

**CHALLENGES FACED BY SECOND GRADERS DURING
THE TRANSITION FROM THE LANGUAGE OF INITIAL
LITERACY (NYANJA) TO ENGLISH - A CASE OF
SELECTED SCHOOLS OF CHONGWE DISTRICT, ZAMBIA**

BY

SIAMBO MULIKELELA

**A Dissertation submitted to the University of Zambia in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the award of Master of Education in Education
Psychology.**

THE University Of Zambia

OCTOBER 2013

NOTICE OF COPYRIGHT

All rights are reserved as such no part of this dissertation should be reproduced, stored in retrieval system or transmitted in any form without express permission from the author or The University of Zambia.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to the Siambo family for their great appreciation of the value of education.

DECLARATION

I SIAMBO MULIKELELA, hereby declare that the work that is in this dissertation is purely a result of my own work and that it has not been previously submitted for the degree of Master of Education or indeed any other programme at any university or similar institution.

Signed: -----

Date: -----

APPROVAL

The University of Zambia approves this dissertation of SIAMBO MULIKELELA as fulfilling part of the requirements for the award of the Masters Degree in Educational Psychology.

Signed: ----- Date: -----

Signed: ----- Date: -----

Signed: ----- Date: -----

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

In many ways, I am indebted to God the Almighty for the strength he gave to me to successfully complete this programme after almost giving up. I would also extend my gratitude both to Dr. Beatrice Matafwali my key supervisor and Dr Kasonde - Ngandu Co-Supervisor for their guidance, patience and support during the production of this dissertation.

I wish also to acknowledge Dr Akakandelwa for the technical advice on Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), my lovely wife Godfridah, my son Siambo Abishai, and three daughters, Nalishebo, Happiness and Miriam.

Last but not the least, the teachers, pupils and administration in the five schools where this study was done.

ABSTRACT

The main aim of this study was to investigate the challenges which second grade learners face during the transition from the language of initial literacy (Nyanja) and second language of literacy (English). A sample of 80 participants drawn from five schools in Chongwe District took part in the study out of which 30 were teachers while 50 were pupils. The study utilised both quantitative and qualitative methods in the collection of data. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) in conjunction with the McNemar test was used to analyse data.

The research findings showed that some grade two learners experienced challenges during the transition between language of initial literacy (Nyanja) and the second language of literacy (English). These were in terms of getting used to learning in a local language; pronouncing English words in Chinyanja; inability to read some of the English words in the SITE course because of failure by teachers to complete teaching the Chinyanja phonic sounds stipulated in the Teachers' Guide.

Some of the recommendations that were put forward to help Grade two pupils include: Teachers to ensure that they give out more instructions in English than in Chinyanja as doing so assists pupils get used to English. However, code switching from English to Chinyanja may be minimally used just to have the message be understood by pupils but thereafter, the teacher should code switch from Chinyanja to English; Grade Two teachers should be putting effort to help pupils who have been noted to have problems related to pronouncing and spelling English words in Chinyanja or vice versa through emphasis on correct pronunciation of the noted words and exposing them to more supplementary story books to help them be

familiar with the written word and eventually spell the words correctly. Lastly, Grade one teachers should complete teaching the phonic sounds and consonant clusters stipulated in the NBTL Teachers' Guide for pupils to read better in Grade Two.

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
Table 1 Data showing details of respondents.....	31
Table 2 Data set showing pupils reading ability of Chinyanja words	36
Table 3 Data set showing pupils reading ability of English words.....	38
Table 4 McNemar Test Results.....	39
Table 5 How pupils read the English words	41
Table 6 Times teachers taught SITE	44

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1 Grades teachers taught in 2010..... 43

Figure 2 If second graders faced challenges during transition from the first to the second languages of literacy.....45

Figure 3 Teachers’ rating of challenges second graders faced in their reading skills during transition between first and second languages of literacy.....46

TABLE OF CONTENTS

SUBJECT	PAGE
Notice of copyright	I
Dedication	II
Declaration.....	III
Approval	IV
Acknowledgements	V
Abstract	VI
List of tables	VIII
List of figures	IX
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	
1.1 Background	1
1.1.1 Overview.....	1
1.1.2 Contextual background.....	1
1.1.3 Step gap measures to improve reading in Zambia.....	4
1.2 Theoretical perspective	9
1.3 Statement of the problem	9
1.4 Purpose of the study	10
1.5 Research objectives	10
1.6 Research questions	11
1.7 Sub research questions	11
1.8 Significance of study	12

1.9 Limitations of study	12
1.10 Definition of terms	13

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview	16
2.2. Literacy development in beginning readers.....	16
2.2.1 What is reading?.....	16
2.2.2. Importance of reading	16
2.2.3 How reading develops in children.....	17
2.2.4 Challenges faced by learners with reading problems	18
2.2.5 Precursors of literacy development	21
2.2.6. Role of oral language in literacy development.	22
2.3 Second language learning.....	23
2.3.1 Key points in second language learning	23
2.3.2. Essential Language skills to Beginning readers	25
2.3.2.1 Language processing skills.....	25
2.3.2.2 Phoneme awareness.....	26
2.3.3 Language Proficiency in beginning readers	27
2.3.4. Teacher factor in language learning.....	28
2.4. Chapter summary	29

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview.....	30
-------------------	----

3.2 Research design	30
3.3 Target population	30
3.4 Sample.....	31
3.5 Sampling procedure	32
3.6 Research instruments.....	33
3.7. Ethical issues	34
3.8 Data analysis	35

CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS

4.1 Overview.....	36
4.2 Results from the Word reading test in Chinyanja	36
4.3 Results from the Word reading test in English.....	38
4.4 The McNemar Test Results.....	39
4.5 How pupils read English words	41
4.6 Statistical data for teachers.....	42
4.7. Transitional challenges as highlighted by teachers in the (FDG).....	47
4.8. Solutions to challenges cited by teachers in the FDG	49
4.9. Chapter summary.....	50

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Overview	51
5.2 Results from the Word Reading Test in Chinyanja	51
5.3 Results from the Word Reading Test in English.....	52

5.4 Results from the McNemar Test	53
5.5. Pupils' Reading Ability in English	54
5.6. Statistical data for teachers	55
5.7. Challenges cited by teachers in the FDG.....	56
5.8. Solutions to challenges cited by teachers in the FDG.....	61
5.9 Chapter summary	63
 CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION	
6.1 Overview	64
6.2 Conclusion	64
6.3 Recommendations	64
6.4 Future research	65
Reference	66
Appendix 1 Word reading test in Chinyanja	74
Appendix 2 Word reading test in English	76
Appendix 3 Questionnaire for teachers	78
Appendix 4 Focus group discussion guide for grade two teachers	80

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1.1.1. Overview

This chapter provides the background information to this study, theoretical frame work, purpose of the study, study objectives, research questions and statement of the problem.

The chapter further highlights the significance of the study, limitations as well as the definition of terms.

1.1.2. Contextual Background

This section presents the historical background of language policies in Zambia from the colonial time up to the time of the introduction of the Primary Reading programme.

Muyebaa (1998) and Kelly (2000) are scholars among others who have made an effort of writing about the development of the language policy in Zambia.

Kelly (2000) writes that education in Zambia was brought about by missionaries where the first school was established in Northern Rhodesia. When the missionaries came, they learnt local languages from the local people and later built churches, schools and hospitals. In these schools, they used local languages as a medium of communication.

Following the agreement which the Litunga of Barotseland made with the British South African Company, the company established the Barotse National School in 1907 at Kanyonyo in Mongu. The company followed a mission education policy of language teaching

whereby from Sub 'A' to Standard Four, it was Lozi while from Standard Five upwards it was English (Kelly, 2000).

In 1924, the British South African Company handed over power to the British government and became a British protectorate. The British government put up the Phelps Stokes Commission to examine the education system in its colonies including that of Northern Rhodesia (Carmody, 2004).

After doing its research, the commission came up with its report among which on language development, it recommended English to be the official language to be used in schools whilst local languages were to be used for national values, preservation and self identity. As a result of the commission's recommendation, Muyebaa (1998) writes that four (4) main languages were selected to serve in the African schools as official languages. These were Bemba, Nyanja, Tonga and Lozi.

By 1950, the policy was changed to the extent that the first and second years of education, the mother tongue was used as the medium of instruction from the third year up to standard five. Additionally, beyond standard five, English language replaced local languages (Kelly 2000).

During the federal era, which stretched from 1953 to 1963, African education was offered by the territorial government, During this era, the key features that took place on the language policy were that in 1956 English was slowly introduced for two thirty minutes periods per week, By 1962, English was finally introduced in the first year of primary education. In 1963, Northern Rhodesia requested UNESCO led by Dr. Radford to study the education system to find out ways of improving it. Its recommendations among others were

that English was to be adopted as medium of instruction which should start at primary school (Muyebaa, 1998).

It is through the commission's recommendation that the newly independent Zambia introduced English, in 1965, as the Language of Instruction in all schools from Grade one, though it allowed for continued use of the Zambian languages mediums of instructions for Grade 1-4 in all "unscheduled" schools.

Thus, upon gaining independence in 1964, Zambia like many post colonial Africa, decided to take up English language as an official language of instruction and communication in schools and offices respectively (Mwanakatwe, 1968). Even if this was done, some school going pupils lacked proficiency in English as English was not their mother tongue. This in effect presented a formidable challenge in learning to read and write thus, contributing to their lower performance level. There is unequivocal evidence suggesting that learning to read in an unfamiliar language is assumed to be an enormous challenge for young children as children have to learn two complex skills simultaneously (Matafwali, 2010). The fact that Zambian children were exposed to English in their early years of schooling meant that they had been taught in a language with which they were relatively unfamiliar. Kelly (2000), argues that this approach compromised the quality of education being offered not only at the primary school level, but also at higher levels, as children did not succeed in developing adequate reading skills. A number of studies have documented the low literacy levels among school going children (Williams, 1993; SACMEQ, 1998; Kotze, Higgins & Tambulukani, 1999).

It is against this backdrop that the Government Republic of Zambia through the Ministry of Education was prompted to undertake policy reform which saw the introduction of the

Primary Reading Programme in an effort to improve literacy standards in the country. The Primary Reading Programme has three major components namely, New Break Through to Literacy (NBTL), Step into English (SITE) and Read on Course (ROC). The emphasis of the NBTL is that children should be taught to read in a familiar language. This is supported by Education Policy which clearly states that; children should be taught to read in the mother a familiar language preferably the mother tongue (MoE, 1996). Schroeder (2005), observes that using the mother tongue is of utmost importance to literacy development because it facilitates children's development of concepts that enable them to easily acquire knowledge in second or third language and to further expose the children to cultures of their communities.

The major objective of the Primary Reading Programme is to improve the literacy levels and oral competence in Zambian language and English in schools following the implementation of the stated integrated courses. This is a point reflected in the policy document (MoE, 1996:34) which states that: The aim of the curriculum for lower and middle basic classes is to enable pupils to read and write clearly, correctly and confidently in a Zambian language and in English.

In line with the aim above, this study focuses on the ability for grade two pupils to read effectively both in their local language and English.

1.1.3. Step - gap measures taken by the Ministry of Education to address the reading problems in Zambia.

1.1.3.1. The Primary Reading Programme

The Primary Reading Program is a seven year initiative under the Ministry of Education's Basic Education Sub – Sector Investment Program (BESSIP) with an aim of improving the quality of primary education by ensuring that learners become literate (Tambulukani,2002).

What makes the program to be a seven year initiative is that in grade one, pupils do a course called New Break Through to Literacy Course (NBTL) which introduces them to literacy in their familiar local language. In grade two, pupils do a course called Step into English (SITE). This is an English literacy course which follows on from New Break Trough to Literacy and introduces learners to reading and to writing in the English language. From grade three up to grade seven, pupils are taught a literacy course called Read on Course (RoC). The course provides follow up revisions, remedial support and literacy skills both in Zambian language and in English (MoE, 2002).

In general, the purpose of the PRP is to improve the reading skills of all Zambian primary school leavers to benefit from the educational, social economic and democratic opportunities and rights which literacy helps to give access. Besides that, it aims at improving the quality of reading in English and in Zambian language (Sampa (2005). This is equally the focus of this study to ensure that grade two pupils overcome some of the challenges they encounter during the transition between the language of initial literacy (Nyanja) and second language of literacy (English).

1.1.3.2. The New Break Through To Literacy Course (NBTL)

The is one of the components of PRP developed in 1998 by a South African Non-Governmental Organization - the Moltemo Project which worked hand in hand with the Zambian team. The concept was adapted from the Break Through to Literacy (BTL) strategy

which had proved successful in the number of African countries in the southern region (Higgins, Tambulukani and Chikalanga, 2000).

