learners '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.

2.4. Advantages of teaching in local languages in schools

The advantages of issuing instructions in local language as suggested by the respondents were that learners learn better and faster in their mother tongue than in a foreign language. They as well believed that learners participate fully in class and contribute to the learning activity effectively. Even the learners 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 learners due to the language, learners will be learning from known to unknown, learners able to understand a given instruction faster, Learners 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 they also believed that learners can easily remember what they learn in class. On the hand most of the respondents had a view that the teaching materials were no readily available in local language which was very difficult to teach in local language.

Challenges of teaching in local languages for both teachers and learners in schools

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 learners who come on transfer from other regions. Some learners 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 learners, the local languages are not recognised 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 learners may face difficulties to change from local language to English.

The district administration acknowledges 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 learners as they believed that the language of play was continued from home to school that will allow the learners to fit easily in their new 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

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III. CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0. Overview.

This chapter focused on methodology used to generate data from respondents. The study discusses certain methodological elements that were critical to the process of data collection which includes the following: research design, target population, sample size for the study, sampling techniques (procedures). The discussion included research instruments, data collection and data analysis procedure and ethical issues

3.1. Research Design

A descriptive case study design was adopted because it will provide an accurate portrayal or account of the characteristics, for example, behavior, opinions, abilities, beliefs, and knowledge of a particular individual, situation or group. Furthermore, case study design was predominantly be used in this study because it was the most appropriate design for the investigation and bringing out rich and vivid description of the phenomenon and issues in this study (Kombo and Tromp, 2006).–The study was a case study and employed both qualitative and quantitative designs. The qualitative method allowed the researcher to obtain in-depth information about the phenomenon under investigation while the quantitative method ensured high levels of reliability of the gathered data. Case studies are concerned with a rich and clear description of events relevant to the case. They also strive to portray what it is like to be in a particular situation (White, 2003). Therefore, the researcher conducted a case study in order to get in depth understanding of the phenomenon under study.

3.2.0 Population

According to Car-Hill (2014) a population is a collection of objects, events or individuals having some common characteristic that the researcher is interested in studying. In this study the target population comprised all the Grade one (1) learners and teachers in public basic schools in Kapiri Mposhi district.

In the study, the population of the study comprised the head teachers, deputy and teacher, senior teachers, class teachers and learners also standard officers at Kapiri Mposhi District DEBS (District Education Board Secretaries) Office. Best and Khan (2009) argued that target population basically consists of the specific group with common characteristics to whom the researcher plans to generalize their findings.

3.3 Target Population

The study was limited to a small geographical area of Kapiri Mposhi in about three primary schools. This however, does not mean that other schools in the country are not important but rather it is the fact that the study will be conducted in a short period of time.

The target population included Standard officers at the District Education Board Secretary School Managers, Deputy School managers, senior Teachers, teachers and learners from the ten selected Primary schools of Kapiri-Mposhi District in Central Province.

3.4. Sample size

The study comprised 100 participants broken down as follows, 1 DEBS, 3 standard officers from DEBS office, 1 District Resource coordinator, 10 head teachers, 10 deputy head teachers, 20 senior teachers, 45 teachers and 10 learners.

A sample was a subset of a population that is used to represent the entire group as a whole (White, 2003). In this study the sample size was 98 which comprised 49 pupils in each class. The Education Standards Officer (ESO) in charge of Kapiri Mposhi District, the Head teacher of the school, two teachers, one indigenous and the other non-indigenous speaker of Ibibemba also participated in the study

3.5. Sampling Procedures.

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 shall involve, (Sampa Francis, 2000). 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. A simple random sampling procedure was used to select primary schools to provide respondents to complete the questionnaires in the study. At the same

sample school, a snowball and purposive sampling procedure was used.

In purposive sampling, the sample is satisfactory to the specific needs of the researcher and is chosen for a specific purpose (Car-Hill, 2014).

There were basically two sampling techniques applied in this study. These were simple random motion and purposive procedures. (Kombo and Tromp 2006) argues that simple random sampling is a procedure in which all the individuals in the defined population had an equal and independent chance of being selected as a member of the sample. In this study was a simple random sampling was used to draw the respondents. However, at the sampled schools a snowball and purposive random sampling procedure were used. Head teachers in sampled schools assisted the researcher to identify grade one teachers who as predicted in local or familiar language. According to Adama Quane and Christine Glsnz (2011). The power of purpose sampling lies in selecting information rich cases for in-depth analysis related to the crucial issue being studied. Snowball sampling begins with a few people or cases and then gradually increases the sample size as new contact mentioned by the people start with.

Additionally, commenting on purposive sampling, Balton quoted by McMillan and Karan, (2009) argues that it involves 'selecting information rich cases for the study in depth.' It is clear that purposive sampling is based on the researchers' judgment that a sample is composed of elements that contain the most characteristic representative or typical of the population.

The Education Standards Officer (ESO) in charge of languages and school managers were sampled purposively. This was because they were the only ones with information that the researcher was interested in. The teachers were also sampled purposively in that the researcher was specifically looking for an indigenous and a non-indigenous teacher of Grade One learners. In purposive sampling, the sample was satisfactory to the

specific needs of the researcher and is chosen for a specific purpose (Car-Hill, 2001). The indigenous Teacher The indigenous teacher is Bemba by tribe and Kasama in Northern Province until she went to college. She did her teaching course at Kasama Teachers' Training College in Northern Province. She taught in Northern Province for some time before moving to Kapiri Mposhi in 2015. She was trained in PLP when it was just introduced and she is also a trainer. She speaks Ibibemba fluently and can also speak Nsenga as her husband is Nsenga. The non-indigenous Teacher is Lunda by tribe and lived-in North-Western Province from the time she was born until 2014 when she moved to Kapiri Mposhi. She did her teaching course at Solwezi Teachers' Training College. She was not trained in PLP and the only training she has in this particular course is what she learnt at college and the Grade Meetings at the Resource Centre (GRACE) held once every term. She speaks Lunda, Kaonde and Cinyanja. She can speak and understand Ibibemba but not fluently. She still cannot understand certain words in Ibibemba but is slowly learning.

3.6. Research Instruments.

The following data collection instruments were used in the study: Primary Literacy Program (PLP) test: This structured PLP achievement test comprises the core vocabulary words. Instructions were read out to the learners and clarified in Ibibemba. Lesson observation checklist: this instrument was used alongside the PLP teacher's guide. The checklist comprised elements that the researcher was looking for in the lessons. Additional notes and observations were written in a notebook. Interview Guides: these instruments comprised some structured and open-ended questions that the researcher asked the ESO in charge of languages, the school manager and the two teachers. According to White (2003) 'Open-ended questions are used for complex questions that cannot be answered in a few simple categories but require more detail and discussion'. In this

study, open-ended questions allowed the respondents to express feelings and to expand on ideas.

