

**DEMOCRATISATION OF THE CLASSROOM: AN ANALYSIS OF
TEACHERS' LANGUAGE PRACTICES IN SELECTED MULTILINGUAL
CLASSROOMS OF CHIBOMBO DISTRICT**

BY

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**A Dissertation submitted to the University of Zambia in partial fulfilment of the requirements
for the award of the Degree of Masters of Education in Applied Linguistics**

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DECLARATION

I, Vigirio BWALYA do hereby declare that this study entitled, *“Democratisation of the Classroom: An analysis of Teachers’ Language Practices in Selected Multilingual Classrooms of Chibombo District”* is my own piece of work, that all resources used or quoted have been acknowledged by means of complete references and that neither I nor anyone at this University nor any other Educational Institution submitted this study for degree purposes.

Signature of author Date.....

Signature of SupervisorDate.....

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APPROVAL

The University of Zambia approves the dissertation by Vigirio BWALYA as a fulfilling part of the requirements for the reward of the degree of Master of Education in Applied Linguistic.

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ABSTRACT

Considering that Zambia is a multilingual country and that all the classrooms are multilingual while the current Language in Education Policy only mentions English as the language of instruction from grade five onwards, it was imperative to study the sociolinguistic situation of the grade 6 classrooms of Chibombo district and their corresponding teachers' classroom language practices. Thus, the aim of the study was to analyse teachers' language practices in the grade 6 multilingual classrooms of Chibombo District and to determine whether these language practices were democratic or not. The study was guided by four objectives namely: to establish the sociolinguistic composition of the classrooms; to analyse teachers' language practices in selected grade six classrooms; to establish attitudes of teachers towards informal language varieties; and to find out the challenges teachers faced in teaching selected grade six multilingual classes under the new revised Language in Education Policy.

The study utilised the sequential explanatory research design; a mixed methods approach that involves the collection and analysis of quantitative data first and then qualitative data. Cluster random, simple random and purposive sampling techniques were used to come up with 260 respondents of which 60 were grade 6 teachers and 200 were grade 6 pupils. Data were collected using questionnaires, interviews and classroom observations of lessons. Triangulation of data provided detailed information on the multilingual nature of the classrooms, teachers' and learners' language practices in the classroom, teachers' language attitudes towards informal languages and the challenges teachers face when teaching in multilingual classrooms. Quantitative data were analysed using the SPSS software programme to get the frequencies and percentages while qualitative data were analysed thematically according to research objectives.

The findings of the study showed that the grade 6 classrooms of Chibombo District were multilingual as teachers and learners were able to speak more than one language. The main spoken languages in the schools were Nyanja (22.5 percent of the learners and 15 percent of the teachers), Bemba (23 percent of the learners and 40 percent of the teachers), Lenje (29 percent of the learners and 4 percent of the teachers), Tonga (16 percent of the learners and 23.3 percent of the teachers). The findings also showed that while some teachers democratised their classrooms through the adoption of translanguaging as a pedagogical language practice, others insisted on monolingual language practices which resulted in symbolic violence. The study further revealed that teachers had communication challenges when using English to teach learners from different linguistic background. Lastly, the study concluded that teachers' language practices did not fully democratise the classroom due to semi-translanguaging.

The recommendations were that the Government through the Curriculum Development Center should (a) revise the Language in Education Policy to match the linguistic composition of the classrooms by developing a Dual-language or Dynamic Bilingual Education System instead of the current Transition Bilingual Education, (b) legitimise translanguaging, and (c) consider preparing and conducting grade 7 exams in two or more languages.

Keywords: Democratisation, Multilingual Classroom, translanguaging, Chibombo District, Zambia

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DEDICATION

This dissertation on “Democratisation of the classroom: An analysis of teachers’ language practices in selected multilingual classrooms of Chibombo” is dedicated to my parents; my late father Valentine Bwalya Chikunyu and my mother Sofia Kazembe. They both had an experience of democratised classrooms that recognised the linguistic rights and diversity of the learners as they received lessons in their mother tongue. It is for this reason that my father and mother who only went up to standard one and Sub B respectively were able to read for us stories from the Bible. My mother explained to me the history of Bilingual Education in Zambia and how they learnt subjects like Maths in their mother tongue. Last year (2018), she narrated to me how teachers used to teach them Maths in Bemba; “*ati inshita shimoshimo baletupela amepusho (questions) ayapala ati ingombe ngashili 20 (amakumi yabili), bushe amasengo yashiko kuti yaba yanga?* (Sometimes they used to give us questions such as “Given there are 20 cows, how many horns these cows would have?). When I asked her to give me the answer, she rightly exclaimed, “*Bushe te 40!* (Is it not 40 = amakumi yane). She is really an inspiration behind this study on the democratisation of the classroom through the use of learners’ full linguistic repertoire for meaning making.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CDA	–	Critical Discourse Analysis
CDC	–	Curriculum Development Centre
CLT	–	Communicative Language Teaching
CSO	–	Central Statistical Office
DEBS	-	District Education Board Secretary
EGLP	-	Grade Literacy Programme
LEP	–	Language in Education Policy
MoE	–	Ministry of Education
MoGE	-	Ministry of General Education
NBTL	-	New Breakthrough To Literacy
PLP	-	Primary Literacy Programme
PRP	-	Primary Reading Programme
ROC	-	Read on Course
RTS	–	Read To Succeed
SITE	-	Step In To English
UNESCO	-	United Nations Scientific and Cultural Organization.
UNZA	-	University of Zambia WEF – World Education Forum

OPERATIONAL DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Additive multilingual: an education model which uses and aims at promoting 2 or more languages.

Democratic language practices: the use of multiple languages in the classroom for epistemic access.

Familiar Language: a language commonly used by an individual or a speech community.

Home literacy: includes languages and all that children learn at home.

Language of play: a language spoken by the majority children in a locality during play time.

Language attitudes: the favourable/unfavourable feelings or opinions people have towards languages.

Lower Primary: level of education system from Grade 1 to Grade 4.

Medium/media of instruction: a chosen official language(s) used in teaching and learning.

Monolingual Education: the practice of using only one language for classroom instructions.

Mother Tongue: the first language a child acquires in the first three years and is competent in.

Multilingual classroom: a classroom consisting of pupils from different linguistic background.

Multilingual Education: the practice of using 2 or more languages for classroom instructions.

Multiple language practices: the use of several languages for classroom instruction.

Pedagogical language practices: classroom language practices such as code switching and translation

School language: the official and standardised language used for classroom instructions.

Subtractive multilingual: an education model wherein only the official language is important.

Translanguaging: the utilisation of the full linguistic repertoire of the learners through alternation.

Undemocratic language practices: the use of one language in a multilingual classroom for epistemic access.

Upper Primary: level of education system from Grade 5 to Grade 7.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1. Overview

This chapter introduces the research study on the democratisation of multilingual classrooms of Chibombo District in relation to teachers' language practices. Presented in the background is the sociolinguistic of Zambia and the Language in Education Policy in relation to principles of Democratisation of the classroom. Thereafter, the chapter presents the problem under investigation, the purpose and objectives of the study as well as the specific questions through which the objectives are addressed. Subsequently, presented are the significance of the study, delimitations and limitations.

1.2. Background

Since the present study is about democratisation of a multilingual classroom with regard to teachers' language practices, it is imperative to briefly explain what multilingualism, democratisation of the classroom and a multilingual classroom are. Multilingualism refers to the presence and use of many languages in a given community (Simwinga, 2006). Gal (2007) defined multilingualism as the use of more than one language by an individual person or community. With regard to a multilingual classroom, it implies the presence of two or more languages in the classroom (Garcia, 2009). It follows then that a multilingual classroom constitutes language varieties spoken by individual learners and teachers from different speech communities. Thus, democratisation of the classroom as used in this study means the use of language varieties inherent in a multilingual classroom.

Zambia is a multi-ethnic and a multilingual country. It is multi-ethnic in the sense that there are 73 ethnic groupings and multilingual because of the 73 ethnic groups that are widely claimed as languages spoken in Zambia (Kashoki, 1978). However the exact number of languages and dialects spoken in the country is contested on many fronts. Kashoki's (1978) view that the 73 tribes are widely claimed as languages spoken in Zambia is shared by Africa (1980: 127-128) when he argued that "if the term tribe is seen as being coterminous with the notion of language or dialect, then the frequently articulated claim that Zambia has 73 languages and dialects is understandable." In trying to estimate the number of languages in Zambia, UNESCO (1964) gave the range of 50 to 100 vernacular languages whereas Grotperter (1979) stated that there are 30 distinct languages in Zambia. Mwanza (2016: 39)

clarified the number of languages and dialects present in the country when he stated that “Zambia has 73 dialects which can be collapsed into between 25 and 40 mutually intelligible languages.” The 2000 census narrowed the number to 22 different languages (Rebekah, 2014). Despite the disparities in the number of languages spoken in Zambia, the multilingual state of the country remains undisputed.

Central Province and Chibombo District in particular where this study was carried out is also multi-ethnic and multilingual as the 2010 Census revealed that Central Province is home to “Bemba at 31.8 percent, Lala at 17.3 percent Tonga at 15.5 percent, Lenje at 10.4 percent, Nyanja 8.9 percent, and English is at 0.8 percent” (CSO, 2010: 68). Even though the Census did not show the exact number of languages spoken in the District, it was assumed that there are multilingual individual persons and multilingual speech communities speaking languages such as Bemba, Nyanja, Tonga and Lenje as the district borders Lusaka (Nyanja is dominant), Mumbwa (home to Tonga and Lenje), Kabwe urban (predominantly Bemba) and Kabwe rural (predominantly Tonga). It was on the basis of this assumption that this study was carried out in Chibombo district.

Language Policy and Language in Education Policy

Language Policy is a government’s official statement regarding the use of languages that stipulates who should use what language when, where and for what purpose (Simwinga, 2006). In reference to Language in Education Policy, the current Language Policy in Zambia states that “English is the Official language whereas a language, other than English, may be used as a medium of instruction in educational institutions or for legislative, administrative or judicial purposes, as prescribed” (Amended Constitution, 2016: 103). Thus, Language in Education Policy stems from Language Policy and can be understood as a linguistic plan by the Government to outline the process of language practices through which the ideals, goals, and contents of a Language Policy can be realized in the classroom.

The history of the Language in Education Policy that ushered in bilingual education in Zambia is a long one and has taken different forms over time. This can be traced back to the Missionary early years (1800s) in Zambia when they used local languages in schools as media of instructions at least up to the fourth grade. Commenting on the missionaries’ use of local languages, Manchishi (2004:1) notes:

...the drive for evangelism proved extremely successful because the missionaries used local languages. The Bible and other Christian literature

were translated into local languages. People chanted hymns in the language they understood best i.e. their own local languages, and even in the schools, the medium of instruction was in their own local languages at least up to the fourth grade.

But the 1928 Phelps Stoke Commission Report which recommended the use of four local languages from grade 1 to 4 and thereafter English stands out as the first and a more formalised Language in Education Policy in Zambia (Simwinga, 2006) as shown in the excerpt below:

....the advisory Board on Native Education has agreed to the adoption of four principal native languages in this territory for school purposes namely Sikololo (Lozi) for Barotseland; Chitonga-chila for the rest of North Western Rhodesia; Chibemba for North Eastern Rhodesia; and Chinyanja for Eastern Rhodesia (Annual Report on Native Education, 1927: 12)

The Board further made a recommendation that the teaching of English should be introduced after the skill of reading and writing had been taught in the mother language (Manchishi, 2004). Even though the declaration gave legal status and appears to acknowledge the importance of local languages in education, it also inadvertently promoted English above indigenous languages by pronouncing it the official language of government and business, and education generally, especially after grade 4 (Simwinga, 2006). Besides, the zoning of languages was arbitrary in the sense that it did not reflect the multilingual contexts in the different geographical locations (Mwanza, 2016). As Simwinga (ibid) observed, the implementation of language policy in 1953 created the problem of a three tier language policy. He added that it was not uncommon for a pupil to be taught in a less dominant mother tongue for the first two years of primary education. Thereafter, the pupil would be taught in the more dominant regional official language for another two years and then in English from the fifth year onwards (Kashoki 1978; Chanda, 1998). This scenario was the beginning of the situation in which African languages were being relegated to early literacies before learners are channelled to English medium giving the ideological basis that these languages cannot cope with advanced and specialist content (Banda and Mwanza, 2017).

The aforementioned kind of education whereby pupils are taught in a less dominant mother tongue for the first two years and thereafter in a more dominant language before graduating to English only, is referred to as bilingual education; and this type of bilingual education practised at that time is known as transitional bilingual education as stated by Ansre (1972:

12) that “instruction through a local language was invariably seen as a transitional phase prior to instruction in English.” According to Garcia (2009), this type of bilingual education has a monoglossic ideology that favours the development of one language; often the official dominant language whereas the unofficial languages are only used for mastering the dominant language. However, by stating the use of the mother tongue in the first two years and then regional vernacular languages in third and fourth year, the Language in Education Policy at that time confirmed and recognised the multilingual nature of the country and classrooms.

Another notable language in Education Policy was the 1966 Language Act which stipulated the use of English only from grade one to University. The 1966 Language Act stated that

“the English language shall be used as the medium of instruction in all schools....unless the Minister otherwise directs, in any particular case, the vernacular language or languages be used as the medium of instruction in grades 1, 2, 3, and 4 at that school” (Education Act, 1966:69). Apart from that, the government designated seven Zambian Languages namely Bemba, Kaonde, Lunda, Luvale, Lozi, Nyanja and Tonga as regional languages that should be taught as school subjects (Manchishi, 2004). The 1966 Language act was as a result of the 1964 UNESCO report which recommended that “the medium of instruction should be English, from the beginning of schooling” (UNESCO, 1964: 105) cited in Linehan, (2004: 2).

It must be mentioned here that the language policy has been a problem issue in Zambia since independence. There are several reasons that account for this, with multilingualism and multiethnicity as the most decisive ones. Multilingualism was one of the main factors that persuaded the government to adopt English as Zambia’s official language; there was fear that the choice of one language over another might promote ethno-linguistic rivalry and be a recipe for divisions across the country. It was therefore assumed that the use of a neutral, non-indigenous language as the official language would foster national unity (Mwanakatwe, 1968). The idea of choosing a neutral language to evade linguistic rivalry showed how the government viewed multilingualism as divisive and not as a resource that could be harnessed for socio-economic development of the country. Therefore, local languages were viewed not as resources but as problems.

The low literacy levels that were as a result of 1966 English medium only Language in Education Policy were highlighted both in the 1977 Education Reform document and in the

1992 Focus on Learning Document. In the 1977 Education Reforms, the Government recognised the benefits of initial literacy learning in a mother tongue as opposed to learning in English but found the situation impracticable when it stated that “Although it is generally accepted by educationists that learning is best done in the mother tongue, this situation has been found to be impracticable in the case of every child in multilingual societies such as Zambia” (GRZ, 1977: 32). Again, local languages were viewed as problems and not as resources to be harnessed for epistemic access for the learners. Despite having acknowledged the weaknesses of using English as a sole language of classroom instruction, the 1977 education reforms recommended the continued use of English as language of education. Once more, the supremacy and dominance of English was upheld as local languages were only taught as subjects from grade one to University.

The low literacy levels got worsened by 1992 as observed by Simwinga (2006) that by 1992 it had become increasingly clear that the use of English as a language of instruction was not working well particularly at lower primary school level. It was the same view held by the government at that time when it stated that “To early an emphasis on learning through English means that the majority of children form hazy and indistinct concepts in language, mathematics, science and social studies” (MOE, 1992: 27-28). With this weakness in consideration, the 1992 policy document recommended that the Ministry of Education (MoE) should institute a review of the primary school curriculum in order to establish the main local languages as the basic languages of instruction from grades one to four. The 1992 recommendation provided the teacher with greater freedom to determine the main local language to be used as language of instruction. The 1992 recommendations were an attempt to democratise the classroom through the use of languages that learners were familiar with.

The other important Language in Education Policy document that was aimed at correcting the shortcomings of the 1966 Act stated in the 1977 Education Reforms and the 1992 Focus on Learning documents is the 1996 Educating Our Future policy. Thus, it stated “there is strong evidence that children learn literacy skills more easily and successfully through their mothertongue, and subsequently they are able to transfer these skills quickly and with ease to English or another language. It also states that “In order to foster better initial learning, to enhance the status of Zambian languages, and to integrate the school more meaningfully into the life of local communities, each child will be required to take a local language from grade one onwards.” It adds that “all pupils will be given an opportunity to learn initial basic skills of reading and writing in a local language; whereas English will remain the official medium

of instruction” (MOE, 1996:39-40). From the foregoing, the 1996 policy document (Educating Our Future) also retained the use of English as official language of classroom instruction but, in addition, recommended the employment of familiar languages to teach initial literacy in grade one. The 1996 language policy was also aimed at the use of multiple languages in the classroom especially the use of familiar languages for learners, thereby democratising the classroom through language practices.

The recommendations of the 1996 Language in Education Policy were implemented through the Primary Reading Program (PRP) that officially started in 1999 with its three components namely New Break Through to Literacy (NBTL), Step In To English (SITE) and Read On Course (Roc) (Constable et al, 2000; 2001; MOE, 1998). The NBTL program of 1998 acted as the first level of initial literacy learning through the familiar language and was followed by Step In to English (SITE) course in Grade 2 meant to build up from NBTL by transferring literacy skills from the Zambian language to English (Tambulukani, 2015). The third and final component of PRP was ROC (Read On Course), a grade three (3) to seven (7) program meant to consolidate reading skills acquired in the local familiar Zambian language and in English through NBTL and SITE respectively (Tambulukani, 2015).

The New Break Through to Literacy programme (NBTL) started in 1998 as a pilot study in Mungwi and Kasama districts of Northern Province of Zambia. The study involved an experiment of using a familiar language as a medium of instruction in grade one to teach literacy. The results showed that pupils were able to read by the end of grade one and that, the level of reading for grade two pupils was equivalent to grade four pupils who had undergone the English medium. As a result, the project was scaled up to all schools in Zambia under the programme titled “Primary Reading Programme (PRP)” (Manchishi and Chishiba, 2014).

In spite of the attempts in trying to democratise the classroom through the use of learners familiar languages made under the Primary Reading Program through NBTL, SITE and ROC, the literacy levels were reportedly to have fallen to as low as 33 percent (MoE: 2008, 2010, 2012). The Ministry of Education (2013: 30) noted that the previous programmes had not yielded the desired results when it stated that “The inability by learners to learn content subjects is because many of them are not able to read and write” It is for this reason that the Ministry of Education reviewed the approach to come up with a new approach called Early

Grade Literacy Programme (EGLP). It is from this background that the government through the Ministry of Education’s Zambia Education Curriculum Framework 2013 prescribed another policy which strengthened the use of local languages as the media of instruction in

respective locations from pre-school to grade 4. The current Language in Education Policy states as follows:

The policy on education recognises the use of familiar Zambian languages as the official languages of instruction in the Pre-Schools and early Grades (Grades 1-4).... In Zambia, the seven (7) zone languages; Cinyanja, Chitonga, Icibemba, Kiikaonde, Lunda, Luvale and Silozi as well as the widely used community languages in specific school catchment areas will be used for this purpose..... English will be offered as a subject, beginning at Grade 2..... English will still remain as the official medium of instruction beginning at Grade 5 up to tertiary. (The Zambia Education Curriculum Framework, 2013: 19)

The policy gives room for multiple language practices in the lower primary school when it stated that “the seven (7) zone languages.....as well as the widely used community languages in specific school catchment areas will be used for this purpose” (ibid). But in the upper primary, the policy states that “English will still remain as the official medium of instruction beginning at Grade 5 up to tertiary” (ibid). Therefore, teachers’ language practices in the upper primary have to be investigated to ascertain if they enhance or hinder the democratisation of the classrooms.

The foregoing Language in Education Policy which favours the use of local familiar languages for initial literacy learning in lower primary schools is viewed in this study as an attempt at the democratisation of the classroom whereas the use of English only starting at grade five is viewed in this study as an act that is undemocratic.

From the foregoing, considering the argument that the classrooms of Chibombo District are multilingual and that the current Language in Education Policy only mentions English as language of instruction from grade five onwards, it was imperative to study the sociolinguistic situation of the grade 6 classrooms of Chibombo District and their corresponding teachers’ language practices and further establish whether or not the language practices promoted epistemic access in the sampled multilingual classrooms.

1.3. Statement of the problem

The language in education policy in Zambia is that Zambian languages are used as media of instruction from pre-school to grade 4 while English is the medium of classroom instruction from grade 5 onwards. The study by Munakampe (2009) found that pupils at grade 5 in Zambia normally have problems with proficiency in English even when they are expected to have already broken through to literacy. In Munakampe’s study, most of the grade 5 pupils

could not participate in communicative activities through English medium. Thus, the research problem here is that it is not known what language practices are adopted or used in grade 6 multilingual classrooms of Chibombo District to ensure epistemic access to all pupils regardless of their level of proficiency in English which is the official language.

1.4. Purpose of the study

The aim of the study was to analyse teachers' language practices in the grade 6 multilingual classrooms of Chibombo District and to determine whether these language practices are democratic or not.

1.5. Objectives

The specific objectives are:

- a) To establish the sociolinguistic composition of the classrooms.
- b) To analyse teachers' language practices in selected grade six classrooms of Chibombo district.
- c) To establish attitudes of teachers towards informal language varieties present in the classroom.
- d) To find out the challenges teachers face in teaching selected grade six classrooms of Chibombo district under the new revised Language in Education Policy.

1.6. Research questions

- a) What is the sociolinguistic composition of the classrooms?
- b) What are teachers' language practices in the selected grade six classrooms of Chibombo district?
- c) What are the attitudes of teachers towards informal language varieties present in the classroom?
- d) What challenges do teachers face in teaching selected grade six classrooms of Chibombo district under the new revised Language in Education Policy?

1.7. Significance of the study

The present study is significant as it will add to the body of knowledge an important literature in the area of multilingual Education in Zambia. The significance of this study also lies in the findings that may enable policy makers and teacher training colleges match their programmes

with those of multilingual classrooms. In addition, the findings may help language planners and policy makers to make policies that are responsive to the multilingual nature of the classrooms in specific context. Lastly, it is hoped that the findings of this study may arouse the interest and the debate on the production of learning and teaching materials and the setting of exams in primary schools that will match with the multilingual Zambian schools and classrooms.