It is a course through which children spend an hour each day to learn to read fluently and write easily and accurately in their local language in Grade one. There is also an Oral English course called Pathway to English that teaches English language twice a week to ensure that learners develop enough English language to learn literacy in English in Grade two.

According to MoE (2002), the following are its features:

1. It uses the Language Experience Approach. Children use their familiar language to help them build literacy skills that are unfamiliar.
2. The method allows children to compose sentences before they are able to write the words for themselves. The use of printed word cards, on which this method is based, allows for this.
3. It is learner centred. This means that the New Breakthrough methodology facilitates the teaching of children as individuals. It recognises their particular experiences and learning needs.
4. It allows for co-operative learning. Children have much to learn from each other, which New Breakthrough recognises, allowing children to work in groups and encouraging them to work co-operatively.
5. It allows individuals to develop at their own pace, in carefully graded pace groups.

In terms of success, before the Ministry of Education spread the NBTL programme to the whole nation, an evaluation of the programme was done. The first evaluation indicated that

pupils who were involved in it made a lot of progress in reading compared to other children that received traditional reading instruction. Additionally, the children who were in the NBTL classes were reading and writing at a level equivalent to grade four or higher than those who were in non NBTL classes (Kotze and Higgins, 1999).

1.1.3.3 STEP IN TO ENGLISH (SITE) COURSE

MoE (2002), writes that this course bridges the gap between the New Breakthrough to Literacy in Grade one and the Zambia Basic English Course (ZBEC) in Grade three and the Read On course for Grade three to seven. It takes learners who have mastered the basics of reading in their local languages and who have some oral English vocabulary and introduces them to reading in English with comprehension. Additionally, it explicitly teaches word attack skills that are essential for reading in English and which do not feature in the local languages.

After establishing the two courses which teach language literacy skills in our schools, namely NBTL and SITE, the focus for this study lies on what happens between them. If grade two teachers were to know some of the difficulties which pupils find during the transition between the named courses, they would be well informed to help such learners overcome them. Anita et al (2008:57) writes that:

At any given time, there are certain problems that a child is on the verge of being able to solve but needs some structure, clues, reminders and help with remembering details to keep on trying and so on. Some problems of course are beyond the child's capabilities even if every step is explained clearly.

1.1.3.4. SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE NEW BREAK THROUGH TO LITERACY AND STEP INTO ENGLISH METHODOLOGIES

MoE (2002) outlines some of the similarities between NBTL and SITE as follows: The first point is that both methodologies are Ministry of Education interventions developed for the purpose of improving literacy levels in basic school learners and that they are integrated in such a way that when learners have mastered the basics of reading in Zambian language under NBTL, it is hoped that they should find it easy under SITE to read English with comprehension. The second point is that the routine way teachers teach NBTL in grade one is similar to what happens in grade two under SITE because a teacher starts with starting together, teaching corner and finally ends up with sharing together.

On differences, MoE (2002) writes that in NBTL, learners only learn sounds which letters make but in SITE they learn both the letters and sounds they make. For example, they learn the sounds made by single consonants at the beginning of the words like “b” in “baby” or “d” in “day”. The second departure is that in SITE, pupils only learn English orally through the pathway course, where they are taught sounds, rhymes, games and simple greetings. The third point is that though the rainbow reading library story books in grade one NBTL are structured to carry the same stories as those in SITE, the difference however, is that in grade one, the story books are written in Zambian language whilst in Grade two they are written in English.

After establishing the two courses which teach language literacy skills in our schools, namely NBTL and SITE, the focus for this study lies on what happens between them. If grade two teachers were to know some of the difficulties which pupils find during the transition between the named courses, they would be well informed to help such learners overcome

them. Anita et al (2008:57) writes that, "at any given time, there are certain problems that a child is on the verge of being able to solve but needs some structure, clues, reminders and help with remembering details to keep on trying and so on. Some problems of course are beyond the child's capabilities even if every step is explained clearly".

The point put forward above is what Vygotsky (1979:86) calls the 'zone of proximal development' a term which refers to the "area between the child's current development as determined by independent problem solving and the level of development that the child could only achieve through adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers"

1.2 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVE

This study hinges on language learning addressing the various issues that second grade learners undergo in their reading skill during the transition between the language of initial literacy (Nyanja) and second language of literacy (English). In addressing this subject, this research utilized the theory of Vygotsky on Assisted learning in Psychology. Commenting on the same theory, Anita et al (2008:61) writes that: Vygotsky's theory suggests that teachers, facilitators and care givers need to do more than just arrange the environment so that children can discover on their own. Children cannot and should not be expected to reinvent or discover knowledge already available in their cultures. Rather, they should be guided and assisted in their learning. The theory therefore puts emphasis on the role played by teachers to motivate learners in language learning and also how the learners themselves should be helped enough by teachers for learning to take place.

Commenting on the importance of motivation to learners, Coladorci (1955: 13) writes, "...without some form of motivation, there will be no response on the part of the organism

and hence no learning what so ever." Additionally, Glover and Bruning, (1987) explain that motivation involve the process that arouses, directs and sustains behaviour.

1.3. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The NBTL was first piloted in Kasama with Ichibemba in 1998 before it was extended to Western Province (Silozi) and Eastern Province (Nyanja). The evaluation report revealed that pupils who were exposed to the NBTL, read and wrote at a level equivalent to grade four or higher than those who were in non NBTL classes (Kotze and Higgins, 1999). The programme was then rolled out to the nine provinces of Zambia. The government through the Ministry of Education developed further a literacy course called Step in to English (SITE) where grade two pupils were to be taught in English. Children learning under SITE were expected to benefit from the skills acquired under the language of initial literacy in NBTL in grade one. However, evaluation reports in the Ministry have continued to report low reading levels among children in grade two (Moe, 2003). This is an indication that some pupils were facing some challenges as they began to learn literacy under SITE. The exact nature of these challenges is not known. In view of the above development, this study was carried out to investigate the challenges which grade two pupils faced in their English reading skills as they switched from learning in the language of initial literacy (Nyanja). The study will further explore how these transitional challenges affected their reading skills.

1.4. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate challenges second grade learners faced in their English reading skills as they switched from learning in the language of initial literacy (Nyanja).

1.5. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The study was guided by the following objectives:

1.5.1. Main Objective

To investigate the challenges which second grade learners face in their English reading skills as they switched from learning in the language of initial literacy (Nyanja).

1.5.2. Specific Objectives

1. To find out what challenges the language policy of teaching literacy in grade one present learners with who were in grade two.
2. To find out which language skill(s) of grade two learners was affected by the language switch from the initial language of literacy to the second language of literacy.
3. To find out if the time allocated to teaching literacy in grades one affects pupils' learning of literacy in Grade two.
4. To investigate the challenges which grade two pupils faced brought about by teacher factor in their basic reading skills.

1.6 MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

What are the challenges which second grade learners face in their English reading skills as they switched from learning in the language of initial literacy (Nyanja)?

1.7. SUB RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. How does the language policy of teaching literacy in a child's familiar language in grade one affect learners when they switch to English in grade two?
2. Which language skills of grade two learners are affected by the language switch from the initial language of literacy to the second language of literacy?
3. How does the time which is allocated to teaching literacy a factor that affects pupils' learning of literacy in grades one and two?
4. What challenges in grade two do pupils face which are brought about by teacher factor in their initial reading skills?

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF STUDY

It is hoped that the findings of this study would be found significant by policy makers in the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education, school Head teachers and Grade two teachers.

To policy makers in the Ministry of Education, this study might possibly provide answers to some of the reasons why reading levels among some learners in primary schools have continued to be low regardless of some of the interventions which they have put in place like the PRP with its three literacy methodologies of NBTL, SITE and RoC.

To Head teachers, this study would be relevant to them helping them not only to know the various challenges which grade two pupils face during the transition between the first and second languages of literacy but also to work in collaboration with other stakeholders and find solutions aimed at improving literacy levels in their schools.

To teachers who teach SITE in grade two, the findings of this study may provide them an insight of what happens in the mind of a grade two pupil during the language switch from a local language to English. Besides that, the knowledge they would get may help them find workable solutions so that grade two pupils may overcome the phase of challenges they face and be literate in the second language.

1.9 LIMITATION OF STUDY

Firstly, the sample size of 80 respondents selected only from five schools in Chongwe District which has over 50 schools to an extent may not be sufficient data which could have given a wider representation of the views of pupils and teachers in general if the sample size was larger enough than the one used.

Another limitation was related to methodology. Due to the limited number of classes involved and a small group of pupils tested, this study does not attempt to generalize its findings.

1.10. DEFINITION OF TERMS

- Starting together - It is a stage in the PRP lessons where all activities of the day are introduced.
- Teaching corner - This is a place in the class room where a particular group of learners is seen by the teacher for a period of time.
- Sharing together - This is the final stage in PRP lessons where learners get to share what they have learnt and to correct mistakes with the help of the teacher.
- Conversation poster - This is a poster that is used in a particular lesson with a view of eliciting key sentences and new words by learners.

- Key sentence - A sentence where learners study stipulated words in the teacher's guide.
- LAB – These are letters which stand for Learner Activity Book. This is a book containing numerous activities learners do in the whole Primary Reading Programme.
- Sentence holder - This is plastic stand that holds word cards on the sentence maker when making sentences.
- Reading - A deliberate process of looking at and understanding the written word.
- Literacy- A language skill that involves reading and writing.
- Familiar language – A local language widely spoken in a catchment area where learners of a particular school are found.
- Class library – Is special place in a classroom where reading books for learners are kept.
- Phonic flip chart – Is a chart that contains phonic sounds that are taught to pupils in the Teaching Station.
- Independent activities – These are various classroom reading and writing activities which learners do found either in the Teachers' Guide or class library books.
- Mounting – Process of putting words on the sentence holder by pupils.
- Slashing - Cutting of words into syllables.
- Rainbow kit – It is a bag where NBTL and SITE materials are kept.
- Word cards - These are cards that have key words to be taught to pupils are written on them.
- SITE Posters – Theses are conversation posters that contain various situations where key sentences are elicited from for grade two pupils.

- Language of Initial literacy- This is a local language used to teach basic reading skills in schools in Grade one.
- Second Language of Literacy – This is English language approved by government in Zambia to teach all subjects in schools other local languages from grade one to tertiary education.
- initial reading skills – these are skills which include left to right eye movement whilst reading texts, how to hold a book and how to interpret signs, pictures and texts.
- Path way - it is an orally supplementary English course in grade one and grade two which teaches pupils about sounds, rhymes, games and simple greetings.
- Code- Switching - it is a situation whereby speakers use two or more languages within the same speech context.
- Borrowed words – These are English words read and spelt in local languages e.g. 'supuni' (Chinyanja) to mean 'spoon' (English). This is as a result of the Zambian languages having lost a number of words that have since been replaced by English ones though with the Zambian language spelling pattern.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Overview

This chapter reviews various literatures for this study which have been organized in two broad categories. These are the development of literacy skills in beginning readers and second language learning by beginners. Under these headings, the four objectives of this study have been put into consideration.

2.2. LITERACY DEVELOPMENT IN BEGINNING READERS

2.2.1. What is reading?

Medwell (1991) writes that reading is an active skill by which learners perceive the writer's words and decipher meaning from them. The key issues that are involved in it are sight, intelligence, knowledge of writers' language and words (Adams, 1990). Mackinnon (1959),

further observes that a number of influential theories have been developed by scholars on how children should best be taught how to read. It is also important to note that reading is a complicated process where a number of concepts and insights that make successful readers know how to read well should be considered. Although reading involves recognizing letters, this is not an easy process for beginners who should be taught that letters that have been put on a piece of paper are not just marks but have sounds and meaning (Ball et al, 1988).

2.2.2. Importance of reading

The Ministry of Education and other stakeholders have had concern over the issue of reading levels in the country. This is because pupils' ability to read is an important determinant of success in school. Besides reading, the skill of writing is equally important because both are essential life skills whereby if children do not read and write early enough in primary schools, they cannot learn other curriculum areas properly.

2.2.3. How reading skills develop in children

There is a lot of controversy surrounding the process of reading development in children. Researchers have proposed two major approaches to explain how reading develops; the whole language and phonic approaches (Thompson and Nicholas, 1998; Hempenstall, 1994; Emmitt, 1999).

The whole language approach advocates that reading can be best taught by exposing the learners to whole written words. Children are expected to memorise and commit words to memory. Proponents of this approach argue that learners will recognise and decipher meaning of memorised words in the text later.

