

**ENGLISH AS A LANGUAGE OF LEARNING AND TEACHING:
PERSPECTIVES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS IN THE
MASVINGO DISTRICT (ZIMBABWE).**

by

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Declaration

I declare that **English as a language of learning and teaching: Perspectives of secondary school teachers in the Masvingo District (Zimbabwe)** is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

Signature:

Date:

T. Marungudzi

Dedication

For my late father, Fumai 'Bataimoyo' Marungudzi.

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Abstract

This study analyses the perspectives of teachers on English as a language of learning and teaching in the context of government recommendations that Shona and Ndebele be used alongside English as languages of learning and teaching in Zimbabwean secondary schools. Through a questionnaire survey, open interviews and classroom observation, it was found that the teachers regard English as a language of learning and teaching in a positive way though they are aware of the difficulties associated with its use. There was a high consensus on the desirability of English among teachers as informants with various attributes obtained attitude, pedagogical beliefs and perceived difficulties scores that were, in the main, not statistically significant. It also emerged that government recommendations for the use of endoglossic languages as languages of learning and teaching (LoLT) have not been complemented by concrete measures and that the subsequent efforts to change the language-in-education policy have so far seemed insincere.

Key terms

English, perspectives, language planning, language policy, LoLT, mother tongue, additional language, secondary school.

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List of commonly used abbreviations and acronyms

AL	Additional Language
A LEVEL	Advanced Level
BA	Bachelor of Arts
BEEd	Bachelor of Education
BSc	Bachelor of Science
CMI	Chinese Medium Instruction
LoLT	Language/s of learning and teaching
MOI	Medium of instruction
MTI	Mother Tongue Instruction
O LEVEL	Ordinary Level
VETOKA	Venda, Tonga, Kalanga language association
ZBC	Zimbabwe Broadcasting Corporation
ZJC	Zimbabwe Junior Certificate
ZIMSEC	Zimbabwe Schools Examinations Council
ZILPA	Zimbabwe Indigenous Languages Promotion Association

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Introduction

This chapter constitutes the introduction of the research problem. First, a background to the problem is given, followed by the statement of the problem. Subsequently I outline the aims of the research and define terms that are key to the understanding of the study before giving an overview of the structure of the rest of the study.

1.2 Background to the problem

In 1998, the President of Zimbabwe, R. G. Mugabe, set up a twelve-member commission headed by Dr C.T. Nziramasanga, hereafter called the Nziramasanga Commission, to make an inquiry into and report on the Zimbabwean education and training system. This development came against the backdrop of an understanding that the current education system was not capable of facilitating the development of technology, the economy, social systems and other national aspirations that would make Zimbabwe a competitive country in the global village of the 21st century (Zimbabwe Government 1999: xxv).

The resolve to review the education and training system was also crafted to coincide with Zimbabwe's 21st independence anniversary – symbolically a coming of age, and hence a special moment for review and change. However, Zvobgo (1999:153-154) is of the view that the government's resolve to review the education system was a long delayed concession that "the country's education system, as presently structured, [up to 1998] has failed to transform society and the national economy for the better, and that it has failed to respond appropriately to the needs of the child in terms of developing skills that are essential for survival".

The Nziramasanga Commission was charged with 23 "terms of reference" i.e. a list of specific tasks that constituted its job description. Of central importance to the present study, is Term of Reference 2.1.8, which charged the Commission "to study and recommend specific policy initiatives on indigenous languages with a view to their wider use generally and more

specifically in the education and training systems in Zimbabwe” (Zimbabwe Government 1999: xxii).

It was a strong contention of the Nziramasanga Commission, as published in the *Report of the Presidential Commission of Inquiry into education and Training* that “there is need for a paradigm shift from the present thinking whereby English is seen as the official and first option for presenting academic, scientific and technological knowledge effectively to one where the two national languages – Shona and Ndebele are regarded as primary modes of communication in Zimbabwe supplemented by English for inter-regional and international communication” (Zimbabwe Government 1999:167).

Not surprisingly, upon completion of the study, the Nziramasanga Commission recommended that “Shona and Ndebele as well as English should be the medium of instruction throughout the education and training system” (Zimbabwe Government 1999:169). The commission also reported that there was a confused and half-hearted implementation of the existing language of learning and teaching (LoLT) policy (the one in which English is the official medium of instruction) in schools (Zimbabwe Government 1999:161).

That the LoLT plays a critical role in the academic success of learners is beyond doubt, especially in view of research findings such as those by UNESCO (1953), Bamgbose (1984), Collier (1989), Macdonald (1990), Rivera (1999), Rickford (1999), Shumba and Manyati (1998), Kembo (2000), Cummins (2001) among others. In the same vein, the perspectives of teachers towards the LoLT policy, or any other educational policy for that matter, also determine the success of that policy, and in turn, the academic success of learners. This view is supported by scholars such as Meyer (1995), Karavas-Doukas (1996), Meyer (1998), Li (1998) and Tse et al. (2001).

Focusing on the African context, Kembo (2000:286) says: “If the people of Africa want to give themselves a realistic opportunity to develop to their full potential educationally, economically, and politically, and to contribute to the resolution of their many problems, the issue of language in education must be addressed”. Thus this study seeks to address the issue of language in education by investigating the perspectives of secondary school teachers on English as a LoLT.

Some scholars, for example, Lucas and Katz (1994) feel that the LoLT debate is a tired issue that needs to be replaced with a focus on ways of enhancing the academic skills of language minority students. But it is my contention that as long as there are learners across the world, particularly in post-colonial Africa, that cannot as yet benefit from instruction in their mother tongues, a policy that maximises the chances of their academic success, there is still need to investigate LoLT issues that bear on the achievement of such academic success.

This study has been prompted by the recommendation by the Nziramasanga Commission that Shona and Ndebele be promoted into languages of learning and teaching, as outlined above, so that they can be used alongside English, which is currently the sole official LoLT in Zimbabwe from Grade 4 to tertiary level of education (Education Act 1996). This recommendation is based on the finding that the continued use of English as the LoLT has fomented public cynicism and disillusionment in many Zimbabweans, not only because such a policy is essentially colonial, but because it results in poor grades in public examinations (Zimbabwe Government 1999; Mumpande 2006). In the Commission's words, "[T]hroughout the country, people emphatically pointed out that too much attention is being paid to English at the expense of indigenous languages" (Zimbabwe Government 1999: 163).

1.3 Statement of the problem

It is important to note that the recommendation for a wider use of Shona and Ndebele as LoLT is based on the views of "language experts and language associations", "minority languages groups" (specifically representatives of Venda, Sotho, Tonga and Kalanga), "other countries" and the general "public" (people from various walks of life) (Zimbabwe Government 1999:157). This development is in spite of the fact that teachers, the stakeholders who bear the professional mandate to execute the anticipated innovation, were not consulted as a separate group on LoLT policy issues (though they were consulted as a separate group on other issues such as conditions of service).

In addition, basing the LoLT policy recommendation on the five groups mentioned in the above paragraph and downplaying the potential contribution of teachers, as it does, seems to negate research evidence in support of the importance of investigating teachers' perspectives, not only whenever educational innovations are being proposed, but also whenever endeavours to make teachers more effective are being mooted (Munby 1984; Johnson 1992; Carter and

Norwood 1992; Bennett 1995; Li 1998; Anton 1999; Borg 1999; She 2000; Hennessy et al. 2000; Tse 2001 et al. and Jacques 2001). In the words of Tse et al. (2001:9) “it is vital to examine teachers’ perspectives for they reflect the real situation at the school level and are likely to affect the successful implementation of medium of instruction policy”.

These recommendations also confirm Zvobgo’s (1999:157) earlier apprehension that though the commission of inquiry would be eventually set up, the government would be unlikely to avail a platform for subjecting the Commission’s findings and recommendations to public and professional debate, making it more evident that policy makers do not really value the contribution of grassroots stakeholders such as teachers even on issues that affect the teachers’ professional lives.

It is my contention that teachers are a key stakeholder in LoLT policy issues and therefore should be consulted in LoLT policy research because knowing their views on specific policy issues “is an important aspect of evaluating the likely success of a language teaching programme or a piece of language planning” (Crystal 2003:256).

1.4 Research aims

Against a background where there was no deliberate and focused consultation of teachers as a separate group on LoLT issues, reports of inadequate coordination of the current LoLT policy and actual classroom practice, and where LoLT public opinion is seemingly swaying from English to indigenous languages, it became necessary to investigate the missing but crucial perspectives of the teachers. It is the aim of this study to fill that gap.

Perspectives refer to individual ways in which people regard a situation, such ways being influenced by personal experiences or considerations (adapted from *Chambers’ 21st Century Dictionary*). According to Rokeach (1968 cited in Bennett 1995:9), perspectives refer to “the personal attitudes, values, and beliefs that help teachers interpret and justify their classroom decisions and actions”. In a research study focusing on the integration of Information Communication Technologies (ICT) into mainstream school subjects, Hennessy et al. (2000:4) define perspectives in terms of internal and external influences such as commitment, perceived constraints, pedagogic beliefs, caution and change that impact on the teacher’s reception of ICT. On the other hand, in investigating teacher perspectives on the adult

education profession, Sabatini et al. (2000) conceptualise perspectives in terms of professional adult educators' views on the kind of preparation and experience that they possess, types of programmes and teaching environments they teach in as well as the type of further professional development they require.

The significance of investigating teachers' perspectives lies in the fact that a perspective "provides the lens through which teaching is viewed and affects the way teaching is perceived and interpreted" (Bennett 1995:9). In addition, according to perspectivism (a philosophical theory), things can only be known or understood from an individual point of view at a particular time. Thus studying the individual perspectives of secondary school teachers in Zimbabwe, 28 years after independence, is expected to shed light on how the teachers regard the use of and handle English as a LoLT.

Goodman (1985: 2) adds: "Teacher perspectives take into account how situations are interpreted given different teachers' backgrounds, assumptions, beliefs, and previous experiences; and how their interpretations are manifested in actions". Agreeing with this observation, Johnson (1992 in Matsuura 2004:472) says teachers teach as they believe – "their beliefs act as a filter through which a host of instructional judgments and decisions are made". Similarly, She (2000), in a study that analyses the cross-relationships among teachers' beliefs, practices and classroom interaction with male and female students, found that teachers' beliefs concerning boy/girl differences in learning style and classroom participation are reinforced or sustained by their interaction with the students.

In light of the definition and characteristics of perspectives given above, when looking at the teachers' perspectives in this study, it is useful to break them down into a number of dimensions that will yield a comprehensive picture of what a section of Zimbabwean secondary school teachers do, believe, think and feel about the use of English as a LoLT. As such, perspectives will include not only teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT, but indeed the teachers' actual LoLT practice, the pedagogical beliefs that shape those attitudes and practices, as well as the teachers' perceived difficulties and beneficial attributes of the current LoLT policy.

The concept 'attitude' is understood to refer to different phenomena by different writers. There are those that believe in the multicomponential definition of attitude (e.g. Rosenberg

and Hovland (1960 in Stahlberg and Frey 1988) as well as those that believe in the unicomponential definition. The multicomponential (consisting of more than one component) definition of attitude encompasses affective, cognitive and conative/behavioural dimensions. On the other hand, the unicomponential (consisting of one component) definition focuses only on one dimension i.e. the affective, of Rosenberg and Hovland's three-component model mentioned above. For the purposes of this study, the unicomponential definition will be used. Thus attitudes will be taken as standing for "emotions which are connected with the attitude object, that is, its positive or negative evaluation" (Stahlberg and Frey 1988:143). In this unicomponential definition, the attitude concept is therefore distinct from the concept of belief on one hand or from behavioural intention or overt action on the other.

Beliefs are reserved for the opinions held about the attitude object or for the information, knowledge or thoughts someone has about the attitude object; and overt actions are an external expression of behavioural inclinations (Stahlberg and Frey 1988:143). These two concepts will be treated as separate but complementary components of the teachers' perspectives.

1.5 The research question and the sub-questions

To investigate the problem of the teachers' perspectives towards the use of English as a LoLT, the following research questions were explored:

1.5.1 What are the perspectives of secondary school teachers on English as a LoLT?

In the interest of convenience as well as need for richness of information, this major research question will be sub-divided into the following sub-questions.

1.5.1.1 What are the attitudes of secondary school teachers towards English as a LoLT?

1.5.1.2 What are the pedagogical beliefs of secondary school teachers about English as a LoLT?

1.5.1.3 What difficulties and beneficial attributes do secondary school teachers perceive in the current LoLT policy?

1.5.1.4 To what extent is the current policy of English as a LoLT being implemented in the actual classrooms?

1.6 The hypotheses

From the sub-questions above, all except the last one were investigated statistically and for each of them, four hypotheses that focus on the salient characteristics (i.e. school locality, qualifications, length of teaching experience and subject discipline) of the sample were advanced and tested statistically. The last question was addressed using qualitative data from classroom observations as well as interviews.

For the first sub-question i.e. What are the perspectives of secondary school teachers on English as a LoLT, the following hypotheses were advanced:

Hypothesis 1A

The teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT will significantly depend on the locality of their school.

Hypothesis 1B

The teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their qualifications.

Hypothesis 1C

The teachers' attitudes towards English as LoLT will significantly depend on the length of their teaching experience.

Hypothesis 1 D

The teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their subject discipline.

As for the second sub-question i.e. what are the pedagogical beliefs of secondary school teachers about English as a LoLT, the following hypotheses will be advanced:

Hypothesis 2A

The teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on the locality of their school.

Hypothesis 2B

The teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their qualifications.

Hypothesis 2C

The teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on the length of their teaching experience.

Hypothesis 2D

The teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their subject discipline.

Finally, for the third research question, the hypotheses were as follows:

Hypothesis 3A

The teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on the locality of their school.

Hypothesis 3B

The teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their qualifications.

Hypothesis 3C

The teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on the length of their teaching experience.

Hypothesis 3D

The teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their subject disciplines.