1.8. Delimitation of the study

This study was restricted to Chibombo District in Central Province. It targeted grade six primary school teachers and learners in selected grade 6 primary schools of Chibombo District. Schools were selected by the researcher according to Zonal areas to ensure that a wide and representative sample of primary schools for the district was selected.

1.9. Limitations of the study

The study was done in Chibombo District whose sociolinguistic composition is unique to any other district in Zambia. Thus, the findings cannot be generalized to other districts.

1.10. Summary of the chapter

The first chapter has provided the background to Zambia's sociolinguistic context in particular that of Chibombo district, the historical background of the Language in Education Policy and the concept of Democracy central to the study. The salient points brought to the fore are the "democratic language practices" and the "undemocratic language practices" which constitute the pedagogical language practices through the use of one or more languages in multilingual classroom. The chapter also discussed among other items statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objectives, research questions, significance of the study, delimitation and limitations of the study.

1.11 Organisation of the dissertation

Chapter One introduces the study. It begins with the background which leads to statement of the problem, purpose of the study, research objective, and questions, significance of the study, delimitation, limitation and summary of the chapter.

The second chapter presents the review of related literature the structure of the review has been done according to research objective as well as others important areas.

The third Chapter is the theoretical and conceptual framework. This chapter explains the theories and concept which frame this study and analysis of findings.

The fourth Chapter is on methodology. This chapter presents the design chosen, population, sample size, sampling technique, methods of data collection, and methods of data analysis as well as ethical considerations.

The fifth Chapter is presentation of findings. The findings are presented according to research objective. This is followed by the sixth chapter on data analysis. Finally, chapter seven comprises and recommendation.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Overview

This chapter presents the literature review focusing on the studies done in Zambia, within Africa and outside Africa. Included also in the literature review are studies that are related to the theories and concepts discussed in the conceptual and theoretical framework where the monoglossic, diglossic and heteroglossic ideologies are reflected. The chapter begins by explaining what multilingual Education is followed by language practices in a multilingual classroom, teachers' language attitudes towards informal languages and the linguistic challenges faced by both teachers and learners in multilingual classroom. The chapter ends with a summary.

2.2. Bilingual Education

In a broad way, bilingual education is understood as the use of more than one language for classroom instructions as Anderson and Boyer (1978) observed when they defined bilingual education as the use of two or more languages as media of instruction in subjects other than the languages themselves. Similarly, Baker (2001) defined bilingual education as education in more than one language which may also include more than two languages. Garcia (2009: 9) on the other hand perceived bilingual education as "an instance in which learners and teachers employ language practices that involve the use of multiple languages to ensure that the learners get the best from these practices." There are many types of bilingual education programs, but this study discusses only Transition, Immersion and Dynamic bilingual education programs because of their relatedness to the study.

Transition bilingual programs according to Garcia (2009) started in the 20th Century in the USA. In this educational program, languages are viewed as separate and therefore can never be mixed. It is because of this view that only the child's first language is used for initial literacy learning while English or the official language of the state is taught as a second language. When the learners are deemed proficient enough to follow lessons in English, they are transitioned to an English only program or any other Official language of the country as medium of instruction. Transition bilingual education follows a subtractive bilingual model

(Garcia, 2009). What this means is that the mother tongue is subtracted from the learner while the learner's second language is promoted; $L1 + L2 - L1 = L2$. Thus, transitional bilingual

has a monoglossic ideology aimed at promoting only one language, and according to Cummin (1979), this type of bilingual education model has negative cognitive effects on the learners.

The Zambian Language in Education Policy is understood to be Transitional whereby initial literacy for 4 years is done in the familiar local language as English is taught as a subject starting at grade 2. Later, from grade 5 onwards, the English language takes prominence while the local language is discontinued. The foregoing stated monoglossic ideology that constitute transitional bilingual education in Zambia is affirmed by Mwanza (2016) when in reference to grade 11 teachers, stated that teachers held monolingual ideologies in which they used English exclusively during classroom interaction. In this instance, the exclusive use of English was done in spite of the learners' low proficiency levels in English. Garcia (2009) also argued that transitional bilingual education is nothing but a monolingual education program as it starts with one language and ends in and with one language.

Another bilingual education program stated above is Immersion. It also started in the 20th century, but in Quebec Canada (Garcia, 2009). Immersion programs are divided in to three types namely total Immersion in which almost 100 percent of the first years of instructions are in the target (L2) language; partial immersion with varying emphasis placed on the target language; and two-way immersion in which instructions are in two languages (Pacific Policy Research Center, 2010). Unlike the Transitional model that is purely subtractive, some immersion programs are additive bilingualism; meaning that the second language is added without any loss to the first one; $L1 + L2 = L1 + L2$ (Garcia & Guevara, 2010). For instance, when immersion is used with majority English speakers learning French in Canada, immersion bilingual education is generally pluralistic and promotes additive bilingualism. However, when minority language speakers are immersed in the majority language, the goal is frequently assimilationist and results in subtractive bilingualism (Roberts, 1995). Even though Immersion programs that are additive bilingual are cognitively advantageous to the learner (Cummins, 1979) because of their diglossic ideology that aims at promoting both home and school languages, they do not promote the use of multiple languages in the classroom. It is for this reason that Garcia (2009) referred to dual-language additive bilingualism as double monolingualism. In a multilingual classroom therefore, dual-language additive bilingual education does not fully enhance the democratisation of the classroom through multiple language practices.

The other bilingual education program stated above is the 21st century Dynamic Bilingual education program proposed by Garcia and Guevara (2010). Dynamic bilingualism has much

to do with how the Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe (2000) has defined the concept of plurilingualism as the ability to use several languages to varying degrees and for the distinct purposes as well as an educational value that is the basis of linguistic tolerance (Garcia & Guevara, 2010). Dynamic bilingualism therefore refers to the different multiple language practices that enable multilingual individuals to communicate in multilingual environments. Unlike transitional bilingualism which is monoglossic and Immersion bilingualism which is diglossic, dynamic bilingualism is heteroglossic because here languages are viewed as hybrid, fluid and permeable and that dynamic bilingualism aims at promoting multiple language practices in the classroom. Since dynamic bilingual education applies the use of multiple languages for classroom instructions, it can as well be referred to as Democratic multilingual education. It is these multiple language practices in the classroom that are referred to in this study as democratic language practices. The pedagogical language practice that constitutes dynamic bilingual education is translanguaging (Garcia, 2009, 2014).

Bilingual Education has both proponents and opponents. One major argument against bilingual education has been that it does not develop English rapidly enough because of its emphasis on the native language. However, this argument has been overwhelmingly rejected based on the research findings which have revealed that a strong native language foundation acts as a support in the learning of the second language, making it easier and faster; and that most of the learning that goes on in the native language readily transfers to the second language (Cummins, 1981; Garcia, 2009).

Another argument held against bilingual education for minority children is that bilingualism confuses the mind and retards cognitive development. However, current research shows that there is no such thing as retardation caused by bilingualism. If anything, the development of a second language can have positive effects on thinking skills as Cummins (1976) postulated in his threshold theory. Cummins hypothesis has been tested and proved right by some researchers like by Ricciardelli (1992, 1993). Ricciardelli (1992, 1993) conducted two studies to determine the influence of bilingualism on the children's cognitive abilities and creativity. The first study had 57 Italian-English bilingual and 55 English monolingual children aged five to six. The study showed that bilingual children proficient both in Italian and English languages significantly performed better than children who were proficient only in English. The second study was conducted in Rome with 35 Italian-English bilingual and 35 Italian monolingual children aged five and six. Similarly, bilingual children proficient in both Italian and English out-performed their monolingual counterparts proficient only in Italian language

on word reading. The result overwhelmingly revealed high cognitive achievement by bilingual children over monolingual children. Although the above study proved that bilingual learners were able to perform better than monolingual learners, it differs objectively with the present study as the aim of this study was not to compare monolingual learners to bilingual learners but to analysis teachers' language practices in multilingual classrooms.

The study done by Pearl and Lambert (1962) also revealed similar results. Pearl and Lambert (ibid) studied the effects of bilingualism on the intellectual functioning of 10 year-old children from six Montreal schools. They found that instead of suffering from "mental confusion" bilinguals were profiting from a language asset. They concluded that "intellectually, the bilinguals" experience with two language systems seemed to have left them with a mental flexibility, superiority in concept formation, and a more diversified set of mental abilities, in the sense that the patterns of abilities developed by bilinguals were more heterogeneous" (Pearl and Lambert 1962:20). Again, the study by Pearl and Lambert differs from the present study as it aimed at analysing teachers' language practices and not to compare the intellectual performances between bilingual learners and monolingual learners.

Another study that revealed positive cognitive advantages of bilingual learners over monolingual learners was the one done by Wayne and Collier (2002) in Houston, Texas, Independent School District. In this study, native English speakers who had been in the twoway dual-language programs for four years scored between 63 percent and 70 percent in total reading scores on the Stanford 9, whereas the scores of native English speakers in monolingual schools hovered around 50 percent. These native English speakers in the duallanguage classroom, not only scored higher than their monolingually educated peers, but they also acquired a second language for their lifelong use at no cost to their first language. All the foregoing learning success outcomes were as a result of democratised learning environment through the use of learners' full linguistic repertoires which this study aims to promote.

In relation to semantic development, the study conducted by Ianco-Worrall (1972) cited in Setati, (1998: 9) in which he studied Afrikaans-English bilingual children aged 4 to 9 years in South Africa showed that bilinguals reached a stage in semantic development two or three years earlier than their monolingual peers. The study showed that bilingual children analysed language more intensively than monolinguals did. The afore-mentioned study on bilingual education revealed positive cognitive advantages for bilingual learners because the studied

schools and classrooms used the type of bilingual education system that follows a diglossic or heteroglossic ideology that is additive and which favour and promote the use of two or more languages for classroom instructions. However, the present study was done in Zambia where a transitional bilingual education program which is a subtractive model is practised, and thus, the findings above may not be the same with the present study.

The study in Zambia by Munakampe (2009) in which among other aims she wanted to find out the presence of real life communication and pupils response during English lessons, revealed the negative effects of a subtractive bilingual education system on learners. The study was done among grade five learners with the hope that they were already proficient enough in English to follow a Communicative Language Teaching Approach. The findings showed the lack of communicative activities in the classrooms and that pupils displayed little activity during the English lessons with only about 15 percent of the learners in the classroom”, and that “learners did not speak English in a communicative way.” The study also established that learners were passive during English lessons. The study by Munakampe (ibid) is similar to the present study in that it was done in the upper primary schools and that the language policy that promotes the use of English in upper primary schools is the same.

However, Munakampe’s study was done among grade five learners while the present study was done among grade 6 learners. Besides, the present study’s focus was on analysing teachers’ language practices and not on Communicative Language Teaching, thus the findings may not be similar.

Another study with similar results to Munakampe’s conducted in selected secondary schools of Mufulira was done by Makina (2017) who wanted to establish teachers’ classroom application of the Communicative Language Approach to English language teaching and the challenges faced when CLT is applied. The findings revealed that the low proficiency levels by the learners made it difficult for them to engage in CLT techniques. According to Makina (2017: 81), “most of the teachers stated that the low English proficiency by the learners posed a great challenge to the application of CLT in the English lessons.” She added that “teachers stated that it was difficult to use CLT because most of the learners they had were not so conversant in the English language.” The study by Makina (ibid) was done in secondary schools while the present study was done in upper primary schools. Besides, it is not clear if the study was done in multilingual classrooms or not.

2.3. Studies on Language Practices in a multilingual classroom

It is stated earlier in chapter one that democratisation of the classroom demands the use of multiple languages as media of instructions. Therefore, language practices in a multilingual classroom mean the recognition and respect for linguistic diversity. It is with this view that Murati (2015: 173) stated that “democratization of education has got one fundamental request, and that is the respect for linguistic diversity.” Additionally, “it has to do with the recognition for the individual’s linguistic rights and freedoms” (Little, 2004: 123).

With regard to democratic language practices in a multilingual classroom, the Finnish National Board of Education (2011), cited in Mwanza (2012: 11-12) carried out a research that revealed democratic language practices in the classroom. The aim of the study was to ascertain the factors that contributed to the Finish having high literacy levels. Among the factors were the shallow orthography” (what you say is what you write), the national core curriculum which stressed the strategic skills of reading and writing, and the highly trained and motivated teachers. Pertinent to this present study however, are the findings which revealed that teachers were free to choose the teaching methods and materials they wanted to use and that pupils were involved in choosing the reading materials used in instruction such as youth literature, magazines, and media texts. The study also revealed that even a small number of immigrants’ children were given an opportunity to learn to read in their own mother tongue (including Swedish speaking minority). In addition, the study showed that schools and teachers were involved in campaigns to promote reading as a pastime and there were also long-term collaboration with libraries, newspapers and magazines (Finnish National Board of Education, 2011).

Contrary to the Finnish Education System characterised by democratic language practices whereby every child, even those from minority language speech communities, was/were free to choose the language of instruction which they were familiar with, the current situation in Zambia is different especially in the upper primary schools of Chibombo district where English is the sole medium of instruction.

The foregoing stated Zambia’s situation is well illustrated in Kumwenda’s (2010) study on the “Initial reading performance in Cichewa in multi-ethnic classes of Chipata Urban which revealed undemocratic language practices. The purpose of the study was to find out the reading performance of pupils to whom Cichewa was not their first language in comparison with those to whom Cichewa was their first language. Kumwenda’s study employed both

quantitative and qualitative techniques to collect data from the targeted population of 520 NBTL grade 1 pupils in Chipata urban. The findings showed that pupils to whom Cicewa was their first language performed better than those whose Cicewa was not their first language. The analysis of the quantitative data revealed that the difference in performance in reading between the pupils to whom Cicewa was not their first language and those to whom Cicewa was their first language was significant.

Kumwenda's study is similar to the present one in that it was done in a multilingual area and classrooms. The language practice revealed in the above study is a monolingual practice in a multilingual classroom. Thus, it did not constitute democratic language practices of using multiple languages for classroom instructions. In as much as the study by Kumwenda shades more light on the undemocratic language practices in a multilingual classroom which the present study seeks to establish, it differs with the present study in that the aim in

Kumwenda's study was to establish the reading differences between pupils to whom Cichewa was not their first language and those to whom Cicewa was their first language whereas the present study aims at analysing teacher's language practices in multilingual classrooms.

Moreover, Kumwenda's (ibid) study was done in the lower primary school among grade one learners while the present study was done in upper primary schools.

Similar results to those in Kumwenda's study are reflected in the Literacy Watch Committee of Nepal (1999) which reported that the major contributor to low literacy levels in the country was the fact that Nepali language was the sole language of initial literacy even when 48 percent of the country's population spoke their mother tongue that was not Nepali language.

The language practices in this report reflect what is termed in this study as the "undemocratic language practices" characterised by non-recognition and respect for linguistic diversity.

The non-recognition and respect for pupils' linguistic repertoires resulted into symbolic violence which is synonymous to undemocratic language practices in a multilingual classroom. At the center of symbolic violence is teachers' monolingual practice in multilingual classrooms. Bourdieu (1970) defined symbolic violence as the gentle, invisible violence that is not recognised as such; and in relation to language practice in the classroom, Bourdieu (1990) explained symbolic violence as a situation in which the standard variety or dominant language is legitimized through institutionalised discourse of education, while the rest of the varieties or languages become illegitimate and excluded from the classroom talk.

Its consequences are that it forces students to react with withdrawals, aggression and reduced involvement in the classroom activities. It is therefore a hindrance to meaningful learning and to the democratisation process of a multilingual classroom.

The study by Mubanga (2012) revealed some aspects of symbolic violence. The study was carried out in Chongwe district of Zambia where Soli is the predominant language and Standard Nyanja as the medium for teaching initial literacy. The main focus of the study was on the effects of using Nyanja language as a medium of teaching initial literacy in a predominantly Soli speaking area of Lwimba in Chongwe district. Like the present study, Mubanga's study utilised both the qualitative and quantitative methods to collect data from a population sample of 97 grade one NBTL pupils. The findings of the study were that Nyanja as a medium of teaching initial literacy in Lwimba failed to encourage creativity in speaking among learners, that learning in Nyanja caused pupils to accumulate less vocabulary, and that the learners failed to form sentence patterns and grammatical rules in Nyanja itself. The findings also showed that Soli pupils did not do well in the end of Term 1 test and that there was a significant difference in reading performance between Nyanja and Soli speaking pupils. The aspect of symbolic violence revealed in the study was the imposition of Nyanja on Soli majority learners with its consequential effects of Soli learners performing badly in reading at the end of Term 1.

Unlike Mubanga's study which was conducted in bilingual area having Soli as the language of play and standard Nyanja as the language for classroom instructions, the present study was conducted in multilingual classrooms of Chibombo district. Moreover, the purpose of the present study is not to find out the effects of a dominant language over that of a minority language but to determine how democratic the grade 6 classrooms of Chibombo district are through teachers' language practices.

Democratisation of the classroom through the avoidance of symbolic violence calls for translanguaging as a pedagogic language practice because it makes provision for multiple language practices in the classroom. Thus, one of the advantages of translanguaging is that "it enables certain concepts to be reinforced through repetition in several languages and clarified in much more detail as opposed to using one language" (Hassan. N and Ahmed K, 2015: 26). Other benefits of translanguaging as postulated by Baker (2011) are the promotion of a deeper and fuller understanding of the subject matter; helping in the development of the weaker language; and the linking of home and school. However, the disadvantages of

translanguaging are that it is an expensive venture as it requires the training of bilingual teachers and the writing, translating and printing of learning materials in different languages.

The above mentioned benefits of translanguaging matches the study carried out in Tower Hamlets by Kenner et al. (2008) cited by Nasima Hassan and Kamal Ahmed (2015) which examined the response of second and third-generation British Bangladeshi children who were given the opportunity to apply their full linguistic repertoire within the mainstream curriculum. The outcome of the study revealed conceptual transfer, meta-linguistic awareness and, more significantly, a deepened understanding of the curriculum. Contrary to the deficit models in bilingual learning held in the past, the study revealed cognitive advantages and cultural benefits of such pedagogy (Baker, *ibid*). Translanguaging also increases comprehension in the context of other minority languages as reported by Lowman et al. (2007) that the New Zealand Maori literacy levels increased when students were allowed to use their first language to process and analyse texts that were in Maori. Similarly, in the context of a Catalan university in Spain, Llurda Cots and Armengol (2013) reported the increase in comprehension of text when English and Catalan languages were used to support students' comprehension in an English-medium class.

The foregoing studies relating to pedagogical translanguaging revealed conceptual transfer, meta-linguistic awareness and increased comprehension. This is because utilised was pedagogical translanguaging whose ultimate goal is Dynamic bilingualism (Garcia, 2009) where the use of multiple languages for meaning making is a norm rather than an exception. It will be shown in chapter 5 and 6 if teachers in Zambia translanguage in their classrooms or not.

In view of the democratisation of the classroom, it has to be reiterated here that language practices in a multilingual classroom require the use of multiple languages for classroom instructions. It is for this reason that Grosjean's (1985: 471) stated that, "language practices in multilingual classroom should not be the same as those language practices in monolingual classrooms where the language of instruction is the main language of all the learners and the teacher." The use of multiple languages as media of instructions is here referred to as democratic language practices realised through translanguaging and its associated pedagogical language practices namely code switching, translation and language reciprocity. Translanguaging has already been dealt with above.

In the report on “Innovative Language Practices in Multilingual Mathematics Classroom in South Africa” prepared by Setati (1998) with particular focus on code switching as pedagogical language practice, it was revealed that code switching facilitated learners’ access to mathematics and communicating mathematics. However, in the classrooms where there was limited or absence of code switching, the report showed that mathematical discourse was constrained leading to the blockage in learner access to communicating mathematics. In as much as the present study may reveal code switching as one of the language practices employed by teachers in a multilingual classroom, it is not limited to analysing language practices in a mathematics multilingual classroom only but is open to analysing language practices in other subjects taught in multilingual classrooms as well.

Another pedagogical language practice mentioned above is Translation. It must be noted that in this study, translation does not necessarily imply the grammar translation teaching approach but one of the democratic language practices employed by teachers in an attempt to democratise a multilingual classroom. Translation is generally understood as converting the expression of the target language into that of the native language, or the reverse. Another definition of translation according to Lin (2008: 17) is “expressing the sense of words or text in another language.” Similarly, translation involves the “writing or saying a written text from one language into another” (Zimba, 2007: 37). Based on the foregoing and in relation to our study, translation is a type of pedagogical language practice that involves the transfer of knowledge through verbal or written discourse usually from the official formal language to informal languages for epistemic access. It is therefore in line with the democratic language practice principles anchored on using two or more learners’ languages as media of instruction in a multilingual classroom.

Zimba (2007) conducted a study with the main aim of finding out the effects of using Nyanja as a language of initial literacy for grade ones in a predominantly Tumbuka area in Lundazi rural schools in Zambia. The pedagogical language practice employed by teachers in Zimba’s study was translation. In Katete which was used as the control group, teachers translated from English to Nyanja whereas in Lundazi which acted as the experimental group, the translation by teachers was from Nyanja to Tumbuka and from English to Tumbuka (Zimba, 2007). The study revealed both the advantages and disadvantages of translation in a bilingual classroom. On the one hand, the study revealed that translation in Lundazi enhanced the initial literacy learning whenever Nyanja became incomprehensible. It was also revealed that translation created a home environment and eased tension among pupils, and that it facilitated the

process of teaching from the known to the unknown. Additionally, the study showed that translation helped children participate in the learning process. On the other hand, translating from Nyanja to Tumbuka and from English to Tumbuka meant that a lot of time was spent teaching less literacy lesson. It was also revealed that working with three languages did not help learners correlate meanings in three languages thereby reducing the understanding of concepts. In addition, the study showed that translation lacked precision in meanings of words and sentences because no two languages have exact equivalents due to differences in their environment and culture. Thus, the study showed that translation reduced understanding of concepts (Zimba, 2007: 38), and Zimba (ibid) concluded that translation did not help pupils to learn initial literacy skills easily and quickly in Lundazi rural schools.