The phonics approach requires that the children learn letter-sound to come up with intelligible word, before introducing them to word recognition (Thompson et al., 1998). According to the phonics approach, for children to read successfully, they must develop phonological awareness skills. Research has shown that phonological abilities are critical determinants of future success at reading (Stanovich, 1988; Torgesen, et al, 1994). Wagner and Torgesen (1997) define phonological awareness as awareness of and access to the sound structure of language." It is strongly argued that phonological awareness is casually related to learning reading during the early years of schooling (Bradley and Bryant, (1993). This is a reason advanced for employing phoneme segmentation and phonics manipulation in reading assessments. Phonemic awareness and phonics are necessary for eventual development of accurate word recognition.

The relevance of the two approaches to this study namely whole word and phonics is that both are complementally used by teachers when teaching reading in grade one and grade two. For example, there are cases where the whole word approach is used by teachers through exposing whole words to pupils so that they memorise them. In some other cases the phonics approach is used where children learn by associating letters to sounds.

2.2.4. Challenges faced by learners with reading problems

Studies have documented a number of challenges which learners face related to reading. Juel, (1998) established that poor readers spend more of their reading energy to sound out individual sounds in words listed instead of concentrating or extracting meaning from the text. Logan (1967) observes that for many children, especially poor readers, reading is an extra ordinary task which may be a long and complicated process lasting several years.

Cunningham and Stanovich (1998:1), writes that 'lack of exposure and practice on the part of a less skilled reader delays the development of automaticity and speed at the word recognition level'.

Oka et al (1996), also add that reading failure can lead to misbehaviour, anxiety and lack of motivation. Other authorities also state that reading difficulties are the main contributors to failure in school (Mercer and Mercer, 1993). In addition, Catts (1995) observes that children who are identified as poor readers mostly tend to be less motivated to read and get less reading practice resulting in them falling farther and farther from their peers in reading and other academic achievement.

Just because reading levels have been low among many school going pupils, a lot of research has been done by scholars both outside and within Zambia.

On the global front, a research by Shywitz et al, 1998 shows that the prevalence of reading difficulties is approximately rated to be 10% to 17.5%. In Sweden it is between 5 – 10 % (Hoiem and Lundberg, 1992) while in US, it is estimated at 4% of the school population (The American Psychiatric Association, 1994).

Even in countries like Britain, the issue of illiteracy and failing to read has been of great concern. A survey carried out in 1948 in Britain under the auspices of the Ministry of Education showed that 5.7 per cent of 15 year children were illiterate and semi-illiterate and a further 24 per cent were backward in reading (Ministry of Education, 1950).

On the local front, a number of studies have been conducted. A study carried out by Sharma (1993) on 3, 298 third graders to whom a 40 word recognition test was administered. The list was drawn from Zambian course books for the first three years of school. The results

revealed that only 4.15 % were able to decipher all the words. Besides that it was found that 5.36 percent of the participants failed to read a single word from the list and also that from all the grade three pupils that took the test only 17 % managed to correctly read all the grade one syllabus while only 7.2 % could read all grade one and two words correctly.

Serpell (1978) did a study on oral language proficiency levels of children in Lusaka whose mother tongue is not principally Chinyanja. The study involved 250 children from Lusaka Province schools who spoke other languages other than Nyanja. It was found that children from Bemba speaking families had by grade six acquired Nyanja competency in reading only equivalent to that of Nyanja speaking children in Grade 3 while those for grade two are in English.

Other than that, William, (1996) also notes that reading levels in Zambian schools are a good reflection of education standards. Rayner et al (2001) also found that slow acquisition of reading ability hinders the development of reading which could be one reason why some pupils read rarely. Nkamba and Kanyika (1998) observes that Southern African Consortium of Education Quality (SACMEQ) of 1995 revealed that 25% of the grade six pupils who were tested and able to read at minimum levels only 3% were able to read at desirable levels.

The Examination of Zambia's study in 1999 for the grade 5 National Assessment found similar results in literacy and numeracy (Kelly and Kanyika, 2000). The Primary Reading Base line Study confirmed the findings that the proficiency among pupils in the country was extremely low. Other than establishing that pupils were not reading fluently, it was found that many of them failed examinations simply because they were not able to read and understand examination instructions. The same research also established that poor reading skills were common among high school and tertiary education students.

Matafwali (2005) also conducted a study in Lusaka Province to find out about the nature and prevalence of reading difficulties in grade three pupils. The results from this study showed that 26% of the children that were involved in the study had some difficulties in reading.

Kaani (2006) equally did a study in Chipata, Eastern Province to find out about the nature and prevalence of reading difficulties among school drop-out (experimental) in comparison to in-school children. From this study, it was found that the prevalence of reading difficulties was significantly higher among school drop-outs among the school children.

The various studies cited on the reading difficulties both locally and globally have been fundamental in helping the researcher understand the many aspects that surround reading. For example, all scholars seem to agree that regardless of their grade, a good number of pupils still face many reading problems. This point therefore, justifies the importance of this study because it endeavours to identify some of the challenges which some learners face in their quest to read adequately.

2.2.5. Precursors of Literacy Development

The term "Literacy" can be defined in various ways. According to Williams (1990), to be literate means different things in different situations or social contexts. He says that it is possible to be literate in one context but not in the other. For example, a middle school student reading and writing at a seventh grade level could be considered literate among his or her peers but illiterate among university graduate students. In some cases, the definition largely depends on the relationship between the other two terms, namely "education" and "school". The understanding is that whoever does not go through school has no education and, therefore has no literacy.

Literacy, in some cases, is linked to the official language, which in African countries is very often a foreign language. It is also assumed that literacy statistics for Africa “do not include persons who are literate in other languages other than the official languages” which are French, English, Spanish and Portuguese, to be more specific, (Arnove and Graff.1992: 285).

There are three types of literacy that Williams et al (1990) give:

The first is functional literacy which refers to the ability to read and write well enough to understand signs, read newspaper headings, read labels on medicine bottles, make shopping lists, read Bible, and writing short letters. The second type is cultural literacy. This refers to the situation that what a text means depends on what readers bring to the reading or writing. Furthermore, what they bring will depend on the background, training, values, traditions, beliefs and so forth. The third type is critical literacy which involves determining what effect a writer is attempts to bring about in readers, why he or she is makes that effort and just who those readers are.

Constable et al (2000:70) defines literacy by combining it with reading:

The terms reading and literacy are used jointly to convey a broad notion of what the ability to read means the notion that includes the ability to reflect on reading and to use reading experience as a tool for attaining individual and societal goals. Because written text is an important means for conveying the human experience of events, ideas, and emotions, the ability to read and reflect on reading may be viewed as essential for individuals to understand themselves and their world more fully.

This definition is applicable when considered it with the goals of the PRP and its components NBTL and SITE.

2.2.6. Role of oral language in literacy development

A lot of studies have offered a great deal of evidence of the importance of oral language in literacy achievement. One of the most consistent findings in the literature is that oral language abilities in early childhood predict beginning literacy skills such as phonological awareness, letter knowledge, concepts about print, and then later, reading achievement (Scarborough, 1990; Matafwali, 2010).

Catts et al (1999) tested the oral language and phonological processing profiles of good and poor second-grade readers when they were in kindergarten. The poor readers were three to four times more likely to have had phonological processing weaknesses and four to five times more likely to have had oral language problems. The results of the test were that 73% of the poor readers had exhibited deficiencies in some aspect of phonological skills or oral language with most readers (40%) having a combined deficit profile, almost 20% having primary oral language deficits and less than 15% having phonological processing deficits. Almost all the children who fell in the latter group exhibited somewhat depressed scores on tests of oral language competence. Based on these results, Catts et al (1999) concluded that phonological processing in kindergarten was a good predictor of Grade Two reading, but oral language skills also contributed substantial and unique variance.

From these studies, we can see that a good home language background strongly determine how well beginning readers develop literacy, failure to which they would not have good reading and writing skills.

2.3. SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

2.3.1. Key points in second language learning

Learning a new language through reading is not an easy task as it is a complicated process. Gombert (1992) proposes a metalinguistic development of four successive stages in the

acquisition of reading. These stages are based on Karmiloff-Smith's (1986) model of metalinguistic development that seems to identify phonemic awareness as a critical skill in learning to read. These stages, according to Gombert 1992 in Banda (2012: 36-37) are as follows:

- § Stage 1. Acquisition of the first linguistic skills (In the interaction with the adult, the child learns particular linguistic forms closely associated with its context of occurrence. Thus, the linguistic knowledge of the child is implicit and procedural in nature)
- § Stage 2. Acquisition of epilinguistic control (epilinguistic control refers to well known social settings. So with growing cognitive development, the child's need to resolve new problems of communication forces the development of varied communicational forms in more interplay with adults).
- § Stage 3. Acquisition of metalinguistic awareness (The development of metalinguistic awareness is dependent on the need for acquired linguistic control. That is contextual factors such as at home or at school, forces the child to develop metalinguistic awareness in order to consciously handle linguistic forms during communication. In a situation where home language is different from the school language at this early stage, the child may experience cognitive confusion).
- § Stage 4. Automatisation of meta-processes (This occurs with the repeated use of metalinguistic skills. Here, the child is able to reflect on aspects of language production if needed).

Furthermore, Ziegler and Goswami (2005) drew together cross-linguistic findings to explain reading development across languages, proposing three contributing factors. The first factor was the availability of different sound units prior to reading. The second factor was the degree of consistency seen in the associations between the sounds and the symbols of the language. The third factor was granularity which refers to the level of mappings between the sounds and symbols in the language, whether they were smaller or larger sized units. They further argued that the nature of instruction is important for understanding reading

development. They proposed the psycholinguistic Grain Size Theory which assumes that reading development depend upon abstraction of optimal mappings between orthographic units and the sounds of the language.

The three factors, availability, consistency and granularity are each seen to be important in the process of learning to read. Thus, if sounds units represented by the writing system are phonological structures that are already established in everyday speech, that availability should make learning to read easier. If the correspondences between sounds and symbols are consistent, then learning the associations become easier (Bentin & Frost, 1987).

Granularity is perhaps the least specified factor in the proposal. Granularity refers to whether a writing system represents sounds at one particular sub-lexical level or if there are multiple mappings (as in English to large and small units simultaneously). Thus, scripts that contain predominantly one size of unit (e.g. most of the Zambian languages with phoneme level units) should be easier to learn than languages where mappings to symbol units are at more than one size. English is often given as an example of a language with such multi-sized mappings in which minimal sound units (e.g. the phoneme [ai]) may be represented by single letters (e.g. I) and also by letter strings (e.g., igh). Such multiple mappings are seen as presenting a challenge to learners (Ziegler & Goswami, 2005).

The stages above therefore, suggest that the achievement of initial literacy follows a process, which if done in a mother tongue may be achieved faster than that which is given in a foreign language and if rushed a child may transfer the sounds pattern in his or her mother tongue to the second language and this is what this study intends to find out in the case of Zambia.

2.3.2. Language skills essential to beginning readers

Research shows that there are basically two language related skills that are necessary to beginning readers, that is, language processing skills and phoneme awareness (Torgesen and Wagner, 1987; Stanovich, Cunningham, & Cramer, 1984.)

2.3.2.1. Language Processing Skills

Beginning readers should possess language processing skills at four different levels. First, they need speech perception skills (Goetzinger, et al; 1960) that makes it possible for them to distinguish the words of their vocabulary. Secondly they need morphological skills which otherwise can affect the reading skills of poor readers (Wolf, 1984). The third point is that they should have adequate short-term memory to help them easily recognise words they have learnt. Finally, they should be able to develop the syntactic and semantic structure of phrases and sentences. The importance of the language processing skills stated above to a pupil who is in grade two as the focus of this study is cannot be over emphasized because these pupils need them in their quest to learn to read the second language of English.

2.3.2.2 Phoneme Awareness

Besides language processing skills, the English orthography requires successful readers to also be conscience of phonological awareness, certain abstract units of the language. The most stringent, definitions of phonological awareness solely focus on conscious manipulations of the smallest individual segments, a skill that is for instance required in segmentation tasks in which children have to articulate the sequence of individual sounds (e.g., "Tell me which sounds you hear in cat"). The rationale is that graphemes correspond to individual phonemes and that only manipulations of individual segments help the learner to acquire abstract representations of phonemes. Other definitions focus on a capacity to consciously isolate words at multiple linguistic levels, also including larger units than the phoneme. For

example, Swank & Larrivee (1998) describe the concept phonological awareness as “the ability to consciously think about and perform mental operations on speech-sound units, such as segmenting, blending, deleting, and changing the order of speech-sound sequences”.

Children must know about these units and also about phonemes if the alphabet is to make sense. Numerous studies show that early phonology awareness is among the best predictors of success at learning to read in different language that are written in alphabetical orthography (Torgesen & Wagner, 1987; Stanovich, et al, 1984). As has been alluded to earlier, lack of phoneme awareness results in reading problems. Wong (1998) further illustrates that the use of phonetic representation remains a chronic problem for individuals who are poor readers especially when two languages of initial literacy are involved as the case is in this study.