Chapter 3 of this study details the methodology that was used to investigate the research questions and Chapter 4 outlines how the hypotheses advanced in this section were tested. Meanwhile I turn to the definition of key terms.

1.7 Definition of key terms

1.7.1 Language of Learning and Teaching (LoLT): the language used by the teacher and the pupils for learning/teaching activities in the formal classroom. LoLT is also known traditionally as the medium of instruction. The term “medium of instruction” is the one that is used in the data collection instruments for it is the more familiar in the Zimbabwean context.

1.7.2 Perspectives: attitudes, actual LoLT practice, pedagogic beliefs that shape those attitudes and practices, perceived difficulties and beneficial attributes of a given LoLT policy.

1.7.3 Language attitudes: the feelings people have about their own language or the language(s) of others (Crystal, 2003:256). These may be favourable or unfavourable. Attitudes are “deep-seated emotional entities” not to be confused with opinions or views which are more superficial (Kembo-Sure and Webb 2000:131). Inasmuch as attitudes may be directed at languages per se, they may also be directed towards the functions to which those languages are put. The latter is the sense in which ‘attitude’ is used in this study.

1.7.4 Language planning: a deliberate, systematic and theory-based attempt to solve the communication, among other, problems of a community by studying its various languages and dialects and developing an official language policy concerning their selection and use (Crystal 2003:256).

1.7.5 Language policy: the body of decisions made by interested authorities concerning the desirable form and use of languages by a speech group. (Prator (undated) in Cooper 1989: 160). Though some scholars view language planning and language policy as one and the same thing, language policy can also be viewed as a statement of a plan of action or decision

consequent upon language planning activities. In other words, a language policy is a culmination of language planning.

1.7.6 Secondary school: school offering Grade 8 - 13 tuition. The average age of a Grade 8 student is 13 years and that of a Grade 13 student is 19 years.

1.7.7 School locality: rural or urban location of a school.

1.7.8 Mother tongue: a person's first language, usually learnt and spoken from birth. This term does not necessarily refer to the language of one's mother though it is, in most cases, the basis of one's sociolinguistic or ethnic identity.

1.7.9 Mother tongue instruction (MTI): use of the learner's first language for learning/teaching purposes.

1.7.10 Official language: a language constitutionally specified to function as a "legally appropriate language for all politically and culturally representative purposes on a nationwide basis" (Cooper, 1989:100). An official language is not only constitutionally or legally 'official' but *operates* [emphasis added] as an official language in the country. In Zimbabwe, English, Shona and Ndebele are designated official languages though the latter two do not always operate as official languages. An official language, according to Fasold (1987), is a language:

- used by government officials in their official duties at a national level though they may speak other languages in friendly conversation.
- in which government records are kept at the national level.
- that serves as the language of written communication between and within government agencies at the national level.
- in which laws and regulations governing the nation as a whole are originally written though they may be translated into other languages.
- in which forms such as tax forms and various applications related to the national government, are published.

1.7.11 Minority language: “a language used in a country by a group which is significantly smaller in number than the rest of the population” (Crystal 2003:294). In the Zimbabwean context, these are indigenous languages other than Shona and Ndebele (Hachipola 1999:xviii) and are spoken by a total of about 4% of the Zimbabwean population (Zimbabwe Government 1999:154). In Zimbabwe, there are official minority languages i.e. minority languages that the government has accorded official recognition and are being learnt, at the moment, only in primary schools and unofficial minority languages i.e. those minority languages, though acknowledged as such, are yet to be accorded official recognition and are not taught in schools. Official minority languages in Zimbabwe include Venda, Kalanga, Tonga, Tshangana, Chewa and Nambya. Official minority languages have also been given some space on National FM, a station on the national broadcaster, the Zimbabwe Broadcasting Corporation. Unofficial minority languages, on the other hand, include Barwe, Kunda, Hwesa, Sena, Sotho, Tswana, Tshwawo, Xhosa and Doma. The word ‘minority’ thus refers to the condition of having smaller speaker numbers and not to linguistic inferiority of any nature.

1.7.12 Indigenous language: A language of African origin and for whom the predominant speakers are native to African countries (Roy-Campbell 2003:85). The term ‘indigenous’ is meant to distinguish the language from foreign languages.

1.7.13 National language: A language that has some *de facto* or *de jure* connection with a people or a people’s territory and usually representative of the national identity of that territory or nation. A national language is usually widely spoken as a first language in a given nation ([www. Wikipedia.org](http://www.Wikipedia.org)). In Zimbabwe Shona and Ndebele have been accorded national language status.

1.7.14 Additional language: A language that a person learns in addition to or after his or her first language/s. An additional language is also known as a second language or an L2 but these latter two are not preferred because they give a misleading impression that a person can only speak a maximum of two languages.

1.7.15 Humanities: Branch of learning concerned with culture and the Arts subjects such as History, Literature, Religious Education/Divinity and, to some extent, Geography.

1.7.16 Sciences: Subjects concerned with knowledge obtained by observation and testing of facts, such knowledge being usually arranged in orderly manner. In this study, the Science subjects included Integrated Science, Mathematics, Biology, Chemistry, Physics and Computer Science.

1.7.17 Practicals: Subjects primarily concerned with practice and experiential learning as opposed to academic and theory-based analysis. In this study, such subjects included Building Studies, Fashion and Fabrics, Woodwork, Metalwork, Art, Music, Food and Nutrition and Agriculture.

1.7.18 Commercial: Subjects to do with the production and distribution of goods and services. In this study, Commercial subjects included Commerce, Economics, Management of Business and Accounting.

1.8 Overview of the study

This chapter has sought to spell out the research problem that this study focuses on. This has been done through a description of the background to the study, statement of the problem and an outline of the research aims as well as the broad themes into which the research problem has been analysed. A brief explanation of the methodology and a definition of key terms have also been provided.

Chapter 2 reviews literature related to the area of study. The chapter sheds light on the area of language planning in relation to education and also provides background information on the situation regarding the history and current position of English as a language of learning and teaching in Zimbabwe. The chapter finally reviews work done in relation to different perspectives of teachers on the use of English and different mother tongues as (LoLTs) drawing cases from a number of countries across the world.

Chapter 3 delineates the research design and the methods that were used to collect, present and analyse the data. The population and the sample used in the research will also be described along with the criteria used for sampling. The chapter also delineates the data-collection instruments, namely the questionnaire, classroom observation and interviews. Finally, the procedures followed in the collection and analysis of data will be outlined.

Chapter 4 is devoted to the analysis, presentation and discussion of data with a view to addressing the major research question and the sub-questions outlined in Chapter 1. The discussion and interpretation of the data is related to previous research.

The final chapter, Chapter 5 concludes the report by summarising the major findings of the study and assessing its contribution, and discussing the implications of the findings. This chapter also contains sections on the limitations of the study and suggestions for further research.

Chapter 2

Review of related literature

2.1 Introduction

This chapter outlines the context of the research problem in terms of the place of language planning in relation to education and also provides background information on the situation regarding the history and current position of English as a LoLT in Zimbabwe. The chapter also reviews work done in relation to different perspectives of teachers on the use of English and different mother tongues as LoLT, drawing cases from a number of countries across the world.

2.2 Language planning in education

McNab (1992:2) postulates that the education system is an important field for the implementation of government policies. He goes on to elaborate that such policies include the reinforcement of national integration, popular legitimation of government, economic development and national cultural authentication. Tollefson (2002:179) notes that “in multilingual states, language policies in education play a central role in state efforts to manage language conflict” and gives the example that in a situation where competing language groups seek to further their social, economic and political agendas within the educational system, language policy in education may be a crucial component in state efforts to favour one language group over another, or to reduce the potential of social conflict. The LoLT question belongs to the realm of language planning here understood as “a deliberate, systematic and theory-based attempt to solve the communication problems of a community by studying its various languages and dialects and developing an official language policy concerning their selection and use” (Crystal 2003:256). Thus, as noted in Chapter 1, though some scholars regard language planning and language policy as one and the same thing, language policy, in my view, refers to a list of decisions on how the languages of a polity must be developed, used and taught, such decisions of course deriving from language planning activities. Understood this way a language policy becomes the goal of language planning. So, as Prator (undated in Cooper 1989:31) notes it is language planning and language *policy-making* (not language policy) that may be synonymous.

However, Cooper (1989), justifiably, holds the opinion that definitions of language planning framed in terms of language or communication problems, albeit not wrong, are misleading in the sense that they obscure a fundamental point that language planning is typically if not always directed towards non-linguistic ends. Employing a graphic metaphor, Cooper (1989:34) thus characterises language planning efforts as just one battle (among many) in a war. Thus he prefers to define language planning, not as efforts to solve language problems, but rather as efforts to influence human behaviour.

Crystal (1997:366) notes that the process of language planning “involves the creation and implementation of an official policy about how the languages and linguistic varieties of a country are to be used” and that activities of language planning include those that are political and judicial, at one extreme, and those that are unofficial and illegal, at the other. Crystal (1997) goes on to point out that it is crucial to disentangle historical, political, economic, religious, educational, judicial and social factors during the activities of language planning. He also notes the multi-facetedness of attitudes towards planning proposals, some of which are complete support, partial approval, general indifference, mild antagonism and total antipathy.

In addition, Francis and Kamanda (2001:225) conceptualise language planning as “an attempt by some organised body (most commonly some level of government) to introduce systematic language change for some more or less clearly articulated purpose (commonly stated in altruistic terms, but often not based on altruistic intents)”. Though Crystal and Francis and Kamanda agree that language planning is a systematic process, Francis and Kamanda suspect that there is a level of hypocrisy on the part of policy planners in the sense that they posture as if they are pandering to the whims of those that the policy is purported to serve when in reality language planning is usually done for purposes of self-aggrandisement by the government of the day.

As Cooper (1989: 35) rightly notes, objectives for language planning are, in the main, non-linguistic. He elaborates that such objectives include consumer protection, scientific exchanges, national integration, political control, economic development, the creation of new elites or the maintenance of old ones, the pacification or co-option of minority groups and mass mobilisation of national or political movements.

Obeng (2002: 71) illustrates the same point and like Francis and Kamanda discussed above, notes some level of hypocrisy on the part of policy planners when he says that “most African

governments have vacillated in their rhetoric and their practice concerning language policies but proceed with little or no implementation of such policies because of their fear of stepping on some big toes, both at home and abroad, and therefore causing political turmoil or losing political power”. Ferguson (2000:101) concedes though that such fear is well-founded because implementing such policies would isolate these African governments from the international community, obstruct access to science and technology, promote “parochialism” and limit inward investment and aid from the richer countries of the North. There is a fuller discussion of the socio-political dimension of language planning and policy formulation and implementation in Section **2.10** below.

Language planning can also serve as a tool for empowering groups and individuals, for creating and strengthening national bonds and ties, and for maximising educational and economic development and can also be used “to maintain and perpetuate oppression, social-class discrimination and social and educational inequity” (Reagan 2002: 420).

According to Kerr (1976 in Reagan 2002:420-421) in order for a language policy to work effectively, it must pass the following tests:

- the desirability test, which states that the community must believe that the policy is desirable.
- the justness test, which states that the policy must be just and fair and treat all language groups equitably and appropriately.
- the effectiveness test, which states that the policy must be able to achieve its objectives.
- the tolerability test, which states that the policy must be resource-sensitive, pragmatic and not put a big strain on available teaching/learning resources.

Kaplan and Baldauf (1997), Reagan (2002) and Crystal (2003) identify two types of language planning, namely corpus planning and status planning. Corpus planning deals with the way language norms are chosen and codified and involves the selection of a national language, reformation of the spelling system, launching of campaigns for plain and non-sexist language and introduction of literacy programmes (Crystal 2003:358). Reagan (2002) notes that corpus planning focuses primarily on lexical development and expansion of specific languages such as Afrikaans and other African languages in the South African context and adds that creation of new terminology and production of dictionaries and textbooks are examples of corpus planning. In

Kaplan and Baldauf's (1997:28) view, corpus planning is concerned specifically with attempts to modify language itself.

Status planning on the other hand "deals with the standing of one language in relation to others" (Crystal, 2003: 358) and is concerned with the social and political implications of choosing a language and with such matters as language attitudes, national identity, international use and minority rights. According to Kaplan and Baldauf (1997:30) "status planning can be defined as those aspects of language planning which reflect primarily social issues and concerns and hence are external to the language(s) being planned" and is concerned with attempts to modify the environment in which a language is used. Cooper (1989:99) understands status planning in terms of deliberate efforts to influence the allocation of functions among a community's languages and proceeds to identify (citing Stewart 1968) 10 functions of language as targets of status planning. These are: official, provincial, wider communication, international, capital, group, educational, school subject, literary and religious. To these 10, Cooper adds two more, namely, the function in the mass media and in work. It is outside the scope of this study to detail all but one (the educational function) of these functions. Cooper (1989:99-118) has a fuller discussion of each of these functions.

Haugen (1983) presents a language planning model which shows that corpus planning focuses on language while status planning focuses on society and they elaborate that the societal focus, which falls under status planning, consists of those decisions a society must make about language selection and the implementation to choose and disseminate the language or languages selected while the language focus, subsumed under corpus planning consists of linguistic decisions which need to be made to codify and elaborate a language or languages. However, Kaplan and Baldauf (1997:28) note that the separation of corpus planning and status planning is an oversimplification; it is virtually impossible in practice to separate corpus planning activities and status planning activities because "any change in the character of language is likely to result in a change in the use environment and any change in the use environment is likely to induce a change in the character of a language."

In addition to the two types of language planning, namely status planning and corpus planning discussed above, Cooper (1989) adds a third type i.e. acquisition planning. Cooper goes on to define acquisition planning as that type of language planning that is aimed at increasing a language's users. Citing Prator (undated), Cooper (1989:33) argues that since language planning

involves language teaching, those aspects of planning that are directed towards increasing the number of users i.e. speakers, writers, listeners or readers, warrant a separate analytic category. To draw a dividing line between status planning and acquisition planning, Cooper says that when planning is directed towards increasing a language's uses, it falls within the rubric of status planning and when it is directed at increasing the number of users it falls under acquisition planning. Since the LoLT policy affects both the number of uses to which a language is put as well as the number of speakers of a language, LoLT policy issues tread with one wheel on status planning and with the other on acquisition planning. Such an intertwined relationship also exists between corpus planning and status planning. Thus these three types of language planning are by no means independent.