Despite revealing translation as a pedagogical language, Zimba's study was not done in the upper primary and that the aim of his study was not to establish whether language practices by teachers in Tumbuka area were democratic or not but to find out the effects of using Nyanja as a language of initial literacy for grade ones in a predominantly Tumbuka area in Lundazi rural schools.

A similar study on translation was conducted by Calis and Dikilitas (2003) with the aim of analyzing elementary learners' reaction to the use of translation as an L2 language practice in the Philippines. The study was a classroom-based research that lasted 7 weeks with 28 learners who were taught some grammatical subjects through the exercises based on translation. Through interviews and questionnaires, participants were also asked for their perceptions of this learning experience. The findings of the study showed that translation tasks did promote learners' receptive skills and productive skills. It was also revealed that learners in general, had positive ideas that supported the use of translation as a pedagogical language practice.

Even though translation during lessons helps promote learner's speaking, writing, listening and reading skills, it slows down the learning processes leading to teachers not able to complete the syllabus. In this view, and as the present study was conducted among the grade 6 learners being prepared for grade 7 national exams held in English only, teachers may not be keen in using pedagogical translation because of the pressure to finish the syllabus.

The other pedagogical language practice stated above is Language Reciprocity. Simachenya (2017) in his study on "Language Practices in a Multilingual Classroom: A Case of Selected Primary Schools in Livingstone Urban in Zambia," used the term "Language Reciprocity" to

describe language practices where the listener responds in the same language the speaker uses. Simachenya (2017: 66) explained that “the term refers to the practice of one responding in the same language as somebody has spoken to one.” For instance, in a multilingual classroom pupils would give an answer in the same language used by the teacher, and in the same way the teacher would give an answer in the same language used by the pupil. In brief, language reciprocation is used in a multilingual classroom to meet the different communicative needs of each learner, and it therefore enhances the democratisation of the classroom.

The aim of Simachenya’s (ibid) study was to analyse language practices employed by teachers and learners in a multilingual classroom. The findings showed that language reciprocation helped learners from different linguistic background to follow the lessons. It also enabled them to participate in the learning activities. Because of language reciprocation by both the teacher and learners, Simachenya concluded that the classrooms in Livingstone urban were inherently multilingual.

The above study is similar to the present one in that it involved the analysis of teachers’ language practices in a multilingual area in which the language of instruction in the lower primary is Tonga and the language of instruction in the upper primary is English. However, the present study differs from that of Simachenya’s in that it is a study on the democratisation of multilingual classrooms in relation to teachers’ language practices, and that unlike Simachenya’s study that employed only the qualitative method of data collection and analysis, employed in the present study is the mixed methods of data collection and analysis. Therefore, there might be similarities as well as differences in the findings.

It is stated earlier that reciprocity or other language practices based on the recognition and respect for linguistic diversity may also indicate teachers’ deviation from implementing the educational language policy. The study carried out by Rabenoro (1999) revealed the mismatch between language in education policy and the actual language practices in the classroom. Rabenoro (ibid) did a study in Madagascar, a country where the standard Malagasy language as opposed to other Malagasy varieties is the initial language of instruction from grade 1 to 2 whereas French is the medium of instruction from grade 3 onwards. The study showed that in practice, when teachers were appointed to the area they originated from, many of them used the local variety of Malagasy instead of the official

Malagasy or standard French. The study noted a “tremendous gap between the official instructions and the reality” (Rabenoro, 2009: 180).

The reasons for teachers’ deviation from the stipulated Language in Education Policy may be as a result of power relation and struggle that exist between policy makers and teachers, and between teachers and learners in the classroom; often characterised by power to control and dominate. Huckin *et al.* (2012:115) stated that “the classroom is a place where power is circulated, managed, exploited, resisted, and often directly impacted by institutional policies and changes”. Based on Huckin *et al.*’s (ibid) assertions, Mwanza (2016) explained that it is in the classroom where government policies and directives as well as teacher’s decisions and directives are accepted or rejected and or ignored in the process of teaching and learning.

Like in Rabenoro’s (1999) study where there was a mismatch between the language policy and the linguistic composition of the classroom, the teacher ignored the language policy by using the informal language of the learners. It is in this context that Haugen (2009) argued that education policies are normally characterized by contradictions and not by progression or retrogression; contradictions in the sense that there is a mismatch between the government’s stipulated language of instruction and the actual language practices in the classroom. It is situations like this one that forces some teachers to deviate from the policy in order to help learners learn.

Even though the study by Rabenoro (1999) did not reveal the reasons for teachers’ preference of using the local variety of Malagasy language as opposed to the language policy in education, the mismatch between the teachers’ language practices in the classroom and what the language in education policy stipulated could be attributed to learners’ lack of proficiency in the standard language. For example, Simachenya (2017) reported that some teachers in Livingstone Urban used Chinyanja and English for classroom interaction instead of the prescribed Chitonga because they and some of their learners were not proficient in Chitonga.

Mwanza (2012) study also revealed the above scenario of teachers deviating from using the prescribed standard language to using other languages familiar to both the learners and the teachers. The study was carried out in the Cosmopolitan City of Lusaka believed to be predominantly Nyanja. The aim of the study was to find out if Chinyanja was appropriate for use as a language of initial literacy in a Cosmopolitan environment like Lusaka District or not. He employed both qualitative and quantitative methods to collect data from 38 teachers and 120 pupils. The findings showed that there was a mismatch between the Chinyanja

spoken by children during play and the one which was officially recognised in schools. The study also revealed that both teachers and pupils were not proficient in Standard Nyanja. As a result, the study showed that since “teachers were not fluent in Chinyanja and that the type of Chinyanja they spoke was not standard Nyanja recognised in schools...there were a lot of instances of code switching” (Mwanza, 2012: 91). Even though the study did not explicitly state the local language used for code switching, it is assumed that teachers and learners code switched between English and the informal Nyanja as both of them were not fluent in the standard Nyanja.

2.4. Studies on Teachers’ language attitudes in Schools

Edwards (1994: 97-98) gave a general definition of an “attitude” “as a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects. Based on Edward’s (ibid) definition of attitude, language attitudes may as well be understood as the favourable or unfavourable reaction towards languages. In reference to language attitudes, Crystal (1997: 215) included “the feelings people have about their own language or the languages of others.” To the feelings that people have towards languages, Ryan et al. (1982: 7) added the cognitive and behavioural aspect when he postulated that, “language attitude can be any affective, cognitive or behavioural index of evaluative reactions towards different language varieties or speakers.” In short, language attitude is all about the favourable or unfavourable feelings, opinions, beliefs or intentions that people may have towards their own language or other languages and speakers of these languages. In this study, teachers’ favourable feelings and thoughts towards their own languages and those of their learners leads to democratic language practices and is a prerequisite to the democratisation process of a multilingual classroom.

In relation to positive or negative language attitudes towards informal and formal languages, a Nigerian researcher Igboanusi (2015) conducted a survey and used questionnaires to determine the attitude of students, teachers, parents and administrators towards bilingual education. The study solicited the responses of 1000 participants from five different states. The results showed that the respondents preferred education in both English and the mother tongue (MT) and were not positively disposed to the use of only one of them. The study also revealed that majority of the respondents wanted the use of the mother tongue beyond the first three years of primary education.

It is interesting to note that in Igboanusi’s (2015) study respondents had favourable opinions and feelings towards the use of both English and Local languages as media of instruction and

that they expressed the need to extend the use of mother tongue beyond three years. However, the findings are too general in that the study does not elaborate much on the attitudes of teachers towards local languages but gives a general view of all the respondents towards the use of English and Local Languages as media of instruction. It must be noted here that language attitudes affects teachers' language practices in a classroom. Specifically in this study, the researcher intends to establish teachers' attitudes towards informal languages because positive languages attitude towards informal languages is key to the democratisation of a multilingual classroom.

Following the Government of Zambia's decision to re-introduce the use of some of the local languages as media of instruction in lower primary school classes in 1996, Nkosha (1999) cited in Simwinga (2006) decided to investigate parents' attitudes towards the use of a dominant Zambian language in each region as medium of instruction from grade one to four.

He wanted also to determine the factors which influenced parents' choice of a language of instruction. The study targeted parents of low and high density residential areas of Kasama, Livingstone and Lusaka representing the rural, peri-urban and urban areas of Zambia. A sample of 60 respondents, twenty from each of the three research sites was purposively selected. The findings revealed that most of the parents preferred their children to be taught in English. The findings also showed that, most of the teachers used dominant local languages as media of instruction in lower primary classes which in their view enhanced the pupils' academic success and cognitive development (Simwinga, *ibid*). Nkosha (1999: 191) concluded that "respondents who did not want their children to be taught in Zambia languages may not be aware of the negative effects of using English, and that their opinion could also be attributed to the negative attitudes Africans have towards their languages and the general misconception that the ability to speak English is the same thing as being educated." In brief, Nkosha's (*ibid*) study revealed that parents had negative language attitude towards informal languages while teachers had a favourable opinion towards informal languages.

Unlike the present study that intends to solicit teachers' views towards informal languages, Nkosha's study solicited parents' views towards the use of local languages for classroom instruction. Nevertheless, given that teachers used local languages to help learners learn, it is a concluded fact that they had positive language attitudes towards informal languages. In addition, the study by Nkosha (1999) was done a long time ago and may not be representative of the present situation especially in Chibombo district which has a different sociolinguistic context.

Another study that revealed positive and negative attitudes towards informal and formal languages was the one conducted by Mbewe (2015) that investigated the perceptions of teachers, pupils and parents towards using Chinyanja as a medium of instruction in the selected lower primary schools of Lusaka district. The findings showed that teachers perceived using Chinyanja as a language of instruction beneficial to the pupils in the early stages of literacy development because it enhanced increased teacher-pupil interaction in the learning process. On the side of learners, the study established that pupils did not support learning in Chinyanja because they were not proud of it and that they were not proficient in standard Nyanja used in the classroom. It was revealed that pupils preferred using English to Chinyanja as a medium of instruction. Parents also had a favourable feelings and thoughts towards English unlike their unfavourable feelings and thoughts towards Nyanja as they regarded using Chinyanja for classroom instruction as retrogressive and not beneficial to their children in acquiring future success in different life endeavours. In brief, the findings revealed positive attitudes towards Chinyanja as a local language by teachers as it enhanced increased teacher-pupil interaction in the learning process whereas both parents and learners had negative attitudes towards Chinyanja and positive attitudes towards English.

The scenario of learners having negative attitudes towards local languages and a favourable opinion towards English was noted by Africa (1980:278) when he stated that in Zambia “The instrumental motivation for learning English is dominant” and that “English is seen as necessary for higher education, for reading books, newspapers and magazines, for studying and for better employment.” He also noted the implication of this trend which is that “English is perceived as being associated with higher education, good jobs and examinations.” The consequences of this trend as Africa (ibid) observed are that “persons aspiring towards higher education, good jobs and examinations must possess English that is adequate and functionally appropriate in these roles.” It is because of the above stated instrumental motivation that Mwanza (2016: 39) argued that “most learners and school administrators do not take Zambian languages seriously because the Zambian language policy implicitly suggests that Zambian languages are irrelevant and incapable of coping with modern demands of communication.”

Unlike the present study which was done in the upper primary school, Mbewe’s (2015) study was done in the lower primary school. Therefore, the reasons for teachers’ positive attitude towards the use of local languages for classroom instruction in Mbewe’s study may not be

the same as in the present study owing to the fact that the language in education policy stipulates the sole use of English in upper primary.

The other study that revealed the positive and negative language attitude towards Formal English and informal languages respectively was the one done by Mwanza (2016). The aim of the study was to establish how Eclecticism in English language teaching was understood and applied by some selected grade 11 Zambian teachers of English. The study employed a mixed research study design employing both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Concerning the feelings and thoughts that teachers had towards formal English, the findings showed that “all the teachers expressed positive attitudes towards formal English (Mwanza, 2016: 183). The reasons for the favourable feelings and thoughts towards formal English were that it was the variety needed for one to pass an exam, to get a job after school and to be accepted for further education. However, from the question concerning the place and value of Zambian languages in the teaching of English grammar in Zambian schools, the findings showed that teachers held negative attitudes towards Zambian languages. Both formal and informal varieties including blended local vernaculars were considered unacceptable when teaching English because they were considered as a barrier and interference to the objective of teaching English.

Unlike the present study that was conducted among the grade 6 upper primary schools of Chibombo district, Mwanza’s (2016) study was conducted among the grade 11 pupils of Central Province. Besides, the above study’s main focus was on Eclecticism as a teaching method and not on the democratisation of the classroom through eclectic language practices.

2.5. Studies on challenges teachers face in multilingual classrooms.

The many studies done on teaching and learning in a multilingual classroom (see Gersten & Jimenez, 1994, 1999; Graves, Valles & Rueda, 2000; Echevarria & Graves, 2003), have revealed the daunting task teachers face when simultaneously trying to build children’s reading and writing ability and enhancing their English-language growth. What complicates the matter is the fact that many of the learners are from different linguistic background speaking different languages that are often not only informal but also different from the one spoken by their teachers. Besides, there are language attitudes to be dealt with in a multilingual classroom. Davis et al (2013), for example, showed how Ghanaian students preferred being taught mathematics through English, despite difficulties in speaking, reading and understanding the language because they felt that this will help them to succeed in the world.

A Final Research Report on Problems and Possibilities in Multilingual Classrooms in the Western Cape South Africa (1998) stated communication breakdown as one of the main problem faced by both the teacher and the learners. In this report, teachers expressed frustration at a situation in which they could not communicate effectively with the majority of their learners. The report stated that more often than not, the teachers' perception that learners will not be able to answer in more than one or two words leads to a teacher-dominated approach to learning. Even though the research was done among grade one multilingual classroom, the communication problems faced by the teachers and learners in multilingual upper primary and secondary schools cut across both primary and secondary schools (Mwanza, 2016)

A study by Poudel (2010) in Nepal to discuss some of the major challenges that are associated with multilingual classes in higher education indicated that neither teachers nor the students were satisfied with the use of the prescribed medium of instruction as there were communication problems, content delivery problems and comprehension related problems because of language gaps. According to the study, most students were still using Nepali language in class even when English is the official medium of instruction while teachers responded to queries in both English and Nepali. In addition, the study indicated that most teachers find it difficult to deliver content in front of students with varied language backgrounds, a situation which is worsened by students' poor English language background. The study further showed that most of the teachers felt that it was better to use multilingual teaching approaches (the use of multiple languages) because students grasp the real meaning of concepts when they are exposed to their own language.

Another study that revealed communication problems in a multilingual classroom was conducted by Ackers and Hardman (2001) cited in Kiramba (2015) in Kenyan primary schools concerning the multilingual classroom interactions by observing ninety lessons in mathematics, English, and science. The study showed teachers' recitation in the form of interrogation of the learners' knowledge and understanding as being the most common form of teacher-learner interaction. It was also noticed that teacher presentation and teacher directed questions and answers dominated most of the classroom discourse, accounting for 82 percent of total teaching exchanges. Based on these findings, it was concluded that the discourse pattern reported in that study could in large part be attributed to the English as a medium of instruction which students at the primary school level have not mastered well enough to engage in academic discourse.

The other similar study was done by Ogechi (2009) cited in Kiramba (2015). The study investigated the use of English and other African languages in Kenyan primary schools to ascertain whether English as a language of instruction was practical and appropriate in grade 4 in three primary schools in three Kenyan provinces. The study revealed that much of the classroom talk time was taken by the teacher as learners mostly either gave brief responses or remained silent, and the few learners who did respond actively did so in ungrammatical English. Ogechi (ibid) concluded that the study demonstrated the learning and pedagogical challenges faced by both teachers and learners in a multilingual classroom.

The two studies by Ogechi (2009) reflect communication challenges faced in Kenya's transition bilingual education. In this transition bilingual education, transition to English according to Kiramba (2015), happens at grade 4 unlike the current Zambia's transition that takes place at grade 5. The one year transitional difference is insignificant when it comes to learners becoming proficient enough to follow classes in English; the communication challenges in multilingual classroom for most of the pupils remain the same as the study by Mwanza (2016) revealed. In the study, the teachers' views were that their learners had poor language background and could not speak English fluently. Mwanza (2016: 227) added that "Respondents explained that some learners could not speak English, and when such learners were asked to speak English, they resorted to keeping quiet since they could not express themselves in English. In reference to Munakampe's (2006) study which targeted grade five learners and revealed the same communication challenges, Mwanza (2016: 228) concluded that "it therefore appears that the challenge of a lack of English proficiency is not limited to primary school (grade 5) but extends to secondary school as well, grade 11 in this case."

Common to the above studies is that teachers were hesitant in using the informal languages of the learners, hence the communication problems exacerbated by monoglossic ideology inherent in transition bilingual education expressed in Poudel's (2010) study done in Nepal, Ogechi's (2009) study done in Kenya and Mwanza (2016) done here in Zambia. While the communication challenges teachers may face in multilingual classrooms of Chibombo district be the same as those stated in the above studies, the main aim of the present study is not based on finding out the challenges teachers face in teaching multilingual classrooms but on the democratisation of the classroom through teachers' language practices in a multilingual classroom.

2.6. Summary of the chapter

This chapter has provided some literature on the studies based on the democratisation of multilingual classroom in relation to teachers' language practices. The literature review was thematically grouped according research questions. The studies done here in Zambia included studies on language practices and language attitudes in multilingual education classroom.

Due to the nature of Zambia's transition bilingual education system, the findings were the undemocratic use of one language in multilingual classrooms and the negative attitudes towards informal languages. The studies done in Africa included those from Nigeria, Niger, Kenya and South Africa. The study from Nigeria revealed positive language attitudes towards both local languages and English while the studies from Niger, Kenya and South Africa showed communication challenges faced by teachers and learners in multilingual classrooms. As for the studies done outside Africa, included were the studies from the USA, Finland, Spain, New Zealand, the UK, Nepal, the Philippines and Madagascar. The study from the USA, Finland, Spain, New Zealand and the UK revealed positive cognitive effects of multilingual education associated with additive diglossic and heteroglossic bilingual and multilingual education system. On the other hand, the study from Nepal, Madagascar and the Philippines revealed the mismatch between language in education policy and the actual language practices in the classroom and also communication challenges faced by both the teacher and the learners.

The studies presented in this chapter may have similar findings with the present study. However, none of them investigated the democratisation of the classroom through teachers' language practices. Therefore, the main gap between the above studies and the present one is the aim of the present study which is to find out how democratic are the multilingual classroom of Chibombo district are through teachers' language practices. The present study intends to analyse teachers' language practices in a multilingual classroom in order to determine whether they (teacher's language practices) facilitates or hinder the democratisation of the classroom.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Overview

The previous chapter presented the studies that are related to the present study through literature review. This chapter looks at the conceptual and theoretical framework. Discussed under the conceptual framework are Translanguaging and Richard Ruiz's (1984) Three Orientations in Language Planning and Language Attitudes. As for the theoretical framework, discussed are the Code Theory and Critical Discourse Analysis Theory. The reason for including all of these concepts and theories in my investigation is that they each offer unique insights into the ways in which languages are applied in multilingual classrooms to either favour a monolingual or multilingual type of education. They also provide meaningful insights into the ways in which language ideologies either enhance or hinder the democratisation process of a multilingual classroom. The chapter begins with conceptual framework followed by the theoretical framework.

3.2. Conceptual Framework

Here, there are two important words namely "concept" and "framework" that need explanation. According to Liehr and Smith (1999: 7), "a concept is an image or symbol representation of an abstract idea. Chinn and Kramer (1999: 252) added that a concept "conveys abstract ideas within a theory." Thus, a concept is the component of theory and can be understood as a less developed form of a theory. As for a framework, "it is a structure that provides guidance for the researcher" (Liehr & Smith, 1999: 13). In brief, a conceptual framework is a set of broad ideas and principles that are taken from relevant fields of enquiry and used to structure a subsequent presentation (Reichel & Ramey, 1987) cited in Kombo and Tromp (2006: 49). In this study, translanguaging and the three language orientations were the two concepts that were used to frame the study.

3.2.1. Translanguaging

The term translanguaging was developed by the Welsh educationalist Williams (1994) cited in Baker (2011). It was originally coined as a Welsh word (*trawsieithu*) in reference to a pedagogical practice which deliberately switched the language mode of input and output in multilingual classrooms (Lewis et al., 2012).

There are several definitions regarding translanguaging. To begin with, Baker (2011: 39) understood translanguaging as “the process of making meaning, shaping experiences, gaining understanding and knowledge through the use of two languages.” Garcia (2009a: 41) developed the term further by referring translanguaging to “the use of children’s full linguistic repertoire to make meaning without thinking of the fact that they have one language that is different from the other.” In a similar way, Canagarajah (2011: 401) defined Translanguaging as “the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the diverse languages that form their repertoire as an integrated system.” According to Garcia (2009) and Canagarajah (2011), in translanguaging, languages are treated as one single system and not as separate entities; a view that reflect language as a socio-practice. Considering its literal morphological and semantic representation, Simachenya (2017: 14) summarised translanguaging as a derivative of “two linguistic units “trans” and “languaging” which literally means moving across languages.” Therefore, in a multilingual classroom, translanguaging implies any pedagogical language practice of alternation between languages viewed not as separate entities but as a single unit and as a meaning making resource.

In the classroom, translanguaging may involve “students listening to information in one language and explaining the gist of it orally in another or reading a text in one language and talk about it in another” (Open University, 2015: 15). In this way, translanguaging as pedagogical language practice enables certain concepts to be reinforced through repetition in several languages and clarified in much more detail as opposed to using one language (Hassan & Ahmed, 2015: 26). The other advantage of translanguaging is that it connects home to school as there is recognition and respect for linguistic diversity in the classroom where translanguaging takes place.

According to Tse (1996), translanguaging practices include code-switching, translating, and language brokering, or interpreting between culturally and linguistically diverse individuals. In reference to code switching as part of translanguaging practices, Garcia (2009: 140) postulated that, “translanguaging therefore goes beyond what has been termed as code switching, although it includes it.” The other language practices that may also be associated with translanguaging practices are poly-languaging and language reciprocity (Simachenya, 2017). When these language practices which are associated to translanguaging practice are applied in the classroom, they are referred to in this study as pedagogical language practices.

In brief, they are code switching, translation, language reciprocity and poly-languaging.