2.3.3. Language proficiency in beginning readers

Cummins (1979) in Banda (2012) writes that language proficiency can be classified into Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) and the Basic Interpersonal Communicative Skills (BICS). He defines CALP as the higher –level skills required for literacy and for cognitively demanding content. The BICS is the conversational proficiency level often achieved in beginning English as a Second Language (ESL). He further states that in the first-language development of children, attention should be given to education aspects related to proficiency.

Besides the above, looking at how immigrant children communicate sufficiently in their everyday situations, two scholars namely Skutnabb - Kangas and Toukomaa (1976) introduced a distinction between two forms of language proficiency. These are Surface fluency and Conceptual-linguistic knowledge. Surface fluency refers to the proficiency which enables children to communicate sufficiently in everyday situations while conceptual-linguistic knowledge helps them to develop academic language skills.

Although the two forms of proficiency mentioned above refer much to language development in general, the bottom line underlying them according to Banda, (2012) is still relevant to the development of initial literacy. He(Banda, 2012) writes that the significance of the above information when considered in line with this study is that during the NBTL, when children are trying to break through to initial literacy in their mother tongues, these children only have surface fluency of their native languages but do not have conceptual knowledge. What this means therefore, is that, in the situation where these children do not receive sufficient education from teachers in their native languages, they may in turn not be able to develop conceptual-linguistic knowledge in the second language in this case English which they start learning in grade two. Thus, one may wish to question the one-year language policy of NBTL being used in our Zambian schools whether it is long enough for children to develop conceptual-linguistic knowledge in the native language that should be transferred to the second language in Grade 2.

2.3.4. Teacher factor in language learning

In language learning, the role played by teachers in helping children to learn a new language cannot be over emphasised. In 2008, the Educational Quality Improvement Program 2 (EQUIP2), in partnership with Save the Children, conducted a study on school effectiveness

in Nepal (Collins and Gillies, 2008). The study aimed to determine whether schools provided adequate opportunities to learn and whether teachers and students used those opportunities to ensure that children learnt to read fluently in the language of instruction (Nepali) by Grade 3.

The study found that few children at the start of Grade 3 had learned to read fluently enough to ensure comprehension. Forty-four percent of the students could not read a single word of Grade 3 text. Only 38 percent of students could read at a rate of 40 words per minute (wpm) or faster, a rate that may ensure comprehension (Collins and Gillies, 2008).

The research demonstrated that there were a number of factors that needed to be put into consideration if learning was to be effective. First, the research demonstrated teachers and students attendance needed to be more closely monitored and the factors that impacted them addressed. Second, the daily school schedule needed to be better managed to ensure adequate time for reading instruction in the early grades. Third, teachers needed to learn instructional strategies to engage students in reading or reading-related exercises.

Furthermore, the research made a recommendation that given the low levels of reading fluency, schools need strategies for building the reading skills of students throughout the primary grades, as few, if any, are learning to read well enough to learn across all subject areas (Collins and Gillies, 2008).

2.4. Chapter summary

The literature above has covered many areas on literacy development in beginning readers, how reading skills in beginning readers develop and also the process of second language learning takes place. Since this study focuses on the transitional challenges which second graders face as they start learning the second language of literacy (English), the information

from these books have been fundamental in helping the researcher not only to understand the reading difficulties in learners but has also guided this study in general through the proceeding chapters .

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

3.1. Overview

This chapter outlines the methods which were used to collect information for this study. It comprises a section on the research design used, population, sample size and sampling procedure. Furthermore, it presents the research instruments, data collection procedure and methods used to analyse data.

3.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

This study was designed in form of a case study. It used qualitative and quantitative methodology of collecting data from the respondents. The two methodological approaches were used in order to give the study an in-depth that a single approach would not be able to provide. The use of multiple data collection techniques is known as triangulation which Kahn and Best (2006) explains as an approach in which two or more paradigms are utilized in order to circumvent the biases associated with a single design. The study employed triangulation in data collection through focus group discussion that elicited qualitative data. The vocabulary tests and questionnaires were used to elicit quantitative data.

3.3 TARGET POPULATION

According to Patton (1990), a target population is a set of elements that the research focuses upon to which the results obtained by testing the sample should be generalized to. For this study, the target population comprised pupils from five schools in Chongwe District namely Chongwe Basic, Matipula Basic, Chalimbana Basic, Chainda Basic and Mpemba. Other than pupils, some teachers from these schools were used as informers. The categories for both groups were as follows were as follows: for pupils, pupils these were those who were doing Grade two in 2010. As for the teachers, it was for those who were teaching grade two in 2010 and teachers who had taught SITE in grade two in the previous years.

3.4 SAMPLE

A sample is described as a small proportion of the population that is selected for observation and analysis (Kahn & Best, 2006). It is from observing the characteristics of the sample that one can make certain inferences about the characteristics of the population

from which it was drawn. For this study the study sample had 80 respondents of which 50 of them were pupils while 30 were teachers. The 50 pupils were doing Grade two in 2010 whereas from the 30 teachers, 10 taught Grade two in 2010, while 20 were teachers who had taught SITE in Grade Two before.

The table below summarises the sample.

Table 1: DATA SHOWING DETAILS OF RESPONDENTS

SCHOOL	PUPILS	2010 GRADE TWO TEACHERS	SITE TEACHERS WITH PREVIOUS YEARS
CHONGWE	10	02	04
MATIPULA	10	02	04
EVERGREEN	10	02	04
CHAINDA	10	02	04
MPEMBA	10	02	04
TOTAL	50	10	20

3.5 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The study used two sampling procedures. These are purposive sampling under non probability and simple random under probability sampling.

Purposive sampling was utilized in choosing the five schools used in this study. This type of a method allows the researcher to select respondents who provide the richest information,

those who are the most interesting and manifest the characteristic of interest to the researcher (Lincoln et al, 1985).

Through purposive sampling, the five basic schools were selected on the criteria of common language spoken. For example, Chongwe, Matipula and Mpemba Basic Schools, were chosen because of proximity to the main road. As such, Chinyanja is spoken by most pupils. For Chainda and Chalimbana Basic Schools, they were chosen because their pupils mostly come from a Soli speaking community.

On the other hand, simple random was used in choosing the pupils. During this process, class registers were used whereby five boys and five girls were randomly chosen from each of the five participating schools. This translated into choosing 50 pupils.

On the part of the 30 teachers, purposive sampling was utilised in two ways:

i). For teachers who taught grade two in 2010, it was found that in each of the five participating schools, there were four grade two classes where in each case, the classes were taught by two teachers on a double class arrangement. Because of this situation, both grade two teachers from the five schools were chosen as participants. As such ten teachers were chosen.

ii.) For the teachers who taught SITE course before, the researcher asked from each school administration to give names of any four teachers who had an experience of teaching the SITE course before. As such twenty teachers were identified.

3.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

The four instruments used to collect data from the five schools were as follows:

- a. Word reading Test- Chinyanja
- b. Word reading Test- English
- c. Questionnaires
- d. Focus Group Discussion

(i) Word Reading Test Chinyanja:

The researcher chose ten Chinyanja words from the grade one NBTL teachers hand book which in fact are borrowed words. They are borrowed because they are English words read and spelt in Chinyanja e.g. 'supuni' (Chinyanja) to mean 'spoon' (English). This is as a result of the Zambian languages having lost a number of words that have since been replaced by English ones though with the Zambian language spelling pattern.

In this test (Appendix 1) on 73, the purpose was generally to find out if pupils found a transitional challenge of spelling and pronouncing English words read and spelt in Chinyanja which they learnt in the initial language of literacy in grade one and their English equivalent when they meet them in grade two. For example:

CHINYANJA	ENGLISH
Poto.....	pot
Bola.....	ball
Supuni.....	spoon

The ten borrowed words are as follows:

Bola; Delesi; Desiki, Poto, Supuni, Lula, Sopo, Tebulo, Sukulu, Pensulo.

b) Wording Reading Test – English.

For this test, the researcher used the English equivalent of the ten words that were given to pupils in Chinyanja for pupils to read. The purpose for this test was to ascertain the extent of influence the language of initial literacy had on the second language of literacy. See Appendix 2 on page 75.

The list of ten English words which the pupils read was as follows:

Ball, Dress, Desk, Pot, Spoon, Ruler, Soap, Table, School, Pencil.

(ii) Questionnaire:

A questionnaire comprising five questions was given to 2010 Grade Two teachers and those who had taught SITE in Grade Two before for them to answer. Appendix 3, on page 77.

Vi. Focus Group Discussion (FDG):

FDG was employed for the purpose of eliciting in depth information from the teachers on the challenges that Grade Two pupils faced related to basic reading skills during the transition between the first and second languages of initial literacy. Appendix 4, on page 79.

3.7. ETHICAL ISSUES

The researcher obtained ethical clearance from the University of Zambia where an introductory letter was got from the Assistant Dean of Post Graduate Studies in the School of Education. Upon getting the letter, the researcher went to the Ministry of Education provincial and district offices in Lusaka Province for clearance to do the study. Even at school level, permission was sought from both the various school authorities and the parents for the children who were used in this study. Furthermore, children were also consulted on their willingness to participate in this study at the time of recruitment.

3.8. DATA ANALYSIS

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilised to analyse quantitative data from the questionnaires. For qualitative data obtained from focus group discussion, it was analysed by coding and grouping the emerging themes.

As for the two vocabulary tests for Chinyanja and English, the McNemar Test was used. This is an instrument used in a situation where the researcher's interest is to investigate performance of a group of individuals to see if it has changed over time or as a result of some experience. It is applicable in a situation where there is a proportion for a group of individuals before and after some activity and where the outcomes are dichotomous McNemar (2008).

The justification for using this test was that the current study investigated the performance of pupils in Grade two who were examined in their language reading ability at two different points. This is in terms of the language switch from Chinyanja which the pupils learnt through the New Break Through to Literacy Course in grade one to English which the pupils learnt in grade two through the Step into English course.

CHAPTER FOUR: PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Overview

4.2 This chapter presents the findings of this study. Four (04) research instruments were employed in this study in the collections of data. These are: Word reading in

Chinyanja; Word reading in English; Questionnaire for Teachers and Focus group discussion. All the data has been presented according to each of the four research instruments employed.

4.2. RESULTS FROM THE CHINYANJA WORD READING TEST

Table 1: Data set showing pupils' reading ability of Chinyanja words

s/ n	Words	Pupils who read words correctly					Pupils who read words incorrectly					Pupils who could not read any words					
		Cho	mat	Cha	Cha i	Mp e	Cho	mat	chal	Chai	Mp	cho	Mat	Chal	Cha i	M pe	Total
1	Bola	7	7	4	4	7	2	1	3	2	1	1	2	3	4	2	50
2	Delesi	3	3	0	5	2	4	2	3	2	2	3	5	7	5	6	50
3	Desiki	2	2	0	2	3	4	2	2	2	1	4	6	8	6	6	50
4	Poto	6	6	4	6	6	2	1	4	2	1	2	3	2	2	3	50
5	Supuni	3	3	3	2	4	5	2	2	4	3	2	5	5	4	3	50
6	Lula	3	2	3	1	3	1	2	2	5	4	6	6	5	4	3	50
7	Sopo	6	6	4	6	6	3	1	3	2	2	1	3	3	2	2	50
8	Tebulo	3	3	1	2	2	5	4	2	4	4	2	3	7	4	4	50
9	Sukulu	6	6	5	2	5	2	1	2	3	3	2	3	3	5	2	50
10	Pensul	3	3	2	4	2	2	2	4	2	2	5	5	4	4	6	50
Total		42	41	26	34	40	30	18	27	28	23	28	41	47	38	37	50

KEY: CHO = Chongwe; MAT= Matipula; CHAL = Chalimbana; CHAI = Chainda; MPE = Mpemba

The table on page 2 presents scores on the vocabulary test of Chinyanja. The scores were categorised according to the performance levels ranging from pupils who read the words

correctly, those who read them incorrectly and those who could not attempt to read them.

As already stated, there were ten children per school.

An example to explain the point being made above is that for column one, seven out of ten pupils in three schools read correctly the word 'bola' while in two other schools, there were four pupils who read it.

A closer look at how the pupils read the words reveals two important points.

1. Poor reading ability in the first language

The study revealed that the results of pupils' reading ability in Chinyanja for the five schools were low. This was because even if Chongwe, Mpemba and Matipula scored 42%, 41% and 40% in the tests, these were not good enough results.

2. Inability to read some of the 'Nyanjalised' words

The second point is that an analysis of how the pupils read the 'Nyanjalised' words shows that they were four words which they found easy to read. These were 'bola', 'poto', 'sopo' and 'sukulu'. But for 'desiki', 'delesi', 'tebulo', 'pensulo', 'lula', 'supuni', pupils found them difficult to read.