The data collection instruments were used in this phase of the study and this was a set of the questionnaires and interview schedules were used on the respondents i.e. Standard officers from DEBS office, Head teachers, Teachers and learners were used to get information by the researcher. The research also carried out personal interviews informally as a way of collecting information for the research.

The following data collection instruments were used in the study:

(i) Pupils' literacy Program (PLP) test: This structured PLP achievement test comprises the 19 core vocabulary words.

(ii) Lesson observation checklist: this instrument was used alongside the PLP teacher's guide. The checklist comprised elements that the researcher was looking for in the lessons. Additional notes and observations were written in a notebook.

(iii) Interview Guides: these instruments comprised some structured and open-ended questions that the researcher asked the ESO (Education standards officer), the school manager and the two teachers. According to White (2003) 'Open-ended questions are used for complex questions that cannot be answered in a few simple categories but require more detail and discussion'. In this study, open-ended questions allowed the respondents to express feelings and to expand on ideas.

The main instruments used in this study were questionnaires and check lists of lesson observation. According to Ordho and Kombo, (2002) research instruments included questionnaires and observation check lists. Furthermore, it is argued that questionnaires are used to gather data over the sample on a large scale and have open – ended as well as closed questions. Grade one teachers from the selected schools also completed the questionnaires to generate

information on the use of PLP (Pupils Literacy Program) through in service program me. These studies predominantly open ended and Sami closed ended questions tailored to elicit for rich information connecting the teaching of the leaders in local and familiar languages.

3.8. Data Collection procedure.

Primary data was collected from the field using three sets of questionnaires. The sets of questionnaires will be administered to the categories of respondents in their selected primary schools of Kapiri Mposhi District: The Headmasters, teachers who teach grades 1-4. Secondary data for research was obtained through the use of sources such as; the public documents such as Educating our future, journals, and internet. Furthermore, the data collection exercise took place within the first term of the school calendar, which was from February to April. Most data were collected in March. The researcher observed the lessons as they occurred naturally in the classroom using a detailed checklist. In order to ensure that the lesson observation was natural the researcher did not interfere with the lessons in any way. Towards the end of the term in March, the learners' reading ability was assessed. The idea was to put the learners in ability groups. The period for assessment was one week. The teachers assessed the learners individually in the teaching corner with both teacher and learner sitting on the mat but pupils were called out from their pace groups. The researcher was present during these assessments. The researcher used the results of the test to ascertain whether at the end of the term.

This data collection exercise was conducted well over a period of seven weeks starting from the end of February to the first week of April. It was done in selected school in Kapiri Mposhi District of Central Province of Zambia. The researcher distributed questionnaires to respondents who showed willingness to participate in the study accepting to fill them up. All respondents were

given enough time to complete the question on the questionnaires at their own time. However, the research kept constant checking the progress being made by the respondents. This was done by phone and physical visits to research schools.

Additionally, the research conducted lesson observations in some classes taught by teachers in local language in grades one classes. The researcher sought permission to write down some notes during lesson observation. The data collection exercise took place within the first term of the school calendar, which was from February to April. Most data were collected in March. The researcher observed the lessons as they occurred naturally in the classroom using a detailed checklist. In order to ensure that the lesson observation was natural the researcher did not interfere with the lessons in any way. Towards the end of the term in March, the learners' reading ability was assessed. The idea was to put the learners in ability groups. The period for assessment was one week. The teachers assessed the learners individually in the teaching corner with both teacher and learner sitting on the mat but pupils were called out from their pace groups. at the end of the term the teacher made the groups according to the abilities of the learners.

3.8.1. Data Analysis

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

Furthermore, there was a difference in reading performance of learners from the two classes. The researcher made an appointment to interview the ESO Kapiri Mposhi District. The answering session took that took place in the ESO's office and

information was obtained in one session in which he answered the questionnaire. Part of the data analysis exercise, particularly of qualitative data begun in the field during data collection. The researcher at this stage ensured that the data were internally consistent. The qualitative data was analyzed by transcribing the interviews, summarizing and organizing the data according to categories. (Cohen & Manion, 2004). Helped in establishing the difference in reading performance of the classes and whether or not this difference was significant.

3.8.2. Qualitative data analysis

As regards the qualitative data Kombo and Tromp (2006) argue that, the responses can be categorized into various classes which are called cattery variables, and qualitative research data can also be analyzed thematically. The thematically refer to topics or major subjects that come up in discussion, this form of and analysis categorize related topics. The qualitative data was analyzed through the identification of common themes from the respondents' description and presentation of their experience. Later, conclusions were reached and analyzed with reference to research question on which the study was based on. This drastically reduced the researchers' bias due to the fact that phenomenon was basically interpreted from the point of view of respondents.

3.8.3. Quantitative data analysis.

Quantitative data was analyzed using statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) to generate descriptive statistical information in form of frequencies as well as percentages.

Statistics are sets of mathematical methods used to extract and clarify information from observable data. Statistics generate simple numbers to describe distributions Kombo and Tromp (2006). Additionally, Grobel, (2005) states that the mathematical techniques are appropriate for organizing, summarizing as well as displaying a set

of numerical data.

3.8.5 Ethical Considerations

Permission to conduct the study was requested from the Ministry of General Education at the District Education Board Secretary's office and Information and Communication University. All participants were asked for either written or verbal information. Participants were allowed to consent or a choice to refuse to participate. They were informed that they could be free to discontinue at any time of the study. To maintain confidentiality during interviews the researcher will explain to the participants that whatever information discussed during the interview will be kept in confidence. Furthermore, participants were asked not to give their real names, but to use pseudo names during the discussion. The researcher asked for permission to record all interviews. Participants were assured that no physical risks were involved in this study.

IV. CHEPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.0 Over view

This chapter presents the findings of the study. The qualitative findings are presented according to the emerging themes, according to the research questions while the quantitative findings presented accordingly using frequencies as well as percentages. Furthermore, the findings are presented according to different categories of respondents who participated in the study. These are: the district Education Board Secretary, the School managers, the Deputy School Managers, Senior Teachers, Teacher and Learners. The presentation of the finding in this study will be answering the following research questions:

(i) How can we assess grade 1-4 learners' advantages and disadvantages in achieving literacy skills when they are taught in local languages in Kapiri Mposhi District?

(ii) What are the advantages of teaching in local languages in the lower primary schools in Kapiri Mposhi District?

(iii) How can the challenge of teaching in local languages in lower primary grades in Kapiri Mposhi be averted?