Code switching is generally viewed as the language practice of alternating between two or more varieties of languages in a conversation. According to Setati and Adler (2001: 244), “Code switching is a language practice that enables learners to harness their main language as a learning resource.” As a pedagogical language practice in a multilingual classroom, it “entails switching by the teacher and or learners between the language of learning and teaching and the learners’ main language” (Setati & Adler, 2001: 264). When comparing and contrasting translanguaging to Code switching, Garcia (2009) argued that they are epistemologically different because code switching is the moving from one named language to another and it is an external view point of languages whereas Translanguaging is an internal view point of language. She also stated that in Code-switching, languages are isolated, that they can never be mixed, that mother tongue interferes with the target language, and that language is pure. Code switching does not promote language interaction but tends to focus on issues of language separation, interference, transfer and borrowing.

Another concept that is associated with translanguaging is translation. Translation according to Lin (2008: 17) is “expressing the sense of words or text in another language.” Similarly, translation involves the “writing or saying a written text from one language into another” (Zimba, 2007: 37). In a multilingual classroom and as a pedagogical language practice, it is all about teachers expressing the sense of words or text often from the formal language to informal languages of the learners. For example, the teacher may translate difficult words from English to local languages or from local languages to English to help learners learn. According to Garcia (2009), translation like code switching does not promote language interaction but tends to focus on issues of language interference, transfer and borrowing even if it is part of translanguaging practices.

The other concept that is associated with translanguaging is language reciprocity. As explained in chapter two, “the term refers to language practices such as one responding in the same language as somebody has spoken to one” (Simachenya, 2017: 66). Language reciprocity can also be applied to the classroom and therefore, forms part of the pedagogical language practices. For instance, in a multilingual classroom, pupils would give an answer in the same language used by the teacher, and in the same way the teacher would give an answer in the same language used by the pupil (ibid). Like in code switching and translation, languages in language reciprocity do not interact as they are treated as separate entities.

The last language practice associated with translanguaging practice is poly-languaging. The notion of poly-languaging refers to the “use of resources associated with different languages

even when the speaker has very little knowledge of those languages” (Jorgensen, Karrebæk, Madsen & Moller, 2011) Thus the focus is on communication rather than on linguistic competence. A teacher who is not competent in the language of the learners may use common words or phrases of that language either to attract the attention of the learner or to help learners understand certain concepts in their language, for example.

In this research study, translanguaging as a pedagogical language practice is used as the lens through which the researcher analysed and presented the teachers’ language practices in the multilingual classrooms of Chibombo District.

3.2.2. Richard Ruiz’s three language orientations

This research study was also informed by Richard Ruiz’s (1984) Three Orientations to Language Planning namely language as a problem, language as a resource and language as a right. Commenting on language as a problem, Ruiz (1984: 20) stated that, “Educational program models informed by this orientation tend to be monolingual in structure, with the rationale that linguistic minorities are best served by as much exposure to the dominant language as possible in the interest of “inclusiveness.” Similarly, Hornberger (1990) stated that it is a set of values that stem from a monolingual ideal and assimilationist mindset. In addition to Ruiz (1984) and Hornberger’s (1990), Hult (2014, p. 169) stated that “educational programs that follow from the language as a problem orientation seek to remedy this deficit with subtractive language teaching that emphasizes transition to a dominant language.” Viewing language as a problem therefore is exclusive as it sidelines other pedagogical discourses that are not official since linguistic diversity is perceived as a deficit and as a source of divisiveness. Based on the foregoing therefore, language as a problem orientation is devoid of democratic language practices and not in service of the democratisation of the classroom.

The antithesis of language as a problem orientation is language as resource (Ruiz, 2010). As Ruiz (2010: 162) observed, “rather than being divisive, multilingualism and linguistic diversity are valued and seen as fully compatible with national unity.” Therefore, language as resource orientation is an inclusive orientation in which linguistic diversity is good for everyone in society. When applied to the classroom, language as resource orientation allows for the use of multiple languages, has an additive perspective and therefore cognitive advantageous to the learners.

The above stated views on language as a resource reflect the democratic language practices employed by teachers teaching multilingual classrooms. Language as resource also mirrors the pedagogical language practices such as translanguaging and code switching even though in the later, languages are viewed as separate entities that can never be mixed. Therefore, and according to this study, language as a resource orientation is characterised by democratic language practices and in service of the democratisation of the classroom.

In his definition of language as a right, Ruiz (1984) made reference to what is legally codified about language use, often with special attention to the human and civil rights of minorities to use and maintain their language. Thus, language as a right orientation seeks to address linguistically-based inequalities that stem from perceiving languages especially informal ones as problems.

In trying to address linguistically-based inequalities, the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights (1948, article 2) and in reference to educational language rights, implicitly stated that “everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedomssuch as race, colour, sex, language, religion.” More explicitly, UNESCO (2003) stated educational language rights as schooling in learners’ languages, access to the language of the larger community and access to the language of economic empowerment. It also stressed the need to extend the period of mother tongue instruction when it stated that “Mother tongue instruction is essential for initial instruction and literacy and should be extended to as late a stage in education as possible” (UNESCO, 2003: 28). The Zambian 2016 revised Constitution Article 258 also hints at linguistic rights when it states that, “The official language of Zambia is English ...and a language other than English may be used as a medium of instruction in educational institutions....” However, due to the use of the phrase “language other than English may be used” renders the use of local languages in Zambia’s multilingual classroom as an exception rather than a rule.

The three language orientations have a lot to do with the positive and negative language attitudes. The language as a problem orientation is all about negative attitudes people have towards either their own languages or the languages of other people whereas language as a resource and as a right orientations have a lot to do with positive language attitudes towards both informal and formal languages. As stated earlier in chapter 2, negative attitudes towards informal languages by teachers impedes the use of these languages and the democratisation of the classroom as well while positive attitudes towards informal and formal languages by

teachers promotes the use of multiple languages and the enhancement of the democratisation of the classroom. It is for these reasons that the above stated three language orientations are also utilised in this study as a mirror through which to see and evaluate teachers' language practices and their perception of both formal and informal languages in the multilingual classrooms of Chibombo district.

3.3. Theoretical Framework

Lier and Smith (1999:8) defined a theory as "a set of interrelated concepts, which structure a systematic view of phenomenon for the purpose of explaining or predicting events." It is the same view held by Fox and Bayat (2007: 29) when they defined a theory as, "a set of interrelated propositions, concepts and definitions that present a systematic point of view of specifying relationships between variables with the view to predicting and explaining the phenomena." As implied earlier, a framework is a structure that provides guidance for the researcher (Liehr & Smith, 1999). Thus a theoretical framework is a set of concepts drawn from a theory or theories to offer an explanation of a particular phenomenon or state of affairs. This study was theoretically framed by the two theories namely the Code Theory and the Critical Discourse Analysis theory

3.3.1. The Code and Pedagogic Discourse Theory

Bernstein (1973) in his Code theory argued that every pedagogical discourse is characterised by power and control. Given that pedagogical discourse relates to classroom discourse, it follows then that classroom interactions are characterised by power relation, and that the entire education system is driven and controlled by power. In explaining the function and what constitute the Code Theory, Haugen (2009:152) stated that "the code theory examines the reproduction of power in schools by looking at the way content is classified and how the interactions are framed". The power relation in education system constitute the concepts of „classification“ and „framing“ which are central to Bernstein's theory of Pedagogic Discourse. The other pertinent concepts to Bernstein Code Theory are "recontextualisation of knowledge" and "horizontal and vertical discourses." Bernstein (ibid) also theorised on education failure and linked it to language failure.

Concerning classification, Sadovnik (2001) explained that classification has to do with the organisation of knowledge in the curriculum. In the education system, classification may refer to governments' powers over the curriculum and regulations on what schools or teachers should do (Mwanza, 2016). In relation to the present study on the democratisation of the

classroom through the use of multiple languages, the power to democratise the classrooms therefore rests with the government and teachers in the classroom. It is the government that may democratise the classroom by stating in the curriculum teachers' freedom to use language varieties present in their classroom and by printing and translating books in several languages, and teachers by adopting the language of the classrooms. The study utilised the concept of classification to determine the power relation between the government and teachers in relation to government's language choices and teachers' language practices in the multilingual classrooms of Chibombo.

As for "framing" Bernstein (1973: 88b) explained that it is concerned with the "degree of control teachers and student possess over the selection, organisation, pacing and timing of the knowledge transmitted and received in the pedagogical relation." Sadovnik (2001:3) added that "framing is related to the transmission of knowledge through pedagogic practices." To transmit knowledge through pedagogic practices requires interaction between the teacher and the learner, and central to these interactions is language. In this study, teachers' and learners' interactions in multilingual classrooms are characterised by multiple use of languages for epistemic access. For example, the teacher, due to learners' lack of proficiency in the formal language, may decide to use informal languages of learners through translanguaging despite the monoglossic ideology that may be implicitly or explicitly stated in the curriculum. This may affect the timing and the pacing at which knowledge is transmitted. In many cases, the degree of control that teachers and learners have over knowledge transmission through the utilisation of informal languages for epistemic access slows down the timing and pacing of knowledge (Zimba, 2007; Mwanza 2016; Makina, 2017). Bernstein concept of framing therefore helps the researcher of this study to analyse how the interactions in the classroom with regard to multiple language practices are framed. The asked question is, do teachers stick to what is stipulated in the Curriculum "English only in the upper primary, for example" or they do use informal languages where necessary? This question is answered in Chapters 6.

Bernstein (1975) also deliberated on the two types of classroom discourses namely the horizontal and the vertical discourses. According to Bernstein (ibid), the horizontal discourse is a form of knowledge usually typified as everyday or common sense knowledge because almost everyone has it. It is likely to be oral, local, context dependent and specified, tacit and multilayered. Linguistically, it refers to those languages that are not official and therefore not allowed. As for the vertical discourse, Bernstein (ibid) stated that it is a coherent, explicitly and systematically principled structure that is hierarchically organised. Based on the

foregoing, the horizontal discourse in the classroom represents the informal languages and home literacies that learners bring to the classroom whereas the vertical discourse is characterised by the school formal and legitimate language. In support of the interplay between horizontal and vertical discourses in the classroom, Haugen (2009) believed that the background of every learner is very important to every teaching and learning situation in school; and following the education principle of learning from the known to the unknown, Bernstein (1999: 169) argued that horizontal discourse can be used as a resource to access the vertical discourse when he stated that, “segments of horizontal discourse become resources to facilitate access to vertical discourse....” Thus, the interplay of both the horizontal and vertical discourses in ensuring epistemic access among learners is central to democratization of a multilingual classroom. It is in this view that the theory is used to analyse how teachers allow for the co-working of the horizontal and vertical discourses given the English only medium of instruction situation stipulated in the Language in Education Policy.

In addition, pertinent to Beintern’s (1973) Code Theory and Pedagogical Discourse is the concept of “Recontextualisation”. According to Bernstein (1996) cited in Singh (1997:7) “recontextualisation refers to the rules or procedures by which educational knowledge is moved from one education site to another.” What this involves is the selection from the existing forms of knowledge and converting it for use in a very different institutional setting from that in which it was formed (Bourne, 2006). In addition, Bourne (ibid) referred recontextualisation to teacher’s interpretation and application of the policy and methods of teaching in order for the policy and method to be relevant and appropriate to the specific learning and teaching situation. In relation to this study, recontextualisation may involve teachers’ reinterpretation and reapplication of the language in education policy so that it is relevant and appropriate to a multilingual classroom.

There is need for recontextualisation in terms of language practices because often the language in education policy as reflected in the document is linguistically decontextualised.

What this means to this study is that the formal language that teachers use if not very familiar to the learners, the teacher through translation or language reciprocity may utilise the foregoing stated pedagogical language practices to adapt the lesson to the linguistic context of the learners. In other words, teachers should reinterpret the Language in Education Policy and implement it through the use of multiple languages in order to democratise the classroom where there is need. Besides, recontextualisation through multiple language practices is in

this study linked to the democratisation of the multilingual classroom. It is for this reason that recontextualisation is used in this study to enable the researcher find out the power relation between Language policy makers and teachers, and how teachers interpret and apply the language policy in order to respond to linguistic abilities of their learners.

Another Bernstein's idea that has added value to this study is his attribution of education failure to language failure. The main question he attempted to answer was that "Given that (a) native wit is not determined by social class, and (b) all children now receive equivalent basic schooling, why are those children who fail to become educated almost all from the lower working class" (Halliday, 1995: 127). The answer to his question lies in the fact that in his days (1960s and 1970s), the lower working class people used the horizontal discourse while the medium to upper class people used both the horizontal and vertical discourse and that the school preferred discourse was the vertical one thereby favouring children from the medium to upper class working parents. Based on this assumption and owing to the fact that most of the children from homes that used the informal language didn't do well in school, Bernstein (1973) concluded that "the distribution of educational access was very clearly tied to class, particularly through the language used in its distribution, and that educational failure was often, in a very general sense, language failure" (Clark, 2005: 34). The idea of education failure due to language failure holds true in Zambia as many studies (see Matafwali 2010; Kumwenda, 2011; Mwanza, 2012; Mubanga, 2012) have linked the low literacy levels to the use of unfamiliar language. Thus, Bernstein's idea of education failure due to language failure is useful to this study as it helps to determine whether teachers' language practices in multilingual classrooms of Chibombo district facilitates learning or hinders it.

In short, this study used Bernstein's Code and Pedagogical Discourse Theory particularly by utilising the concepts of classification and framing, horizontal and vertical discourse, recontextualisation of education knowledge and the linking of education failure to language failure. The theory looks at how teachers and pupils interact in the classroom and what influence the pupils have over the content which is given to them by the teachers. It also suggests the use of home languages and school languages in classroom interaction and that the failure to do so contributes to education failure of the learners. The theory is thus useful in examining the power relations in the classroom and how this affects language choices and practices in multilingual classroom settings. It is also helpful in making inferences on whether the choice of languages contributes to education failure or not.

3.3.2. Critical Discourse Analysis Theory

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is another theory used in this study to analyse teacherlearner relations in the classroom and the influence of government over what happens in the classroom in terms of language choices. Critical Discourse Analysis theory emerged from “Critical Linguistics” developed at the University of East Anglia in the 1970s. It was first developed by the Lancaster school of linguistics of which Norman Fairclough was the most prominent figure. Wodak (1989) and Van Dijk (1990) also made major contributions to this theory. In an attempt to understand Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), it is imperative to first have a separate conceptual understanding of each word that comprises the theory.

The first concept is “critical”, which in the words of Wodak (2001: 17)¹ “ means not taking things for granted, opening up complexity, challenging reductionism, dogmatism and dichotomies, being self-reflective in ones research, and through these processes, making opaque structures of power relations and ideologies manifest.” She also explained that

“Critical” does not imply the common sense meaning of “being negative” but rather “skeptical.” She further postulated that “proposing alternatives is also part of being “critical.” The second concept is “discourse” which with its Latin root “discursus” denotes conversation, or speech. According to Cook (1990:7), “discourse” includes novels, as well as short conversations or groans; a similar view held by Fairclough (2002) when he stated, “Indeed our journals, newsletters, online material, editorials, conference proceedings, textbooks, book reviews, and lecture material constitute an order of discourse”. Thus, language policy documents, classroom practices and views held by teachers form part of the discourse in the education sector.

The third concept is “analysis” which involves the examining of texts and the making of deductions and inferences over a text both written and oral. Fairclough (2003) described two levels of analysis namely intra-textual and inter-textual analysis. In intra-textual analysis, studied is the relationship between the linguistic and semantic components within the text in order to find lexical and syntactical relations that unveil ways in which words and phrases create and manipulate meaning to represent or misrepresent concepts or social events thereby influencing the mind of the reader. In inter-textual analysis, examined are the relationships between the text object of study and other texts such as policy-documents to complement,

validate, and support the assumptions and assertions that emerge from the intra-textual analysis (Escobar, 2013). In this study, the reviewed text is the language in education policy, classroom interactions and the views of the teachers and pupils.

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) therefore, is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse that views language as a form of social practice and focuses on the ways social and political domination are reproduced in text and talk (Fairclough, 1995). Its focus is on investigating how societal power relations are established and reinforced through language use (ibid). Power involves control by one group over another, while dominance refers to hegemonic existence where the minds of the dominated are influenced “in such a way that they accept dominance, and act in the interest of the powerful out of their own free will” (Van Dijk 1993: 255). These power relations can be opaque or transparent as observed by Huckin, Andrus and Clary-Leman (2012:107) that “CDA is fundamentally interested in analysing opaque as well as transparent structural relationships of dominance, discrimination, power and control when these are manifested in language.” This means that CDA is used to analyse power relations which are observable such as between the teacher and the learners and those power relations which are visibly clear but still exists such as ideologies which people have. In the context of power and dominance, CDA focuses on the weak, the controlled and the discriminated against (Mwanza, 2016). In the classroom situation, CDA focuses on the teacher and especially the learner as the weak, the controlled and the discriminated against. This is why classroom relationships and interactions between teachers and learners with regard to language choices and practices were analysed.

With regard to CDA and the classroom, Huckin *et al.* (2012:115) stated that “the classroom is a place wherein power is circulated, managed, exploited, resisted, and often directly impacted by institutional policies and changes”. It is for this reasons that critical discourse analysis exposes how government policies and directives as well as teacher’s decisions and directives can be accepted, rejected and or ignored in the process of teaching and learning (Mwanza, 2016). In the context of the present study, what this means is that sometimes there are contradictions between the government language policy and the actual teachers’ language practices in the classroom; a view held by Haugen (2009) when she argued that education policies are normally not characterized by progression or retrogression but by contradictions. Huckin *et al.* (2012) exemplified the contradictions further when they stated that sometimes, teachers are caught up in an ideological dilemma in their classroom practice as they implement government’s policy directives on one hand and as they respond to their

professional need to create a free classroom atmosphere on the other hand. As stated in chapter 2, the ideological dilemma for example, could be that of the transitional monoglossic ideology that is implemented in a multilingual classroom.

CDA in this study will help the researcher evaluate the power relations between teachers and pupils on the one hand and policy makers and teachers on the other. It will also enable the researcher to critically analyse the current Language in Education Policy document in relation to multilingual education in Zambia.

3.4. Summary of the chapter

Discussed above are the concepts and theories that constitute the Conceptual and Theoretical framework of this study. Translanguaging and the three language orientations were used to conceptualise the study while the Code and the Critical Discourse Analysis theories were used as theories to frame the study. The next chapter presents the methods of data collection and analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Overview

The present chapter presents the methods of collecting and analysing data and starts with discussion of the research design. Explained also is the mixed methods research approach and the sequential explanatory research design which this study adopted. In addition, outlined in this chapter are the study area and population, study sample, sampling techniques, research instruments, reliability and validity of research instruments, data collection procedure, document analysis and data analysis. The chapter ends with ethical consideration and a summary.

4.2. Research Design

Kothari (2004) defines a research design as the conceptual structure within which research is constituted as it provides the blue print for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. The research design adopted in this study was Sequential Explanatory Research Design; a component of mixed methods approach. Sequential Explanatory Research Design according to Creswell (2009:211), “is characterized by the collection and analysis of quantitative data first and then followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data.” He added that Sequential Explanatory Research Design is typically used to explain and interpret quantitative results by collecting and analyzing follow-up qualitative data.

Quantitative and qualitative research methodologies are better understood when contrasted with each other (Mulenga, 2015). To begin with, in quantitative approach, the ontological reality is perceived to be stable and unchangeable while in qualitative approach, the ontological reality changes; it's dynamic. Secondly, qualitative approach investigations are carried out under natural settings unlike in quantitative approaches wherein investigations are conducted under controlled conditions (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). Thirdly, quantitative research generates statistics while qualitative approach explores attitudes, behaviour and experiences (Dawson, 2002). This study utilised both quantitative and qualitative by maximizing on their strengths and by minimizing on their limitations.

The rationale for adopting a mixed methods approach in this study is that neither quantitative nor qualitative approach was sufficient enough to capture and reveal the details of this research study. Besides, mixed methods approach unlike either qualitative or quantitative

method approach, validated the study objectives. For example, the study question one needed a quantitative method of data collection through questionnaires to easily capture a larger sample of data on sociolinguistics in the multilingual classrooms whereas research questions two, three and four needed both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection on language practices and language attitudes in the classroom. In short, the systematic combination of both quantitative and qualitative approaches in this study enhanced data collection and data analysis; and also data validity and reliability.

4.3. Target population

A population is a universe of units from which the sample is selected or chosen (Bryman, 2008). In this study therefore, the group of individuals or a universe of units from which the sample was taken were all the primary schools of Chibombo District, all the grade 6 teachers and all the grade 6 pupils.

4.4. Study Sample

A sample is a segment or a subset of the population that is selected for investigation (Bryman 2008). In this study, the sample comprised 3 schools per Zone which came to a total number of 12 schools as the researcher divided the study area into 4 Zones as follows: Zone A (Katuba area), Zone B (Landless corner area), Zone C (Chitanda turn off area) and Zone D (Chibombo central). The total study sample in this study was 260 distributed as 60 teachers and 200 learners. In each school, 5 questionnaires for teachers were distributed and collected bringing the total number of teachers to 60. It is from among these 60 teachers that 20 were interviewed while 6 were observed and video recorded. In the case of the learners, 25 questionnaires were administered in two selected school in each zone bringing the total number of the learner participants to 200.

4.5. Sampling Procedure

Sampling involves choosing a small group of participants that will represent a larger group (Fullan, 1981). The study used cluster random sampling, simple random sampling and purposive sampling technique. According to Kombo and Tromp (2006: 80), “a cluster sampling happens when there is a division of a study population in to smaller groups called clusters in the event that the population is dispersed across a wide geographical region.” Following this explanation and to have a representative sample of all the schools in the district, a cluster random sampling was utilised by dividing the district into four zones A, B,

C and D. Employed in the study also was random sampling technique. Ngandu (2014:38) defines simple random sampling as, “one in which every member of the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample as it involves the random selection of participants from a list of total population or sample frame”. To make sure that each school had an equal chance of being selected, names of the schools were written on the piece of paper and then a ruffle draw was conducted to come up with the three schools in each zone. Simple random sampling was also used to come up with the 200 pupils who answered the questionnaire. Pupils present were asked to do the 1 and 2 counting in turns and there after either the ones or the twos were asked to fill in the questionnaire. This study also used the purposive sampling. According to Kombo and Tromp (2006: 82), purposive sampling happens when “the researcher purposely targets a group of people believed to be reliable for the study. Chibombo District was purposely selected since it was believed to be a multilingual area. The grade 6 teachers and pupils were also purposely selected because they were directly related to the study.