4.3. RESULTS FROM THE ENGLISH WORD READING TEST

Table 2: Data set showing pupils' reading ability in English words

s/n	Words	Pupils who read words correctly					Pupils who read English words in Chinyanja					Pupils who could not read any words					Total
		Cho	mat	Chal	Chai	Mpe	Cho	mat	chal	Chai	Mpe	Cho	mat	chal	chai	Mpe	
1	Ball	5	5	3	3	4	2	2	1	1	2	3	3	6	6	4	50
2	Dress	3	2	0	4	2	0	0	0	1	0	7	8	10	5	8	50
3	Desk	2	2	0	2	3	0	0	0	0	0	8	8	10	8	7	50
4	Pot	4	5	2	5	2	2	2	2	1	4	4	3	6	4	4	50
5	Spoon	3	3	2	2	3	0	0	1	0	1	7	7	7	8	6	50
6	Ruler	2	2	2	0	2	0	0	1	0	1	8	8	7	10	7	50
7	Soap	4	5	3	5	3	2	2	1	1	3	4	3	6	4	4	50
8	Table	3	2	1	1	2	0	0	0	1	0	7	8	9	8	8	50
9	School	5	3	3	2	3	1	3	2	0	2	4	4	5	8	5	50
10	Pencil	3	3	2	4	2	0	0	0	0	0	7	7	8	6	8	50
Total		34	32	18	28	26	07	10	08	05	13	59	59	74	67	60	500

KEY: CHO = Chongwe; MAT= Matipula; CHAL = Chalimbana; CHAI = Chainda; MPE = Mpemba

The table above presents scores on the vocabulary test of English. The scores are categorised according to the performance levels ranging from pupils who read the words correctly, those who read the English words in Chinyanja and those who could not attempt to read them. As already stated, there were ten children per school.

4.4. McNemar test results

Table 3: McNemar test results

Word	PCRCh	CREng	PCRCh.IREng. (Yes – No)	PCRB (Yes - Yes)	PIRCh.CREng (No -Yes)	PIRB (No - No)	Pupil Loss (P.L.)	
							Frequency	Percentage
Bola	29	20	9	15	5	16	14	48.2
Delesi	13	12	1	6	6	31	7	53.8
Desiki	9	9	Nil	9	Nil	Nil	Nil	0.0
Poto	28	18	10	9	9	13	19	67.9
Supuni	15	13	2	3	10	25	12	80.0
Lula	12	8	3	2	6	32	10	83.3
Sopo	28	20	8	12	8	14	16	57.1
Tebulo	11	9	2	2	7	32	9	81.8
Sukulu	24	16	8	7	9	17	17	70.8
Pensulo	14	14	Nil	14	Nil	Nil	Nil	0.0

Key:

PCRCh = Pupils Correctly Read in Chinyanja

PCREng. = Pupils Correctly Read in English

PCRCh.IREng. = Pupils Correctly Read in Chinyanja but Incorrectly read in English

PCRB = Pupils Correctly Read in Both languages

PIRChCRE = Pupils Incorrectly Read in Chinyanja but Correctly Read in English

PIRB = Pupils Incorrectly Read in both languages.

Pupil Loss = Difference between 'PCRCh' and 'PCRB' expressed in frequency (1st) and percentage (2nd).

4.4.1. Results from the McNemar Test

--	--	--	--	--	--	--

An analysis of the figures shown by the McNemar test found on Table 3 page 28 reveal the following points:

It is clear that the reading ability of pupils in Chinyanja was better than in English. A comparison of column 2 and 3 of the table in question proves this point right. A few selected examples to justify this point was that, 29 pupils read the word 'bola' in Chinyanja but only 20 of them managed to read its English equivalent ball.

The second point is for the word 'sopo' where 28 pupils managed to read it in Chinyanja but when it came to reading the word soap in English only 20 pupils managed to do so except for 'desiki' and 'pensulo' where there were an equal number of pupils who read them in both languages.

Another point is that for each of the ten words, there were a good number of pupils who did not manage to read the words in Chinyanja but when it came to their English equivalent, the pupils managed to read them. See column six of the table. For example, 5 pupils were not able to read the word 'bola' in Chinyanja but managed to do so in its English equivalent namely 'ball'. The other example is of 6 pupils who could not read the word 'delesi' in Chinyanja but managed to do so in its English equivalent. The only exceptions to this situation are the words 'desiki' and 'pensulo' where there were an equal number of pupils who read them in both languages.

The study further revealed that there were more pupils who could not read the words in both languages than those who read them in both languages and this is true for each of the word. For example, 15 pupils read the word 'bola' in both languages but 16 pupils were not able to read its English equivalent.

Except for the words like 'desiki' and 'pensulo', the findings also showed that the language loss in the other words was quite high. The language loss in this case was the difference between the pupils who read the words in Chinyanja and those who read them in both languages. The highest language loss was in the word 'Tebulo' with 81.8% followed by the word 'Supuni' with 80.0%.

4.5. HOW PUPILS READ THE ENGLISH WORDS.

Table 4: Data showing how pupils read the English words.

S/N	WORD	PCREW	PREWCh	PUREW	TOTAL
1	BALL	20	08	22	50
2	DRESS	11	01	37	50
3	DESK	09	NIL	41	50
4	POT	18	11	21	50
5	SPOON	13	02	35	50
6	RULER	08	02	40	50
7	SCHOOL	16	08	26	50
8	SOAP	20	09	21	50
9	TABLE	09	01	40	50
10	PENCIL	14	NIL	36	50
TOTAL		138 (27.6%)	42 (8.4%)	320 (64%)	500 (100%)

KEY: 1. PCREW = Pupils Correctly Read English Words.

2. PREWCh. = Pupils Read English Word in Chinyanja.

3. PUREW = Pupils Unable to Read English Word.

NOTE: Given that there were ten pupils from each of the five schools who were given a chance to read each of the ten English words, this therefore, means that there were five hundred (500) pupils who read the words all together.

The findings on Table 4 shows two important points. The first point is that pupils from the five schools did not do well in reading the English words, as such, their reading ability was poor. This point was supported by the overall percentage of 27.6 represents 138 pupils compared to 64% represents 320 pupils (column 3) compared to 64 (column.5).

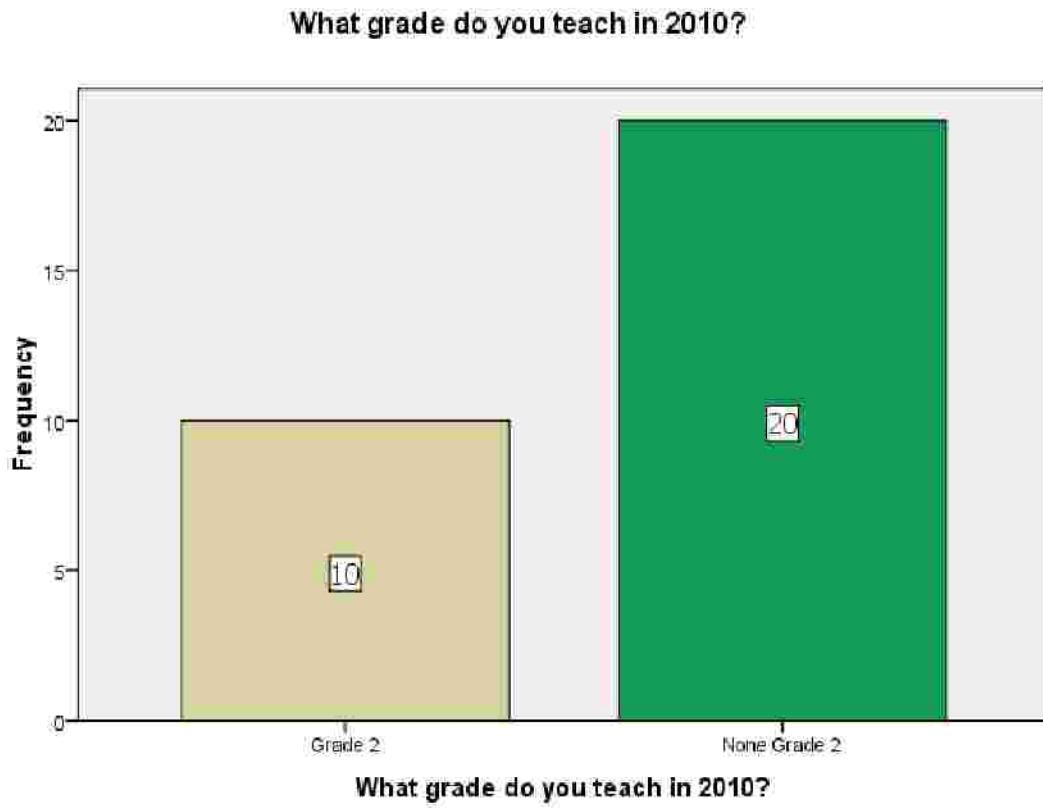
The Second point is that the table further shows 8.4% representing 42 pupils who read the English words in Chinyanja among which the word that had the highest frequency was 'pot' which some pupils read as 'poto' while the words 'desk' and 'pencil' never had any pupils who read them in Chinyanja.

4.6. STATISTICAL DATA FOR TEACHERS AND THE TRANSITIONAL CHALLENGES THEY CITED IN THE QUESTIONARRES

4.6.1. Teachers by Grade level.

The figure below shows the grades which teachers who were involved in this study taught in 2010. Among them, 10 teachers taught Grade Two in 2010 representing a percentage ratio of 33% whilst 20 taught other classes other than Grade Two. This number represents 67%. See the graph on the next page.

Figure 1: Grades teachers taught in 2010



4.6.2. Times Teachers taught SITE course in Grade Two

Table 5: Times teachers taught SITE course in Grade Two

Number of years teachers taught SITE in Grade 2	No. of teachers
Once	7
Twice	5
Thrice	8
four times or more	10
Total	30

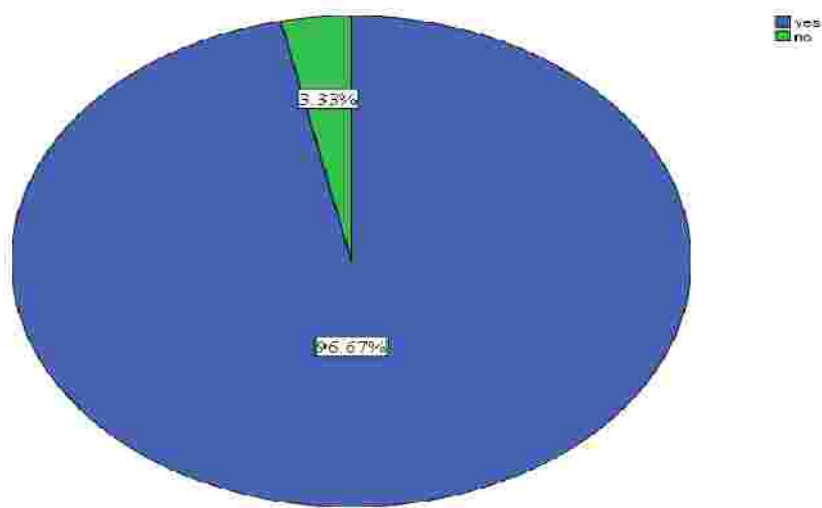
Table 5 shows the number of times teachers taught the SITE course before. As the table shows, the highest number was for 10 teachers who had a chance of teaching SITE four times or more. The lowest number of times was twice with 5 teachers.

The findings shows that by comparison, the teachers who taught the course 3 times and above were more than those who taught it twice and below. This fact is significant because the teachers had sufficient experience of the teaching the course.