This chapter is the presentation of findings in relation with the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in local languages at grade 1 – 4 in three selected primary schools of Kapiri Mposhi district. In order to establish as to whether the impact of issuing academic instructions in local or familiar languages as to whether this has advantages and disadvantage in primary schools respondents were asked to give views of the matter and these were their views: They said that a learner easily understands the instructions in local or familiar language and that the understanding of the learner is better and faster in local or familiar languages than in foreign in any foreign language. Local or familiar language is a language of play and as such it easy for the learners to understand academic instruction in that language. Furthermore, respondents said that in local or familiar languages concepts are easily understood and grasped by the learners. Learners are able to relate words to their familiar language to the foreign language easily. They also said that the learners will be able to read by the end of the first grade and that the learners will understand better in local language than in foreign language. This chapter summarizes the findings of this study. The following discussion included issues drawn from the literature about advantages and disadvantages of teaching in local languages in primary schools and begins with the socio-demographic description of the survey sample as a backdrop.

4.I: How to Assess 1-4 Learners' Advantages and Disadvantages in Achieving Literacy Skills When They Are Taught Local Languages.

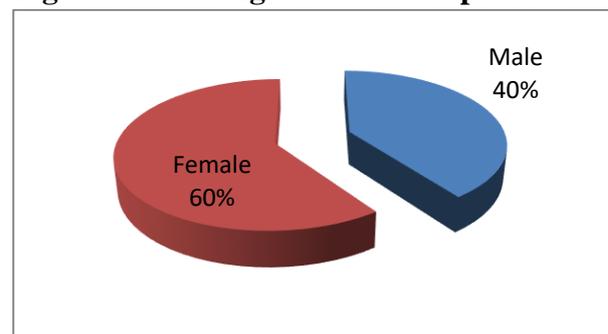
Table 1 Distributions of respondents by gender

Sex	Frequency	Percentage %
Male	40	40
Female	60	60
Total	100	100

Source: Field data 2019

Table 1 illustrates that out of the total of 100 respondents were females and were males. Them represents % of the female and % of the males. Actually, according to the District Education Board Secretary in 2019 in Kapiri Mposhi District, the female teacher outnumbered the male counterpart. In terms of gender of the respondents for the study, the number of males' participants was lower than that of the females. Indeed, 40% of those participated as respondents were men, with women accounting for 60%. This was so because the females were more responsive than the male counterpart

Figure 1: Showing Gender of respondents



Source: Field Data 2019

Figure 1 represents the respondents in terms of gender participation. In terms of gender of the respondents for the study, the number of males' participants was lower than that of the females. Indeed, 40% of those participated as respondents were men, with women accounting for 60%. This was so because the females were more responsive than the male counterpart.

Table 2. Shows distribution of respondents according to age.

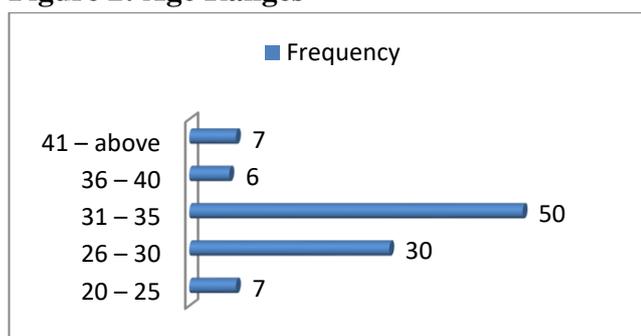
Age in years	Frequency	Percentage
20 – 25	7	7
26 – 30	30	30
31 – 35	50	50
36 – 40	6	6
41 – above	7	6

Source: Field data 2019

Table 2, illustrates the highest percentage of respondents were aged between 31-36 Years.

About of the 30 of respondents were aged about 29 years and the least of the respondents (less than 21%) were below 30 years meaning that the respondents between 41 and above years of age groups are more honest than those of 20-25 years old, or teachers between 31- 35 years are more experienced than the teachers between 20- 25 years. The teachers of all the named aged were very co-operative and respondent very well by completing the questionnaires and answering to verbal interviews.

Figure 2: Age Ranges



Source : Field Data 2019

Figure 2, illustrates the highest percentage of respondents were aged between 31-36 Years. About of the 30 of respondents were aged about 29 years and the least of the respondents (less than 21%) were below 30 years meaning that the respondents between 41 and above years of age groups are more honest than those of 20-25 years old, or teachers between 31- 35 years are more experienced than the teachers between 20- 25 years. The teachers of all the named aged were very co-operative and respondent very well by completing the questionnaires and answering to verbal interviews.

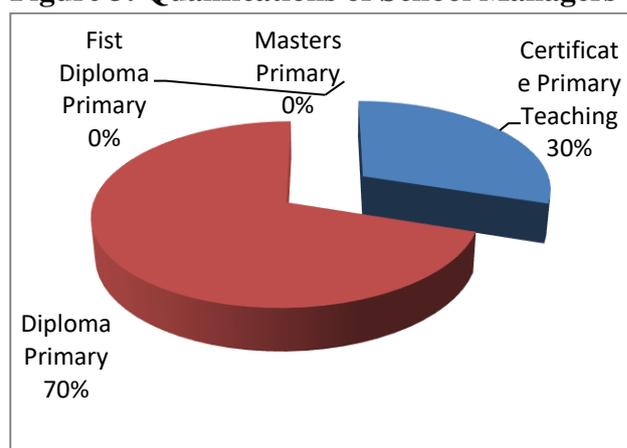
Table 3. Shows the school managers' Qualifications

Qualification	Freq	Percent %
Certificate	6	60
Diploma Primary	4	40
Fist Degree Primary	0	0
Master Primary	0	0
Total	10	100

Source: Field data 2019

The table above shows that there were 60% of the Head Teachers had primary teaching certificate, 40% with primary diplomas and no one had any degree from the school selected. There is need to encourage head teacher to improve on their qualification. However, it seems as if they already satisfied because they holding to bigger positions in the ministry of education because they are already promoted.

Figure 3: Qualifications of School Managers



Source: Field Data 2019

In the figure above most of the head teachers in primary schools held primary diploma certifications and a few of them held primary teaching certificates.

Table 4. Deputy School Managers' qualification.

Qualification	Freq	Percent%
Certificate Primary Teaching	3	30
Diploma Primary	7	70
Fist Diploma Primary	0	0
Masters Primary	0	0
Total	10	100

Source: Field data 2019

The table above shows that 30% of the Deputy Head Teachers had primary school teaching certificates while 70% had diploma in primary school teaching. No Deputy Head Teacher had a degree. There is also need to Deputy Head Teacher

to improve on their qualifications in order to supervise teacher effectively.