4.6. Data Collection Instruments

In general, research instruments for data collection refer to the tools that the researcher uses in collecting data for the study. The tools used in this study were questionnaires, interview guides, observation checklist, a video recorder and a note book.

The research instrument the researcher used to collect quantitative data was the questionnaire. The questionnaire was particularly used in order to gather data over a large sample of teachers and learners as Kombo and Tromp (2006: 89) observed that a questionnaire is “a research instrument that gathers data over a large sample”. Two different questionnaires, one for the teachers and another one for the pupils were administered because of the differences in linguistic and communicative competence between teachers and pupils. Both questionnaires had only closed-ended questions; meaning that teachers and learners were required to select a response out of the supplied responses (Sidhu, 2014). Refer to appendix three and four for the teachers’ and learners’ questionnaires respectively.

For qualitative data collection, the research instruments used were interview guides, observation checklist, a video recorder and a note book. Semi structured interviews were used because according to Kombo and Tromp (2006: 93) “they are flexible and consist of open and closed -ended questions”. The closed – ended questions enable the researcher to collect in-depth information whereas the open ended questions enabled the researcher to ask follow up

questions. By using semi structured interviews, the researcher hoped to get a complete understanding of the issue under investigation. During the face to face interviews and using the interview guide, the researcher took down notes for qualitative analysis. Refer to appendix 5 for the interview guide.

The lesson observation checklist was also used to collect qualitative data during lessons. In general, a lesson observation checklist provides information on the actual behaviour of the teacher and learners in the classroom. It (lesson observation checklist) was used to record the languages used by teachers and learners, the actual language practices by teachers, the attitudes of teachers towards informal languages and the communicative competence of the learners in English. The observation checklist was structured and only those aspects which were appearing on the observation check list were recorded. While observing lessons and using the video recorder, some lessons were also video recorded. Refer to appendix 6 for the lesson observation check list.

4.6.1. Reliability and Validity of the research instruments

Reliability is concerned with the consistency of results obtained after trials, and the accuracy and the precision of a measuring instrument (Mugenda and Mugenda, 1999). To ascertain the accuracy and the consistency of the instruments, a pilot study was done at one of the schools in Zone C of Chibombo District where questionnaires were administered to ten teachers and twenty pupils. Some inconsistencies were noticed and the questions responsible for the inconsistencies were revised. As for validity, it entails the extent to which an instrument fairly and comprehensively represents the factors under study (Cohen et al., 2000). It is the degree to which the results obtained from the analysis of the data actually answers the research questions and reflects what is stated in the concepts and theories of the study. The interview guide was also administered to ten teachers to ascertain its validity; and some questions in the interview guide which did not answer the research questions were revised.

4.7. Data Collection Procedure

In a broad way, quantitative and qualitative data collection procedure is the precise and systematic gathering of particular information aimed at providing some facts and opinions about the study. Quantitative and qualitative data collection was done within the months of October and November 2017. The process started with the collection of a letter from the Assistant Dean of Post graduate at the University of Zambia followed by getting permission letters from the University of Zambia Research Ethics Committee and from the DEBS of

Chibombo District. While in the field, permission to distribute questionnaires and conduct interviews from head teachers was sought for. The teachers were briefed on the nature of the study into which they were asked to participate. The questionnaires for teachers were distributed first and then later on the learners' questionnaires were administered. Interviews and lesson observations were conducted with teachers who gave consent to have them interviewed and observed.

4.8. Data analysis

Data analysis refers to the examining of what has been collected in the study and making deductions and inferences (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). Since the research design used in this study was sequential explanatory design, quantitative data analysis was done first followed by qualitative data analysis. Data from questionnaires was analysed quantitatively whereas data obtained from interviews was analysed qualitatively.

The quantitative data collected from questionnaires was put for analysis in the SPSS software programme to get the frequencies and percentages. As for qualitative data analysis, the process started with first transcribing the video recorded lessons and later, closed and open ended responses from the interviews were arranged under their research questions which formed the themes of the study.

4.9. Ethical Considerations

Mugenda & Mugenda (2003:190) defined ethics "as that branch of philosophy which deals with ones conduct and serves as a guide to ones behaviour." In research, ethical consideration deals with taking care of all issues that guide the conduct of data collection by respecting participants and respondents in terms of their privacy, protection from any form of abuse and respecting their right to choose whether to participate or not or which information to give and which one to withhold (Simachenya, 2017). In this study, participants were made aware of the fact that participation was going to be on voluntary basis and that the researcher would not coerce any participant in taking part in the study. Prior to conducting interviews and having their lessons observed, participants were also made aware that the information collected would be treated with utmost confidentiality. Thus, only teachers and pupils who were willing to fill in the questionnaires, answer questions from the interview guide and have their lessons observed, did participate in this research study. The names of the schools were not disclosed and the names of the teachers and learners used in the presentation (chapter 5) are not their real names.

4.10. Summary of the chapter

The study made use of a sequential explanatory research design which is one of the components of the mixed method approach, and which involves the quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis. Explained in the chapter are the reasons for the use of each item like the research design, population, sample size, sampling procedure, research instruments, data collection procedure, data analysis and ethical consideration. Discussed in the next chapter are the findings collected and grouped under research questions.

CHAPTER FIVE:
PRESENTATION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1. Overview

This chapter presents the findings of the research which have highlighted a number of issues in line with research objectives and research questions. The presentation of the findings for this study is done according to the research objectives: Sociolinguistic context of the sampled classroom; Language practices in the classrooms; Teachers’ Language Attitudes; and Challenges teachers faced when teaching in multilingual classrooms.

5.2. Sociolinguistic contexts of the sampled classrooms

The first research objective was about establishing the sociolinguistic composition of the classrooms. It was intended to bring out (a) the mother tongue of both teachers and learners, (b) the number of languages that each teacher and student is able to speak, and (c) the learners’ language of play. In brief, the researcher wanted to establish the familiar languages and the linguistic repertoires of the classroom. Data collected from this question was both quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative data was collected from teachers and learners using questionnaires whereas qualitative data was collected from teachers only using semi-structured interviews.

5.2.1. Teachers’ language characteristics: Quantitative data

Firstly, teachers were asked to state their familiar local language. This was done in order to find out if teachers’ linguistic abilities and repertoires correlated with the languages widely spoken by the learners. The following are the first languages of the teachers:

Table 5.1. : The first language or the mother tongue of teachers

Teachers’ first language					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Tonga	14	23.3	23.3	23.3
	English	6	10.0	10.0	33.3
	Lenje	4	6.7	6.7	40.0
	Bemba	24	40.0	40.0	80.0
	Nyanja	9	15.0	15.0	95.0
	Others	3	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

The information given in the above table reveals that majority of the teachers (40 percent) have Bemba as their first language followed by Tonga at 23 percent. The rest, in descending

order, are Nyanja at 15 percent English at 10 percent, Lenje at 7 percent and others at 5 percent. The “other languages” (5 percent) mentioned in the interviews with teachers were Namwanga, Lozi and Kaonde.

Secondly, teachers were asked whether they were fluent in the predominant local language of the area where they worked. Their responses are shown in the table below:

Table 5.2: The fluency of teachers in the main local language where they taught?

I fluently speak the dominant local language of this area					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	12	20.0	20.0	20.0
	Agree	16	26.7	26.7	46.7
	Disagree	30	50.0	50.0	96.7
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

From table above, 50 percent of the teachers disagreed and 3.3 percent strongly disagreed to the suggestion that they were fluent in the local language of the area where they taught. However, 26.7 percent agreed and 20 percent strongly agreed that they were fluent in the local language of the area. In short, majority of the teachers at 53 percent were not fluent in the dominant local language of their working area.

5.2.2. Learners’ language characteristics: Quantitative data

Teachers were also asked to state what the familiar language for most of the learners was. This was done to see if teachers had thorough knowledge of the linguistic situation in their classroom; the knowledge which they used to decide which language(s) were best suited for classroom interactions. The following were their responses:

Table 5.3: The language of play for the learners according to the teachers

Language of play for my pupils					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Tonga	3	5.0	5.0	5.0
	Lenje	24	40.0	40.0	45.0
	Bemba	8	13.3	13.3	58.3
	Nyanja	25	41.7	41.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

The data from table above shows that 41.7 percent of the teachers thought that Nyanja was the language of play seconded by Lenje at 40 percent. Other teachers thought that Bemba at 13 percent and Tonga at 5 percent were languages of play respectively.

For triangulation purposes, pupils were also asked to state their familiar language. While teachers gave their view, it was important that pupils indicate on their own what their familiar language was. The table below shows what pupils said were their familiar languages:

Table 5.4: The mother tongue of the learners or the languages learners use at home

The language I use at home					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Tonga	32	16.0	16.0	16.0
	English	5	2.5	2.5	18.5
	Lenje	58	29.0	29.0	47.5
	Bemba	46	23.0	23.0	70.5
	Nyanja	45	22.5	22.5	93.0
	Others	14	7.0	7.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

The information presented in the above table reveals that 29 percent of the learners used Lenje at home, 23 percent used Bemba, 22.5 percent used Nyanja, 16 percent used Tonga, 7 percent used other languages and 2.5 percent used English. In short, the home languages spoken by most of the pupils were Lenje, Bemba, Nyanja and Tonga while the least spoken home language was English.

Additionally, pupils were asked about the language they spoke when playing outside the classroom. This was particularly important because the home language and the language of play are not necessarily synonymous. Thus, regarding the language of play of the sampled learners, the following were their responses:

Table 5.5: The language of play for the learners

The language I speak with my friends					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Tonga	14	7.0	7.0	7.0
	English	3	1.5	1.5	8.5
	Lenje	76	38.0	38.0	46.5
	Bemba	47	23.5	23.5	70.0
	Nyanja	58	29.0	29.0	99.0
	Others	2	1.0	1.0	100.0

	Total	200	100.0	100.0	
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The data in the table above shows that 38 percent of the learners spoke Lenje when at play followed by Nyanja at 29 percent. The rest in descending order are Bemba at 23.5 percent, Tonga at 7 percent and English at 1.5 percent.

Furthermore, a follow up question was asked to ascertain the number of languages learners were able to speak. This question was important in that it was meant to establish the linguistic repertoire of the learners in the classrooms. The learners' responses are shown in the table below:

Table 5.6: The number of languages a learner is able to speak

The number of languages I speak					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	1 language	17	8.5	8.5	8.5
	2 languages	70	35.0	35.0	43.5
	3 languages	67	33.5	33.5	77.0
	4 languages	41	20.5	20.5	97.5
	5 languages	5	2.5	2.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

The data in the above table shows that majority of the grade 6 pupils of Chibombo district at 91.5 percent were able to speak two or more languages. Only a few at 8.5 percent spoke one language.

Lastly, teachers' opinions on whether grade six pupils were able to read and write in English were sought. This question was particularly important because the ability to read and write and communicate in the language of classroom instructions (English) is a prerequisite for meaningful learning. Besides, the new language in education policy stipulates the use of English only at upper primary level. The teachers' responses were as follows:

Table 5.7: Teachers’ opinion on the learners’ ability to read and write in English

All the pupils are able to read and write in English					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Agree	7	11.7	11.7	11.7
	Disagree	47	78.3	78.3	90.0
	Strongly disagree	6	10.0	10.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

From the table above, the data shows that majority of the teachers at 78.3 percent disagreed and 10 percent strongly disagreed to the suggestion that their pupils are able to read and write in English. Only a paltry of teachers at 11.7 percent agreed that their pupils were able to read and write in English.

On the learners’ ability to communicate in English, the responses of the teachers were as follows:

Table 5.8: Teachers’ opinion on the learners’ ability to communicate in English

All the pupils are fluent in English					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Agree	1	1.7	1.7	1.7
	Disagree	51	85.0	85.0	86.7
	Strongly disagree	8	13.3	13.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

The data in the above table reveals that majority of the teachers at 85 percent disagreed and 13.3 percent strongly disagreed to the suggestion that their pupils were able speak and understand English. Only one teacher at 1.7 percent agreed that her learners were able speak English fluently.

5.2.3. Teachers’ language characteristics: Qualitative data

The questions asked during teachers’ interviews were meant to validate the quantitative findings from the questionnaires, hence the similarities between the questions in the questionnaires and those in the interview guides.

Like in the questionnaire, teachers were asked to state their first language and the findings showed that the first languages of the teachers were Bemba, Tonga, Lozi, Namwanga and Nyanja. From these languages, like the data obtained from the questionnaires, many of the teachers stated Bemba as their first language followed by those teachers whose first

languages were Tonga and Nyanja. The findings also revealed that none of the interviewed teachers stated Lenje as his or her first language.

However, when teachers were asked to mention other languages they were able to speak, Lenje was stated as their second or third language. Other stated languages were Bemba, Tonga, Nyanja, Lenje, Nsenga, Namwanga, Kaonde, Lozi and Tumbuka. Many teachers also stated that they were able to speak two or more languages that were commonly spoken in the area where they worked. Below are some of the responses from teachers:

I am Bemba by tribe and I spoke Bemba at home. But I am also able to speak Lenje because the head teacher forced me to learn Lenje so that I can help the learners in class (Teacher 1).

My first languages are Bemba and Tonga but I am able to speak Lenje and Nyanja because of the learners and the pressure from the head teacher (Teacher 5).

My first language is Namwanga but in grade 8 I stayed with my elder brother in Kabwe where I learnt Bemba. When I was posted to this area, I started learning Tonga and Lenje. It is half half now (Teacher 13).

The third question asked to the teachers was concerned with the languages of play of their learners. The findings according to majority of the teachers' opinions revealed that Lenje was the language of play for most of their learners followed by Nyanja and Bemba respectively. The information obtained from teachers' interviews also showed that none of the interviewed teachers mentioned English as the language of play for their pupils. Some teachers responded as follows:

They (pupils) speak Bemba and Nyanja in class and when playing but it is difficult to know the dominant language of play (Teacher 10).

Many pupils here speak Lenje and there are some who speak Bemba and Nyanja especially those pupils from teachers' and civil servant homes (Teacher 11).

I don't know very well because I don't speak but understand local languages, but I guess I hear some of them using Tonga and Lenje (Teacher 18).

Here it depends; those from civil servants' houses use Bemba at play while those from villages use Lenje when at play (Teacher 20).

5.2.4. Summary of research question one findings

The main aim for the first objective was to find out the sociolinguistic condition of Chibombo district. The findings showed that the grade 6 classrooms of Chibombo District were inherently multilingual since all the interviewed teachers stated that they spoke more than three languages, and that majority of the learners at 91.5 percent spoke two or more languages. The findings also revealed the local languages teachers were able to speak which were Bemba, Tonga, Nyanja, Lenje, Nsenga, Namwanga, Kaonde, Lozi and Tumbuka. Of these, teachers who spoke Bemba were in the majority followed by those who spoke Tonga and Nyanja respectively. The findings further showed that the learners' familiar language was Lenje followed by Nyanja and Bemba. Similarly, the languages of play for most of the learners were Lenje, Nyanja and Bemba, and at the bottom list of the language of play were Tonga and English. Lastly, the findings according to teachers' opinion showed that only a few pupils (8.5 percent) were able to read and write and communicate well in English.

5.3. Teachers' and Learners' Classroom Language Practices

The second research objective sought to analyse teachers' language practices in selected grade six classrooms. It was meant to generate data on the language practices in multilingual classrooms and whether such practices were appropriate for multilingual classes or not. Presented in this section are both quantitative and qualitative data on the classroom language practices of the teachers and pupils.

5.3.1. Classroom language practices: Quantitative Data.

Firstly, pupils were asked to indicate the language which teachers used for classroom interaction. In other words, the question was regarding the medium of instruction in the respective schools. The following were the responses:

Table 5.9: Pupils' opinion on what language their teachers use when teaching

The language my teacher uses when teaching					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Tonga	4	2.0	2.0	2.0
	English	179	89.5	89.5	91.5
	Lenje	4	2.0	2.0	93.5
	Bemba	9	4.5	4.5	98.0

	Nyanja	4	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

From the table above, 179 pupils representing 89.5 percent indicated that their teachers used English when teaching. The rest, 21 pupils representing 10.5 percent, indicated that their teachers used Bemba at 4.5 percent, Nyanja, Lenje and Tonga at 2 percent each.

Thereafter, pupils were asked to indicate which language(s) teachers used when emphasising a point. The idea here was to see whether teachers translanguaged in the course of classroom instruction. The following were the responses:

Table 5.10: Pupils' opinion on what language do their teachers use when emphasizing a point.

The language my teacher uses when emphasizing a point					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Tonga	25	12.5	12.5	12.5
	English	49	24.5	24.5	37.0
	Lenje	36	18.0	18.0	55.0
	Bemba	63	31.5	31.5	86.5
	Nyanja	27	13.5	13.5	100.0
	Total	200	100.0	100.0	

The information given in the table above shows that 63 pupils (31.5 percent) opined that their teachers used Bemba to emphasis a point followed by English having 49 pupils (24.5 percent), Lenje with 36 pupils (18 percent), Nyanja with 27 pupils (13.5 percent) and Tonga having 25 pupils (12.5 percent).

Teachers were also asked if they used more than one language when teaching. Again, the question was whether or not teachers translanguaged during classroom teaching. The following were their responses:

Table 5.11: Teachers' opinion on if they used more than one language when teaching

I use more than one language when teaching					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	20	33.3	33.3	33.3
	Agree	36	60.0	60.0	93.3
	Disagree	3	5.0	5.0	98.3
	Strongly disagree	1	1.7	1.7	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

The data shows that 33.3 percent of the respondents strongly agreed that they used more than one language while 60 percent agreed. Further, while 5 percent disagreed, 1.7 percent strongly disagreed. However, when the question was asked in a different way, responses also changed. The other question was whether teachers allowed the use of other languages in the classroom other than the official medium of instruction (English). The following were the responses:

Table 5.12: Teachers’ opinion on encouraging the use of local languages in the classroom

I encourage pupils to use local languages in the classroom					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	8	13.3	13.3	13.3
	Agree	20	33.3	33.3	46.7
	Disagree	30	50.0	50.0	96.7
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

The data from the table above shows that while 13.3 percent of the respondents strongly agreed that they allowed the use of local languages in the classroom, 33.3 percent agreed to doing so. On the other hand, while 50 percent disagreed; meaning that they did not allow the use of other languages besides English in the classroom, 3.3 percent of the respondents strongly disallowed the use of other languages besides English.

5.3.3. Classroom language practices: Interview Data

The questions asked during interviews to the teachers were similar to the ones asked in the teachers’ and learners’ questionnaires. The first interview question was regarding the medium of instruction in the respective schools. Teachers were asked to state what language(s) they used when teaching grade 6 pupils. The findings showed that almost all the teachers mentioned that they mainly used English. Only a few of them stated that they mixed English and local languages.

Teachers were also asked on whether they used other languages or not. The aim was to ascertain the possibility of them translanguaging. The findings revealed that many teachers agreed that they used other languages besides English. Below are some of their responses:

I first introduce the topic in English then Bemba. I use Bemba to explain difficult words or sentences that learners do not understand. I use Bemba to explain and help them learn (Teacher 3).

The main language is English but to stress a point or to simplify a concept, I use Bemba and Tonga. When emphasising a point I use the language that learners are able to understand, I often translate from English to Bemba and Tonga (Teacher 7).

I introduce the lesson in English and then continue in local languages. I simplify the information in Bemba, Lenje and Nyanja for the sake of my pupils. I just mix the languages to help my pupils (Teacher 12).

I teach in English but explain and translate in Nyanja when they seem not to understand. I use it (Nyanja) to simplify difficult words (Teacher 13).

I introduce the lesson in English and teach in English but I also translate difficult words in Nyanja, I use it to simplify difficult words. I often translate difficult English words and Questions into Nyanja (Teacher 16).

5.3.4. Classroom language practices: Lesson Observation Data

After collecting questionnaire and interview data, the idea was to see how teachers practically taught grade six learners in multilingual classes; in a way to ascertain their views indicated in the questionnaires and during interviews where they stated that they used more than one language when teaching. What is presented under lesson observation data are the excerpts from the transcribed lesson verbatims and not the whole lesson verbatim. A total of six lessons were observed. The first lesson observation was a grade 6 science lesson on Blood Circulation taught by teacher 16 in Zone area B.

Excerpt 1: Science lessons on “The heart and Blood circulation.” (Teacher 16)

Teacher: ...*magazi yakayamba kuchoka ufunika kuziba kuti uku kulima veins yamene yachosa magazi.* (Nyanja; when blood starts flowing, you need to know that there are veins that allow the flow of blood). Then *kuli* (there) maybe *nikutali naku* (far from) hospital, the first thing you are going to do *uzamangako chinyula uku* so that *magazi yasiye kufika kuti?* (so what you have to do is tie your finger with a cloth so that blood does not continue coming out).

Pupils: (talking to themselves.. only murmuring.. then a questions)So Sir *yangasiye pamene apa?* (Can the blood stop flowing instantly after tying?)

Teacher: One thing you should know Amos is you have got veins that are coming direct from the heart so as the heart continues pumping...

The second lesson observation below was a grade 6 English lesson on the Table of Content, Index and Dictionary by teacher three (3) in Zone area A

Excerpt 2: English lesson on “Index and Dictionary.” (Teacher 3)

Teacher:And then Index an index is also a list of what is found in the book....but the dif....there is a difference between an index and a table of content....a table of content is at the beginning *ofu* (localized English for “of”) a book *aini* (not so)....*kuntanshi ye book ekwaba* table of content (Bemba: the table of content is at the beginning of the book)....and then index ...it is...it points out specific things found on *ama* (the) pages *aini* (not so)....for example, maybe....*kwati yalya ama* words *twacibelenga* (Bemba: like the words we read)...*twalayasanga kwisa?* (Bemba: where can we find them?)...maybe *ku* (at the) last *eko balatweba ati* (they will tell us that).....if you want to find this word in this book you find it on this page *aini*(isn’t it)

Pupils: Yes (chorus answer)

Teacher: And the same can be found *muma* (Bemba: on the) pages *ayengi* (many) *aini* (not so)...But for the table of content *yena taba* (for it they don’t)... hnm....what is found generally *muliyo* (at that) page *twaumfwana aini* (we have agreed not so)...And the dictionary....*na* dictionary *tamwaishiba?* (even the dictionary you don’t know?)