4.6.3. If second graders' reading ability is affected by the transition between the first and second languages of initial literacy

FIGURE 2: If second graders faced reading challenges during the transition between the

first and second languages of literacy

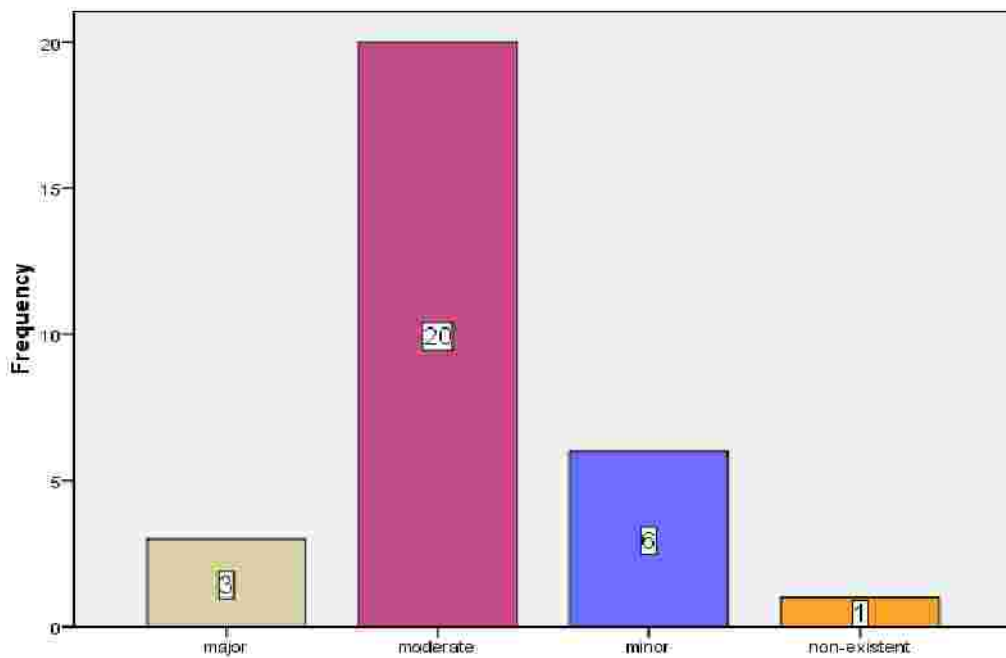


The pie chart (Figure1) shows that out of thirty teachers who were involved in this study, 28 teachers accepted that during the transition between the first and second languages of literacy, second graders faced challenges in their basic reading skills

4.6.4. Teachers' rating of challenges second graders faced in their basic reading skills

during the transition between the first and second languages of literacy

Figure 3: Teachers' rating of challenges faced by second graders in their basic reading skills during transition period between the first and second languages of literacy



The figure above shows that the highest number was for 20 teachers who stated that the challenges were moderate. It was then followed by 6 teachers who said that they were minor. Additionally, three (3) teachers felt that they were major where as only one teacher said that they were none existent.

4.7. TRANSITIONAL CHALLENGES CITED BY TEACHERS IN THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION.

In the Focus Group Discussion, the ten teachers who attended the discussion were asked to cite some of the challenges that affected pupils' reading skills in Grade Two during the transition between the language of initial literacy and their second language of initial literacy and also to suggest ways of how the challenges could be solved. The responses were as follows:

I. Problem of pupils getting used to learning in a local language.

The first challenge was that when some instructions were given to pupils in English, the teachers had to code - switch from English to Chinyanja before pupils could respond. This was because the pupils usually got used to learning in Chinyanja. One of the teachers even gave an example that if pupils were told to go for break in English; the teacher had to translate it into Chinyanja that was when the pupils would be seen trouting out for break.

II. Some pupils reading and spelling some English words in Chinyanja.

Another challenge was that of some pupils who read and spelt some English words in Chinyanja. The two examples that were given for these cases was a situation where some pupils would spell the word 'cup' (English) as 'capu' (Chinyanja) and also in the sentence "the boy is kicking the ball", some pupils would read the word 'ball' as 'bola'.

III. Problem of shorter period pupils learnt the language of initial literacy.

The third challenge was a complaint that came from teachers of Chalimbana and Chainda Basic schools who said that most of their pupils came from Soli speaking homes. What the teachers said was that the philosophy behind NBTL was that the initial language of literacy

taught in Grade One was the one which was spoken in the local area. Although this should be the case, for Chainda and Chalimbana Basic Schools, this was not the case because their pupils came from Soli speaking homes such that when the pupils got into Grade One, they were taught in Chinyanja and just before long, when they got into Grade Two, they were made to break through to literacy in English. One of the teachers even gave an example to justify what she meant.

Language	Soli	Chinyanja	English
Word	Mumpanshi	Mutiko	Cooking stick

From this scenario, the teachers complained that some Grade two pupils were faced with a situation of learning two new languages (Chinyanja and English) within a short period of time instead of one (English) as the case should be.

Grade two Pupils not completing learning the Chinyanja phonic sounds in the previous Teachers' Guide.

The Grade one NBTL syllabus outlines a number of consonant sounds, diagraphs and consonant blends which should be covered by the end of the year. If the grade one teachers fail to complete teaching these sounds in Chinyanja, pupils may find it difficult to read some of the words which start with such sounds.

V. Grade two pupils being taught by teachers without PRP background training as well as changing teachers who taught grade one classes.

Some Head teachers of basic schools give grade one classes to be taught by teachers who have not been trained in PRP methodology. Besides that, the teachers said that there were

times when Grade One pupils were given new teachers as they proceeded to Grade two probably due to staffing shortages in schools. To them this was a challenge because the pupils coming out the hands of such teachers will be ill prepared and will also lack content of how to read and write both in the first and second languages of literacy.

4.8. TEACHERS' SUGGESTED SOLUTIONS TO THE CHALLENGES IN THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

Concerning the problem whereby when instructions were given to pupils in English by teachers, they had to repeat them in Chinyanja for them to respond, the teachers said that the problem was usually common at the beginning of term one in grade two when the pupils started receiving all lessons in English unlike the case was when the pupils learnt literacy in a local language. The teachers suggested that repeating and translating instructions into the local language should be minimised, instead, the grade two teachers should always ensure that they gave out more of the instructions in English than in Chinyanja as doing so would assist the pupils easily get used to the official language of communication.

Over the problem where some pupils read and spelt some English words in Chinyanja instead of English, some of the solutions that were given by the teachers were that: For pupils who mispronounced English words, grade two teachers should be putting effort to help pupils who have been noted to have the problem through emphasis on correct pronunciation of the noted words. For English words that were spelt in Chinyanja, the teachers suggested that exposing them to more English supplementary story books was a helpful solution because it helps them to be familiar with the written word.

Concerning the complaint from Chalimbana and Chainda Basic School teachers, the group noted that since Soli language was not one of the approved seven local languages used in schools by Ministry of Education, it therefore meant that in all Chongwe schools, Chinyanja will have to continue being used. Though this was the case, the teachers were for the view that NBTL should run up to Grade Two so that the pupils who come from families whose mother tongue was different from Chinyanja could benefit because the duration of learning Chinyanja could have been extended by a year.

Concerning the challenge of some grade one teachers who failed to complete teaching all the phonic sounds outlined in the Grade One Teachers Guide. The teachers suggested that all grade one teachers should endeavour to complete teaching the phonic sounds and consonant clusters for the pupils to read well in the subsequent grades.

Concerning the challenge of some Head teachers of basic schools giving grade one pupils to be taught by teachers who may not have been trained in PRP lessons and also being given new teachers as they proceeded to Grade Two, the teachers stated that the idea disturbed pupils a lot because of ill preparation of basic reading skills in grade one and lack of continuity of pupils' problems in grade two.

4.9. Chapter summary

The goal of this chapter has been to present the findings of this study using the research objectives. As indicated, some of the challenges were: grade two pupils not completing learning the Chinyanja phonic sounds in the previous Teachers' Guide, shorter period pupils learnt the language of initial literacy, some pupils reading and spelling some English words in Chinyanja and pupils getting used to learning in a local language.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Overview

The current chapter looks at the findings of this study which have been done by discussing each of the research instruments used in this study.

5.2.RESULTS OF CITED CHALLENGES FROM THE WORD READING TEST IN CHINYANJA

5.2.1. Problem of poor reading ability in Chinyanja

One of the reasons that lead to the Zambian government to change the language policy from English to local language as the language of initial literacy in the early years of school was a conviction that pupils were not reading well enough in English. To support this view MOE (1996:39) writes that: "the fact that the initial reading skills are taught in and through a language that is unfamiliar to the majority of the children is believed to be contributing factor to the backwardness in shown by the Zambian children."

5.2.2. Inability of pupils to read some of the borrowed words

The findings of the Chinyanja test also revealed that there were some English words read in Chinyanja which pupils found easy to read while others were not. The four words that were found easy to read were 'bola', 'poto', 'sopo' and 'sukulu' while those they found difficult to read were 'desiki', 'delesi', 'pensulo', 'lula' and 'supuni'. One explanation that can be attributed to how pupils found it easy to read some words while others could not is that the NBTL course is highly phonetically based where by pupils usually rely on speech sound

and also apply the alphabetical principle when applying the words as suggested by Matafwali, 2005. The underlying behind this confusion of English and Nyanja words is that English is opaque in terms of orthography whereas Nyanja is transparent. As such, when the child is reading in English the symbol units that are mapped on to spoken language are not meaning bearing in themselves. In other scripts, such as Nyanja, symbol units called characters, typically encode lexical information. Each character maps onto a morpheme, making the symbol units lexical or meaning representations of spoken language. The difference between a meaning and a non-meaning bearing symbol system implies that scripts differ in their representational characteristics. Thus, it is possible that children are reading English words in Nyanja because they are mapping the lexical information. This would be consistent with the findings by Ziegler and Goswami (2005) when they observed that children who are reading in English are likely to make a lot of errors due to lack of consistency in orthography for the English words.

Additionally, the NBTL course also utilizes the phonic method whereby after reading a phonic sound, the teacher will now teach the words that start with the key phonic sound taught. One can conclude that for the words that the pupils read, the teachers in these schools taught their phonic sounds extensively than the other words. In support of this point, Cummins (1981) states that as children are learning the second language, they are drawing on the background and experience available to them from their first language.

5.3 RESULTS OF CITED CHALLENGES FROM THE WORD READING TEST IN ENGLISH

The findings of how the pupils read the English words as tabulated on Table 2 on page 62 clearly shows that the pupils performed poorly. For each of the schools, the results they got were lower than what they got in the Chinyanja test. The fact that pupils performed

this way in the English test can be easily understood on the basis that if children do not fully acquire their first language, they may have difficulties later in becoming full literate and academically proficient in the second language. Collier (1995) agrees with this point when he writes that the skills children develop in their first language forms the foundation they must have to be academically successful in their first language.

5.4. RESULTS OF CITED CHALLENGES FROM THE MCNEMAR TEST

After the borrowed words had been cross tabulated with their English equivalent using the McNemar test, the important points that came out are as follows:

The study revealed that the reading ability of pupils in Chinyanja was better than English. This point can be understood by accepting the fact that pupils who read Chinyanja than English were more exposed to a Chinyanja environment than English. This view is supported by Lindfors (1991) who writes that it is clear that children must be exposed to a language and be able to interact with others but how that exposure and interaction is extremely variable. McLaughlin (1984) also adds that there is strong evidence that children may never acquire a language if they have not been exposed to it.

The study further revealed that there were some pupils who could not read some of the borrowed words but managed to read their English equivalent. This scenario could have happened because some of the children could have possibly come from educated families or been at nursery schools before. This view is supported by Wong (1991) who writes that there is no simple way to explain why some people are successful at second language learning and some are not but that social and educational variables, experimented factors and individual differences in attitudes, personality, age and motivation all do affect their

language learning.

5.5. PUPILS' READING ABILITY IN ENGLISH.

On the pupils reading ability in English, the two important point that came out are:

Table 4 shows findings of how pupils read the English words in the five schools. The findings showed that 27.6% representing 138 pupils read the words correctly whilst 64% (320 pupils) read them incorrectly. These results show that the reading levels of the pupils were poor and low. These poor results are consistent with other studies (Sharma, 1993); Chikalanga, 1990) that have been done before and have also shown that in many of our schools; the reading levels of pupils are not impressive.

The second point is that Table 4 shows 8.4% standing for 42 pupils who read the English words in Chinyanja. The percentage is critical because it is one of the main issues that this study was meant to investigate. From the findings, this point has been proved to be so with the leading word being 'soap' followed by 'school' and 'ball'. These words were pronounced (read) by pupils as 'sopo', 'sukulu' and 'bola' respectively. While these might be seen as spelling errors, it is a clear demonstration of benefits of the NBTL in cultivating orthographical rules in pupils owing to the rich phonetic approach of the programme. This implies that children were able to transfer the orthographic rules that they acquired through the NBTL in grade one.

The challenge of some pupils reading some of the English words in Chinyanja which have been referred to above does not underscore the importance of the Primary Reading Programme. If anything, my literature review has brought out many reasons why the

programme in question was introduced in our schools. It is because of low reading levels. Other than that, the data on SITE still supports the rationale of literacy in a second language benefiting from initial literacy in Chinyanja. While it may strongly be appreciated that the cornerstone of the NBTL programme is for grade one learners to use their familiar (local) language to help them build literacy skills that are unfamiliar, the fact has been established that 42 pupils from this study found a challenge in which their language of initial language interfered with the second language of literacy. This problem is noted by the William studies (1993; 1998) which highlight the problem that is caused by pupils learning reading in a language that is different from what they use at home.