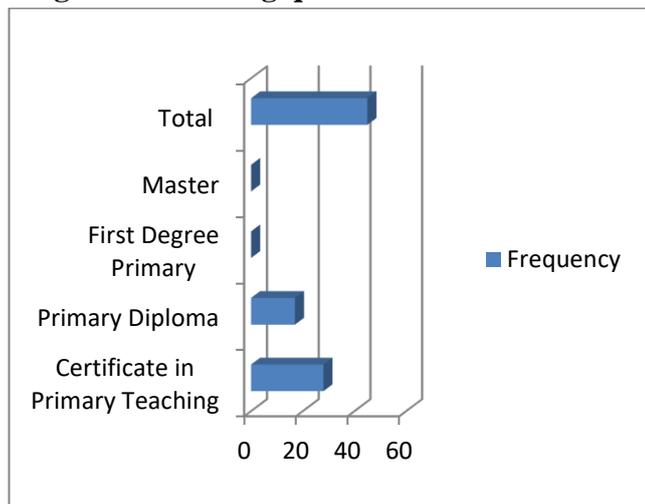
Table 5. Qualifications of Teachers.

Qualification	Freq	Percent (%)
Certificate in Primary Teaching	28	62.2
Primary Diploma	17	37.8
First Degree Primary	0	0
Master	0	0
Total	45	100

Source: Field data 2019

The teachers had the following qualifications, 62.2% were certificate and those who had primary diploma were 17%. Most of the teachers who were respondents were young and they should be encouraged to study and acquire degrees so that they can be teaching effectively

Figure 4: Showing qualifications of teachers



Source: Field data 2019

The teachers had the following qualifications, 62.2% were certificate and those who had primary diploma were 37.8%. Most of the teachers who were respondents were young and they should be encouraged to study and acquire degrees so that they can be teaching effectively.

Table 6. Duration of service of school managers.

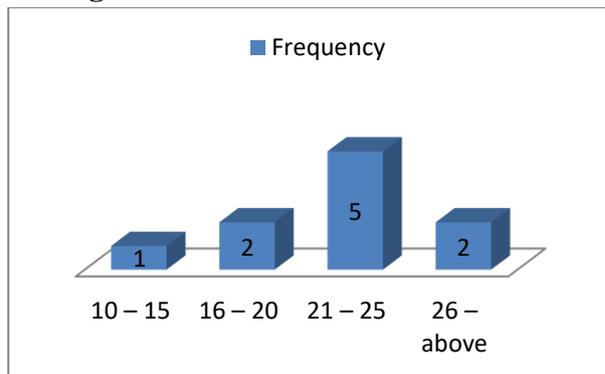
No. of Years	Frequency	Percentage %
10 – 15	1	10
16 – 20	2	10
21 – 25	5	50
26 – above	2	20
Total	10	100

Source: Field data 2019

The table shows that most of the Head Teachers had served between 21 – 25 years – they were 5 in number of 10 and amounted to 50% of the total number of teachers. The number of Head Teachers had served between 10 – 15 years and the number was 1.

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Figure 5: Showing Duration in service of school Managers



Source: Field data 2019

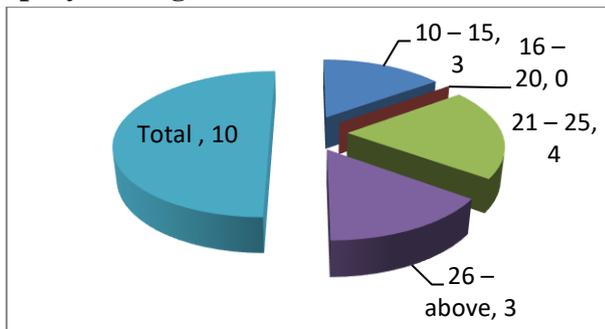
Table 7. Duration of service of Deputy School managers

No. of Years	Frequency	Percentage %
10 – 15	3	30
16 – 20	0	0
21 – 25	4	40
26 – above	3	30
Total	10	100

Source: Field data 2019

Most of the deputy head teacher had served for a long time between 21-25 years of service. Others had served for 10 -15 years and these were 3 and three of them served between 26 years and above. this showed that most of them had served for long period and that they had much experience in teaching.

Figure 6: Showing Duration in Service of Deputy Managers



Source: Field Data, 2019

Most of the deputy head teacher had served for a long time between 21-25 years of service. Others had served for 10 -15 years and these were 3 and three of them served between 26 years and above. this showed that most of them had served for long period and that they had much experience in teaching.

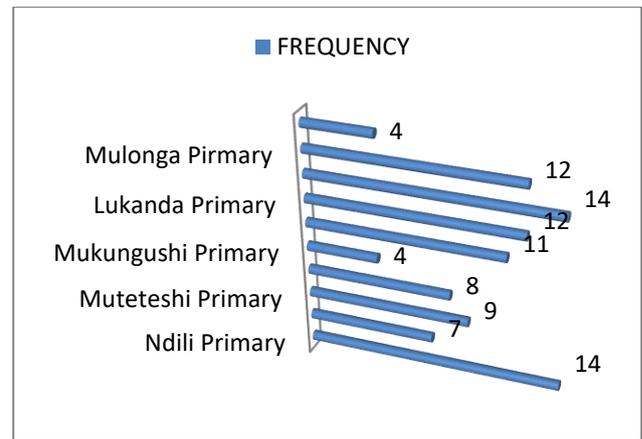
Table 8. Respondents from the selected primary schools in Kapiri Mposhi District.

PRIMARY SCHOOL	FREQ	%
Ndili Primary	14	14.7
Luanshimba Primary	7	7.4
Muteteshi Primary	9	9.5
kambosha Primary	8	8.4
Mukungushi Primary	4	4.2
Kapiri Primary	11	11.5
Lukanda Primary	12	12.6
Ndeke Primary	14	14.7
Mulonga Primary	12	12.6
Mondake Primary	4	4.2
Total	95	100

Source: Field data 2019

The table illustrates that the highest percentage of respondents came from Ndili Primary School and Ndeke Primary School. This is about 29.4% add together. Mulungushi and Mondake Primary School came last in terms of participation of respondents in the study. This is so because only 4.2 of the respondents were co-operative.

Figure 7: Showing numbers of respondents per school



Sources: Field data

The figure above shows respondents and the cooperation of each primary school.

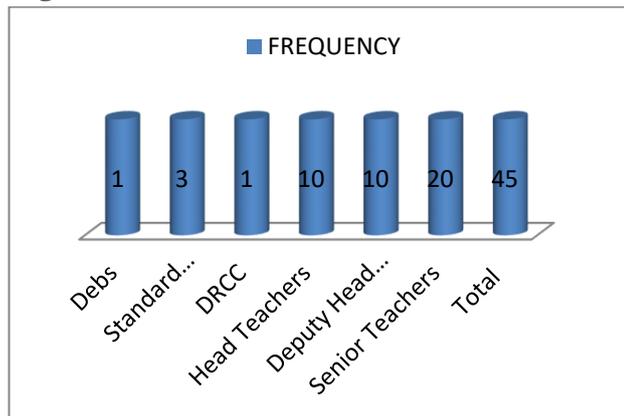
Table 9. Respondent responsibilities with

PRIMARY SCHOOL	FREQ	PERCENT (%)
DEBS	1	2.2
Standard Officers	3	6.7
DRCC	1	2.2
Head Teachers	10	22.5
Deputy Head Teachers	10	22.2
Senior Teachers	20	44.4
Total	45	100

Source: Field data 2019

The highest respondents were the senior teacher in all ten selected school in Kapiri Mposhi District. They were 44.4% of the teachers with responsibilities. While the small percentage of those with responsibilities came from the DEBS office all of them combined. They were 11% all together.