Pupils: *Aweee twaliishiba* (Bemba: no, we know it)

Teacher: *Uwalanjebako* dictionary *nani?* (who will tell me what a dictionary is)..... what is a dictionary? *munjebele ati mwalishiba* dictionary (Bemba: you told me that you know a dictionary)....*Mwacilafwaya ukuimona?* (do you want to see it?)

Pupils: *tatwaishiba mu Cisungu* (Bemba: we don’t know it in English)

Teacher: *Kuti mwalanda nangu mu Cilenje nangu mu Cinyanja* (you can say it in Lenje or Nyanja)....(no answer from the pupils as the teacher went on distributing text books).

The third lesson observation below was a grade 6 mathematics lesson on Division and Multiplication taught by teacher 12 in Zone area A.

Excerpt 3: Mathematics lesson on “Division and Multiplication” (Teacher 12)

Teacher: (He repeats the same problem worked out by a pupil) 7 divided by 3? or we can say 3 into 7?...how many times can 3 go into 7? *Bushe 3 kuti yangila imiku inga muli 7?* (Bemba: 3 can go into 7 how many times)*Ino 3 inga twanijila zyiindi zyongaye mu 7* (Tonga: how many times can 3 go into 7).....*Ino 3 nga shanjila makanda ongaye muli 7 a shobile?* (Lenje: 3 can go into 7 how many times)... Yes Deni (*pseudo name of the pupil*)!

Pupil: two (2) remainder one (1).

Teacher: So when writing.....*pakulemba* (Bemba: when writing).....you write on top of 7..... this one.....not *iyi apa* (Bemba: not this one) but the first 7. Then step 2, what are we going to do? *Wacita viyani Chansa* (*pseudo name of the pupil*)? (Lenje: what are we going to do, Bwalya (*pseudo name of the pupil*)).....we have written our answer....step 2 *twacita viyani?* (Tonga: what do you do?)... *Tulecita shani?* (Bemba: what do we do?)

Pupils: (Silence)

Teacher: Ok, we are going to multiply 2 by 3, *tefyo?* (Bemba: not so?) 2 multiply by 3... Maxwell(*pseudo name of the pupil*)?..

Pupil: six (6)

Teacher: Where are we supposed to write 6? *Tulelemba apa olo apa?* *Tulelemba aba or aba?* (Bemba: where do we write, here or there?)

Pupil: (Answer not heard)

Teacher: Then say.. 7 take away 6? *7 tufumyemo 6?* (Bemba: 7 minus 6)... *Mu 7 tubuhemo 6?* (Tonga: 7 take away 6).....*mu 7 tukushemo 6?*

(Lenje: 7 minus 6)ahha...Miswaki (*pseudo name of the pupil*)? **Pupil:** One

(1)

The fourth observed lesson below was a science lesson on the Parts of the Plant taught by teacher thirteen (13) in Zone area D

Excerpt 4: Science lesson on “The parts of the plants” (Teacher 13)

Teacher: Alright...so...we looked at the parts of the plants (draws on the board)....which part of the plant did we discuss?Which part is labelled 3?

Pupil: Anther

Teacher: So this anther *twamene tumaona tumachosa* (the ones we have seen) what we call *tuma* (the) pollen *twa* (the) yellow....*kanzimu kasobela paja patwa* yellow (the bee is hovering around the yellow parts)...so the function *inchito ya aka* (the function of the..) anther *akachita* (it does) produce pollen, *na aka ka* (and this) filament *tonse utu nitu* (all these are...) male parts...*twanverana ai* (are we together)...*tuzakamba ati tu* (we are saying that) male part *tuma* (the) filament *natuma* (and the) pollen. Then *twabwera kuli chi* (then we come to..) stalk *ichi chilli apa chichita bwani?* (the one that is here, what does it do)...*olo kamba mu Cinyanja* (you can also say in Nyanja)...*ungaeseke* (you can try).... yes!

Pupil: *Chi stalk chima gwilila* (the stalk holds the...) flower.

Teacher: This stalk *chamene tiona ndichi chamene* (the stalk we are seeing is the same stalk)... it holds the flower *kuchimutengo* (on the tree).... *twanverana* (are we together). The other part which is very very interesting *ma* (the) petal *yambili ukuti yende ukuyapeza yali* (there are different colours of..) bright red, yellow...*yaoneka mushe maningi* (they look very nice).... *tiya konda pama nyumba* (we like having them in our homes)... *yanunkila mushe* (they smell so nice)...Why do you think they are like that?...*wamene anga eyeseko* (anyone who can try)?

Pupils: (silence..no answer..)

Teacher: Alright! *twamene tuma* (these same...) petals *tuoneka* (they look)...bright even the smell is so nice....*twanverana aini* (are we together?)...why because they attract the insect...insect *ili kutali kaya aka kutamangila paja kazabwera pama* petals (the insect which is very far away can be attracted and will come and sit on the petals) and *pama* anther *katenga* pollen (and sucks pollen)....so this one is to attract....so what we are saying is that *ma* petals *yali* (they are) very very important because *tumachita* (they do) attract *tuma* (the) small birds that is the reason why *tuma* small birds *tumasobela pama* (they play on..) flowers.. *tuzakwigwilila kutwa* yellow (they hold on to the yellow parts).....How about this one what could be the function of this stigma?.....

The fifth lesson below that was observed was a science lesson on Teenage Pregnancy taught by teacher 15 in Zone area C

Excerpt 5: Science lesson on “Teenager Pregnancies and social problems” (Teacher 15)

Teacher: Today we are going to discuss about teenage pregnancy and social problems. Who can tell me what we discussed last time?

Pupils: (Silence)

Teacher: Ok last time we talked about the features *ofu* (of) Pregnancy. So today we are going to talk about *abauuti* (about) teenage pregnancy.....We are going to talk *abauuti* (localised English for about) what happens to teenagers... what happens to the peop... teenagers when they get pregnant...are we together? And the consequences and risks ...are we together? Before we start talking about teenage pregnancy, can we go through what we learnt last time we met....we talked *aboutii* (localised English) pregnancy.. what is pregnancy... Chilekwa! (*pseudo name of the pupil*) (calls the name of the pupil)

Pupil: (as the exercise book was opened she said....) pregnancy is the time during..eeeh during when eeeh the baby grows inside the mother's womb.

Teacher: when the baby grows in the mother's womb aini.... is *koodi* (called) pregnancy *aini* (isn't it).....The government brought this topic to us grade 6 because they know that a lot of teenagers...a lot of you...when they reach puberty, they get pregnant. So they want you to know the consequences, dangers and risks....are we together? We also talked *abauuti* (about)....hmmm...so when a man and woman grow or they fall in love, they have babies....they have *whatii*? (what)

Pupils: Babies

Teacher: But at your age you are not supposed to have babies...to have *waatii*? (what)

Pupils: Babies (chorus answer by the pupils)

Teacher: Are we together? today we are going to talk *abauuti* (about) teenage pregnancy. First before we talk about teenage pregnancy we have to know what does it mean the word teenage...teenage, what does it mean?

Pupils: (Silence)

Teacher: Ok this one came from the word *ten* (instead of teen, she repeatedly said ten)...so those who are young people from 9 to 19 years old up are called teenagers, are we together? So from 9 or (she writes on the board) 8 to 19 years old....these people in the range of 8 to 19 years old are called *waatii* (what)

Pupils: Teenagers

Teacher: it is the period when boys and girls become matured, are we together? What are the signs of being mature? How do we know that this girl or that boy has reached the age of puberty? How do we tell?.....

The sixth lesson below that was observed was a computer lesson taught by teacher 9 in Zone area D

Excerpt 6: Computer lesson on “Formatting” (Teacher 9)

Teacher: Okey so today we are going to do technological studies...so I want us to remind ourselves of what we learnt last week....who can tell us?

Pupil 1: (with his notebook open) We learnt about formatting.

Pupils 2: (not very clear...his notebook also open).. about the formatting...the text..size of the font...different text formatting

Teacher: *Boodii* (bold) *foontii* (font) means making something look darker *aini* (isn't it)...so today we are going to learn *abauuti* (about) demonstrating the formatting of *waatii?* (what)..a text... we are going to demonstrate how to format *whatii* (what)..a text...so if you want to *fomaati* (format) a text using.....bold *itaalicishi* (Italics), normal and ...hmn...and underline *aini* (isn't it). You have to follow some of the *stepuusi* (steps) for this things to happen....so today we talk about how we can format a text and highlight it *yusingii* (using) *waatii* (what).....

Pupils: Key board

Teacher: ...and a *mauusi* (mouse)...we are going to demonstrate it ...(she draws a mouse..)...so this is a *mausi* (mouse).....imagine that *naoo* (now) we are on the computer...we are going to *fomaatii* (format)... a text *yusingii* (using) *whatii* (what)?..a *mauusi* (mouse)...you *raiiiti* (write) a text...that *textiti* (text) is a normal one *aini* (isn't it)?...*naoo* (now) we *wantii* (want)....which one are we going to do?.. are we going to underline or *waatii* (what)....imagine we are on the computer...now you have written a *textiti* (text).....the text you have written is a normal one....where all these three are based on..... we want to use a *mauusi* (mouse) to *fomaati* (format) or rather to *ailaitii* (highlight) them into bold, italics or underline...so what to do first is.....

Teacher: You are going to place the *ka* (Bemba diminutive word) cursor before or after the highlighted text....(she draws a box)..just pretend that this is the highlighted text *koodi* (called) my class....now we want to use the mouse.....so you are going to go.....in fact this is the *ka* (Bemba diminutive word) cursor....that *ka thiingi* (the small thing) which...(uses the fingers to demonstrate what the cursor look like and what it does)....so *naao* (now) you *hoodi* (hold)...this is the mouse.....you do *waatii* (what) ...you attach the cursor before or after the text which to highlight *aini* (isn't it)....

5.3.5. Summary of research question two findings

The main purpose of the study was to analyse teachers' language practices in the grade six multilingual classrooms of Chibombo District. Both the quantitative and qualitative data revealed that while multiple languages were used in some classes, only English was used in other classes. The quantitative data showed that majority of the learners at 89.5 percent indicated that their teachers used English when teaching while a cumulative of 75.5 percent of the learners stated that their teachers used other languages when emphasising a point. The quantitative data also showed that a cumulative 93.3 percent of the teachers stated that they used other languages apart from English when teaching whereas 53 percent of the teachers did not allow learners to use local languages in the classroom. Similarly, the qualitative findings from class observations revealed that many teachers used both English and local languages when teaching. For instance, out of the six observed teachers, four used both local languages and English while two teachers used English only. Besides, the two teachers who used English did not use the standard British English but a mixture of Standard English and the local English. Thus, teachers' and learners' language practices were characterised by the use of both local languages and English.

5.4. Teachers' Language Attitudes towards informal languages

The third research objective was meant to establish attitudes of teachers towards informal language varieties present in the classroom. It was necessary to establish teachers' language attitudes towards informal languages given a scenario of multilingual classrooms. It was particularly important to find out teachers attitudes towards informal languages because language attitudes do not only affect the use or the non use of some languages but it also affects the teaching and learning process in the classroom. Data collected from this research question was both quantitative and qualitative. Quantitative data was collected from teachers using questionnaires whereas qualitative data was also collected from teachers but using the interview guide.

5.4.1. Teachers' language attitudes: Quantitative data

The first question was asked to solicit for answers from teachers on whether they encouraged their pupils to use local languages in the classroom or not. The suggestion to encourage the use of informal languages in the classroom by teachers was particularly meant to find out teachers' positive or negative language attitudes towards informal languages. The responses are shown in the table below:

Table 5.13: Teachers’ opinion on encouraging the use of local languages

I encourage pupils to use local languages in the class					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	8	13.3	13.3	13.3
	Agree	20	33.3	33.3	46.7
	Disagree	30	50.0	50.0	96.7
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

The elicited data from table 13 reveals that 50 percent of the teachers did not encourage the use of local languages and that 3.3 percent strongly discourages the learners from using local languages. On the other hand, 33.3 percent of the teachers encouraged the use of local languages while 3.3 percent strongly encouraged the use of informal languages.

However, when the suggestion was asked in a different way, responses also changed. The other question was whether the use of local languages is good for learning or not. This question was asked because discouraging the use of a language like in table 5.3.1.1 does not necessarily mean that the discouraged language is not good for learning. The following were the responses:

Table 5.14: Teachers’ opinion whether the use of local languages is good for learning or not

The use of local languages is good for learning					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	13	21.7	21.7	21.7
	Agree	37	61.7	61.7	83.3
	Disagree	8	13.3	13.3	96.7
	Strongly disagree	2	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

The data above shows that 61.7 percent representing 37 teachers agreed that the use of local languages was good for learning and that 21.7 percent (13 teachers) of them strongly opined that the use of local languages is good for learning. A few teachers at 13.3 percent representing 8 teachers disagreed and 3.3 percent representing 2 teachers strongly disagreed to the suggestion that local languages were good for learning.

When the second suggestion was rephrased to include the use of both informal and formal languages being good for learning, the responses were similar to the second suggestion as shown in the table below:

Table 5.15: Teachers’ opinion on the use of both local languages and official languages

The use of both local languages and official language is good for learning					
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	C. Percent
Valid	Strongly agree	23	38.3	38.3	38.3
	Agree	32	53.3	53.3	91.7
	Disagree	2	3.3	3.3	95.0
	Strongly disagree	3	5.0	5.0	100.0
	Total	60	100.0	100.0	

From the above data, 38.3 percent of the teachers strongly agreed and 53.3 percent agreed to the suggestion that the use of both local languages and official languages are good for learning. On the other hand, a paltry number of teachers at 3.3 percent disagreed and 5 percent strongly disagreed to the suggestion that the use of both local languages and official languages is good for learning. The data shows that majority of the teachers have a positive language attitude towards the use of both informal and formal languages for teaching and learning.

5.4.2. Teachers’ language attitudes: Qualitative data

Interviewed teachers were asked whether they thought the use of local languages was good for learning or not. They were also asked to state the reasons for their answers. Those who opined that the use of local languages was good for learning had the following to say:

Yes, if you ask a question in English, the pupils are quiet (Teacher 8).

Yes given that if we use English only, they will not understand (Teacher 11).

Yes in the sense that it is pointless to use only English while the learners do not understand (Teacher 13).

Yes because if we don't use local languages, the learners do not understand (Teacher 14).

Yes it is but... It helps them understand (Teacher 16).

It is good because the learners understand well when I mix (Teacher 17).

Yes, they get the concepts easily (Teacher 18).

Yes because they have to learn from the known to the unknown (Teacher 19).

Yes and no, yes because they are able to understand when you use local languages, and no because of the exam in English at grade (Teacher 20).

From the above responses, the main reasons for some teachers having a favourable attitudes towards the use of local languages was that many pupils did not understand the official language and that the use of local languages helped the learners understand the concepts well; like teacher 19 said, “*they have to learn from the known to the unknown.*”

As for those teachers who did not think that the use of local languages was good for learning thereby having negative attitude towards informal languages had different reasons for adhering to the use of English only. The main reasons were that grade 7 exams were held in English only and that all the learning from grade five onwards were supposed to be in English. Below is what they said:

No, they just have to learn in English due to exams at grade 7 (Teacher 1).

It is not good to use informal languages; Tonga is not good for them. It will not help them pass exams (Teacher 2).

No, they have to use English because of exams in English (Teacher 3).

All the upper classes are in English so they have to learn in English (Teacher 5.)

Not good; we are preparing them for higher education, they have to use English (Teacher 6).

Because of exams that are in English only; I have to use English so that they get ready for the exams (Teacher 9).

No, they are supposed to use English for the future. There is no future in Zambia without English (Teacher 15).

Yes and no – they are able to understand but at the same time they have to learn in English to prepare themselves for grade seven exams (Teacher 20).

The other reason for having negative attitudes towards informal languages was that local languages interfered with the learning and acquisition of English. In addition, they said that teaching and learning using local languages encourages laziness in learning English, and the lack of resource materials in local languages.

It (local languages use) is not necessary; using English helps learners learn English because at home no one helps them in English (Teacher 4).

It (local languages) encourages laziness in learning English; it also interferes with learning English (Teacher 7).

It is good but the problem is lack of resources in the local languages (Teacher 10).

Another question was asked as to “when given a choice, which language would the teacher choose for classroom instructions and why.” This question was important because it was meant to bring out their personal views on the choice of a suitable language that is detached from the pressure of implementing the language in Education Policy. Interestingly, the data below shows an overwhelming number of teachers who freely chose English as their language of choice.

English; it is an instructional language (Teacher 1).

English because all the books are written in English (Teacher 3).

English because they will understand and learn better English; many people in the country understand English (Teacher 4).

English since learners will improve their English (Teacher 5).

English because it is the official language (Teacher 6).

English given that the exams are in English; if we use local languages they will fail the exams (Teacher 7).

English; I am not familiar with the local language of this area (Teacher 8)

English, just English (Teacher 9)

English because it is the official language and the medium of instruction for all the subjects (Teacher 12).

English; books are in English and also the vocabulary (Teacher 15).

English, so that I prepare them for grade 7 exams which are English (Teacher 18).

Teacher 20: English because all the questions in grade seven exams are in English.

From the responses above, many teachers chose English with varying reasons such as preparing the learners for grade 7 exams that are conducted in English only, the availability of literature in English and the lack of it in local languages, lack of fluency in the local languages, and to help learners learn good English.

Some teachers however, had English as their choice but for the sake of the learners, they preferred the use of local languages.

Personally I prefer English but Bemba or any other local language for the sake of the pupils (Teacher 11).

English but because of the pupils I will use Bemba (Teacher 13).

On the other hand, a few teachers who had local languages for classroom instructions as their choice had the following to say:

Nyanja because most of the pupils speak Nyanja here (Teacher 2)

For the sake of the pupils and to make them understand I will choose Bemba (Teacher 10).

Bemba because it is the language pupils understands well (Teacher 17).

Lenje because majority are Lenje speakers and the language of play is Lenje (Teacher 19).

Surprising enough, there were some teachers who chose to be neutral; preferring neither languages but ready to use any given the availability of the materials and to help learners learn. Below is what they said:

No choice for me; I will still mix languages for learners to understand (Teacher 14).

I will choose any language given that there are available materials for both the teacher and the students (Teacher 16).

5.4.4. Summary of research question three findings

Research objective number 3 looked at teachers' language attitudes towards informal languages. The quantitative data on teachers' language attitudes towards informal languages showed that majority of the teachers at 53.3 percent discouraged the use of local languages as compared to 46.7 percent who encouraged the use of local languages. The quantitative data also revealed that an overwhelming number of teachers at 83.4 percent were aware that the use of local languages is good for learning. In addition, the quantitative data revealed that almost all the teachers, 55 out of 60 representing 91.6 percent had positive language attitudes towards the use of both local languages and English. The qualitative data also revealed similar findings. A good number of teachers felt that the use of local languages was good for learning citing helping the learners to learn as their main reason for thinking that local languages are good for learning. However, the few teachers who did not think that local languages were good for learning were mainly concerned with the preparation of their learners for grade 7 exams that are held in English only. Additionally, the qualitative data showed that almost all the teachers preferred English to local languages given that they had a free choice to make. The reasons for their choice were that English is the official language, it has a large reservoir of literature, and that it is the language for higher education.

5.5. Challenges teachers face when teaching in multilingual Classrooms

The fourth objective sought to establish the challenges which teachers faced in teaching multilingual classrooms using the official language. Qualitative data collection method was used to collect data.

Firstly, teachers were asked to state the challenges they faced when teaching in multilingual classrooms. Many of the teachers stated the difficult to communicate with learners as the main problem which arose from the learners' low understanding of English. Below were their responses:

Some pupils have a minimal understanding of English. Like I said it's understanding which is a problem. Some pupils don't understand English; you can tell from their facial expression (Teacher 1).

The communication part is difficult. They have not broken through into English especially reading; they read with the help of the teacher (Teacher 2).

Some questions are difficult to understand. They don't ask questions correctly because they don't understand English (Teacher 3).

Some pupils don't understand English. Pupils understand less when English is used (Teacher 4).

It takes time to make them get instructions and understand in English. The problem is to understand what the teacher is saying (Teacher 5).

It's the calibre of the learners; they don't understand English; you have to repeat many times for them to understanding the official language. They are not dull but because of the environment (Teacher 6).

Pupils understand less English. Pupils are limited in English; they feel free to express themselves in local languages (Teacher 9).

Lack of proper communication with pupils who are less competent in English is the problem. It's the lack of understanding of the language (Teacher 10).

Students fail to answer questions in English. It's difficult for them to follow lessons in English (Teacher 11).

It's Lack of understanding and lack of vocabulary. They have less vocabulary (Teacher 13).

Understanding English is the problem. Most of the students don't understand though a few can speak and read (Teacher 14).

Some learners don't understand. It is the same as said above; they don't understand (Teacher 15).

Another stated problem that teachers faced when teaching in multilingual classrooms was lack of proficiency in local familiar languages. The information obtained from teachers' responses indicated that they had problems translating difficult English words into local languages. Some teachers were not familiar with the local languages. Those who had this problem stated as follows:

Not so many challenges. I don't speak well the local language; so I think the student do not learn much because I can't translate into local language (Teacher 8).

The language is the problem especially the difficult words in the sentence; some words are difficult to understand and translate into local languages (Teacher 12).

Some English words are difficult to translate in the local language. English is not familiar to them (Teacher 16).

Some English words are difficult to translate in Tonga and Lenje. I have to ask other teachers to translate for me or sometimes it is the learners themselves translating for me (Teacher 19).

Translating difficult words in to local languages is a challenge for me because I don't understand much of the local language (Teacher 20).

The other problem that some teachers faced were the learners' inability to read and write coupled with pronunciation problem. Below is what they said:

Not all the pupils are active. Not all the pupils are able to read and write (Teacher 7).

They have problems with pronunciations. They have problem in reading and understanding what they are reading (Teacher 18).