As stated earlier, it is the educational function that is the concern of this study. Crystal (1997:368) notes that one of the most important ways in which a country's language policy manifests itself is the kind of provision it makes for the linguistic education of children. Thus the educational function of language is one of the most critical aspects in the study of language planning and language policy.

Cooper (1989:108-109, citing Stewart 1968) describes the educational function of language as "the function of a language (other than the provincial or official function) as a medium of primary or secondary education, either regionally or nationally". The LoLT question is not limited to primary and secondary education but applicable to tertiary levels of education as well. In particular the LoLT used in secondary schools is the focus of this study. It is important to focus at the school level because, according to Cooper (1989:109) determining media of instruction for school systems is perhaps the status planning decision most frequently made and the one most commonly subject to strong political pressures. Most educationists and students of language planning also show a keen interest in this type of planning.

Fasold (1987:76) argues that in order for a language to perform its educational function, it requires three attributes: (1) it must be understood by learners, (2) there must be teaching resources in that language i.e. textbooks as well as teachers able to teach in that language and (3) it must be sufficiently standardised. Fasold (1987:76) goes on to observe that in a situation where a country does not have a language that possesses all these three attributes, a language that is sufficiently standardised and has teaching resources is very often selected, of course with consequences that "either the students come to understand the language of education (that is, they

learn it), or almost no education takes place.” In other cases, “no education takes place” because language policies have put a premium on national integration to the detriment of the real-life language and literacy needs of ordinary people (Francis and Kamanda 2001:227). Thus Francis and Kamanda (2001:239) further propose that the needs for which language planning takes place can only be “articulated by the people themselves, not perceived by some ‘expert’ or ‘authority’ ”. Crystal (2000 in Nyika 2008:7) illustrates a similar point when he notes that “the homes and the neighbourhoods of the community members themselves” must constitute the foundation of language planning activities.

As indicated in the preceding chapter, some scholars rather feel that the LoLT debate should not continue to preoccupy researchers but that researchers should focus on ways of enhancing the academic skills of language minority students. While such arguments seem valid, their proponents should also take into consideration the fact that academic skills are transmitted through a LoLT and the best LoLT for those language minority students is their mother tongue. For this reason, efforts to upgrade the status of the mother tongues of such minority students should take precedence over efforts to reduce the educational disadvantages associated with the use of foreign languages as LoLTs. In fact, language planning in education literature contains both theoretical and empirical evidence that demonstrates the pedagogical supremacy of the learner’s mother language in helping advance cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) skills (Collier 1989: 527). Other vehement proponents of MTI are the UNESCO (1953), Bamgbose (1984), Criper and Dodd (1984), Fafunwa et al. (1989), Macdonald (1990), National Education Policy Investigation (NEPI) (1992), Walters (1994) Shumba and Manyati (1998), Roy-Campbell (1998), Keane (1999), Rivera (1999), Rickford (1999) and Mlama and Matteredu (1976 in Makoni et al. 2003). Details of some of these studies are given in Sections 2.8 and 2.9 below. The significance of investigating the perspectives of teachers on educational issues is discussed below.

2.3 The significance of teacher perspectives

Teacher perspectives are important not only in terms of the language of learning and teaching, but indeed in all other aspects of curriculum implementation. Most decisions on policy of all manner in education being characteristically top-down (Karavas Doukas 1996; Li 1998; Meyer 1998; Zvobgo 1999, among others), it is not unusual that most educational policies are not implemented wholesale once prescribed in schools. Meyer (1998:2) conveys this state of affairs more forcefully when he remarks that “it is no secret that what is supposed to happen in schools is frequently at

odds with what actually happens.” This scenario is exacerbated by half-hearted and sometimes non-existent enforcement of educational policies by those tasked to supervise schools at the national, local or school level. In order to reduce discrepancies between educational policy and actual practice, it is therefore necessary to investigate the perspectives of teachers on policy issues.

In Chapter 1, it was indicated that perspectives consist of attitudes, beliefs and perceived difficulties and beneficial attributes as well as the actual LoLT practice of teachers. In regard to attitudes, Karavas-Doukas (1996:187) suggests that “one of the causes of the discrepancy between prescribed theory and classroom practice may be teachers’ attitudes.” In her study, Karavas-Doukas (1996) discovered that though a majority of teachers had a positive attitude towards communicative language teaching, they were not following its principles because it violated some of their pedagogical beliefs.

In a survey of teachers’ beliefs about incidental focus on form and their classroom practices, Basturkmen et al. (2004) found that there was a disparity between the beliefs and the actual practice of the teachers, lending support to the fact that the peculiarities of the learning/teaching process sometimes render teachers’ perceptions, preferences, beliefs or views and indeed policy stipulations, null and void, thus resulting in a disharmonious relationship between the two. Basturkmen et al. (2004:247) also understand the knowledge that the teachers get from their training as “technical knowledge,” which is typically not procedural and argue that this is what “forces teachers to draw more on practical knowledge than on technical knowledge.”

In South Korea, Li (1998) found that teachers felt that the implementation of the communicative approach to language teaching was difficult owing to several reasons, some of which had to do with the teacher, the learners, the educational system and the communicative approach itself. Thus against their wish and conscience, they resorted to the traditional methods of language teaching such as the audiolingual and the grammar translation methods.

A pattern emerges from these studies that the top-down fashion in which policies are handed to teachers, either by government, policy makers, or academic theoreticians or researchers, is problematic and is probably the chief cause of lack of articulation between policy and practice in education. Clearly, government and policy-makers should constantly engage classroom practitioners whenever educational innovations are being proposed. Part of the focus of this study

is to determine the degree of articulation between prescribed LoLT policy and actual LoLT practice in Zimbabwean classrooms. To put the Zimbabwean scenario in proper perspective, I turn now to the perspectives of teachers from other countries on the different LoLT policies that they were mandated to implement.

2.4 Teacher perspectives on LoLT policy

Focusing on the South African situation, Meyer (1998) investigated factors that lead to the phenomenon of disharmony between LoLT policy and classroom practice. He found that despite English being enshrined in the constitution as a medium of instruction, English, accompanied by a native language was the *de facto* practice. One of the reasons that Meyer (1998) gives for the tension between the LoLT policy and practice is the fact that textbooks are written in English though the realities of the classroom make exclusive instruction in English impossible. A quotation from one of the teachers interviewed in Meyer's study best sums up the tension between the LoLT policy and practice: "English is merely enshrined in the school constitution as the medium but no one tries to work according to the constitution" (Meyer 1998:13).

Furthermore, Meyer attributed the tension between policy and practice to the fact that there was an "articulate and vocal lobby among parents and teachers for the policy of English as the language of learning and teaching" (Meyer 1998:16). This is not surprising given that many people worldwide still believe that English is the key to success and many other forms of upward social mobility or prosperity (Cooper 1989; Chick 1992; Philipson 1992; Barkhuizen and Gough 1996; Zimbabwe Government 1999; Zvobgo 1999; Francis and Kamanda 2001; Heugh 2002 and Roy-Campbell 2003). In fact, as Cooper (1989:110) notes, the conqueror's language is ordinarily viewed as a language of economic opportunity by the vanquished. In Heugh's (2002:450-451) view, the majority of African language speakers, at the attainment of independence in South Africa in 1994, became neither willing champions of their own languages nor willing users of Afrikaans, but became committed to English in the mistaken view that English would deliver both economic and political power to the majority of South Africans. Commenting on a related issue of adopting foreign education systems by former colonial states, Zvobgo (1999:151) makes a similar point when he observes that "western models of education were imported by new states in the belief that they only had to westernise their education systems in order to modernise their society and so become industrialised and rich".

However, the studies just mentioned show that the choice of English as the LoLT has not led to the anticipated prosperity. It is evident in the studies that there has not been prosperity because the high failure rate of students who are schooled in English militates against their academic success, thereby incapacitating them to pursue gainful endeavours using their academic achievements. Commenting on the Zimbabwean situation in 1999, Zvobgo (1999:153-154), notes that “the government seems to have conceded, at last, that the country’s education system, as presently structured, organised, administered and focused, has failed to transform society and the national economy for the better, and that it has failed to respond appropriately to the needs of the child in terms of developing skills that are essential for survival.”

Another study that investigates the perspectives of teachers on policy issues in education is that by Ejieh (2004). Designed to investigate the attitudes of student teachers towards mother tongue instruction in Nigeria, Ejieh found that the student teachers had a generally negative attitude towards mother tongue instruction. These findings concur with those of Meyer (1998) above in the sense that in both cases, there is a latent disposition towards the desirability of English as a LoLT. The only difference is that in Meyer’s study, the teachers’ preference for English is tempered with a kind of rude awakening (perhaps brought by actual experience) to the fact that their preference is difficult to implement within the exigencies of the classroom set-up. In Ejieh’s study, the student teachers, lacking in experience, showed an unreserved preference for English as LoLT because they had not had the benefits that come with experience of a real classroom. One of the predictions that Ejieh makes from this study is that secondary school teachers would view mother tongue instruction negatively but such a conclusion, being based on an investigation that used a sample of student teachers, would be difficult to accept in the absence of further evidence from a sample of practising teachers. The length of teaching experience must be an important factor with a bearing on the perspectives of teachers.

Faced with a certain prospect of switching from English to Chinese Medium of Instruction (CMI), an endoglossic language, Hong Kong teachers were found to have a positive attitude towards CMI, but reported difficulties such as lack of confidence in using Modern Standard Written Chinese (MSWC) as a teaching language, lack of teaching resources in Chinese, pressure resulting from parent resistance and anxiety emanating from government uncertainty on language policy for senior secondary level (Poon 1999, Tse et al. 2001). It is evident from these findings that constraints seemingly unrelated to LoLT policy sometimes interfere with theoretically sound LoLT options. These studies also demonstrate the aforementioned disposition towards the

desirability of instruction in English, not only to parents, but also, indeed, to teachers. The tension between teacher preferences and the dictates of the classroom emerges again.

Probyn (2002) maintains that teachers feel that students' low proficiency in English does not warrant its use as LoLT. This feeling of the teachers supports Criper and Dodd's (1984 cited in Roy-Campbell 2003:90) finding in the Tanzanian context that "the level of English in secondary schools was totally inadequate for the teaching and learning of other subjects and that it was hard to see how any genuine education could take place at the lower secondary school level using English as the medium". Roy-Campbell and Qorro (1998) make a similar observation. Probyn (2002) cites reasons such as poor questioning techniques by teachers, 'uncustomised' teacher training, lack of resources and few writing and reading activities in the classroom as causes for the low proficiency.

Questions as to why teachers switch to the mother tongue during lessons yielded findings reminiscent to those by Meyer (1998). For example, pupils found it difficult to understand textbooks and examination questions, it was difficult to make learners understand anything in English and teaching through English took a longer time. Once again, it is evident that the LoLT policy is at variance with the dictates of actual classroom practice. Chiwome and Thondhlana's (1992) study confirms these findings. In their study, it emerged that students and teachers use English in the teaching of Shona in Zimbabwean secondary schools even though they feel that Shona serves their purposes better.

Other studies also yielded results testifying to the fact that teachers do not necessarily have a negative attitude towards specific LoLT policies, but tension between policy and practice arises out of the demands by the classroom realities to 'customise' as it were, official policies to suit existing circumstances (Barkhuizen and Gough 1996, Meyer 1998, Tsui et al. 1999, Tse et al. 2001, Basturkmen et al. 2004 and Ejieh 2004). According to Barkhuizen and Gough (1996:463-464) disharmony between policy and practice arises because planners fail to project themselves into the reality of the working lives of teachers and administrators, resulting in "politically correct rhetoric" and "equally appealing policy statements" that often "mean almost nothing on the ground".

In contrast to the above discussion, some studies posit that language status planning decisions, to which the LoLT question belongs, as has been indicated in Section 2.2 above, has little if any, to

do with educationally sound considerations but more to do with socio-political expediency. Urevbu (1985:115 citing Hawes, 1982:76) puts this succinctly when he states that “language policies for education are highly charged political issues and seldom if ever decided on educational grounds alone”. Cooper (1989), Davis (1999), Poon (1999), Huebner (1999), Tse et al. (2001), (Obeng 2002), Roy-Campbell (2003), make similar observations. Political, socio-economic, cultural and other ideological factors that bear on language policy planning and implementation are detailed in Section **2.10** below. The following section now looks at the sociolinguistic situation in Zimbabwe.

2.5 Zimbabwe: the sociolinguistic situation

Writing in 1999, Hachipola (1999) notes that Zimbabwe is one of the few countries in the Southern African region without comprehensive information on the language situation within its borders apart from the information by Doke (1931), Fortune (1959) and Mitchell et al. (1964). To date, virtually nothing has changed, despite contributions by Hachipola (1999) and those by Mumpande (2006) and Nyika (2008). The contradictions between Hachipola and Bendor-Samuel (1989 in Gordon 2005) regarding the number, names and locations of the languages of Zimbabwe is testimony to the absence of comprehensive information on the language situation in the country. For example, Gordon (2005) reports that Zimbabwe has 20 languages, taking Manyika, Ndau, Fanagalo as languages in their own right, while Hachipola reports of 17 languages. It should be admitted though that such discrepancies and contradictions are not peculiar to Zimbabwe, but quite common in other African countries.

According to the Census 2002 National Report published by the Central Statistical Office (2004), Zimbabwe has a population of 11 631 657 people distributed across ten provinces with two major cities, Harare (the administrative capital) and Bulawayo (the commercial capital). Like many African countries, Zimbabwe is a multilingual country with 17 languages, Shona and Ndebele being majority languages. (Please note that two of the three languages that Bendor-Samuel (1989 in Gordon 2005) regards as languages ie Manyika and Ndau are in reality regarded as dialects of Shona in Zimbabwe while on the other hand, I could not find enough and conclusive evidence that Fanagalo is a Zimbabwean language). There are also 15 minority languages as shown in **Table 2.1** and **Figure 1**).