Figure 8: Distribution of standard officers



Source: Field data 2019

Table 11 Descriptive statistics on parents' level of education index

Means	Median	Range	Std Deviation
2.48	2.33	3.0	0.16

Source: Field data 2019

To test whether the level of education of parent has an influence on helping pupils learning. The two numerical indices (parental and performance) were correlated using Pearson correlation co-efficient as illustrated above.

4.5: Advantages of activities used to develop initial literacy skills in local languages

Table 12

Activity	Frequency	Percent (%)
Songs	60	60%
Play	40	40%
Dances	0	0.0%
Visits	0	0.0%
Laughing	0	0.0%
Total	100	100%

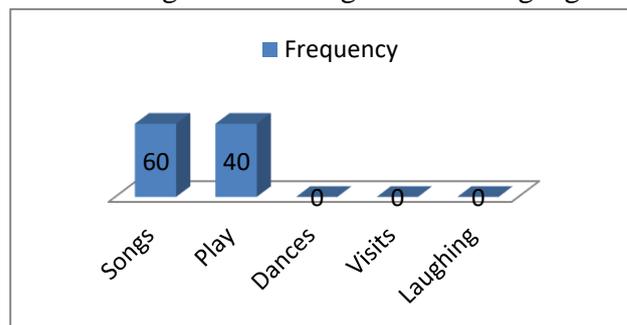
Source: Field data 2019

4.5: Advantages of activities used to develop initial literacy skills in local languages

Activity	Frequency	Percent (%)
Songs	60	60%
Play	40	40%
Dances	0	0.0%
Visits	0	0.0%
Laughing	0	0.0%
Total	100	100%

Source: Field data 2019

Figure 9: Advantages of using Variety of activities in initial stages of teaching in local Languages



Source: Field data

Table 13 taught in local languages at lower primary school level.

Category	Frequency	Percentage
NO	32	32
YES	68	68
TOTAL	100	100

Source Field data 2019

Table 12, above shows that 32% respondents said that there no much academic achievements in literacy skills in conducting lessons in local languages in lower grades of primary schools in Kapiri Mposhi and this means that 32% of the respondents were not aware of the academic achievements in literacy skills which are derived from teaching in local languages at grade 1- 4. However, 68% of the respondents indicated that there were a lot of academic achievements in literacy skills when lessons are conducted in local language in lower grades of primary schools and this translates into 68% of the respondents out of 100 indicating that their languages in selected primary schools in Kapiri Mposhi.

Table 14. Respondents view on the adequacy of teaching in local language

Response	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	70	70
No	30	30
Total	100	100

Source: Field data 2019

The table above shows that 70% of the respondents indicated that local languages were adequate in issuing instructions when teaching, but 30% of the respondents expressed dissatisfaction and indicated that teaching in local language did not allow for adequacy issue of instructions. Since the majority of the respondents indicated that it was adequate to issue instructions in local languages, then teaching in local languages would adequately issue instructions to the learners.

Table 15: Preparation of teaching literacy to grade one learner using local language

Response	Freq	(%)
Taught contents of the PLP kite	30	30
Taught pre-reaching and writing activities	28	28
Taught class management and administrative skills	26	26
Taught four main approaches of PLP methodology	16	16
Total	100	100

Source: Field data 2019

From table one above 30% of respondents indicated that they were taught “content of PLP whilst 16% cited PLP methodology to prepare them teach literacy to grade one pupil. It was clear that the majority of the respondents were taught contents of the PLP kit to prepare them to teach literacy to grade one pupils.

Table 16. What is taught in local languages to enable learners develop reading skills in local languages

Response	Freq	(%)
Teaching from unknown to known	91	91
No response	9	9
Total	100	100

Source: Field data 2019

In the table above 91% were of the view that teaching from known to unknown in local languages made the learners develop fluency in reading local languages. Pupils were able to recall what they knew, what they learnt and improved on what was new to them. In this manner they quickly

learnt how to read.

Table 17. What is taught in initial literacy to enable pupils develop reading skills in a local language

Response	Freq	(%)
Syllabic method	60	60
Pre – reading activities	20	20
we use rhymes, songs, games and reading story books in Zambian languages	10	10
PLP approaches	10	10
Total	100	100

Source: Field data 2019

In table 2 above, there are 60% of the respondents that syllabic method used in local language produced better results, 10% of the respondents indicated pre-reading activities, 10% of the respondents indicated PLP approaches were used in local languages.

Table 18. Which is the effective way of teaching reading so that the learners gain fluency in a local language?

Response	Freq	Perc (%)
Through individual reading aloud	54	54
Through reading in pairs	18	18
Through choral reading aloud	18	18
Through teacher reading aloud	10	10
Total	100	100

Source: Field data 2019

In table 3 above, it was noted that most respondents (54%) indicated pupils reading aloud. There were (10%) of the respondents who indicated “teacher reading aloud.” This clearly shows that the majority of teachers’ individual pupils reading aloud in local languages.

Table 19 How teachers are trained to teach in local languages

Response	Freq	(%)
Training conducted through peer teaching and school-based work workshops and insert	58	58
Training not conducted at school	42	42
Total	100	100

Source: Field data 2019

The table above indicate that the majority of the respondents 58% responded that CPD training was conducted through peer teaching, school-based workshops and insert at teacher resource centres. However, 42% of the respondents stated that no training was conducted

Table 20: Is teaching in local language part of continuous professional development (CPD) in schools?

Response	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	92	92
No	8	8
Total	100	100

Source: Field data 2019

In the table above 92% of the respondents indicated that training of teaching in local languages was conducted in the school through CPD. 8% indicated the otherwise

Table 21 what basic skills are taught in local languages to develop writing skill?