The second follow up question posed to the teachers was meant to find out whether learners actively participated in the lessons. The findings from the majority teachers' responses revealed that many pupils do not answer the questions whenever the questions are asked in English. They answer when the question is in local languages or when the question is translated from English to local languages. Below is what the teachers said:

They are few those who answer in English. Many of them answer when the question is translated in the local language (Teacher 5).

A few give answers but the majority are quiet when the question is in English. Their understanding of English is very little (Teacher 6).

No they don't because their understanding of English is very little (Teacher 8). They are quiet; they answer freely in local languages because their understanding of English is not enough (Teacher 10).

They are quiet but will answer in the local language freely (Teacher 11).

Yes in the local language. They have problem with English so they answer in Nyanja (Teacher 12).

Yes they do respond but often in the local language (Teacher 13).

Some do but others express themselves in the local language (Teacher 15).

A few do respond but others are mute. They don't understand English (Teacher 16).

Some do but others express themselves in the local language (Teacher 17).

Only four pupils respond in English because many of them use local languages at home (Teacher 20).

The findings according to some teachers' responses also showed that the few learners who answer in English had problems expressing themselves in English. Below are their verbatim responses:

They do answer in English but with difficulties when saying the answers. They don't understand English very well (Teacher 1).

They do answer both in English and Nyanja. They don't understand English very well so they have problems expressing themselves (Teacher 2).

It depends on the question. Sometimes they answer if they understand the question but with difficulties (Teacher 3).

They cannot express themselves well in English. Some pupils do not understand English; they depend on others to help them (Teacher 17).

However, there were other positive findings from a few teachers who indicated that majority of the learners actively participated in the class. Below are their verbatim responses:

Yes they do; majority of them do answer the questions even when in English. When they answer in local languages I insist that they answer in English (Teacher 18).

Yes they do; many of them do. I have no problem explaining the question in local languages because they understand my English and are able to answer (Teacher 19).

5.5.1. Summary of research question four findings.

The fourth research question sought to establish the challenges teachers face when teaching in multilingual classrooms. The findings showed that teachers had problems communicating with learners as many of their learners had problems expressing themselves in English. As a result, learners' participation in the lesson in terms of answering and asking questions was minimal.

5.6. Summary of Chapter five

This chapter has presented the findings which revealed that the grade 6 classrooms of Chibombo District are multilingual as teachers and learners were able to speak more than one language. The spoken languages in the district were Nyanja, Bemba, Lenje, Tonga, Shona, Kaonde, Namwanga, Nsenga, Lozi, Tumbuka and English. From these languages, the findings were that the languages of play were Lenje, Nyanja and Bemba. The findings also showed that while some teachers democratised their classrooms through the adoption of translanguaging as a pedagogic language practice, others insisted on monolingual language practices which resulted in symbolic violence. In addition, the findings revealed that even though many teachers did not encourage the use of local languages in the classroom and that many of them preferred English to local languages, they were fully aware that local languages were good for learning. The findings further revealed that teachers had communication challenges when using English to teach learners from different linguistic background.

CHAPTER SIX

DISCUSSIONS OF THE FINDINGS

6.1. Overview

Presented in this chapter is the analysis of the findings presented in the previous chapter. The study objectives will guide the discussion based on the following themes: Sociolinguistic context of the sampled classrooms; Teachers' and learners' language practices in the classroom; Teachers' language attitudes; and Challenges teachers faced when teaching multilingual classrooms. During the discussion, references will be made to similar or contrasting views from the other. The discussions will also show how the concepts that conceptualised the study and the theories that framed the study resonate with the findings of the study.

6.2. Sociolinguistic context of the sampled classrooms

The first research objective was meant to establish the sociolinguistic composition of the classrooms. The findings have revealed both areas of conventionality and contradictions. On the one hand, the areas of conventionality are the similarities between the findings and the argument that Zambia is a multi-ethnicity and multilingual country (Kashoki, 1978), that all Zambia's classrooms are inherently multilingual (Mwanza, 2017), and that most Zambians are polyglots who are able to speak more than one language (Williams, 1998; Banda, 1995). On the other hand, the contradictions were characterised by the mismatch between the monolingual Language in Education Policy and the actual multilingual composition of the classrooms.

The findings from the zones used in this study were that in Zone A (Katuba area which borders Lusaka), the languages of play were Nyanja, Bemba and Lenje according to the interviewed teachers. In Zone B (Landless corner area), the languages of play were Nyanja, Bemba and Lenje while in Zone C (Chitanda turn off area) the dominant languages of play were Tonga and Lenje and a few pupils could be heard speaking Bemba and Nyanja. In Zone D (Chibombo central) the dominant languages of play were Bemba and Nyanja while a few pupils could be heard using Lenje according to some teachers and as observed during play time.

In terms of the linguistic composition of the classrooms as represented by speakers of the languages, the findings showed that 8 languages were represented in the classrooms of

Chibombo district. These were Tonga, Bemba, Nyanja, Lenje, English, Namwanga, Lozi and Kaonde. This confirms the assertions that Zambia is a multilingual country and the argument that all the classrooms in Zambian schools and particularly in this case Chibombo district, are multilingual and multiethnic. The findings also revealed that almost all the teachers and pupils of Chibombo district spoke two or more languages, confirming the claim that

Zambians are polyglots. Therefore, and as Simwinga (2006) stated that multilingualism refers to the presence and the use of many languages in a given community, the classrooms of Chibombo district were inherently multilingual.

Among the 8 languages revealed in this study, the dominant ones were Bemba, Tonga, Lenje and Nyanja respectively while the least was English. Majority of the teachers, according to the findings have Bemba at 40 percent as their first language followed by Tonga at 23 percent, Nyanja at 15 percent, English at 10 percent and Lenje at 7 percent. In terms of languages of dominance, the findings are similar with the 2010 census which showed Bemba at 31 percent, Tonga at 15 percent, Lenje at 10.4 percent, Nyanja at 8.9 and English at 0.8 percent.

The findings concerning the learners' first language revealed slight different results where Lenje was dominant at 29 percent followed by Bemba at 23 percent, Nyanja at 22.5 percent, Tonga at 16 percent and English at 2.5 percent. What is interesting is that while Lenje was dominant at 29 percent, it was striking to find Bemba and Nyanja at 23 percent and 22.5 percent respectively accounting for a cumulative percentage of 45.5 percent of the pupils. The interesting issue is that in terms of relatedness of languages, Bemba and Nyanja are not really mutually intelligible to Tonga which is the official regional language of Chibombo district. Additionally, apart from Lenje and Tonga which are mutually intelligible and account for a total of 45 percent of the pupils represented in the sampled schools, 55 percent of the respondents spoke or were familiar with other languages other than the ones designated for the area in which the schools are situated.

The implication of the findings is that the monolingual ideology of language zoning is weak as it does not really reflect the language(s) spoken in an area. The zoning of language turns to assume that languages are static and that the linguistic situation of an area is static. These results show that languages are in constant mobility and their use and existence cannot be restricted to any particular area. Languages are resources which humans use to communicate and as people move, languages equally move. Thus, the assumption that the language familiar to the majority of the people in Chibombo district is Tonga is a fallacy as the said language

only accounts for 16 percent of the 200 pupils who were sampled from 8 primary schools in Chibombo.

The findings on learners' language of play showed Lenje at 38 percent as a dominant language followed by Bemba and Nyanja at 29 percent and 23.5 percent respectively while Tonga and English were the least at 7 percent and 1.5 percent respectively. These findings even presents more interesting results in that when it is assumed by policy makers that the dominant language and the language of play in Chibombo District is Tonga, the results showed that in fact, the dominant language of play in Chibombo is Lenje at 38 percent followed by Cinyanja at 29 percent and Bemba at 23.5 percent. The official regional language and the alleged language of play in Chibombo only accounted for 7 percent.

These statistics show that the language zoning on which government continues to base current policy formulation and education language practices is not only weak but outdated. Even if one combines Lenje and Tonga, the cumulative percentage is only 45 percent while the remaining 55 percent of the children in the schools spoke or were familiar to other languages other than the ones thought to be the dominant languages.

Another important observation from the findings is the statistics of English either as a first language or a language of play. While English is the first language to 2.5 percent representing 5 pupils out of 200, it is a language of play to 1.5 percent (representing 3 pupils out of 200). Interestingly, this is the official medium of instruction from grade 5 onwards yet statistics show that only 1.5 to 2.5 percent could speak English. This is not surprising considering the 2010 census (National Analytical Report, 2012: 65) which showed that "English was widely used as the language of communication by 1.7 percent of the population in Zambia; in rural areas, 0.2 percent of the population used English as the main language of communication while 3.8 percent of the urban population reported English as the language of communication." What this may suggests is that there are a few pupils who, even at grade six can speak and understand English at a desirable level. This is reflected in the study by Munakampe (2005) which established that grade five learners in Lusaka Basic Schools were not able to participate in Communicative Language Teaching lessons as their proficiency level in English language was very low. It equally means that children even at grade six do not use English during play even when government assumes that by grade five, pupils would have acquired adequate proficiency in English in order to use it as a medium of instruction.

What the above findings suggest, as stated earlier, are the contradictions between the language policy and the actual linguistic composition of the classrooms. The contradiction here is that the language policy stipulates the use of English in the upper primary schools whereas the findings showed that only 3 percent of the learners speak English. It is in this context that Haugen (2009) argued that education policies are normally characterized by contradictions and not by progression or retrogression; contradictions in the sense that there is a mismatch between the government's stipulated language of instruction and the actual linguistic composition of the classrooms.

The above contradiction whereby the dominant language of play or the familiar language(s) of most pupils is one which is not the designated official language is not peculiar to Chibombo district. In Lundazi, Zimba (2007) also argued that while government sanctioned Cinyanja as the official medium of classroom instruction, the familiar language and the language of play in Lundazi was Tumbuka which is not even mutually intelligible to Cinyanja. Similar results were found in Chongwe where Mubanga (2012) established that children in Lwimba area had remarkable problems breaking through to literacy because while Cinyanja was viewed as the familiar language and therefore medium of instruction, children were familiar to Soli which like Tumbuka in Lundazi, was not mutually intelligible to Cinyanja. Kamalata's (2016: 38) study in the lower primary schools of Solwezi also found that the Kikaonde used in the area was not the familiar language as "fourteen out of fifteen respondents (93.3 percent) said that there were some learners who did not understand the medium of instruction (Kikaonde) used in the area."

This scenario and its related language policy partly explain why the literacy agenda in Zambia is problematic. This is so because literacy policy recommendations especially on language of instruction is based on speculation and the eventual victims are the learners. This is the reason why Banda and Mwanza (2017) argued that even learning to read and write in the designated regional official language is not easy because pupils have to learn how to speak the language before they can learn how to read and write.

Based on what is stated above, there is need to relook at language zoning, and avoid the arbitrary association of one language to a wider locality without being sensitive to the language reality and practices of the people of the same area. Thus, the Zambian language in education policy needs to be revisited, amended and recommend language practices which resonate with the language situation in schools.

In brief, the findings on the linguistic context of the classroom revealed that the classrooms of Chibombo district are multi-ethnic and multilingual. However, the language in education policy that stipulates the use of Tonga in lower primary and English in Upper primary contradicts the linguistic composition of the classrooms where Lenje, Nyanja and Bemba are the languages most learners use when playing.

6.3. Teachers' and Learners' Classroom Language practices

The second research objective sought to analyse teachers' language practices in selected grade six classrooms of Chibombo district and to determine if teachers' language practices were appropriate for epistemic access by learners. In terms of classroom language practices, the findings from the learners responses showed that majority of the learners at 89.5 percent indicated that their teachers used English when teaching. The findings also showed a cumulative frequency of 75.5 percent of the learners indicating that their teachers used other languages when emphasising a point. Similarly, the findings showed that 33.3 percent of the teachers strongly agreed that they used more than one language while 60 percent agreed that they used more than one language when teaching. In brief, the findings revealed that majority of the teachers (93.3 percent) used other languages apart from English to help learners learn whereas a few used English only; thus, classroom language practices were characterised by translanguaging by most of the teachers on the one hand and symbolic violence by a few teachers on the other.

Stated earlier in chapter 3 are the pedagogical language practices associated with translanguaging namely code switching and language translation. According to Tse (1996) and Garcia (2009) translanguaging practices include code-switching, translating, and language brokering, or interpreting between culturally and linguistically diverse individuals. It was also explained that Code switching and translation are epistemologically different because they imply moving from one named language to another and borders on an external view point of languages whereas Translanguaging is an internal view point of language (Garcia, 2009). It was further explained that Code-switching and translation do not promote language interaction but tends to focus on issues of language separation, interference, transfer and borrowing. In reference to code switching as part of translanguaging practices however, Garcia (2009: 140) postulated that, "translanguaging therefore goes beyond what has been termed as code switching, although it includes it." It is the view of the researcher here that classroom translanguaging includes code switching and translation as pedagogical language practices. As interviewed teachers were not familiar with translanguaging as a pedagogical

language practice for multilingual classrooms, they mentioned code switching and translation as the language practices they employed when teaching multilingual classrooms. The other language practice that emerged from lesson observations was nativisation of English or Zambianisation of English.

From the findings, the study revealed that most of the interviewed teachers in reference to code switching, stated that they used more than one language when teaching. In the classes that were observed, the findings were that most of the teachers alternated between English and local languages such as Bemba, Nyanja and Lenje as shown in the lesson observations taught by teachers 3, 12, 13 and 16. They used the informal familiar languages of the learners to help them learn. As the studies by Setati and Adler (2002) and Simachenya (2017) revealed, translanguaging through alternation between official and learners' languages facilitated learners' access to information in their local languages. It also enabled learners' active participation in the lessons in terms of answering questions, and that learners were able to connect their classroom experience to their experience during play time as the languages used by teachers correlated to their languages of play. In essence, teachers recognised the importance of translanguaging in engendering multilingualism and multilingual language practices. In this case, languages were viewed as resources (Ruiz, 1984) and were utilised as such to enable pupils to access knowledge regardless of their linguistic differences. The teachers who translanguaged through alternating between English and local languages also recognised and implemented the linguistic rights of learners to learn in their mother tongue and in the language of wider communication as stated by UNESCO (2003). These practices mean that the four classrooms were democratised through the language choices and practices of the teachers.

During lessons, it was also observed that as teachers alternated between English and local languages, some teachers, due to lack of proficiency in the local language of the area, used their mother tongue and not the language of the learners. For example, the lesson that was observed in Zone C area close to Mumbwa where Lenje and Tonga were predominant, the teacher used English and Bemba when teaching. When asked why she used Bemba in the area where Tonga and Lenje were the dominant languages of play, the response was that she was in the process of learning the named languages. This is in line with what is shown in table 5.1.1.2 wherein 53.3 percent of the teachers stated that they were not fluent in the local language of the area where they taught. Even though some learners were able to participate in the lesson, the actual language practice in this instance was translanguaging according to the familiar language of the teacher and not necessarily the familiar language of the learners. The

implication of this is that teachers should make an effort to learn the familiar language of the learners where they work or that government should deploy teachers according to their language abilities.

Another pedagogical language practice revealed in the study was Translanguaging through translation. As observed by Lin (2008: 17) that translation involves “expressing the sense of words or text in another language”. The four teachers who used local languages when emphasising or simplifying a point translated mainly the questions from English to local languages. Teacher 12 for example used four languages and did so with ease when he rephrased and repeated his questions from English to Bemba, Nyanja, Tonga and Lenje. He was teaching mathematics, and the topic was on multiplication and division. At some point in the lesson, he asked the same question four times in different languages. As he translanguaged, he asked the answer for “seven divide by two” in four different languages. In so doing, he communicated the question to learners who were familiar with Bemba, Lenje, Tonga and English. In an event that a particular student understood more than one of the four languages, the use of those languages would enhance comprehension and present various ways of understanding reality. It is in this view that Hassan and Ahmed (2015: 26) stated that “translanguaging as a pedagogical language practice enables certain concepts to be reinforced through repetition in several languages and clarified in much more detail as opposed to using one language.” Like the results that the study by Zimba (2007) in Katete revealed, the present study also showed that translanguaging through translation by the teacher created a home environment and eased tension among pupils, facilitated the process of teaching from the known to the unknown and that it helped learners to participate in the learning process. As the teacher repeated the words and questions in different languages, more hands were raised, indicating that learners understood the questions in their local languages. Surprisingly, the learners used English when answering questions in the lesson taught by teacher 12, and even the pupil who was called in front to solve a division problem did so in English. This means that learners who answered the questions understood both English and the local languages the teacher used.

2.3.1. Nativisation of English

The other pedagogical language practice revealed in this study as mentioned earlier was “nativisation of English (Zambianisation of English) which in this study means the blending of English letters and words with local words for them to sound like words in local language. With regard to our present study, nativisation of English implies the adaptation of English language into the local context by way of inserting or fusing in of vowels into English words

that have closed syllables (cvc) such as but, sit, mad etc, to make them sound like words in local languages. For example, “a child learning English would end up inserting vowels into words with consonant blends like “street” (cccvvc) so that it sounds like /sitiriti/” (Ministry of Education, 2015: 4). This is because almost all the words in Zambian local languages have open syllables like cvcv in *mama* and vcccv in *imbwa*; and to make English closed syllabic words sound like local words, teachers or learners have a tendency to insert vowels to them.

In linguistic science, this practice is known as “epenthesis” (insertion of sound or letter within a word), and according to Kangwa (2007), all the five vowels can occur as epenthetic vowels. Epenthesis can be categorised into three types. The first one is “prothesis” which implies the insertion of an initial segment, normally a vowel with a phonotactic motivation. Company = /akaampani/, book = /ibuuku/, talent = /itaalanta/, school = /isukulu/, cupboard = /akakabaati/, for example. The second one is “anaptyxis” which means the insertion of a vowel between two consonants. For instance, brake = /uleki/, street = /itiriti/, plastic = /ulaasitiki/. The last one is “paragoge” which is about the insertion of a vowel at the end of a word. It should be noted that all the words in Zambian languages end with a vowel (Kashoki, 1978; Kangwa, 2007; MoE, 2015). Examples of paragoge are ball = /aboola/, cup = /ukaapu/, of = /uoofu/, wash = /awaasha/, pan = /ipaani/ etc.

In the classes that were observed, teachers were heard pronouncing words such as “have” = /haavu/ “of” = /ofuu/, “what” = /waati/, “about” = /abauuti/, “come” = /kaamu/, “bread” = /buledi/, “hope” = /hoopu/, “format” = /fomaati/, “called” = /koodi/, “font” = /foonti/, “mouse” = /mausi/, “highlight” = /hailaiiti/, “write” = /raiiti/ etc. They did this to make or help learners associate the English words with local words or accent, in a way helping them connect English words with words in local languages. In some cases, it was done to invite or entice learners to complete the sentence like in “*yesterday we talked abauuti... flowers.... We talked aboutii....*” in which case the learners would give a chorus answer “*flowers.*” In other cases, it was applied when asking question as in “they have waati...?” There were some instances also when nativisation of English was used to entice learners to repeat what the teacher had previously said like in “*so when a man and woman grow or they fall in love, they have babies....they have waati?*” And the learners would chorusly repeat “*babies.*” In addition, teachers used this kind of language practice to encourage learners to repeat words and speak louder or correctly as in “*people who have unprotected sex havuu.....pregna, have waati....pregna, havuu....pregnancy*”

Nativisation of English was another way of translanguaging as there was fusion of vowels into English words that later on sounded like local words. It differs from code switching and translation as this particular practice did not involve the mixing of words from different languages or saying/writing words from one named language to another but the insertion of vowels into English words for them to have a local sound. This language practice may therefore be responsible for the creation of a new variety of local English that is opposed to the standard British English.

In a way, nativisation of English helped the teachers to capture the attention of the learners as learners anticipated repeating chorally or completing uncompleted sentences constructed by the teacher. Another advantage of this language practice was that it helped learners to connect and associate the English pronunciation with the words in their local languages. Thus learners were able to figure out the meaning as some of the words are used at home and during play time; /boola/ for ball, /ekeeshi/ for eggs, /mausi/ for mouse for example. Thus, some teachers translanguaged through nativisation of English.

The most interesting finding was that teachers 9 and 15 who used English only, were the ones who mostly employed this kind of language practice. The language variety they used sounded like Nyanja except that the words were in English. Those teachers who alternated across languages and translated some words and questions into local languages appeared to have used nativisation of English less. Thus, even though they used English only throughout the lesson, it was a mixture of local English variety and the Standard British English.

This classroom language practice (mixing of local English and standard English) is similar to the one revealed in Robenoro's (2009) study which revealed that when teachers were appointed to the area they originated from, many of them used the local variety of Malagasy together with the official Malagasy or standard French. This is what Bourne (2006) meant when he likened recontextualisation to teacher's interpretation and application of the policy and methods of teaching in order for the policy and method to be relevant and appropriate to the specific learning and teaching situation. In the above stated language practices, recontextualisation involved teachers' reinterpretation and reapplication of the language in education policy by translanguaging through code switching, translation and nativisation of English.

While translanguaging in the classroom is favourable for multilingual learners in Zambia, teachers make these decisions outside policy provisions. Thus, while the policy recommends

monolingual language practices, teachers do resort to multilingual language practices which resonate with the linguistic reality inherent in these classrooms. This is the reason for

Wodak's (2003) belief that teachers have the power to resist, negotiate or accept policy. In this case, teachers negotiated policy by including language practices which were not officially approved but were helpful in the learning process of the learner.

6.3.2. Semi-Translanguaging

It is important to state that the translanguaging practised by teachers was narrow in nature; teachers' and learners' language practices in the classrooms did not constitute fully translanguaging as a whole for some reasons. To begin with, Garcia (2009) argued that translanguaging constitutes the multiple use of languages for meaning making and suggested that translanguaging may involve the reading of a text in several languages and talk about it in different languages. In contrast, the findings showed that all the text books in all the observed classes were in English and that all the readings were done in one language. Secondly, contrary to the suggestion by Garcia (ibid) that a lesson can be given in one language and the exercises in another language, all the exercises that teachers gave to learners were in English. Thirdly, while Garcia (ibid) added that learners can have the lesson in the official language and take notes in their own languages, all the writings on the board and in the exercise books of learners that were checked were in one language - English. It must be mentioned here that all the documents reviewed or checked such as lesson plans, text books for both teachers and learners, exercise books of the learners and teachers note books were all in English. Lastly, translanguaging involves both learners and teachers using all the languages at their disposal for meaning making (ibid). Contrary to this view, the study revealed that 53.3 percent of teachers translanguaged but did not allow learners to use local languages. As Ruiz (1984) observed, these teachers viewed local languages as problems as they clearly stated during interviews that local languages interfered with the learning of English and that using unofficial languages promoted laziness among learners. Epistemologically, these language practices did not reveal translanguaging as postulated by Garcia (ibid) as they bordered on language interference and separation. The translanguaging that this study revealed is therefore here referred to as "Semi - Translanguaging" as it existed in spoken form and not in written form.