Table 2.1: The minority languages of Zimbabwe (Adapted from Hachipola 1999)

Bantu	Non Bantu
1. Kalanga	1. Tshwawo
2. Nyanja/Chewa	
3. Tonga of Mudzi District	
5. Tonga	
6. Shangani/Tsonga	
7. Sotho	
8. Venda	
9. Kunda	
10. Xhosa	
11. Sena	
12. Hwesa	
13. Nambya	
14. Barwe	

Of these 15 minority languages, Kalanga, Shangani, Tonga, Venda and Nambya are official minority languages and the rest are unofficial minority languages. Official minority languages are those that the government has recognised as minority languages and are taught in primary schools but only as subjects. Official minority languages are also broadcast on National FM of the ZBC, the national broadcaster. On the other hand, unofficial minority languages are those that, though existing, are yet to receive official recognition from the government.

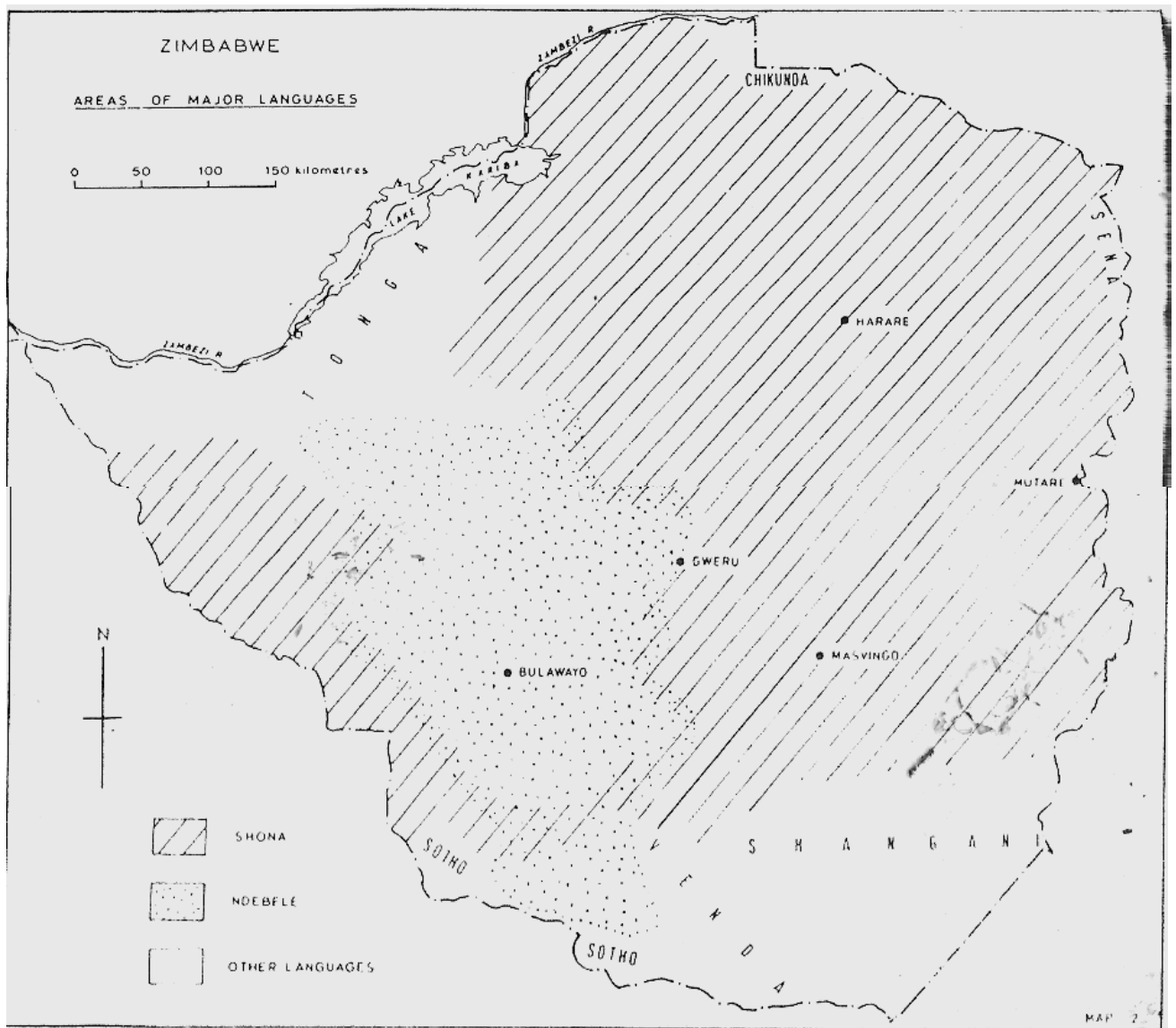
In terms of geographic distribution, Shona is the dominant language and lingua franca in Masvingo, Manicaland, Harare and the three Mashonaland provinces i.e. Central, East and West while Ndebele is the dominant language and lingua franca in the Bulawayo province, Matabeleland North and Matabeleland South. In the Midlands Province, Shona and Ndebele are almost equally represented though Shona may be used as a lingua franca in Ndebele-dominated areas (See **Fig. 2**).

Shona is spoken as a first language by at least 75% of the Zimbabwean population, Ndebele by 19%, English 2% and minority languages collectively by 4%. There are almost no definite patterns premised on a demographic basis as the languages cut across the urban/rural, socio-economic, class, age and gender divides. There is a tendency though for English to be more concentrated in metropolitan areas due mainly to rural-urban migration by youths in search of employment. Indigenous languages also tend to dominate family and social discourse.

Regarding functional distribution, Chimhundu (2002) notes that the Zimbabwean language situation is an essentially diglossic one i.e. consisting of language or language varieties with clear functional separation, one carrying out high (H) functions and the other carrying out low (L) functions (Wardhaugh 1998:87). According to Hudson (1980) the variety that carries out the H functions is the prestige variety, with advanced grammars, dictionaries and standardised texts and a literary tradition. Usually learnt in formal situations, there is also a belief that the H variety is more beautiful, more logical and more expressive. For this reason, the H variety is usually used for religious sermons, formal lectures, in parliament, for broadcasting, political speeches and editorials in newspapers. However, it must be emphatically pointed out here that beliefs that some languages and language varieties are more beautiful, more logical and more expressive are not based on scientific fact. Chapter 4, which analyses the teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT reiterates this point. In Zimbabwe, English is the official language that accomplishes the H functions including governance, parliamentary debate and legislation, courts of law, education, technology, trade and industry and mainstream media. In order to promote wide communication and understanding, the translation of important documents is done although the indigenous languages, which usually tend to dominate family and social discourse, are also widely used in the workplace.

On the other hand, the variety that carries out the L functions lacks prestige and literary tradition, has fewer grammars, standardised texts and dictionaries and is believed to be less beautiful, logical and expressive. Thus this variety is reserved for low prestige functions such as conversations with familiars or household servants, in soap operas and other popular programs on television or radio (Hudson 1980). In Zimbabwe, Shona and the other indigenous languages carry out the L functions though as noted in the above paragraph, these languages are also used in the workplace.

Figure 2.2: The distribution of majority languages in Zimbabwe (Source: Hachipola 1999)



In terms of language preference, English is generally preferred for instrumental reasons, as it is perceived as the language of access though indigenous languages carry some prestige as indicators of cultural loyalty and ethnic nationalism.

In terms of standardisation, Shona and Ndebele have reached advanced stages though they do not approximate English. Written literature abounds in both languages and significant strides have been taken and continue to be taken in dictionary making with the latest offerings being a Shona dictionary of medical terms entitled *Duramazwi Reurapi Neutano* as well as another Shona dictionary of language and literature entitled *Duramazwi Redudziramutauro Nouvaranomwe*. There are also Ndebele versions of these two dictionaries and plans are at an advanced stage for the publication of a Shona dictionary on primary mathematics as well as a dictionary for children (J. Mapara 2008 pers. comm).

2.6 The LoLT policy in Zimbabwe: a brief history

A brief history of the LoLT policy in Zimbabwe is necessary if LoLT issues affecting the country at present are to be understood in their proper perspective. Section **2.6.1** below focuses on the LoLT policy in relation to the teaching of majority languages. In Section **2.6.2** LoLT policy is discussed relation to the teaching of minority languages.

2.6.1 The teaching of majority languages and the LoLT policy

English was implanted and entrenched both as a LoLT and as an official language during the 90-year long domination by the British i.e. 1890 – 1980. During this period, English consolidated itself as the LoLT in all schools though two other major indigenous languages, Shona and Ndebele were taught from Grade 1 to university level, as subjects only. In addition to being the official language of business, English was also a compulsory subject and a requirement on all school certificates (Zimbabwe Government 1999:159). Learning time for Shona and Ndebele was also less than that allotted to English, seemingly resulting in relegation in status and a negative attitude towards the languages/subjects and those that learnt and taught them. Other minority languages such as Venda, Sotho, Shangani, Kalanga, Nambya and Tswana were only taught up to Grade 3 (Hachipola 1999, Mumpande 2006, Nyika 2008).

Efforts were made at independence in 1980 to rectify some of the colonial anomalies mentioned above. For example, the revised policy of 1996 stipulates that Shona and Ndebele should enjoy treatment equal to that of English on school timetables. However, this was not realised in the actual classroom situation. There were also wry efforts in 1981 to redefine a full Ordinary Level certificate to take aboard Shona or Ndebele. To date, the Government is still grappling with enforcing the revised policy as expressed in the recommendation attributed to the permanent secretary in the Ministry of Education. The permanent secretary was quoted in *The Herald* of 16 November 2005 as reiterating that indigenous majority languages would receive treatment equal to that of English on school timetables.

Attempts by the African Languages Panel to introduce two separate subjects i.e. language and literature for Shona and Ndebele in 1987 were rejected on grounds that “this would overload the timetable and that the teaching/learning materials and teaching personnel would not be available” (Zimbabwe Government 1999:158). This explains why these two components are currently not treated as separate subjects.

It is evident from these apparent inconsistencies that there is not enough effort being made to implement promulgated educational policies. However, vacillation and hesitation by most governments could be a result of structural impediments (Schiffman 1992; Davis 1999) that have been built into language policy itself. Structural impediments refer to the deliberate ways in which a language policy is crafted to equip it to safeguard the status of specific languages from being “overthrown” by other languages competing for that status. Davis (1999:75) notes that “it has been deliberate government policy in English-speaking countries [of the North] to promote the worldwide use of English for economic and political purposes”. Thus there is a need for research into political, ideological and economic motivations behind language policy decision making and ways in which consent or dissent for language policies may be orchestrated.

2.6.2 The teaching of minority languages and the LoLT policy

According to Mumpane (2006), all the indigenous minority languages in Zimbabwe were taught up to Standard 4 i.e. Grade 3 in terms of post-independence Zimbabwe education structure, prior

to independence. The teaching of Nambya and Sotho stopped in the 1950s and late 1960s respectively following the government's recognition of Shona and Ndebele as official languages. The teaching of Tonga also stopped in 1976 due to sanctions imposed on the Ian Smith regime by Zambia. The sanctions led to a halt of the exchange and importation of Tonga literature from Zambia, where a significant portion of the population speaks that language. When these languages were dropped, their speakers protested against the action, and actually regarded this as one of the justifications for their involvement in the Zimbabwean war of liberation. The discontent of these speakers also led to the formation of pressure groups including speakers of Tonga, Nambya, Kalanga, Shangani, Venda and Sotho. These groups were formed to spearhead the struggle for the restoration of the linguistic rights of the minority language speakers.

At independence, the new black government nevertheless did not heed the calls to reinstate the teaching of the minority languages, provoking feelings of anger and bitterness in the minority language groups. The words of one Malaba of the Kalanga Language Committee, in a letter to the Minister of Primary and Secondary Education, graphically captures the ire:

We were made to believe that the war of liberation was against suppression, oppression, discrimination and white minority domination over the majority blacks. But after the attainment of independence, the very government we fought to install turned around and labelled us 'minority groups'. We are very bitter about this dehumanisation and disparagement in the land of our ancestors (Mumpande 2006:14).

The minority language groups were also bitter about the according of majority language status to Shona and Ndebele, which meant that these languages would be taught even in the language minority areas. Expressing that bitterness, the chairman of the Kalanga Language Committee, in a letter to the Minister of Primary and Secondary Education, also wrote:

The issue of referring to Ndebele and Shona as main languages is like pointing a finger at oneself as being 'main'. Main to who? Every language is the main language to the speakers of that language (Mumpande 2006:14).

The concerns of these minority language groups indicate that their motives for the teaching of their languages are not only educational but also cultural and ideological. It is part of their linguistic rights to learn their languages. Nyika (2008) details the efforts taken by the minority language groups in Zimbabwe to secure these linguistic rights.

To appease the irked minority language speakers, who now continued their language activism under VETOKA (a minority languages and cultures promotion society comprising representatives from the Venda, Tonga and Kalanga groups), the government introduced the teaching of the minority languages in 1985 and set up a publishing company (VETOKA Publishing Company) to service the rest of the minority language groups. VETOKA was succeeded by the Zimbabwe Indigenous Languages Promotion Association (ZILPA), formed in March 2001. ZILPA continued to lobby government to promote minority languages beyond teaching them up to Grade 3. Notwithstanding such lobbying, the government remained adamant that teaching the minority languages beyond Grade 3 was unnecessary and it did not respond positively to the Tongas' request for it to limit the teaching of Ndebele or Shona in language minority areas claiming that this would create division in the country.

Against this background one is bound to believe that such adamancy points to the “half-hearted measures that the government takes to hoodwink the masses or prevent political unrest” (Zvobgo 1999:204). This also gives credence to Cooper’s (1989:112) observation that “while most [governments] give lip service to the importance of maximizing the educational attainments of pupils, the decision as to what languages will be used to teach them typically depends on political considerations.”