Response	Freq	Percent (%)
Taught left to right eye movements, write top to bottom in relation to straight lines, motor skills and sitting posture, taught hand writing patterns, writing letters in the air, on the ground using finger exercises, tracing tasks associated to pictures to words and capital letters in sentences and how to end.	80	80
Taught pupils hand writing, spellings, punctuation marks, word building, and sentence building by placing fingers to mark space between words.	20	20
Total	100	100

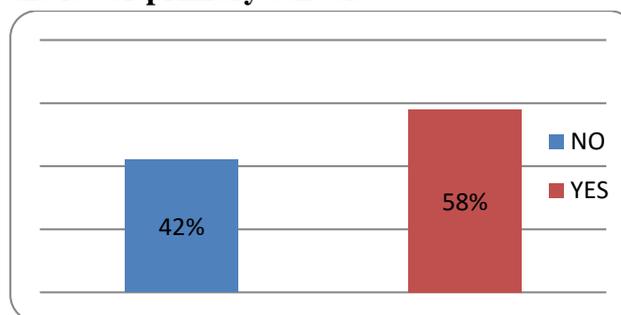
Source: Field data 2019

The above table indicates that 80% of the respondents taught pupils writing skills through pre-writing activities while 20% indicated that they

taught word spacing to learners to help them develop writing competences in local languages.

4.2. What Are the Advantages of Teaching in Local Languages in The Lower Primary Schools of Kapiri Mposhi?

FIGURE 10: To establish advantages and disadvantages of teaching in local languages in the lower primary school.



Source: Field data 2019

Most of the participants who took part in the study indicated that there were more advantages than disadvantages in conducting lessons in local or familiar languages in grades 1-4 in the lower primary level. So, most of the participant supported teaching in local or familiar languages in the lower primary school.

TABLE 22: To establish the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in local languages in the lower primary schools.

Category	Freq	Percent (%)
No advantages	22	22%
Less advantages	28	28%
Greater advantages	50	50%
Total	100	100%

Source: Field data 2019

Table 4.2.7 Indicates that 22% of respondents said this had no advantages, 28% respondents said it had fewer advantages and 50% said it had greater influence. Since greater percentages of 28 and 50 shows less and greater advantage, many people have seen that teaching in local languages in the lower primary can help a lot in children with minimum difficulties faced by the learners.

4.3: View of School Managers and Teachers on The Advantages of Learners Learning in Local Languages.

When the learners are taught in local languages, they easily understand the instructions due to the familiar language. This is the language which they speak every day in their home and understands it very well and is the language which they learnt naturally in their homes and in their surrounding environment. When the instruction is given in the familiar language, the learners do not face problems when carrying out the given activities because they understand the language very well, so, teaching in local language has advantages to the beginners in education.

Furthermore, learners understand better and faster in local languages than in foreign languages. This better and faster understanding makes learners to perform well in their school work than when they learning in foreign language, were the learners will have to learn the language first and this takes long. This makes the learners to get discouraged and give up on education. Local language in the first grade is very important because it encourages the learners to carry out educational activities that bring about learning. It must also be understood that the language of play makes the understanding and learning easy.

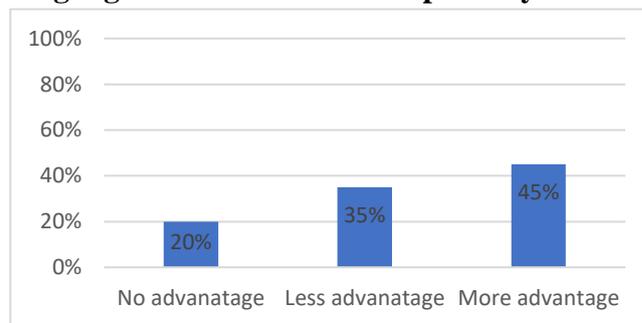
If learners learn in their familiar language, they will be to do better even when they use foreign language. Concepts are also easily grasped when the learners learn in local languages and hence, the learners learn very fast. They easily relate what they learn in local language to the foreign language. We should bear in mind that some learners can only understand better in their local language. This means that there are more advantages to teach beginners in familiar language than in foreign language. Our learners also become very free to express themselves a familiar language and struggle a lot to communicate in foreign language. Learners easily learn to write and read in local languages by the end of first grade.

Table 23: shows the views of school managers and teachers on the advantages of learners learning in local language

Easily understand the instructions due to familiar language.
Learners understand better and faster than in foreign language.
Learners do better in a language that they understand.
Learners easily grasp the concept.
Learners are able to relate what they learn in local language to foreign language.
Slow learners will also be able to grasp concepts due to local language.
Learners learn faster in local language.

Source: Field data 2019

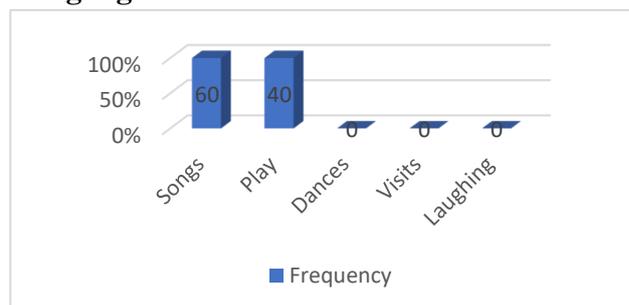
Figure 11: Advantages of teaching in local languages in the lower primary school.



Source: Field data 2019

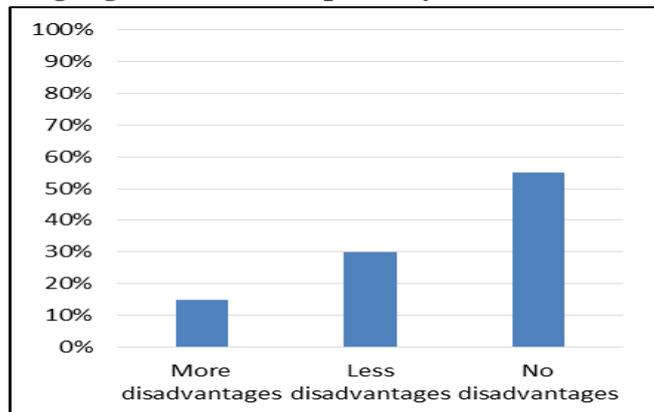
The above figure shows that there are more advantages in teaching in local languages and that the respondents indicated less disadvantages and so it should be encouraged in the lower section of the primary schools to teach in local languages.

Figure 11: Advantages of using Variety of activities in initial stages of teaching in local Languages



Source: Field data

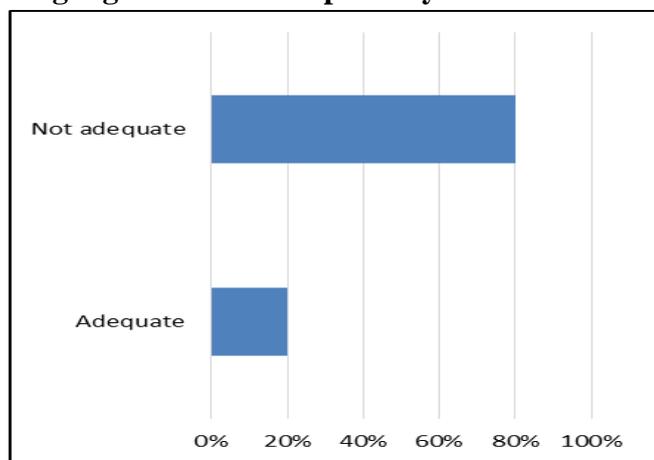
Figure 12: Disadvantages of teaching in local languages in the lower primary school.