Bourdier (1999) observed that symbolic violence is the legitimisation of one language to the exclusion of other language varieties. Therefore, Semi -Translanguaging here implies the presence of symbolic violence in some classrooms where 53.3 percent of the teachers used

local languages but did not allow learners to use local languages, and the 6.7 percent of the teachers who neither used local languages nor allowed learners to use local languages. These actions by teachers, apart from revealing the presence of symbolic violence, they also revealed the power relation that existed between teachers and learners; the relationship between the dominant and the dominated controlled weak group (Mwanza, 2016). In this case, the foregoing mentioned teachers dominated and controlled the learners' choice and use of languages thereby symbolically violating their rights to access knowledge or contribute to classroom discussions.

The main reason for excluding the use of local languages was to prepare learners for English only exams held at grade 7. What is seen here is the focus on the product and not the process as teachers' focus was on examination performance rather than on how much knowledge learners have acquired. In this scenario, it would not be surprising that pupils would even resort to memorisation of facts in English without having proper knowledge of the content because they do not understand fully the medium of instruction to elaborately express thoughts. In this practice therefore, democratisation of the classroom was thwarted thereby perpetuating marginalisation of unofficial languages as well as the speakers of those languages.

In brief, the findings revealed some aspects of translanguaging implying that teachers' language practices did not constitute translanguaging as a whole. This is because all the text books, all the writings on the board, all the exercises given and all the notes taken were in one language - English. Moreover, more than half (53.3 percent) of the teachers translanguaged but did not allow learners to translanguage, and 6.7 percent of the teachers neither used local languages nor allowed learners to use local languages.

6.4. Teachers' Language Attitudes towards informal languages

The third research objective was meant to establish attitudes of teachers towards informal language varieties present in the classroom. The findings revealed both positive and negative attitudes towards the use of informal languages in the classrooms. For instance, 46.7 percent of teachers encouraged the use of local languages implying a positive language attitude towards informal languages while 53.3 percent of teachers discouraged the use of local languages meaning that they held negative attitudes towards the use of local languages but held positive attitudes towards English.

As it can be seen from the interview data some teachers who were interviewed argued that it was not necessary to use Zambian languages in grade six because doing so promoted laziness among pupils. Some teachers also argued that the lack of resources in local languages was their reason for not encouraging the use of local languages. The other reasons given by most of the teachers for not allowing the use of Zambian languages was that the examination at grade 7 would be in English and that all the learning in higher education institution would be in English as well. Thus, many teachers felt that classroom instructions needed to follow the examination format because ultimately, learners would still require English in order to pass the exam and to pursue higher education and the eventual employment. The teachers' views resonates well with Africa's (1980:278) argument when he stated that in Zambia "The instrumental motivation for learning English is dominant", that "English is seen as necessary for higher education, for reading books, newspapers and magazines, for studying and for better employment" and that the consequences of this trend are that "the persons aspiring towards higher education, good jobs and examinations must possess English that is adequate and functionally appropriate in these roles." Mwanza (2016: 39) attributed the above teachers' negative attitudes towards local languages to the monolingual language policy when he stated that "most learners and school administrators do not take Zambian languages seriously because the Zambian language policy implicitly suggests that Zambian languages are irrelevant and incapable of coping with modern demands of communication." In short, the negative attitudes towards informal languages by majority of the teachers were influenced by (a) the monolingual language in education policy that favours the use of English only from grade five onwards and (b) the notion of associating English with being educated, good jobs and intelligence.

Other teachers (46.7 percent) who had positive attitudes towards the use of informal languages had their reasons for doing so. Most of them argued that it was pointless to use English only which many learners were not familiar with and that the use of local languages helped the learners understand the concepts well. The interviewed teachers who favoured the use of local languages said repeatedly that if they didn't use local languages, the learners would not understand and follow the lesson. It can be concluded therefore that all the teachers who had positive attitudes towards informal languages were compelled by the low proficiency levels of their learners in English.

It is because of the foregoing views that an overwhelming number of teachers at 83.4 percent were aware that the use of local languages for teaching and learning was good. In addition,

the findings revealed that almost all the teachers, 55 out of 60 representing 91.6 percent, had positive attitudes towards the use of both local languages and English. Almost all the teachers felt that the use of local languages was good for teaching and learning citing helping the learners to learn as their main motivation for thinking that local languages were good for learning. These findings matched with the ones by a Nigerian researcher Igboanusi (2015) which showed that the respondents preferred education in both English and the mother tongue and were not positively disposed to the use of only one of them. Thus, by having an overwhelming positive attitude towards the use of both English and local languages, teachers valued linguistic diversity by taking an inclusive approach towards linguistic diversity; a view that Ruiz (2010: 162) had when in reference to language as a resource postulated that

“rather than being divisive, linguistic diversity should be valued and seen as fully compatible with national unity.” As stated earlier that most of the teachers used multiple languages when teaching, and that many of them had positive attitudes towards the use of both English and local languages, it means that many of the classrooms were democratised through the use of multiple languages. It has to be reiterated here that positive attitudes towards informal languages is a prerequisite for the democratisation of a multilingual classroom.

Ruiz (2010) also elaborated on language as a problem orientation. The few teachers who did not think that local languages were good for learning because of their one main concern of preparing the learners for grade 7 exams that are held in English only had a view of languages being a problem. This was reinforced by their argument that local languages interfered with learning English and that it promoted laziness among learners when learning English. In short, majority of the teachers held positive attitudes while minority of them held negative attitudes towards English.

6.5. Challenges teachers face when teaching in multilingual Classrooms

The fourth objective sought to establish the challenges which teachers faced in teaching multilingual classrooms using the official language. The findings showed that teachers had problems communicating with learners as many of their learners had problems expressing themselves in English. As a result, learners’ participation in the lesson in terms of answering and asking questions was minimal.

The findings on reading and writing were that a cumulative percentage of 88.3 percent of the teachers stated that their pupils were not able to read and write in English. Only a paltry of teachers at 11.7 percent indicated that their pupils were able to read and write in English.

Concerning the ability of the learners to communicate in the language of instruction (English), the findings revealed a cumulative percentage of 98.3 percent of the teachers who stated that their learners were not able to communicate in the language of instruction (English). Only one teacher representing 1.7 percent indicated that her learners were able to speak well English. The findings were alarming but not surprising in that the Ministry of Education (2008, 2010, 2012) reported that in spite of the gains made under the Primary Reading Program through NBTL, SITE and ROC, the literacy levels had fallen to as low as 33 percent. According to the Ministry of Education (2013), the inability to read and write by learners in lower primary was the cause of learners failing to learn content subjects such as maths and science.

During the face to face interviews, many teachers said repeatedly that many pupils had a minimal understanding of English and the consequential inability to communicate in English was the major problem they faced when teaching using English. As mentioned earlier, the minimal understanding of English and the consequential inability to communicate in English was a major factor that contributed to some teachers having a positive attitude towards informal languages and the eventual use of local languages. From the lessons observed, there were more teacher instructions than learner participation and that learner participation was reduced to chorusing answers. It was also observed that most of the questions, especially those in English went unanswered. Moreover, the questions that were answered were not that audible enough to be heard as learners were not confident enough to express themselves in English. In instances where the answers in English were clear enough, learners had their note books opened and were reading answers from their exercises or text books. In the science lesson on plants taught by teacher 13, the teacher was heard saying, *“All your books are opened waona (have you see)...all the books are closed, and there are only few hands raised.”* The teacher noticed that those who had their hands raised had their books opened and that those whose hands were not raised had their books closed. Thus, most of the observed classes were characterised by teachers talking most of the time and by learners’ withdrawal and the inability to participate in classroom activities. It must be restated here that learners’ withdrawal from lesson participation is a manifestation of symbolic violence in the classroom (Bujorean, 2016). As stated earlier, it is a sign that the unfamiliar language has been imposed on them and that they are reacting by remaining silent since they don’t understand much of what the teachers is saying in the classroom.

It must be noted here that the inability by the learners to read and write and later on to communicate in the standard language of instruction is not only prevalent to Zambia but a common phenomenon to many countries across the globe. For instance, the studies by

Gersten & Jimenez (1994, 1999), Graves, Valles & Rueda, (2000) and Echevarria & Graves (2003) done on teaching and learning in a multilingual classroom revealed the daunting task teachers faced when simultaneously trying to build children's reading and writing ability and enhancing their English-language growth. It must be mentioned also that the problem of learners' inability to read and write and later on communicate in English is not only prevalent in primary schools as revealed in this study and the study by Munakampe (2005) but in secondary schools as well according to the studies done by Mwanza (2016) and Makina (2017). According to Munakampe (2005), grade five pupils in selected basic schools of Lusaka were not able to follow Communicative Language Teaching lessons as their proficiency levels in English were very low. Equally, the studies by Mwanza (ibid) on Eclecticism and Makina (ibid) on Communicative Language Teaching carried out in the secondary schools in Central and Copperbelt provinces respectively showed that many learners had difficulties participating in the lessons because of their inability to communicate in English. It is in this view that Mwanza (2016: 228) concluded that "in Zambia the challenge of a lack of English proficiency is not limited to primary school (grade 5) but extends to secondary school as well, grade 11 in this case."

It appears that most of the communication problems are faced in multilingual classrooms where languages are viewed as problems and not as resources coupled with a monoglossic ideology mainly found in transitional bilingual education programs. As stated in chapter 2 that unlike the studies on translanguaging classrooms that revealed conceptual transfer, metalinguistic awareness and increased comprehension, the studies on transitional bilingual education especially those done here in Zambia revealed low literacy levels both in Primary and secondary schools. The reasons for this is well stated by Cummins (1979) who argued that transitional bilingual education due to its monoglossic ideology aimed at promoting one language has a negative cognitive effects on learners in multilingual classrooms. It is not an exaggeration to state here that the transition bilingual education and selective teachers' language practices in the classroom is responsible for low literacy development due to language failure as Beistern (1973) observed.

In brief, the findings on challenges teacher faced when teaching multilingual classrooms using the official language showed that teachers had communication problems with learners.

The implication arising from the above findings is that teachers are not adequately prepared during teacher training in multilingual language practices. In fact, studies such as Manchishi and Mwanza (2013) and Mwanza (2012) showed that the training student teachers were receiving was inadequate while Manchishi and Mwanza (2016) found that even teacher training strategies such as peer teaching were not implemented in a manner which was helpful in developing practical skills in student teachers. Thus, there is need to invest in teacher training so that teachers can acquire the appropriate multilingual strategies such as translanguaging.

6.6. Summary of chapter Six

In summary, the findings were that the classroom of Chibombo district were multilingual, some teachers translanguaged while others did not, that majority of the teachers had favourable opinion towards the use of both English and local languages, and that teachers had communication challenges when using English because many of their learners did not understand English. The next chapter presents the conclusion and the recommendations.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Overview

In the previous chapter, discussed were the findings. This chapter consists of the conclusions drawn from the research findings. It must be reiterated that the aim of this study was to analyse teachers' language practices in multilingual classrooms in order to determine whether these language practices were democratic or not. The chapter ends with recommendations and proposals for future study based on the findings of this study.

7.2. Conclusions

Based on research objectives and questions, a number of conclusions can be drawn from the discussion of the findings. Firstly, the study revealed and confirmed that multilingualism and linguistic diversity in Chibombo district is a reality. This means that the classrooms of Chibombo district are inherently multilingual with Lenje, Nyanja and Bemba being the dominant languages of play. Contrary to the linguistic composition of the classrooms of Chibombo district, the officially recognised regional language is Tonga and the medium of instruction at grade 6 is English. This has shown that language zoning in Zambia is problematic as it does not reflect the actual sociolinguistic situation in some parts of the country such as Chibombo. The language in education policy that stipulates the use of Tonga in lower primary and English in Upper primary contradicts the linguistic composition of the classrooms where Lenje, Nyanja and Bemba are the languages most learners use when at play.

Secondly, the findings showed that while some teachers democratised their classrooms through the adoption of translanguaging as a pedagogic practice, others insisted on monolingual language practices which resulted in symbolic violence with pupils having access to the classroom but not learning. With regard to translanguaging, the study revealed that in most cases it was the teacher translanguaging, and that all the text books used, the writings on the board, the exercises given and the notes taken were all in one language - English. The type of translanguaging practised in the classroom was therefore, semi translanguaging, and consequently, the classrooms were also semi-democratised. What this

implies is that translanguaging as practised by teachers was incomplete and that the democratisation of the classrooms was also limited and it remains an ongoing process.

Thirdly, the findings were that most teachers had positive attitudes towards the use of both English and informal languages in class for they were fully aware that both English and local languages were good for teaching and learning. However, the findings also showed that the knowledge of local languages being good for learning did not prevent teachers from overwhelmingly choosing English as their language of choice for classroom instructions because of the grade seven exams that are held in English only. In their minds, using English only for classroom instructions would help prepare learners for grade 7 exams and the future studies that are done in English.

Lastly, the findings showed that teachers had communication problems with learners as most of the learners were not able to read and write and later on communicate in the official language (English).

Since some teachers used English only in order to adhere to the Language in Education Policy and so as to prepare learners for grade seven exams, and that those who semitranslated went against the Language in Education Policy, it is concluded here that teachers' language practices did not fully democratise the classrooms.

7.3. Recommendations

Based on the above findings, the following recommendations were made:

- (a) Translanguaging as a pedagogical language practice should be legitimised so that teachers will be free to have language practices that reflect the multilingual nature of their classroom. This should be accompanied by the production and printing of teaching and learning materials in multiple languages.
- (b) Since the main obstacle to teachers' having a favourable opinion towards the use of local languages in multilingual classrooms was grade 7 exams held in English only, grade 7 exams should therefore be prepared and conducted in two or more languages.
- (c) Zambia being a multilingual country and with multilingual classrooms spread across the country, there is need for the development of a dual-language or dynamic bilingual education system that favours the use of multiple languages instead of the

current transition bilingual education which is a subtractive model as it favours and promotes the use of one language.

7.4. Recommendations for future research

For future research, the following recommendations were made:

- (a) A study to establish whether Tonga is appropriate as a familiar language for classroom instructions in the lower primary schools of Chibombo district.

7.5. Summary of the chapter Seven

The chapter has highlighted the conclusion of the findings of the study and has also made recommendations based on the findings of the study. Additionally, it has suggested areas for future research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Consent Form from the Dean


THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Telephone: 291381
Telegram: UNZA, LUSAKA
Telex: UNZALU ZA 44370

PO Box 32379
Lusaka, Zambia
Fax: +260-1-292702

Date 31-08-2017

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dear Sir/Madam

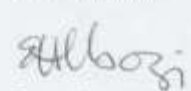
RE: FIELD WORK FOR MASTERS/ PHD-STUDENTS

The bearer of this letter Mr. Ms. VIRIKIO BWALYA..... Computer number 2016145209..... is a duly registered student at the University of Zambia, School of Education.



He/She is taking a Masters/~~PHD~~ programme in Education. The programme has a fieldwork component which he/she has to complete.

We shall greatly appreciate if the necessary assistance is rendered to him/her/.


Yours faithfully


Emmy Mbozi (Dr)
ASSISTANT DEAN POSTGRADUATE STUDIES- SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

cc: Dean-Education
Director-DRGS

Appendix B: Letter of Approval of Study



THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES

Great East Road | P.O. Box 32379 | Lusaka 10101 | Tel: +260-211-290 258/291 777
Fax: +260-1-290 258/253 952 | Email: director@drgs.unza.zm | Website: www.unza.zm

Approval of Study

2nd October, 2017

Ref. No. 2017- July-001

Br. Vigirio Bwalya
7003 Mosotunya Road
Woodland
LUSAKA

Dear Br. Bwalya,

RE: "DEMOCRATISATION OF THE CLASSROOM: ANALYSIS OF TEACHERS' LANGUAGE PRACTICES IN SELECTED MULTILINGUAL CLASSROOMS OF CHIBOMBO DISTRICT"

Reference is made to your submission. The University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB resolved to approve this study and your participation as Principal Investigator for a period of one year.

ACTION:	APPROVED
DECISION:	2 nd October, 2017
EXPIRATION DATE:	1 st October, 2018

There are specific conditions that will apply to this approval. As Principal Investigator it is your responsibility to ensure that the contents of this letter are adhered to. If these are not adhered to, the approval may be suspended. Should the study be suspended, study sponsors and other regulatory authorities will be informed.

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Excellence in Teaching, Research and Community Service

Appendix C: Teachers' Questionnaire

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

Title of the Research: Democratisation of the Classroom: An analysis of language practices in selected multilingual classrooms of Chibombo District.

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is meant to collect information on the linguistic composition of the classroom, language practices in the classroom, attitudes towards local languages and the challenges faced in using English in the classroom. Kindly respond to the questionnaire truthfully by putting a cross on your preferred choice. Your responses will be treated with utmost confidence. Thanking you in advance. A. Section

1. My first (mother tongue) language.				
a) Tonga	b) English	c) Lenje	d) Bemba	e) Nyanja
2. The language of play for most of my pupils.				
a) Tonga	b) English	c) Lenje	d) Bemba	e) Nyanja
3. The dominant language in my classroom.				
a) Tonga	b) English	c) Lenje	d) Bemba	e) Nyanja

B. Section

1. I use more than one language when teaching.			
a) Strongly agree	b) Agree	c) Disagree	d) Strongly disagree
2. I use only English when teaching.			
a) Strongly agree	b) Agree	c) Disagree	d) Strongly disagree

C. Section

1. I encourage pupils to use local languages in the classroom.			
a) Strongly agree	b) Agree	c) Disagree	d) Strongly disagree
2. I only allow pupils to use the official language in the classroom.			
a) Strongly agree	b) Agree	c) Disagree	d) Strongly disagree
3. The use of local languages is good for learning.			
a) Strongly agree	b) Agree	c) Disagree	d) Strongly disagree
4. The use of both local languages and official language is good for learning.			
a) Strongly agree	b) Agree	c) Disagree	d) Strongly disagree

D. Section

1. I fluently speak the local language of this area.			
a) Strongly agree	b) Agree	c) Disagree	d) Strongly disagree
2. All the pupils are able to read and write in English.			
a) Strongly agree	b) Agree	c) Disagree	d) Strongly disagree
3. All the pupils are fluent in English.			
a) Strongly agree	b) Agree	c) Disagree	d) Strongly disagree

Appendix D: Pupils' Questionnaire

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

Title of the Research: Democratisation of the Classroom: An analysis of language practices in selected multilingual classrooms of Chibombo District.

Dear respondent,

You have been purposively chosen as participants in this study. Kindly complete this questionnaire by ticking the correct answer. Thank you in advance.

A. Section.

1. The language I use at home		Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja	Others
2. The language I speak with friends		Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja	Others
3. The language we speak in class		Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja	Others
4. I speak....	1 language	2 languages	3 languages	4 languages	5 languages		

B. Section.

1. The language my teacher uses when teaching	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
2. The language my teacher uses when asking questions	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
3. The language my teacher uses when emphasising a point	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
4. The language I use when asking questions.	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
5. The language I use when answering questions.	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja

C. Section

1. My teacher encourages us to use many languages.	Yes	No
2. The teacher only allows us to use one language.	Yes	No
3. I answer a question from the teacher when it is in English.	Yes	No
4. I answer a question from the teacher when it is in my language.	Yes	No

D. Section

1. I can read and write well in English.	Yes	No
2. I can speak well in English.	Yes	No

Appendix E: Teachers' interviews guide

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

Title of the Research: Democratisation of the Classroom: An analysis of language practices in selected multilingual classrooms of Chibombo District.

Dear respondent,

Dear Respondent,

It is assumed that your class is a multilingual one. Therefore, you have been purposively selected to take part in this study due to the nature of your work as a grade six teacher. You are kindly asked to be as free as you can when responding to the questions in this interview.

Section A

1. What is your first language?
2. Which other language(s) do you speak? 3. What language varieties are present in your classroom? 4. What is the language of play for most of the pupils of your class?
5. What is the dominant language in your classroom?

Section B

6. Do you understand the language of instructions policy?
 - a) If yes, what does it say?
7. Were you adequately trained to teach multilingual classrooms?
8. Do you speak fluently the local language of this area?
9. What language do you mainly use when teaching?
10. Do you use any other language when teaching?
 - a) If yes, how?

Section C

11. Do you think the use of local languages is good for learning?
 - a) If yes, why?
 - b) If not, why?
12. Do pupils respond when asked in the official language.....
 - a) If not, why?.....
13. Given a choice, which language will you choose to use when teaching and why?
.....

Section D

14. What challenges do you face when teaching in English?
15. What challenges do learners face when learning in English?

Appendix F: Observation Checklist

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

Title of the Research: Democratisation of the Classroom: An analysis of language practices in selected multilingual classrooms of Chibombo District. Linguistic composition in the classroom

1. The language pupils use among themselves.	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
2. The language pupils use with teachers	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
3. The language teachers use with the pupils	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
4. The language less spoken in the classroom.	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
5. The language most spoken in the classroom	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja

Language practice in the classroom

6. The language used by the teacher when teaching	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
7. The language used by the teacher when asking questions	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
8. The language used by the teacher when emphasising a point	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
9. The language used by the pupils when asking questions.	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja
10. The language used by the pupil when answering questions.	Tonga	English	Lenje	Bemba	Nyanja

Language attitudes towards other languages

11. The teacher encourages pupils to use languages that are not official.	Yes	No
12. The teacher only allows the use of the official language.	Yes	No
13. The teacher uses official language to correct mistakes.	Yes	No
14. The teacher uses local languages to correct mistakes.	Yes	No

Challenges faced when using the official language

15. The teacher is fluent in the official language.	Yes	No
16. The teacher is fluent in the local language.	Yes	No
17. Pupils are able to read and write in the official language.	Yes	No
18. Pupils are fluent in the official language.	Yes	No