Eventually, if ostensibly succumbing to pressure from ZILPA, the government revisited the 1996 policy quoted in Section 2.7 below and garnished it with modifications captured in the following circular produced by the Ministry of Education:

January 2002

SECRETARY’S CIRCULAR NUMBER 1 OF 2002

POLICY REGARDING LANGUAGE TEACHING AND LEARNING

1. MINORITY LOCAL LANGUAGES

These are languages that are spoken by relatively small indigenous groups in various parts of Zimbabwe. They include, but are not restricted to Kalanga, Tonga, Venda, Nambya and Sotho. These languages are currently being taught up to Grade 3. From January 2002 the languages will be assisted to advance to a grade per year until they can be taught at Grade 7. The table below shows how this will happen:

GRADE

YEAR

<i>Grade 3</i>	<i>Already in place</i>
<i>Grade 4</i>	<i>January 2002</i>
<i>Grade 5</i>	<i>January 2003</i>
<i>Grade 6</i>	<i>January 2004</i>
<i>Grade 7</i>	<i>January 2005</i>

The annual progression of the classes will enable the necessary inputs to be made in advance. This includes teachers, classrooms and materials. By the time these languages are offered at Grade 7 in 2005, new arrangements will be made for their further development. In other words, we will cross this particular bridge when we come to it. (Source: Adapted from Nyika 2008).

This provision was followed by a fuller amendment of Section 62 of the Education Act of 1996. This amended act was dubbed “*Education Amendment Act, 2006*”, a copy of which has been reproduced below:

Languages to be taught in schools

(1) Subject to this section, all the three main languages of Zimbabwe, namely Shona, Ndebele and English, shall be taught on an equal-time basis in all schools up to Form Two level.

(2) In areas where indigenous languages other than those mentioned in subsection (1) are spoken, the Minister may authorise the teaching of such languages in schools in addition to those specified in subsection (1).

(3) The Minister may authorise the teaching of foreign languages in schools.

(4) Prior to Form 1, any one of the languages referred to in subsection (1) and (2) may be used as the medium of instruction depending upon which language is more commonly spoken and better understood by the pupils.

(5) Sign language shall be the priority medium of instruction for the deaf and hard of hearing.

It will be interesting to check the uptake of the provisions of *Circular 1 of 2002* as well as of the *Education Amendment Act, 2006* in the real school situation though initial indications are that the policy is not being enforced with vigour, if at all. The idea of crossing “that particular bridge when we come to it” in the Circular also smacks of half-heartedness and lack of will to resolve matters once and for all. Notwithstanding such half-heartedness and hesitation by the

Zimbabwean government, it is noteworthy that, starting in 2008, Great Zimbabwe University, (where I teach) has introduced undergraduate courses in Venda and Shangani with assistance from the University of Venda in South Africa.

The lack of urgency by governments, particularly in Sub-Saharan Africa, at implementing LoLT policies is also cited by Obeng (2002:76) when he identifies possible volatile socio-political consequences that may accompany forced language planning [forced on government from below] as one of the factors resulting in the governments' tendencies not to embark on too strong a policy. Ferguson (2000:100) maintains that in fact the African elite "have a vested interest in maintaining English as an official language and as a medium of education because they partly owe their position to it and it functions as an effective mechanism for the elite to reproduce itself".

Though the majority of Zimbabweans has acquiesced to, and even took pride in, the use of English as the LoLT from the colonial period, the Nziramasanga Report notes that there seems to be growing public disillusionment with the status quo. The Nziramasanga Report attributes such disillusionment to the consistently bad Ordinary Level results that the report pegs at an annual rate of 20% to 25% (Zimbabwe Government 1999:305). Besides, this alleged shift in public perception comes against the backdrop of a pervasive government perception that Zimbabwe is facing a social, political, economic and cultural onslaught from the West.

Larsen-Freeman (1987:9) views teaching as a combination of science and art. She goes on to argue that it is the artistic aspect of teaching that requires teachers to uniquely interpret and apply the scientific information in making the choices for any given situation among the methodological options that exist. Thus teachers tend to sacrifice educational or professional dogmas for grassroots-based "common sense" (Shumba and Manyati 1998; Meyer 1998; Basturkmen et al. 2004; Probyn 2002). Against this background, the disharmony, conflict or tension between the LoLT policy and classroom reality, as mentioned earlier, can only be reduced if end-users see sense in the policy and subsequently develop favourable attitudes towards it.

The investigation of teachers' perspectives can also "help identify the difficulties teachers face when implementing curricular innovations in the classroom and can help in establishing the most

appropriate kind of support that is needed in in-service teacher development” (Karavas-Doukas 1996:188).

2.7 The current LoLT policy in Zimbabwe

It is necessary to note that the current LoLT policy in Zimbabwe, quoted verbatim below, has, according to the Nziramasanga Commission Report, gradually attracted public cynicism and disillusionment because it has, among other things, remained essentially colonial in outlook (Zimbabwe Government 1999:161).

(1) Subject to this section, the three main languages of Zimbabwe, namely, Shona, Ndebele and English, shall be taught in all primary schools as follows:

(a) Shona and English in all areas where the mother tongue of majority residents is Shona: or

(b) Ndebele and English in all areas where the mother tongue of the majority is Ndebele.

(2) Prior to the fourth grade, either of the languages referred to in paragraph (a) and (b) of subsection (1) may be used as the medium of instruction, depending upon which language is more commonly spoken and better understood by the pupils.

(3) From the fourth grade, English shall be the medium of instruction:

Provided that Shona or Ndebele shall be taught as subjects on an equal-time allocation basis as English language.

(4) In areas where minority languages exist, the Minister may authorise the teaching of such language in primary schools in addition to those specified in (1), (2) and (3) (Education Act of 1996:24:04 (Revised Edition)).

Hachipola (1999), Mavhunga (2006), Mumpande (2006) and Nyika (2008) make similar observations and deplore the diglossic state of affairs in which English takes the most prominent position in people’s lives in Zimbabwe. In the words of Nyika (2008) the government’s language-in-education policy overtly and covertly betrays “assimilationist tendencies” (tendencies that encourage subordinate groups to adopt the language of the dominant ethnolinguistic group as their own and are rationalised by both a discourse of national unity and of equality (Tollefson 2002)).

Taking a broader if rather polemic view of the education system, and not just limiting himself to the question of language in education, Mavhunga (2006: 454) observes that “the curricula in schools in post-colonial states have continued to peddle values and knowledge systems of former colonisers thereby rendering them [curricula] largely irrelevant to the African cause”. Mavhunga (2006:454) adds that this has resulted in the school systems breeding “apologists to Western hegemony, products that look up to Europe for solutions to local problems rather than independent thinkers who seek African solutions to African problems”.

Commenting earlier on the Education Act of 1987, which was reconstituted without amendment in 1996, Mkanganwi (1987:7) also decries the emphasis on English in Zimbabwe, arguing that it is impossible “to bring all the millions of Zimbabweans up to the same level socially in English” and that “to simply inherit and apply a set of language practices which have existed for some time and translate them into language policy” is like putting new wine in old skins.

The current policy is said to be colonial in outlook because it retains the status quo held during colonialism where indigenous languages had an inferior status to that of English; the language of the erstwhile colonial oppressor. Apart from being colonial in this manner, this policy is certainly inadequate and unsatisfactory for it does not clearly spell out the role of indigenous languages, save that they should be taught as subjects. Here we have confirmation of Obeng’s (2002:77) observation that the language policies in most sub-Saharan countries could be characterised as “a cunning but confusing struggle in which governments, policy implementers, and languages sometimes shift foci and roles making the situation still more confusing”. Obeng goes on to allege that this is because “language policies in the sub-continent have more often been based on myths rather than on reality, and have been full of illusions and ambiguities”.

Another weakness of the current LoLT policy in Zimbabwe is that it does not define the extent to which it must be adhered to, though the general assumption would be that policies are meant to be followed and not to be taken as mere guidelines. It is also significant to note that the policy does not suggest any interest in teaching Shona to Ndebele speakers or Ndebele to Shona speakers. A clause to address this limitation; “Subject to this section, all the three main languages of Zimbabwe, namely Shona, Ndebele and English, shall be taught on an equal-time basis in all schools up to Form Two level,” tucked in the Education Amendment Act of 2006 quoted in Section 2.6 above is apparently not being enforced.

Concerns about the inappropriateness of using English as the LoLT elsewhere in Africa are raised by Rwambiwa (1996:1) when he notes that advocates of mother-tongue instruction see the continued adherence to English as the LoLT as an attempt by policy-makers to “remain fixed on the false premise that their indigenous languages are useless as vehicles of instruction in science and technology”. This is in spite of our knowledge that “all languages are capable of functioning as media of academic study...and having English as the language of learning very often denies rather than guarantees access while maintaining status of the elite” (Barkhuizen and Gough 1996:460).

Similar negative concerns are also reported in Tanzania by Neke (2002:528) when he says that he dominance of English in Tanzania has inhibited the development of Kiswahili, the official and national language, and stifled local scientific and technological development as well as entrepreneurship because of inadequate proficiency of students in the post-primary education sector where English is the medium of instruction

The following section looks at research on mother tongue instruction and additional language instruction.

2.8 Mother tongue instruction and additional language instruction

One of the research studies that compare mother tongue instruction and AL instruction is that by Bamgbose (1984). Bamgbose reports on an empirical study employing an experimental research design and carried out in Nigeria commencing in the early 1970s, viz the Six Year Primary Project. The findings of this study show the supremacy of mother tongue instruction over Additional Language (AL) instruction as the experimental groups that used the mother tongue i.e. Yoruba, outclassed the control groups that received instruction in an AL, English. The only potential limitation of this study is that the experimental group at St Stephens had a specialist teacher. Though Bamgbose (1984) maintains that the superior performance of the experimental group was not attributable to teacher effect, there is no evidence to support his views since no other group had the benefit of a specialist teacher. Such a group could have been used for comparison purposes. Nevertheless, the findings of Bamgbose’s study remain definitive in terms of the role the mother tongue plays in both AL learning and learning of content subjects.

A review of research studies by Collier (1989) and observations by NEPI (1992) also testify to the critical role that the learner's mother tongue plays in the learning/teaching process. Chief among the studies reviewed by Collier are immersion programmes conducted in Canada, some of which yielded results to the effect of the existence of the interdependency or common underlying proficiency hypothesis (Cummins 1981b). The interdependency hypothesis postulates that cognitive development in the mother tongue augurs well for the learning of an additional language and that this happens through a process of transferring what has been learnt in one language to the learning context of another language. Thus the hypothesis predicts that the development of L2 school language is partially dependent upon the prior level of development of L1 school language (Collier 1989:516). Collier, however, warns that more longitudinal studies need to be carried out in order to make the evidence that backs the hypotheses more conclusive.

Collier's study also yielded the following generalisations, all of which show the critical importance of the learner's L1 in academic achievement:

- When students are schooled in two languages they take 4-7 years to reach national norms in non-Math and language arts tests.
- Immigrants aged 8-12 years with at least 2 years L1 schooling in the home country take 5-7 years to reach national norms in non-Math and language arts tests.
- Young immigrants with no L1 schooling take 7-10 years or may never reach national norms in standardized tests.
- Adolescents with no L1 exposure and who cannot continue academic work in L1 while acquiring L2 do not have enough time to reach national norms in high school unless specially assisted.
- Consistent uninterrupted cognitive academic development in all subjects throughout students' schooling is more important than the number of hours of L2 instruction for successful academic achievement in second language learning.

On the other hand, NEPI (1992) investigated different LoLT policies and found that mother-tongue instruction worked effectively with English and Afrikaans in pre-independence South Africa, as well as in the USSR, where different languages benefited from their use as media of instruction. NEPI also found that the use of an L2 as the LoLT throughout schooling failed in 17

out of 20 former British colonies and also failed to a similar extent in former French and Portuguese colonies.

Macdonald (1990) reports on empirical evidence that shows the pedagogical difficulties associated with using English as a LoLT in South African schools. She exposes the lunacy of expecting Standard 3 children to handle English as a LoLT, especially in the light that there is a 1000% leap in vocabulary requirements from Standard 2 to Standard 3. Macdonald thus advocates the continued use of mother-tongue instruction beyond Standard 2 since AL instruction is riddled with difficulties. Some of these difficulties include the low English proficiency of non-native English teachers, use of outmoded materials in the classroom, pupil ignorance of expository writing conventions resulting in “register shock” and teaching procedures that often see teachers giving learners notes to memorise. It is therefore evident that the use of AL instruction, though widely practised, puts many learners at a disadvantage. Thus, Chick (1992:31) concludes that preference for English in South Africa “is based chiefly on its popular symbolic value rather than on pragmatic grounds...”

Conversely, some scholars, for example, Lucas and Katz (1994), Ferguson (2000), Banda (2000) and Makalela (2004) argue that there are no prospects of a LoLT policy shift from exoglossic languages such as English in Africa and the diaspora, to endoglossic languages, hence suggest ways of incorporating some elements of native languages into AL instruction. These scholars also provide arguments, as we saw in Section 2.4 above, of English being “the language of access”. Such scholars seem to be unaware of Bamgbose’s (1984:87) warning that; “Where there is a policy of promoting a language of wider communication such as English or French, it is quite possible to create conditions in which the superiority of instruction in these languages can be demonstrated.” Schiffman (1992) agrees with the above observation when he notes, after investigating language policy in Switzerland, India and Malaysia, that impediments to the status change of privileged languages (usually additional foreign languages) are structurally built into language policy in subtle ways that the language planner is not likely to notice.