Source: Field data 2019

The figure above shows that most of the participant who took part in study said that there were great disadvantages in teaching literacy skills in another language which is not familiar to the learners who are beginners of education in the lower primary school. Local language had a lot of advantages in teaching literacy skills to the beginners the respondent said that the learners learned with much easy in a language they easily understood.

Figure 13: To ascertain what could be done to avert the challenges of teaching in local languages in the lower primary school.



Source: Field data 2019

The figure above, shows that most of the participants in this study indicated that the parents ought to understand why teaching in local languages should continue in the lower primary school. Parent and guardians must be educated on

the importance on teaching in the lower primary school. Parent and guardians are major stake holders on the in the education of their children and so they need to be involved fully in the learning process of their children in order to avert some of the challenges.

Table 24. Efforts by government to find strategies to improve teaching in local languages in the lower primary school.

Category	Frequency	Percentage %
Greater efforts	60	60
Less efforts	27	27
No effort	13	13
Total	100	100

Source: Field data 2019

Table 27. above shows that 13% of the respondents said that government had made no efforts and 27% said that government had made less effort, 60% said that government had made great efforts. Without the government efforts in education there can be very little achievement

4.4. HOW CAN THE CHALLENGES OF TEACHING IN LOCAL LANGUAGES BE AVERTED?

Table 25: Challenges faced when teaching in local languages in the lower primary school.

PROBLEMS
Lack of motivation to learn in local languages in most schools.
Bad attitudes towards learning in local languages in schools.
Inferiority complex towards teaching of local languages among teachers.
Negative stereo-typing towards local language literacy.
Lack of support from Policy makers.
Poor literacy home background.
Lack of teaching and learning materials in local languages.

Source: Field data 2019

Table 29: Views held by school managers and teachers on challenges of teaching in local languages

There are many challenges faced by teacher when teaching in local languages. Some of words as indicated by respondents are difficult to know there meaning. Teachers also face the problem of lack of teaching and learning material or aids. Sometimes the teachers may not know the familiar language spoken in the area where they teach. Not only that, some of the words in local languages are difficulty to translate and some concepts cannot be translated in local language. Some teachers also think that English is the best language four teaching. Furthermore, some teachers teaching in the lower primary were brought up in home were the English is used as the first language and so, teaching in local is a big challenge to them because they had learned the familiar spoken in area where they were teaching.

The table 26: Views held by school managers and teachers on challenges of teaching in local languages faced by teachers.

Some pupils think that English is better than local languages
Some words are difficult to translate in local language.
Some concepts cannot be easily translated in local language.
Explanation of some terms in local language is difficult.
Scientific terminologies may be difficult to explain to the learners in local languages.
Teachers who come on transfer from other regions may face language barrier.
Some parents think that English is better than local languages.
Most of the literature for teaching is written in English and not in local languages.

Source: Field data 2019

Table 27: shows views held by school managers and teachers on the challenges of learning in local languages faced by learners.

Local languages are not internationally recognized, so, to some extent they are not beneficial.
Pupils who come on transfer from other regions face communication problems.
Adjusting to English is not easy for pupils in lower grades.
Lack of reading materials for the learners in local languages.
Pupils coming from private schools may face problems since private schools use English.
Some pupils may not be familiar with the local languages in the area of teaching

Source: Field data 2019

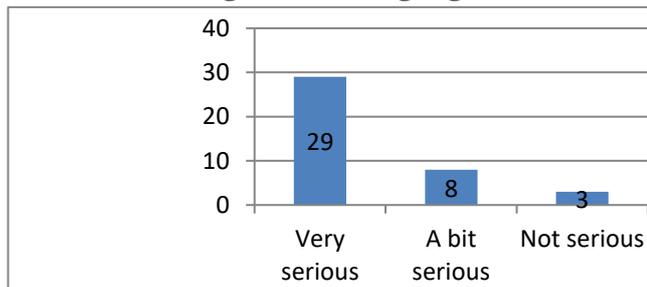
The table above contains the views of the school managers and the teachers or respondents in Kapiri Mposhi.

Table 28: Views held by school managers and teachers on the opportunities of learning in local languages

Fast learning and good interaction by pupils
Continuity with the first language.
Explaining terminologies with much easy
Learners do not forget do not forget what they learn.
Learners are able to communicate and understand easily.
Learners will develop skills of analyzing issues broadly.
Parents think that English is better than local languages, hence they don't use local languages at their homes.
Pupils fill part of learning and learn faster.

Source: Field data 2019

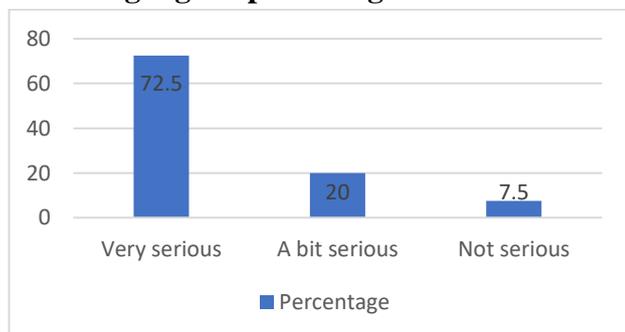
Figure 14: Extent of the challenges towards effective teaching in local languages in the l



Source: Field data 2019

A lot of participants said that there were serious challenges faced in the implementation of the program of teaching in local languages in lower primary school. 29% of the respondents said that start learning English begins at their homes and that and that it is difficult to tell which one is a familiar language for young ones because each family today in Zambia speaks a language which may be different to the other family. 8% of the respondents indicated that the challenges were not much in that children easily mix when playing and so they always come up with a language of play which can be used to teach them and 3% indicated that were no challenges in finding a familiar language to use in teaching.

Figure 15: Extent of challenges of teaching in local language in percentage



Source: Field data 2019

The above figure shows the extent of the challenges in teaching in local languages in schools. Most of the participants in the study said the challenges were very serious and it was a matter of urgency to address these.

Table 29: In which language do learners learn easily? (Foreign or local language)

In the table below 20% of the respondents strongly agreed that learners learn easily in local language 40% agreed that learners learn easily in local language, 15% disagreed and 25% disagreed and indicated that learners do not learn easily in local language. this shows that most of the respondent agreed that learners learn easily in local language than in a foreign language.