5.6. STATISTICAL DATA FOR TEACHERS AND THE CHALLENGES THEY CITED IN THE QUESTIONNAIRES

5.6.1. Number of times Teachers taught SITE course in Grade Two.

Teachers were asked in the questionnaire to mention how many times they had taught the SITE course in Grade Two. Ten of them taught it 4 times and more. This was followed by 8 teachers who had taught it 3 times. Teachers who had taught it 2 times were 5 whilst 7 teachers taught it for the first time in 2010. From these findings, one can easily see that most of the teachers who were used in this study had experience in teaching the course, as such; they knew the challenges pupils coming from grade one went through. Cooter (2003) agrees with this point when he writes that the true benchmark for expertise in teaching is to enable children to continue to become more literate than ever before.

5.6.2 Whether second graders faced challenges during the transition between the first and second languages of literacy which affected their basic reading skills.

The teachers were asked to state if second graders' faced challenges during the transition between the first and second languages of initial literacy which affected their basic reading skills. Out of the 30 teachers, 29 of them agreed that they did while only one teacher did

not. In line with these findings, Kalindi (2005:73-74) writes that:

Even though the pupils could not read and write, they were more comfortable learning in

Icibemba than they were in English. Seeing that they lacked adequate initial skills in Icibemba, probably due to ineffective teaching and learning styles, they did not have a basis of what to translate in developing English literacy skills. Therefore, learning to read in English was a much more complicated task because the pupils found this language 'strange'.

From the above information given, it is evident that some pupils in grade two faced some challenges as they found learning the new language of English a new phenomenon.

5.6.3. Teachers rating of the challenges pupils faced during the transition between the first and second languages of literacy that affected their basic reading skills

The teachers were asked to rate the challenges pupils faced during the transition between the first and second languages of initial literacy that affected their basic reading skills. The highest response came from 20 teachers who indicated that they were moderate, 3 teachers stated that they were major while only one teacher said that they were none

existent. From the teachers' responses, what is important is that it has been acknowledged that some pupils faced this problem. This finding therefore justifies the reasons why this study was worthy under taking.

5.7. CHALLENGES CITED BY TEACHERS IN THE FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION

- Problem of pupils getting used to learning in a local language

Teachers mentioned in the focus group discussion that when pupils were given some instructions in English, they had to repeat them in Chinyanja before the pupils would respond. This was because they got used to learning in a local language.

A scenario which is quite similar to the one that has been stated above is described by a head teacher informant in Banda (2012:82) who raises a complaint that after the language switch from a local language to English, some pupils experienced problems. This what the head teacher said:

My observations as a head teacher during the first term of SITE are that children were confused. The confusion was clearly seen when it came to reading the stories in the readers. Since the stories in the NBTL readers are the same with those in the SITE readers, some pupils, and many of them, could get an English reader but recall the story from the NBTL readers and read the same English story in MT.

A scholar who did a study and found a similar situation of pupils getting used to a local language was Kalindi (2005:58) who writes that: "results from both the BASAT and Comprehension questions revealed that pupils were more comfortable with answering questions in Icibemba and performed better in this medium than in English."

- Some pupils reading and spelling some English words in Chinyanja.

In the focus group discussion, teachers stated that at times some pupils read and spelt some English words in Chinyanja. The examples they gave were that some pupils spelt the word 'cup' (English) as 'kapu' (Chinyanja) and in the sentence "the boy is kicking the ball", some pupils would read the word 'ball' as 'bola'. Although it could still be argued that some pupils may have made a good attempt to associate the phonic sound 'b' in 'bola' which they learnt in grade one to the phonic sound 'b' in 'ball' which they have learnt in English in grade two, an important point to note is that from the example given, it was evident that there was a challenge.

The problem described above was equally identified by two informants in Banda (2012:82, 83) who described similar challenges which grade two pupils faced when they started doing SITE. This is what the informers said:

The problem pupils face when they move to SITE classes is compounded by lack of a permanent vowel - sound system in English. This has affected the speed of mastering words, which sounded the same but spelt differently, e.g. "sun" and "son" There is also a problem with those words, which convey different meanings when read as English words and like Zambian words, like, "make" in Nyanja means "mother of" while in Kikaonde it means "eggs".

Why do we have an oral course in English before SITE and nothing in Zambian Languages? Who does not know that many Zambian languages have borrowed a lot of words from English that many children think they are vernacular and not English. I am thinking of words like "spoon", "window", the list is long. When pupils meet the same words in SITE they get confused and still continue pronouncing them as if they were Chinyanja words.

In view of the above, Dickinson et al (2003) sums it well when they write that a high level of proficiency is required in the language of instruction for learners to benefit from reading instruction in school.

- Shorter duration pupils learnt the language of initial literacy.

In the focus group discussion, teachers from Chalimbana and Chainda Basic schools raised a complaint about the time in which pupils learnt the language of initial literacy. The teachers said that most of their pupils came from Soli speaking homes such that when the pupils got into Grade One, they were taught in Chinyanja and just before long, when they got into Grade Two, they were made to learn in English. According to the teachers, the time was not long enough for pupils to acquire adequate literacy skills to read well in grade two especially bearing in mind that their pupils came from homes where Soli was the Mother Tongue. Matafwali (2010) observed that although Nyanja has been chosen a familiar language for Lusaka, it is not the mother tongue for majority of the children and this might present challenges when to learn to read as children may lack proficiency in the language of initial literacy.

The period in which the language of initial literacy was taught not being enough for grade one pupils to acquire adequate skills to read well in grade two was also noted by a standard officer who was involved as an informer in Banda (2005: 86). The following was said in view of the matter at hand:

Seriously speaking, I do not think that Grade 2 is the right stage for pupils to move to another language of literacy. As District Inspector of schools, we do have regular monitoring of these NBTL and SITE classes. The problems are more with rural schools where children are from a poor background with no exposure to books of any kind. Such children

have no opportunity to have early childhood education, like nursery schools, for example. Their learning experience is Grade 1 and often parents are illiterate. There is need to extend the period of NBTL to two years so that we are sure that more than 90% of the pupils break through to literacy in their MT before they can step in to English.

- Grade two Pupils not completing learning the Chinyanja phonic sounds in the previous Teachers' Guide.

It was further noted by teachers in the focus group discussion that grade two pupils were affected by the issue of some of grade one teachers who failed to complete teaching the phonic sounds that were outlined in the Grade One Teachers Guide. For example, pupils who may not have learnt in grade one the consonant blends, diagraphs and consonant sounds stated in the left column of the illustration below may possibly find some difficulties in attempting to read the sample words on the right side if the pupils found them in English in grade two.

CONSONANT BLENDS	DIAGRAPHS	CONSONANT SOUNDS
'fl' – flee, flow	'sh' – shoes	'dz' – just, juice
'sp' – spoon, speak	'ch' – church	'r' – red, rabbit
'sm' – smoke, smell	'th' - teeth	'j' – yellow, yearn

The concern explained in the illustration above is supported by MoE (2001: 129) who writes that "in NBTL, children use the familiar language to help them build literacy skills that are unfamiliar." This being the case, the inability of the grade one teachers to complete teaching the stipulated sounds will lead to pupils failing to read well some of the words which start with some phonic sounds which were not covered in grade one.

- Grade two pupils being taught by teachers without PRP background training and also changing their teachers who taught them in grade one.

In the focus group discussion, a challenge was raised that at times, some Head teachers of basic schools gave grade one classes to teachers who may not have been trained in PRP. This challenge is indeed of concern because it affects both pupils in Grade one and those in grade two. This is so because the teacher without any form of PRP training may not be able to know what it takes to teach an NBTL/ SITE class. In this case, the teacher will not know how to structure and layout a classroom following NBTL or SITE practices; may not make walls brim with numerous examples of pupils' work and also fail to structure lessons and teaching strategies around the four ability groups. As a result of these serious inadequacies, the pupils coming out the hands of such teachers will be ill prepared and will also lack content of how to read and write both in the first and second languages of literacy.

Other than the above, it was also stated that they were times when Grade One pupils were given a new teacher as they proceeded to Grade Two probably due to staffing shortages in schools. This equally was a problem because of lack of continuity of pupils' problems in grade two. The two problems described here were also brought out in Banda (2005:83) where one informer indicated the following similar words:

The idea of using a teacher who has no idea of NBTL to teach a SITE class has added more problems to pupils when they switch to English in Grade 2. I personally favour the idea of the same NBTL teacher going to Grade 2 with the same pupils. This teacher knows the pupils very well and is able to give help to them better than this other new person who will need to start observing the pupils from zero, and by the time this teacher comes to know

individual pupils' problems, the year has ended.

5.8. SOLUTIONS TO THE TRANSITIONAL CHALLENGES

1. Problem of getting used to learning in a local language

Teachers suggested that in grade two, the grade two teachers should always ensure that they gave out more instructions in English than in Chinyanja as doing so would assist the pupils easily get used to English. Kristina et al (2008) shares the same sentiments when they write that teachers should create assessments that give learners an opportunity to present in English after they have an opportunity to practice in pairs or smaller groups.

2. Problem of pronouncing English words in Chinyanja

Over the problem where some pupils read and spelt some English words in Chinyanja instead of English, some of the solutions that were given by the teachers were that: For pupils who mispronounced English words, Grade Two teachers should be putting effort to help pupils who have been noted to have the problem in question through emphasis on correct pronunciation of the noted words. For English words that were spelt in Chinyanja, the teachers suggested that exposing them to more English supplementary story books helps them to be familiar with the written word and eventually spell English words correctly.

3 Problem of shorter period pupils learnt the language of initial literacy

The teachers proposed that the NBTL course should run up to Grade Two and later English to be introduced in Grade Three. According to them, this allows pupils to acquire sufficient

skills in Chinyanja which is a second language to Soli before English in the two schools which raised the complaint. The observation is supported by Higgins et al (2000) who write that the Zambian language policy where the local language was used only for a limited time as the medium of instruction has been described as misguided. The views are shared by Matafwali (2010) who writes that in several countries across Africa like Tanzania, Nigeria, Botswana, Mali and Kenya among others use the mother tongue up to three or four years.

4. Grade two Pupils not completing learning the Chinyanja phonic sounds stipulated in the previous Teachers' Guide.

Concerning the challenge of some grade one teachers who failed to complete teaching the phonic sounds outlined in the Grade One Teachers Guide, the teachers suggested that all grade one teachers should endeavour to complete teaching the phonic sounds and consonant clusters stipulated in the Grade one Teachers Guide for the pupils to read well in the subsequent grades. This view is supported by research which has shown that phonological abilities are critical determinants of future success at reading, (Stanovich, 1988; Torgesen, et al, 1994).

1. Grade two pupils being taught by teachers without PRP background training and also changing their teachers who taught them in grade one.

Concerning the challenge of changing teachers in Grade Two, the teachers stated that the idea disturbs pupils a lot as the new teacher, worse still, a new teacher who may not have some knowledge of PRP lessons because he or she may not know the actual problems the pupils faced in grade one. This view is shared by Tambulukani (2002) who writes that it is an agreed policy that no teacher should teach PRP courses without under – going the

appropriate training in the use of those courses.

5.9 Summary of chapter

It has been established from this chapter that when pupils moved to grade two after completing the NBTL programme, some of them faced some problems in reading. Other than merely identifying these challenges, an effort has been made to suggest solutions against each of the identified challenges.

CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

6.1. Overview. This chapter concludes the study and also makes recommendations based on the major findings of the study.

6.2. Conclusion

As earlier indicated by a statement made in chapter five of this study, this study does not work against the principles of PRP which assumes through the NBTL course that a child who breaks through to literacy in a familiar language will use those skills from the mother tongue to learn English which is the second language of literacy. If anything, a good chunk of this study's literature review has brought out reasons why the programme was introduced in schools. It is because of low reading levels. The key point for this study

however, is merely to highlight to stakeholders the psychological challenges which a pupil who starts grade two at times goes through during the language switch.

6.3. Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, the measures recommended are as follows:

- The NBTL course should be revised by the Curriculum Development Centre of the Ministry of Education so that it runs for a period of two years not just for Grade one as the case is but to continue in Grade two. Later on, English should commence in Grade Three. Doing so allows the work that is taught in the language of initial literacy to be taught in two years thereby helping pupils to understand fully the basic reading skills involved.
- Efforts should be made by Head teachers that teachers who teach Grade One classes be allowed to move with their pupils to Grade Two to complete any left-over work from the previous grade as bringing a new teacher disturbs the learning progress.
- Whilst in Grade One, teachers should aim to complete teaching the phonic sounds and consonant clusters stipulated in the NBTL Teachers' Guide, otherwise pupils would not do better in Grade Two.
- At the beginning of term one in Grade Two, Grade two teachers should ensure that they give out more instructions in English than in Chinyanja as doing so assists pupils get used to the official language of communication. However, code switching from English to Chinyanja may be minimally used just to have the message be understood by pupils but thereafter, the teacher should code switch from Chinyanja to English.