In her study Makalela (2004) acknowledges that the hegemony of standard British English disempowers the local masses in African classrooms. She, rather surprisingly, goes on to call for the institutionalization of Black South African English (BSAE), a variety that is not a mother

tongue to any single South African. This shows that since BSAE is in fact English, it is possible to create conditions in which it will work as a LoLT better than South African local languages. In this way, local African languages are kept at bay. I regard Makalela's suggestion as a naïve and costly compromise. Why elevate a variety of a foreign language when local languages, richer in literature and grammars and more intelligible to African students than that variety, remain clearly marginalised? In de Klerk and Gough's (2002:356) view, even merely defining the BSAE that Makalela calls for, is problematic. Commenting on the Zimbabwean situation, Chapanga and Makamani (2006:383) exhort researchers, policy makers and other relevant stakeholders to "make concerted efforts in language planning, curricular designing and policy formulation in order to empower indigenous languages and hence indigenous people, their value systems and development potential".

A Northern California-based study by Rickford (1999) also yielded results that corroborated the importance of mother-tongue instruction. She found that literature written in the learner's native language augurs well for cognition and comprehension development. Rickford (1999: 291) observes that "students will be more disposed to learn and acquire Standard English if language policy displays respect and demonstrates understanding and appreciation of their own dialects and languages." Similarly, Rivera (1999) argues that native languages, if used as LoLTs, give pedagogical, psycho-linguistic and social advantages to the learner. Freire and Macedo (1987 in Rivera 1999: 334) also argue that the native language of the learner "is not only the carrier of knowledge but also knowledge itself." Ngugi wa Thiong'o (1981, 1987) as well as Awoniyi (1982), subscribe to the same views.

Focusing on the language problems of Science students in the Zimbabwean context, Mammino (1998:189) makes the following observation: "Science students experience difficulties with the language of science all over the world. Students using a second/foreign language as a medium of instruction experience the additional difficulties related to such use". Mammino elaborates that "an inadequate mastering of the second language affects all the aspects of a student's work, from the reading/learning stage to the stage when they are asked to prove their knowledge (the core of the acquisition of scientific knowledge i.e. conceptual understanding, lying in between these stages)" (Mammino 1998:196).

A review of instructional policies and results of different national tests in Ghana reported by Godwyll (2002) is another study that exposes the disadvantages of using an AL as the LoLT. This study indicates that the majority of basic school children in Ghana fail to comprehend lessons taught using oral English and to read from textbooks written in English in core subject areas such as English, Mathematics, Science and Social Studies. Nationwide Criterion-Reference Tests (CRT) results from 1992 to 1997 as well as the Ministry of Education (MOE 1999 in Godwyll 2002), which reports that only 2% of a 12000 sample of sixth graders attained the mastery score criterion of 60% in 1992 support these findings. Further evidence in the Ghanaian context is given by the Centre for Research for the Improvement of Quality Primary education (CRIPEG) which reports that “a substantial proportion of the children at all grade levels are non-literate (i.e. unable to read 30% of the words in a primary school passage (Godwyll 2002:136).

In a paper that reviews the arguments for the use of African languages in education in the place of English, Ferguson (2000) postulates that the use of African languages in education promotes the development of indigenous languages, improves the educational performance of pupils, particularly the less able ones, and mitigates the inequalities which are aggravated by the use of foreign languages.

Chapanga and Makamani (2006) in their study of two Zimbabwean universities’ lecturers’ perceptions about teaching Shona in Shona or in English found that proponents in favour of Shona argued that Shona is a carrier of culture, pride, consciousness and, value systems of a nation. The authors also note that the use of Shona fosters a participatory approach to development, offering a window of decolonisation and total emancipation. Those that favoured English highlighted its expressiveness and utility in the global context.

Given such theoretical and empirical support for the supremacy of mother tongue instruction over instruction in additional language, it would be shocking that many an African country’s education system still reveres and actually depends on instruction in an additional language. However, we know that LoLT policy is not premised on educationally rational considerations alone. The non-educational motivations behind language policy will be discussed in Section **2.10** below. Now, I turn to a related issue of the place of code switching in learning/teaching activities.

2.9 Code switching in learning and teaching activities

Closely related to the use of mother tongues for purposes of classroom instruction, is the interesting phenomenon of code switching; interesting in that some scholars argue that it must be encouraged in the classroom context while others feel that it must be discouraged. Eastman (1992:1, citing Heller 1988) defines code switching as “the use of more than one language in the course of a single communicative episode” and adds that code switching encompasses borrowing, mixing and switching all of which have the same rhetorical effects though they are structurally different. According to Myers-Scotton (1993) code switching can be classified as marked (where the language used would not be normally expected in a given context) or unmarked (where the language used is one that would be expected in that context). Researchers on the code switching phenomenon (e.g. Nwoye 1992; Adendorf 1993; Canagarajah 1995; Slabbert and Finlayson et al. 2002; Myers-Scotton 2005; Holmarsdottir 2007, among others) largely concur that it carries out important functions both in and outside the classroom. According to Adendorf (1993:141 citing Gumperz 1982), “code switching is a communicative resource, which enables teachers and pupils to accomplish a considerable number and range of social and educational objectives”. In Myers-Scotton’s (2005:3) view, code switching “better expresses the semantics and pragmatics of the speaker’s intentions” than either of the separate codes singly.

In the classroom situation, code switching is invaluable both in content transmission and classroom management (Canagarajah 1995). Adendorf (1993) concurs with this notion when he asserts that code switching plays both an educational and a social function. Code switching is important to the second language learner, not only because it augurs well with the communicative classroom (Faleni 1993, Canagarajah 1995) but indeed because students learn the values behind respective codes; how to negotiate meaning through code choice; how to negotiate identities through alternations in appropriate situations, the metalinguistic and metacognitive skills (Canagarajah 1993). Through exposure to code switching, students also learn to be communicatively competent and to practically benefit from their bilingualism.

Keane (1999) as well as Shumba and Manyati (1998) also report on how code switching resulted in improved levels of motivation and participation in the classroom. Furthermore, code switching gives the L2 learner an opportunity to use his or her mother tongue, thereby enabling him to enjoy this fundamental human right (Skutnubb-Kangas 1990) and leading to a reduction of the cultural

and language shock of the minority language learner who is faced with a foreign medium of instruction.

There are also micro-functions of code switching. Canagarajah (1995) gives examples such as negotiating directions, opening the class, managing discipline, expressing encouragement, complements, commands, admonitions and mitigation within the classroom context. There are of course scholars who argue that code switching takes away from the L2 learner an opportunity to experience vicariously how certain messages are communicated in the target language. Kgomoeswana (1993) says that paraphrasing learning content using the learner's L1 should be discouraged because no two words or phrases from two different languages mean the same, such that translating, as it were, is bound to mislead the learner.

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that despite some shortcomings that the use of code switching in both English and content subject classes may have, it is by and large an important resource which teachers must not feel ashamed to use.

2.10 Non-educational motivations behind language policy

A survey of the history of language policy in Hong Kong, Malaysia, Singapore and India by Tsui et al. (1999) shows that a political agenda has always played an important role in language policy formulation and implementation. According to Cooper (1989:112) "since education is, from the state's point of view, a primary means of social control, and from the family's point of view, a means for social mobility, it is scarcely surprising that the language of instruction should be an important political issue." Socio-economic, ethno-religious and cultural factors may also constitute another dimension in language policy formulation and implementation. There were difficulties in implementing CMI in Hong Kong though its usefulness had been acknowledged by a majority of stakeholders because CMI was perceived as socially divisive and as taking away the autonomy of schools. Consequently, 66% of the school principals consulted were not in favour of CMI, confirming earlier observations that LoLT policy formulation and implementation is not premised exclusively on educational motivations and that determining media of instruction for school systems is a decision, inter alia, most commonly subject to strong political pressures (Cooper 1989:109).

In Malaysia, Singapore and India, recourse to English in the 1990s, 1966 and post-independence period (from 1948 onwards) respectively, was clearly driven by an economic agenda. Thus Huebner (1999:12) observes that “language policy is shaped in the process of political struggles over issues seemingly only secondarily related to language.”

In Malawi, the fortunes of the Chitumbuka language were intricately tied to the whimsies of the ruling government both before and after independence. For example, attempts by the colonial government led by Sir Shenton Thomas and later by Harold Kittermaster, to impose Chinyanja in the northern region as the official language were rejected by the colonial office in London because it felt that such a move would estrange the Livingstonia Mission and consequently jeopardise its political interests. The Livingstonia Mission had worked hard to develop the Chitumbuka language and had, in vain, lobbied the colonial government not to impose Chinyanja as the official language in northern Malawi, a policy that would inevitably marginalize Chitumbuka. Similarly, when Chitumbuka had been marginalized by the Banda regime, for about thirty years, it only regained space on national radio and in the publication of textbooks because the new government (Muluzi’s government) saw the need to buy the support of the northern region which had, largely, not voted for it in the election that had propelled him to power. (Kamwendo 2005). In Sierra Leone, the local languages including Krio, Limba, Mende and Themne climbed the status ladder due to the influence of certain political figures (Francis and Kamanda 2001). It becomes evident that language policy shift is, by and large, shaped by political considerations

Cooper (1989:109) also cites examples from Palestine, Ireland and Ethiopia in which medium of instruction policies were based on political reasons. In the case of Palestine the use of German as the LoLT in the 1920s was not determined “by a consideration of what medium would most facilitate the children’s learning” but rather “the choice was made primarily on political grounds and for political ends.” In the Ethiopian case, Cooper remarks that the use of vernacular languages, including Amharic, as media of instruction for initial literacy and the decision to employ them for the Ethiopian campaign had... a strong political motivation.”

Thus language policy planning may indeed be viewed as a game essentially political in nature, especially if it is the “canonical” (i.e. government authorised and/or controlled) type of planning (Kamwendo 2005). In this way, the needs of a language community are violated rather than

served. This study will shed further light on the extent to which language policy satisfies the needs of the community for which it is intended by investigating the views of secondary school teachers towards the current language policy which has English as the official LoLT.

2.11 Conclusion

In the foregoing discussion it becomes evident that a number of factors affect language planning in general and LoLT policy choice in particular. The most important of these factors include political, socio-economic, cultural and ethno-religious ones. It also becomes evident that the top-down fashion in which educational policies are handed from the policy-makers for implementation at the grassroots level results in resistance or lack of articulation between policy and practice. It also emerges that most studies (e.g. Bamgbose 1984; Fafunwa et al.1989; Macdonald 1990; Chick 1992; Shumba et al. 1998; Godwyll 2002; Ejieh 2004; Iyamu et al. 2007 and Holmarsdottir 2007) that focused on LoLT policy mainly dealt with primary school learners, thus creating a need for the extension of such research to the secondary school level.

The supremacy of the mother tongue over AL as the LoLT also emerged as an important finding from a majority of these studies. However, what is most important is that the investigation of teachers' perspectives on issues to do with the learning and teaching process was seen to be of paramount importance. In the studies reported here, though teachers' perspectives were sought, the contexts of the studies were not the same as the ones obtaining in my study which was carried out in Masvingo District (Zimbabwe). Hence the need to investigate the perspectives of teachers on English as a LoLT in the district.

Chapter 3

Research methodology

3.1 Overview

This chapter delineates the research design and the methods that were used to collect, present and analyse the data. The population and the sample used in the research are described out, along with the criteria used for sampling. The chapter also describes the data-collection instruments, namely the questionnaire, classroom observation and interviews. Finally, the procedures followed in the collection and analysis of data will be outlined.

3.2 Research design

In terms of theoretical approach or conceptual level, this study used a synthetic-holistic approach. This is an approach that allows us to view separate parts of a coherent whole (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:27). This study is synthetic-holistic in the sense that it focuses on an array of perspectives of teachers on a variety of issues to do with language of learning and teaching policy, with no specific focus on any one perspective. In terms of theoretical purpose, the study is heuristic-inductive i.e. aimed at discovering or describing patterns or relationships yet to be identified, thus hypothesis-generating. Seliger and Shohamy (1989:29) note that when using the heuristic-inductive approach, “the researcher observes and records some aspect or context” of a phenomenon being studied with “no complete theories or models to guide the researcher or to stimulate specific research questions”.

In addition, if the aim of research is heuristic, an effort is made to avoid preconceptions about the phenomenon being studied. Instead the researcher proceeds from the data to patterns that are suggested by the data themselves, thus inductive. Having a heuristic objective to the research enables one to discover patterns, behaviours, explanations, or to form questions or actual hypotheses for further research though one may have some general ideas, based on the work of other researchers who would studied the same phenomenon. Nonetheless, preconceptions are kept to a minimum. Against this background, in the present study no preconceptions shall be taken into

the study of the perspectives of teachers. It is in fact those perspectives that the study hopes to explore and describe.

On the quantitative-qualitative continuum, the descriptive survey, which falls midway between quantitative and qualitative research as it incorporates aspects of both types, was used. Descriptive research is similar to qualitative research because it deals with naturally occurring phenomena, using data which may either be collected first-hand or taken from already existing data sources (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:124). Other characteristics of the descriptive survey that it shares with qualitative research are that in both approaches researchers study human actions in natural settings, make holistic observations of the total context within which social action occurs, discover concepts and theories after data have been collected, generate verbal and pictorial data to represent the social environment, use analytic induction to analyse data and prepare interpretive reports that reflect researchers' constructions of the data and an awareness that readers will form their own conclusions from what is reported (Gall, Borg and Gall 1996:30).

The present descriptive survey of the perspectives of teachers on the use of English as a LoLT has all these characteristics. Teachers' LoLT practice was studied in natural settings through classroom observations in order to discover factors that impinge on LoLT practice from the data. Verbal and statistical data were also used in the presentation as well as in the analysis of findings.

The descriptions of approach, theoretical purpose and research design made above are not discrete and mutually exclusive extremes but a continuum of overlapping shades of each of these three constructs. Thus it is difficult to say what a pure analytic study would be like. It may be equally difficult to execute a pure synthetic-holistic study. Research studies are therefore talked of in terms of their being relatively synthetic-holistic or relatively analytic (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:124).