Table 30: In which language do learners learn easily? (Foreign or Local language)

Category	Frequency	Percent (%)
Strongly agreed	20	20%
Agreed	40	40%
Disagreed	15	15%
Strongly disagreed	25	25%
Total	100	100%

Source: Field data 2019

Table 31: Is teaching initial literacy in local language part of CPD in your school?

Response	Frequency	Percent (%)
Yes	71	71%
No	29	29%
Total	100	100%

Source: Field data 2019

The (71%) of the respondent said that training was conduct in their schools through C.P.D and 29% said no. This was an advantage to the pupils to learn within the school. From this you can see that training is not only done in colleges and universities but it is done within the working the working environment amongst the peers' i.e. teachers are able to train themselves within the school. This kind of training is good in that the teachers do not pay anything and training in is done or handle by follow teachers and so the trainees are free ask any question and answers are given freely, thus, (CPD) Continuous Professional Development helps teachers to train on how to handle learners who learner learning in local languages.

Table 32: Is CPD training done in your school?

Response	Freq	(%)
Training done through school-based workshops and in-sert.	90	90%
Training not conducted at school	10	10%
Total	100	100%

Source: Field data 2019

Majority of the respondents (90%) agreed that training was conducted through school-based workshops and in-Sert. Only 10% of the respondents indicated that there was no training conducted in the school.

Table 33: What are advantages of teaching initial literature in local language?

Response	Freq	Percent (%)
Teaching from known to unknown, picture sounds, syllabic, words, sentences, phonic sounds, punctuations, pre-reading activities.	84	84%
No response	16	16%
Total	100	100%

Source: Field data 2019

84% of the respondents taught from known to unknown and teach pre-reading activities while 16% did not give any response. It is clear that when using local language there is an advantage of learners learning from known to unknown. They also learn pre-reading activities in initial literacy.

Table 34: Advantages of activities used to develop initial literacy skills in local languages

Activity	Frequency	Percent (%)
Songs	60	60%
Play	40	40%
Dances	0	0.0%
Visits	0	0.0%
Laughing	0	0.0%
Total	100	100%

Source: Field data 2019

In the table above, 60% use songs to teach initial literacy and 40% use play to teach initial literacy. The advantage is that songs which are used are in local language and learners do not face problems in understanding then and the meaning.

Table 35: Strategies for improving teaching in local languages

Strategies	Frequency	Percent (%)
Application	8	8%
Improve working environment	54	54%
Increase incentives	38	38%
Total	100	100%

Source: Field data 2019

Teaching in local languages has a lot of advantages and so there is need to encourage it. in the table above 8% of the respondents suggest that appreciation can make the teachers improve their teaching, 54% said the improved working environment can act as a motivation teacher to teach effectively and 38% suggested incentives as teachers bait to work extra hard and produce better results.

In the table above, 60% use songs to teach initial literacy and 40% use play to teach initial literacy. The advantage is that songs which are used are in local language and learners do not face problems in understanding then and the meaning.

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.0: Establishment of the advantages and disadvantages of teaching in local languages in Kapiri Mposhi

The study indicates that 22% of respondents said this had no advantages, 28% respondents said it had less advantages and 50% said it had greater influence.

Since greater percentages of 28% and 50% shows less and greater advantage, many people have seen that teaching in local languages in the lower primary can help a lot in children with minimum difficulties faced by the learners. Most of the

participants in this study said the parents ought to understand why teaching in local languages should continue in the lower primary school. Parent and guardians must be educated on the importance on teaching in the lower primary school.

Most of the participants who took part in the study indicated that there were more advantages than disadvantages in conducting lessons in local or familiar languages in grades 1-4 in the lower primary level. So, most of the participant supported teaching in local or familiar languages in the lower primary school.

5.1: To ascertain what could be done to avert the challenges of teaching in local languages in Kapiri Mposhi.

Most of the participants in this study said the parents ought to understand why teaching in local languages should continue in the lower primary school. Parent and guardians must be educated on the importance on teaching in the lower primary school. When the parents are aware of the importance of teaching in local languages, they will help a lot in that they will participate in the learning of their children. They will help their children whenever they are dealing with homework. They will also help the children whenever they have home work in numerous because working out of problem in local language will be well understood in local languages than in a foreign language. So, what ought to be done to avert the challenges of teaching in local is simply educate the parents and guardians about the goodness and advantages of teaching in local languages. When they understand this there will be no challenges.

According to the finding of this study the extent of challenges of teaching in local languages are great. Government should help in addressing the challenges by providing a deliberate policy and providing the required learning and teaching materials required in schools.

5.2: The advantages of teaching in Local languages in primary schools.

Generally, according to data analyzed, 50% of the respondents indicated that teaching local languages at grade 1 – 4 had great advantage on children learning, 28% indicated that it had less advantage while 22 % revealed that it had no influence. Deputy School Managers indicated that the advantages of teaching in local languages dependent on making the stake holders understand the importance of teaching local languages. These stake holders include parents, guardians, the community at large, teachers and the government officials. They must be made to understand why teaching in local languages is important in the education of their children. They should understand the advantages which are brought by teaching and learning done in local languages. The advantage of issuing instruction sin local languages as suggested by the respondents were the pupils learn better and faster in their mother tongue than in a foreign language.

The advantages of issuing instructions in local language as suggested by the respondents were that pupils learn better and faster in the mother tongue than in the foreign language. they as well believe that learners participate fully in class and contribute to the learning activities effectively even the pupils themselves believe that local languages can help them improve their academic performance as they fully understand the materials taught to them. Some of the advantages include good communication between teachers and learners due to the language, they learn from known to unknown, they are able to understand the given instructions easily, learners have a sense of belonging since it is their language which is being used in the learning process. Reading becomes easy since they read in their language.

5.3: Recommendations:

(a)The state should spearhead the establishment of funds to be accessed by community-based

organizations working to promote equal access to new local languages teaching methodologies.

(b)The government through the Ministry of Education should broadly initiate local languages teaching programmes in the primary schools in order to utilize the advantages of teaching in local languages.

(c) There must be consistency by the Ministry of Education in the local languages teaching policies and programmes coupled with adequate monitoring and evaluation into the local languages programmes in order to realize the advantages of teaching in local languages.

(c) The educational authority must further more enhance continuous supervision of the local languages teaching programmes in primary schools and improve their effectiveness.

(d)The government should carry out rigorous campaigns on the importance of teaching in local languages in the schools.

(e) The teachers should be urged to change their attitude towards teaching in local languages teaching in primary schools.

(f)The ministry of education must work out a system to post qualified trained personnel in the community schools capable of handling reading and writing lessons in local languages in order to realize the advantages of teaching in local languages.

(g)The government ought to improve the supply of local languages materials ought to be improved in the schools.

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