- Grade Two teachers should be putting more effort to help pupils who have been noted to have problems related to pronouncing and spelling English words in Chinyanja or vice versa through emphasis on correct pronunciation of the noted words and exposing them to more supplementary story books to help them be familiar with the written word and eventually spell words correctly.

6.4. Future Research

An area proposed for possible research is for this study to be done in a different language and locality for example, Kikaonde in Kasempa or Silozi in Sesheke for comparison to see if the findings would be similar.

REFERENCE

Anita, W. Malcom Hughes and Vivienne Walkup (2008) Psychology in Education,

Essex; Pearson Education Limited

American psychiatric association, (1994), Diagnostic and statistical manual of mental

Disorder 4th edition. Washington; D.C. Author

Arnone, R.F. and Graff, H., J. (1992). National literacy campaigns in historical and

comparative perspective: legacies, lessons, and issues. In R. F Arnone, P. G. Altbach and G.

P. Kelly (eds.). Emergency issues in education. New York; State University of New York Press

Ball E.W. and Blachman, B.A (1988) phoneme segmentation training: "Effects of reading

Readiness" annals of dyslexia, 38 208-2225

Banda D. (2012) Disabling or Empowering? A quick transition from L1 to L2 as LoL
Saarbrücken; Lambert Academic Publishing Company.

Bradley, L., and Bryant, P., (1983) 'Categorizing sounds and learning to read; a causal
Connection.' Nature 301 419 - 421

Carmody, B. (2004) The Evolution of Education in Zambia, Lusaka; Bookworld Publishers.

Catts H. (1995) The Early identification of language based disability: Language Speech and
Hearing services in schools 26, 56-76

Chikalanga, W. (1990) Inferencing in the reading process (unpublished) PHD Thesis
University of Reading.

Colodroci, P. A. (1955) Educational Psychology: A book of Readings. New York;
Dryden Press.

Collier, V.P (1995) Acquiring a second language for school: directions in language and
Education. Washington D.C

Collins, P. & Gillies, J. (2008): The Educational Quality Improvement Program 2 (EQUIP2): A
Case Study on Using Opportunity to Learn and Early Grade Reading Fluency to Measure
School Effectiveness in Nepal Washington; USAID,

Constable, P., Higgins, C. and Tambulukani, G. (2000). Step In To English. Evaluation Report,
Lusaka; MoE.

Cooter R.B (2003) Teacher capacity building helps urban children succeed in reading. The

Reading teacher, 57 (2) 198-205

Cummins, J. (1981) The role of primary language development in promoting educational

success for language minority students. Los Angeles; NDAC.

Cunningham, A.E. and Stanovich, K.E (1998) What reading does for the mind American

Educator 8- 17.

Dickinson , D.K. and Tabors, P.O. Eds.(2005) Beginning Language with Literacy.

Baltimore; Brookes Publishing.

Emmitt, M. (1999) A response to the role of phonics in learning to read: What does recent

research say fine print, 22, in press.

Frost, J. (2000). Differences in reading development among beginning readers with high

versus low entry-level of phonemic awareness. (Article submitted for publication)

Frost, R., Katz, L., & Bentin, S. (1987). Strategies for visual word recognition and

orthographical depth: a multilingual comparison. Journal of Experimental Psychology:

Human Perception and Performance, 13(1), 104-115.

Glover, J.A. and Bruning, R.H. (1987) Educational Psychology: Principles and applications.

Toronto; Brown and Company Ltd.

Gombert, J.E (1992) Metalinguistic Development. London: Hervester Wheatsheaf

Goetzinger, C. Dirks, D. & Baer C.J. (1960) " Auditory Discrimination and Visual

Perception in Good and Bad Readers." 69,121- 136.

Hempestall, K., (1994, Oct 11). 'Words should be heard and seen.' *The age*, p. 18.

Higgins, c. Tambulukani, G. And Chikalanga, I. (2000) Report on the Education of New Breakthrough to Literacy. Lusaka; MOE.

Høien, T. And Lundberg. I. (1992) Dyslexia Stockholm: Nature and Kultur

Kaani, B. (2006) Nature and prevalence of reading difficulties among school drop out; a case of selected school areas in Chipata District. Lusaka; University of Zambia.

Kalindi, S.C. (2005) The impact of the New Primary Reading Programme on the poor Readers. Lusaka; UNZA.

Karmiloff-Smith, A. (1986). From Meta-process to conscious access: evidence from metalinguistic and repair data. *Cognition*, 23, 97-147.

Kelly M.J. (2000) *The Origins and Development of Education in Zambia: From Pre Colonial Times to 1996*. Lusaka; Image Publishers Ltd.,

Kelly M.J. (2000) Reading comes first, Primary Reading Programme baseline study.

Lusaka; MOE/ DFID.

Kelly, M. And Kanyika, N. (2000) Learning Achievement at the middle Basic Level. Lusaka; ECZ

Kotze, H. and Higgins, C. (1999) Breakthrough to Icibemba Pilot project: An Evaluation. Lusaka; ministry of Education.

Kristina and Karen, F. (2008) Language acquisition: an overview <http://>

www.Colorincolorado.Org/article/26751/

Lincoln, Y. and Guba, E.G. (1985) Naturalistic Inquiry. Beverly Hill;CA Sage.

Logan, G.D. (1997) Automacity and reading perspectives from the instancy theory of automatisisation reading and writing Quarterly, 13, 123-146.

Mac Laughlin, B (1984) Second language acquisition in childhood vol. 1 Pre- school Children 2nd Ed. Hillsdale; N.J. Erlbaum.

Mackinnon, A.R (1951) How do children read? Toronto; Coop clerk

Matafwali, B. (2005) Nature and Prevalence of Reading Difficulties in Grade 3: The case study of Lusaka Province. (Unpublished) M. Ed. Thesis. Lusaka; University of

Zambia.

Matafwali, B. (2010) The role of oral language in the acquisition of early literacy skills. The Case for Zambian Languages and English. University of Zambia. Unpublished PhD Thesis.

McNemar, Q. (2008) A dictionary of statistics. London; Oxford university press.

Medwell, H.S (1973) Phonics and the teaching of reading. London; Evans brothers.

Mercer, C.D. and Mercer, A.R. (1993) Teaching students with learning problems. New jersey; prentice hall

MoE (1950) Reading ability pamphlet no. 18 London; HMSO.

MoE (1996) Educating our Future. Lusaka; ZEPH.

MoE (2000) The basic school curriculum framework. Lusaka; C.D.C

MoE (2002) Follow up to the 1999 Baseline study. Primary Reading Program. Lusaka;

Longman

MoE (2002) Step into English Literacy course Teachers' Guide. Cape Town; Cambridge

University Press.

MoE (2002) Primary Teacher's Diploma by Distance Learning Module 2 Chalimbana;

NISTCOL

MoE (2002) Zambia New Break Through to Literacy Teachers' Guide. Lusaka; Longman

Muyebaa, K, C. (1998). The Mismatch in the Zambian Language Policy. A paper presentation at the World Congress of Comparative Education Societies. Cape Town; 12-17 July 1998.

Mwanakatwe, J. (1968) The growth of education in Zambia. London; Oxford University

Press

Nkamba, M. And Kanyika, J. (1998) The Quality of education: some policy suggestions based on a survey of schools (SACMEQ policy research report no 5). Paris; International institution for education planning.

Oka, E. And Paris, S. (1996) Patterns of motivation and reading skills in underachieving Children. Hillsdale; N.J. Erlbaum.

Patton, M.Q. (1990) Quantitative evaluation and research method 2nd Ed. New bury park;

C.A Sage

Rayner , K. Foorman, B.R., Perfertti, C.A. & Seidenberg, M.S. (2001) How Psychological Science Informs the teaching of Reading. American Society.

Sampa, F.K. (2005) Zambia's Primary Reading Programme: 'Improving Access and Quality Education in Basic Schools' African Experiences; Country Case Studies, Ministry of Education – Zambia and Association for the Development of Education in Africa (ADEA).

Scarborough, H.S. (1990). Very early language deficits in dyslexic children. Child Development, 61, 1728–1743. Journal compilation @ 2007 Association for Child and Adolescent Mental Health.

Snow, C.E.; Burns, M.S. and Griffin, P. (1988) Preventing reading abilities in Young Children. Washington: D.C; National Research Council Academy Press.

Stanovich, K.E, Cunningham, A.E & Freeman ,D.J (1984) 'Assessing Phonological Awareness in Kindergarten children: Issues of Task Compatibility.'

Journal of Experimental Child Psychology, 38. 175 – 190.

Stanovich, K.E (1988) 'The Right and Wrong places to Look for the Cognitive Locus of Reading Disability.' Annals of Dyslexia, 38. 154 – 157.

Serpell (1978) Some development in Zambia since 1971 in S. Ohannessian and M.E

Sampa, F.K (2003) Zambia's Primary Reading Programme (PRP): Improving access and quality education Zambia and Association for the Development of Education in Africa. ADEA.

Sharma, L. (1973) The reading skills of grade 3 children (mimeo) psychological service

report 2/1973. Lusaka; Ministry of Education. Thompson.

Tambulukani G. (2002) The Primary Reading Programme: The Zambia experience of going to scale " in reading out reading all- sustaining effective policy and practice for education in Africa. ADEA.

Thompson, G. B. and Nicholson, T. (1998) Learning to read Beyond Phonics and whole Language, New York; Teachers College Press.

Torgesen, J.K., Wagner, R.K. (1987) "The Nature of Phonological Processing and its Causal Role in the Acquisition of Reading Skills." American Psychological Association, 101, 192 – 212.

Vygotsky, L.S. (1979) Mind in Society: The Development of Psychological Processes Cambridge; Harvard University Press.

Wagner, R. K. and Torgesen. J.K. (1987) , The Nature of Phonological Processing and its causal.

William, E. (1993) Report on reading in English in primary schools in Zambia.

Research project no 4770. ODA.

William, E. (1996) Reading in two languages at Year five in African schools applied linguistics, 17, 2 pp. 182- 2009.

Wolf, M. (1994) "Naming, Reading and the Dyslexics: A Longitudinal Overview.", Annals of Dylexia.34, 87 – 115.

Wong, B (1998) Learning disabilities. San Diego; Academic press.

Ziegler, J. C., & Goswami, U. (2005). Reading acquisition, developmental dyslexia, and skilled reading across languages: A psycholinguistic grain size theory. Psychological Bulletin, 131(1), role in the Acquisition of Reading Skills. Psychological Bulletin. 101, Pages 192- 212.

APPENDIX 1

WORD READING TEST IN CHINYANJA

SCHOOL:

EXAMINER:

s/	Pupi	Bola	Deles	Desik	pot	supun	Lula	sop	tebul	sukul	pensul
n	Is		i	i	o	i		o	o	u	o

APPENDIX 3

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

Dear respondent,

I am Masters in education psychology student doing research in step into English, a literacy course in grade 2. You have been selected to participate in this which is part of my studies. This questionnaire is intended to collect information about the extent to which the initial language of instruction affects basic reading skills for grade 2 learners. You may rest be assured that the information you will give will treated with HIGHEST DEGREE OF CONFIDETIALLITY and that it will be used for academic purposes only.

The questionnaire given to you is designed in such a way that certain questions will need you to tick in the appropriate boxes provided while others will need you to write brief responses.

1. Which class do you teach year?
 - A. Grade 2 []
 - B. None grade two class []
2. As far as you can remember, how many times have you taught site in Grade Two?
 - A. Once []
 - B. Twice []
 - C. Thrice []
 - D. Four times and above []
3. Do some pupils in grade two face some challenges during the transition between the first and second languages of initial literacy that affect their basic reading skills?
 - A. Yes []
 - B. No []
4. How do you rate the challenges which second graders face during the transition between the first and second languages of initial literacy that affect their basic

reading skills?

A. Major []

B. Moderate []

C. Minor []

D. Non - existent []

APPENDIX 4

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

FOCUS GROUP DISCUSS (FDG) WITH GRADE TWO TEACHERS

1. Outline at least five challenges that affect pupils' reading skill in grade two during the transition between the first and second languages of initial literacy.

- a.
.....
.....

.....

.....

b.

.....

.....

.....

.....

c.

.....

.....

.....

.....

d.

.....

.....

.....

.....

e.

.....

.....

.....

.....

2. For each of the following challenges outlined above, suggest any five ways in which

they can be solved.

a.

.....

.....

.....

.....

b.

.....

.....

.....

.....

c.

.....

.....

.....

.....

d.

.....

.....

.....

.....

e.

.....

.....

.....
.....
.....
.....