Conversely, Gall et al. (1996:371) discuss descriptive research under quantitative research and actually assert that "descriptive research is the most basic of the quantitative research methods". Quantitative characteristics found in the descriptive research would include the study of populations or samples that represent populations, the study of behaviour and other observable phenomena, the generation of numerical data to represent the social environment, the use of statistical methods to analyse data, the use of statistical inference procedures to generalise

findings from a sample to a defined population and the preparation of impersonal, objective reports of research findings (Gall et al. 1996:30).

Relating descriptive research to education, Gall et al. (1996:374) add that “descriptive research is a type of quantitative method that involves careful descriptions of educational phenomena”. It involves the description of natural or people-made phenomena, their form, actions, changes over time, and similarities with other phenomena. These authors concede though that description is also an important goal of qualitative research. Descriptive research is concerned primarily with determining “what is” and this is important because “unless researchers first generate an accurate description of an educational phenomenon as it exists, they lack a firm basis for explaining or changing it” (Gall et al. 1996:374).

Unlike the experimental design where there is a need to manipulate the subjects, the descriptive survey method uses data collected on “things or people as they are, without trying to alter anything” (Jaeger 1988 in Nunan 1992: 140-141). Nunan (1992: 148) goes on to argue that “where a snapshot of conditions, attitudes, and/or events at a single point in time” need to be taken, the descriptive survey is the most suitable approach. The descriptive survey is also suitable for this study because it provides “a broad overview of a representative sample” (Mouton 2001: 152).

Dismissing the inferiority-superiority debate between quantitative methodologies and qualitative methodologies, Leedy (1993:141) advocates the middle-of-the-road approach and recommends a combination of quantitative and qualitative methodologies though he does not specify how this can be done.

3.2.1 The population

Instead of using the target population of all secondary school teachers of content (non-language) subjects in the Masvingo District, the study used an accessible population – “all individuals who realistically could be included in the sample” (Gall et al. 1996:220). Thus the accessible population consisted of all secondary school teachers of non-language subjects at 10 schools. Section 3.2.2 below show the accessible population and the sample size. (I was teaching at Mutendi High School in Masvingo District at the inception of the study).

It can be argued that resorting to an accessible population in a research study is a form of convenience sampling i.e. sampling that involves selecting “a sample that suits the purposes of the study and that is convenient” (Gall et al. 1996:227) for a variety of reasons. Schools that were easily accessible in terms of proximity to my workplace were selected. This was done to save costs and to save time. This does not, however, compromise the validity and reliability of the research results as the teachers at those schools were working in largely similar environments as any other teachers in schools in Masvingo District that could have been selected. As for the urban schools, the five schools represented more than three quarters of the urban schools in Masvingo District. Furthermore, the teachers who were selected are similarly guided in their teaching by the same LoLT policy – the issue about which their perspectives were sought, as their non-participating counterparts. Wray et al. (1998:169) agree with this when they say that “to ensure compatibility, you need where feasible to obtain at least minimal reliable information on your subjects/respondents”. They go further to say that in order for responses from a group to be compared; there needs to be some base-line features in common, so that it is clear why a comparison is valid.

It was ascertained in this study that the sample suited the purposes of the study as teachers of non-language subjects were deemed appropriate participants in a study that sought perspectives on the use of English as a LoLT. Though language teachers may use English in teaching their subjects, these were excluded from the study as in the pilot study their responses were determined to be predictable and not quite helpful. In a situation where an accessible population is used, Gall et al. (1996: 228) advise that if findings of the study have to be generalised to a target population, it is necessary for the researcher to provide a careful description of the sample and this is what is done below.

3.2.2 The sample

The rural schools selected are Mutendi High School, Rumwanda Secondary School, Wonedzo Secondary School, Rufaro High School and Mazare Secondary School. Of the rural schools, two, Mutendi High School and Rufaro High School, are boarding schools whilst the rest are day schools situated in communal villages and are run by government through district councils. Wonedzo Secondary School and Mazare Secondary School have been in existence only for four years and are the only schools that do not offer Advanced Level tuition, unlike the other schools that have been in existence for longer periods. The urban schools are Victoria High School,

Masvingo Christian College, Ndarama High School, Mucheke High School and Masvingo Day Secondary School. Of these schools, one (Victoria High School) is a boarding school whilst the rest are day schools situated in high-density suburbs. Masvingo Day Secondary School is situated near an army camp. All the urban schools offer up to Advanced Level tuition.

The teachers who make up the population have different characteristics in terms of school locality, qualifications, length of teaching experience, subject discipline, academic levels taught, mother tongue as well as mother tongue composition of the classes taught. The selection was made in this manner in order to get a comprehensive picture of the array of factors that affect the teachers' perspectives on the current LoLT policy. As indicated in Section 3.2.1 above, all these teachers are guided in their teaching by the same LoLT policy, hence there was no need to target teachers with a common set of biographical, academic and professional attributes. It is rather the intention of this study to extract data that would be representative of the perspectives of teachers from a cross-section of backgrounds.

Table 3.1: Population and sample size for rural schools

School	No. of teachers	Sample size
Mutendi High	31	16
Rumwanda Secondary	28	12
Wonedzo Secondary	16	10
Rufaro Secondary	36	14
Mazare Secondary	15	8

Table 3.2: Population and sample size for urban schools

School	No. of teachers	Sample size
Victoria High	52	12
Ndarama High	48	12
Mucheke High	49	12
Masvingo Christian	51	12
Masvingo Day Secondary	34	12

3.2.3 Participants: Criteria for sampling and treatment

From the accessible population, a sample of 120 participants was used. Wray et al. (1998:168) believe that a large sample will be more representative and can lay greater weight to one's claims, but Gall et al. (1996:231) query this principle and believe qualitative research is more flexible in terms of sample size that even a small sample can be as representative as a large one as long as it has the requisite characteristics. Concurring with Wray et al., Patton (1990 cited in Gall et al. 1996:236) says in qualitative research, selecting an appropriate sample involves a trade-off between breadth and depth, thus it is entirely a matter of judgment.

Following the tenets of maximum variation, purposeful random, stratified and criterion sampling (Gall et al. 1996) an average of 12 teachers per school were selected. Three teachers were selected from each of the four subject disciplines of Humanities, Sciences, Practicals and Commercials. As indicated in Section 3.2.1 above, teachers in the Languages subject discipline were not selected. The Heads of Department (HODs) from each of the four subject disciplines at each school also had their lessons observed before they were interviewed. In cases where HODs could not be observed teaching for whatever reason, the most senior members in the subject disciplines were observed. In all, 30 teachers were observed and interviewed.

3.2.4 Sampling techniques

The techniques of maximum variation, purposeful random, stratified purposeful and criterion sampling were used. Gall et al. (1996:232) define maximum variation sampling as involving "selecting cases that illustrate the range of variation in the phenomena to be studied." Against this background, the nature of the problem entailed that responses come from teachers of different subjects, localities, length of experience, academic backgrounds and teaching different grades as indicated earlier.

Stratified purposeful sampling, according to Gall et al. (1996:233) involves selecting "a sample that includes several cases at defined points of variation" with respect to the phenomenon being studied. The advantage of using stratified purposeful sampling is that by including several cases of each type, the researcher can develop insights into the characteristics of each type, as well as insights into the variations that exist across types. Thus, in this study, stratified purposeful sampling was used in order to ascertain that all the subject groupings, levels taught, length of

teaching experience, mother-tongue composition of classes taught and school locality were represented. Thus, on average, 3 teachers from each of the 4 subject disciplines were selected.

Purposeful random sampling was used to further select from each department, which members would be participating. Gall et al. (1996:221) argue that the purpose of purposeful random sampling in quantitative research is to achieve generalisability in the data. In the current study, though the process of generalising would include two “inferential leaps”; first from the sample to the accessible population then, second, from the accessible population to the target population, purposeful random sampling was also meant to ensure that the sampling procedure was not biased. It can be noted however that these two functions seem intertwined. Purposeful random sampling was done at schools where subject disciplines had more than three teachers. Where departments had at most three teachers, all of them were selected to participate. The random sampling was conducted by way of distributing in each school department three cards labelled ‘P’ for ‘Participating’ and a number of more cards to match the remaining members of the departments labelled ‘NP’ for ‘Non-Participating’. The biographical characteristics of the teachers that were selected into the sample are presented in Chapter 4 as well as in Appendix B.

Criterion sampling, a technique that “involves the selection of cases that satisfy an important criterion” (Gall et al. 1996:234) was used to select the HODs of each of the subject disciplines. It is these HODs whose classroom practice was observed before they were subsequently interviewed. An advantage of criterion samples is that they yield rich information. It was therefore determined that the HODs, as the most senior members in the departments would have more insight on issues that bear on LoLT policy and practice. Such insight would be used to crosscheck perspectives from the rest of the teachers in the various departments.

3.3 Research instruments

Seliger and Shohamy (1989:122) observe that any qualitative research utilises a variety of means to collect data. Against that background, three data-collecting methods were used, namely, a questionnaire, classroom observations as well as open interviews. Each of these three data-collecting methods is discussed below.

The use of a variety of methods to collect data is important in the sense that it yields a more complete picture of the phenomenon being studied. This complies with the tenets of

methodological triangulation i.e. the process that involves combining approaches in collecting data (Duffy 1984 in Leedy 1993:143). According to Mitchell (1986 in Leedy 1993:144) in methodological triangulation “the strengths and weaknesses of each chosen method must complement each other” resulting in improved validity of the data collected.

3.3.1 The questionnaire

Seliger and Shohamy (1989:172) define questionnaires as printed forms for data collection, which includes questions or statements to which the subject is expected to respond. Richards et al. (1992:303) define a questionnaire as “a set of questions on a topic or group of topics designed to be answered by a respondent.” Questionnaires share some characteristics with interviews (interviews will be discussed in Section 3.4 below) especially in the sense that subjects are required to provide information in response to a stimulus provided by the researcher. The questionnaire in this study was used to obtain background information as well as the attitudes, pedagogical beliefs and perceived difficulties of teachers. Such phenomena, not being easily observable warranted the use of the questionnaire.

The first section of the questionnaire, Section A, sought the participants’ biographical data. These data were considered important because they made it possible for the perspectives of teachers to be related to particular sets of teacher attributes. This in turn made it possible for the researcher to determine variables that have an effect on the perspectives of the teachers in regard to English as a LoLT.

Karavas-Doukas (1996:190) advises that the first step in the construction of Likert-type questionnaire is to compose “a series of statements that cover all aspects” of the phenomenon under study. Against that background, the researcher ensured that all aspects of the perspectives of teachers on English as a LoLT were covered in sections B, C and D of the questionnaire. This was achieved through a thorough analysis of research articles and other publications on the phenomena of LoLT and teacher perspectives as set out in Chapter 2. The analysis focused on identifying the functions that a language has if it is designated and operating as a LoLT. These would then be used as a basis for the formulation of the questionnaire items.

The perspectives of teachers on English as a LoLT were sub-divided into three groups. These groups corresponded with the first, second and third sub-questions of the research problem. Thus

the items on the questionnaire sought to address the teachers' attitudes, pedagogic beliefs as well as perceived difficulties and perceived benefits in relation to the use of English as a LoLT in their schools.

After distributing the draft questionnaire to six colleagues (university lecturers) for suggestions and comments Sections B, C and D (the closed-item section of the questionnaire dealing with attitudes, pedagogical beliefs and perceived difficulties) remained with 28 items of which 16 were favourable and 12 were unfavourable. The items on the questionnaire were organised into thematic groups to make completion by participants (Gall et al. 1996:294) as well as analysis by the researcher easier. Thus, Section B dealt with attitudes, C with pedagogical beliefs and D with perceived difficulties as explained earlier. Against each of the items on these three sections was a grid of five columns labelled "strongly agree", "agree", "not sure", "disagree" and "strongly disagree". It was decided that these descriptors would have scores of 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively though the scores were not shown on the questionnaire to discourage participants from checking under grids with the high scores in the belief that high scores would be desirable. For statements that were phrased negatively (in relation to perspectives on English as a LoLT) the scoring order was reversed. Thus "strongly agree", "agree", "not sure", "disagree" and "strongly disagree" would have scores of 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 respectively. This was done because it had already been predetermined that a high score on the Likert scale would indicate a generally favourable disposition towards English as a LoLT regardless of whether the statement was phrased positively or negatively in relation to English as a LoLT.

3.3.1.1 Advantages of questionnaires

A notable advantage of using questionnaires in a research study is that they are usually self-administered and can be given to large groups of subjects at the same time. This makes them an efficient tool to collect data from a large group (Laws 2003:306). Questionnaires are therefore less expensive as compared to interviews. In the words of Wray et al. 1998: 167), through the use of a questionnaire, data can be "collected in the same replicable way from a large number of informants" making "comparison of results easier and conclusions clearer." Another advantage is that when anonymity is assured, information of a sensitive nature can be shared more easily (Seliger and Shohamy 1989: 172). Wray et al. (1998: 169), however, warn that if questionnaire respondents are anonymous, they tend to be less responsible. Apart from that, data collected using

questionnaires are more uniform and standard since all subjects are given the same questionnaire. This augurs well for easier presentation, analysis and interpretation.

Also, since questionnaires are given to all subjects of the research at exactly the same time, the data are more reliable because there are reduced chances of the circumstances that bear on the participants' responses changing. Varying in degrees of explicitness, questionnaires are faster to complete and are more efficient. Finally, in using a questionnaire, it is possible for the researcher to use different types of question, open and closed, on the same questionnaire, thereby enabling him/her to get rich information.

3.3.1.2 Disadvantages of questionnaires

One disadvantage of using questionnaires in research is associated with a low return rate especially with mailed questionnaires, thus influencing validity of findings (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:172). In the present study this disadvantage was neutralised through a decision to distribute the questionnaires in person. It was also possible and not too costly to distribute the questionnaires personally because the sample (a sample of 120 respondents was used) was not too large especially in light of the fact that each group of 10 of these respondents were found at the same school.

Questionnaires are not appropriate for subjects who cannot read and write but in the present study, it was not inappropriate to use them because all members in the sample, being teachers, were literate. In addition, the validity of the data gathered through questionnaires may be compromised if subjects are aware of what the investigator is seeking. In the present study, I attempted to minimise the chances of the participants getting aware of what was being investigated by not spelling out in the questionnaire instrument. Seliger and Shohamy (1989:40) however take solace in the fact that this does not always happen. They maintain that subject awareness may or may not affect data validity.

It is also important to note that questionnaires "cannot probe deeply into respondent's opinions and feelings" (Gall et al. 1996:289) as interviews do. Finally "once the questionnaire has been distributed it is not possible to modify the items." These disadvantages were offset through the use of other techniques of data-collection, namely, observations and interviews.

3.3.2 Classroom observations

Observation is a research technique that involves the collection of data without the researcher attempting to manipulate it. “The researcher simply observes on-going activities, without making any attempt to control or determine them” (Wray et al. 1998:186). However, Wilson (1987: 161) observes that though observation may give researchers naturalistic data, “in observing or recording everyday interaction, one is contaminating that very interaction by the procedures of observation”. This is what is known as “the observer’s paradox”. Either a participant or non-participant observer can execute observations. A non-participant observer “records in detail as an outsider, all the behaviours which take place” while a participant observer is “an integral part of the observed situation as one of the subjects without the other participants being aware of the fact...” (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:161).

In the case of this study, the researcher carried out the observation in the capacity of a non-participant observer since it was not necessary for him to participate in the lessons. Non-participation also freed more time for the researcher to concentrate on the task of observing and taking notes. Seliger and Shohamy (1989:162) maintain that, in second language acquisition research, observations are most often used to collect data on how learners use language in a variety of settings, to study language learning and teaching processes in the classroom, and to study teachers’ and students’ behaviours. Seliger and Shohamy also add that the main use of observations is for examining a phenomenon or a behaviour while it is going on. In this study, observation was used to collect data on the actual LoLT practice of secondary school teachers and this was deemed an appropriate technique because the manner in which teachers execute an existing LoLT policy is part of learning and teaching processes.

Observations vary in explicitness, with structured observations being of high explicitness and open or unstructured observations being of low explicitness. Data from structured observations are in the form of checks, tallies, frequencies, and ratings while those from open observations are in the form of impressions, field notes, tapes or transcripts.

For the purposes of this study, an observation schedule (extrapolated from the one used by Meyer (1997, 1998) was used to elicit information on the LoLT that was used in the classroom context:

- when the teacher spoke to the students

- when the students spoke to each other.
- when the students spoke to the teacher.
- when the teacher wrote on the chalkboard.
- when the teacher wrote in the scheme book.
- when the teacher wrote in students' exercise or note books.
- when the students wrote in exercise or note books.
- when the students wrote on the chalkboard.
- in subject core textbooks.
- on charts and other audiovisual learning aids.

Where teachers/pupils deviated from the official policy, the fact was noted and pursued in interviews as well as for further reflection at a latter time. The researcher also studied the contexts of the deviations carefully so that he could account for them.

3.3.2.1 Advantages of observations

Many types of research can only measure elicited behaviour because specific tasks are presented in a controlled environment. In contrast, observation enables the researcher to examine non-elicited behaviour as and when it occurs (Wray et al. 1998:187). This is of critical importance for it allows a more holistic view of how language is being used in context. In agreement, Seliger and Shohamy (1989:162) add that observations allow the study of phenomena at close range with many of the contextual variables present, a feature which is very important in studying language behaviours. In the same vein, Gall et al. (1996: 344) concur when they point out that the inclusion of observation in a researcher's report provides a more complete description of phenomena than would be impossible by just referring to interview statements or documents.

Another advantage of observations is that they are more flexible than controlled experiments which may be affected by extraneous variables or unplanned events (Wray et al. 1998:187). Observations can also be relatively easier to administer if the researcher is using pre-recorded or broadcast material as one is spared the practical difficulties of data collection (Wray et al. 1998:187).

3.3.2.2 Disadvantages of observations

One disadvantage of observations is that the presence of the observer may alter the subjects' behaviour. This means that if subjects are being watched, they change their normal behaviour. This is what is known as "observer effect." Gall et al. (1996: 340) define observer effect as an action by the observer that has a negative effect on the validity or reliability of the data being collected. However measuring the magnitude of the observer effect can be a tricky affair. According to Wilson (1987:161), even in studies that purport to use varied and ingenious methods to reduce the observer effect "evidence for the success of the various methods is almost completely lacking." Wilson adds that it nevertheless remains necessary for researchers to produce positive arguments for the status of their data so that any conclusions based on such data does not turn out to be unfounded.

One strategy to reduce the observer effect is to observe subjects several times before recording data so that subjects are accustomed to observation, reducing the chances of them changing their behaviour. (Gall et al.1996:328). In this study, due to limited time, it was not possible to observe the subjects several times. This however does not detract from the validity of the study findings because, as Wray et al. (1998:153) note, "in actual fact, the inhibitions associated with informants knowing that they are being recorded (or observed) are usually fairly short-lived".

Observations can also be intrusive if data-collecting instruments such as audiotapes or videotapes are used. Wray et al. (1998:11) point out that it is often impossible to collect data without the subject knowing that you are doing so. Yet the presence of a tape-recorder, experimental equipment or even simply the presence of the researcher may have an effect on the linguistic behaviour of the subject/s. A related problem is that the quality of the audio or video recording may be poor. In the present study, though, no recording equipment was used since the purpose of the observation was not necessarily to capture what transpires throughout a whole lesson but to focus on incidents where the classroom LoLT practice complied with or deviated from the official policy.

It is also important to note that observations can also be prejudicial to use for research purposes in the sense that where recording equipment is not used, note taking may be difficult due to limited opportunity or observer inability. The current study did not suffer this disadvantage as the points

of interest during the lessons were spread sufficiently apart to allow the researcher to capture them in the form of notes.

Another disadvantage of observations is that significant contextual elements, an integral part of oral interaction in the observed scene, may be lost when data is being transcribed. The researcher therefore needs to determine the best method for recording the observed data, and that will depend to a large extent on the purpose, goal, and design of the research (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:162).

Finally, observations have a disadvantage that behavioural indicators may not show the complexities of factors involved in the phenomenon being studied. For example in a study that seeks to investigate a variable such as ‘caring’ – a variable that can only be expressed externally, it is difficult to conclude that the outward show of ‘caring’ indicates the presence of an intrinsic caring disposition (Gall et al. 1996:328). In this case there is need for qualitative observation.

3.4 Interviews

In second language research, interviews are used to collect data on covert variables such as attitudes and motivation (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:166). These authors maintain that the purpose of an interview is “to obtain information by actually talking to the subject”. Interviews can be face-to-face or telephonic. Interviews can also be used to obtain information about learner strategies in the process of language acquisition. In this study, the interviews were used to obtain information on the LoLT practice of secondary school teachers; especially their reasons for making decisions on LoLT choice in classroom practice in the way they did.

Where interviews are used to obtain information on learner strategies, the underlying assumption is that “learners can provide insightful information on how they learn and function in the second language” (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:166). However for the purposes of this study, interviews were used to extract “insightful information” from secondary school teachers on how they handle LoLT issues.

The kind of interviews that were used are open and partly “retrospective” interviews since the interviews elicited the teacher’s thought processes at or after the completion of an instruction task (Fang 1996:57). In this way the retrospective interview shares aspects with the stimulated recall

interview. The stimulated recall interview technique entails the recording and transcribing of a lesson followed by interviews with the teacher or the students in order to elicit comments on specific aspects of the lesson, all in retrospect (Nunan 1992:94). So a recording of the lesson provides “a point of departure for the teachers to articulate their beliefs in relation to their individual teaching contexts” (Basturkmen et al. 2004:251). The only difference is that the stimulated recall interview elicits the teacher’s verbalisations while s/he looks at a replay of herself or himself performing a task.

Apart from providing an opportunity for teachers to “verbalize their thoughts about their interactive decision-making” and to talk about their beliefs (Basturkmen et al. 2004: 251), the retrospective interviews were used to validate the results from questionnaires and interviews through methodological triangulation as explained in Section 3.3.

3.4.1 Advantages of interviews

Since they are personalised, interviewers “permit a level of in-depth information gathering, free response and flexibility that cannot be obtained by other procedures” (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:166). Another advantage of interviews is that data that have not been foreseen can be probed and obtained. One would not be able to obtain such information using the questionnaire, for example. In addition, interviews, especially open ones allow “the respondent maximum freedom of expression” thereby allowing “ample and often unexpected information to emerge” (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:167). More structured interviews will not extract such information though. It is significant to note that interviews are also adaptable i.e. the interviewer “can follow up a respondent’s answers to obtain more information and clarify vague statements” (Gall et al. 1996:289). A stimulated recall interview is also advantageous in the sense that it enables the teacher as well as the researcher to present their interpretations of what goes on in the classroom and “for these interpretations to be linked explicitly to the points in the lesson which gave rise to them” (Nunan 1992:94).

Finally, interviews build trust and rapport between interviewer and respondent, thus oiling the extraction of information which respondents might otherwise be indisposed to give (Gall et al. 1996:289).

3.4.2 Disadvantages of interviews

One disadvantage of administering interviews for research purposes is that they are costly and time-consuming (Seliger and Shohamy 1989:166) especially if one needs to interview a large sample. For the purposes of this study, 30 out of 120 research participants were interviewed since the researcher was using own resources to collect the data. However, forty participants was a manageable sample in view of the time and resources at the disposal of the researcher.

Seliger and Shohamy (1989:166) as well as Gall et al. (1996) argue that interviews may introduce elements of subjectivity and personal bias into the data and that the rapport between the researcher and the participants may cause the participant to respond in a certain way in order to please the interviewer. Another challenge that the interview method poses for the researcher is that it is difficult to standardise the interview situation so that the interviewer does not influence the respondent to answer certain questions in a certain way (Gall et al. 1996:290). This potential threat was alleviated through preparing an interview guide so that during the interview, I would not stray much from the purpose of the interview. During the interviews a conscious effort was also made to avoid leading questions that would yield unreliable responses.

Finally, interviews can hardly provide for anonymity. However, anonymity in this study was not given much prominence, as the issues of interest to the investigator were not of a very sensitive nature.

3.5 Data-collection procedures

In the present study, three data-collecting methods were used, namely classroom observations, retrospective interviews and questionnaires. However, with some informants, it proved difficult to obtain the informed consent since there was need for the data to be collected without the informants being aware of the kind of information that the researcher was interested in. Thus, in some cases requests for observation were turned down.

Having finally secured the consent and co-operation of the participants and after precontacting the sample (Gall et al. 1996), the participants were advised that they would be informed of the purpose of the observation after the observation. First, the researcher observed four lessons by four teachers – each of whom was a Head of Department of each of the four subject disciplines

i.e. Humanities, Sciences, Practicals and Commercials in each of the five rural and five urban schools. The participants whose classroom practice was observed were not told in advance which aspects of their teaching were of interest to the researcher. This was done in order to secure reliable and valid information. It is also for this reason that the researcher decided to observe classroom practice before distributing the questionnaire. If the participants had seen the questionnaire before their classroom practice was observed and then subsequently interviewed, chances were that they would have guessed which aspects of their teaching that the researcher was interested in, thus compromising the reliability and validity of their behaviour during the observations (Seliger and Shohamy 1989: 40).

Soon after the observation sessions, which lasted 30-40 minutes, the teacher who had been observed was interviewed on issues to do with his/her LoLT practice – including issues which related to specific episodes of the lesson observed. Detailed notes were taken during the interviews.

3.6 Data-analysis techniques

Tesch (1990 in Gall et al. 1996:562) identifies three approaches to data analysis in qualitative research, namely, interpretational analysis, structural analysis, and reflective analysis. Of these three, this study made use of two i.e. interpretational analysis and reflective analysis. Gall et al. (1996:562) define interpretational analysis as the “process of examining case study data in order to find constructs, themes, and patterns, that can be used to describe and explain the phenomenon being studied” and reflective analysis as a process in which a researcher relies primarily on intuition and judgment in order to portray or evaluate the phenomenon being studied.

Leedy (1985:230) advises that data presentation and analysis should be segmented into separate sections each of which corresponds to a particular sub-problem. In order to facilitate the management of the key problem i.e. the perspectives of secondary school teachers on the use of English as LoLT, this technique was adopted. Thus Sections B, C and D of the Likert scale are presented and analysed through the use of simple frequency tables with response frequency counts and percentages as well as bar graphs. Findings to Section E, which contained completion items, were presented in form of recurrent themes and their frequencies. These are captured graphically on pie charts. The hypotheses outlined in Chapter 1 were also subjected to statistical tests, namely the 2-tailed *t-test* and one-way *ANOVA*. Thus, statistical analysis was used as a supplement to

interpretive analysis (Gall et al. 1996:169). The statistical analyses of results were followed by a verbal discussion. The verbal discussion helped to give more clarity and meaning to the research as comments and explanations of statistical data were given.

Classroom observation and interview notes were also collated from an interpretive perspective so that thematic patterns would emerge. Finally, findings from the rural and the urban schools were compared in order to establish whether or not there was any form of correlation between school locality and teacher perspectives on LoLT policy.

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the research design and the three data-collection and analysis instruments used in this study, namely, the questionnaire, the interview and observation of classroom practice. In each case the rationale for the selection of the instrument was given. The chapter also discussed the advantages and disadvantages of each of the instruments. A report of the findings established through these instruments is the focus of the following chapter.

Chapter 4

The Data: Analysis and interpretation

4.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data collected using the questionnaire, classroom observations and interviews described in the preceding chapter. First, I recapitulate the research questions and give motivation for the data-collecting instruments and then I proceed to present the data. The data are presented in five categories that correspond to the five broad themes of the research problem, namely, the attitudes, pedagogical beliefs, perceived difficulties and the reasons thereof as well as the observed LoLT practice of secondary school teachers in relation to the use of English as a LoLT. The 28-item component of the Likert-scale questionnaire (sections B through D) addresses the first three of the broad themes. For each of these three categories, data analysis is done by means of frequency tables and bar charts. *ANOVA* techniques and *t-tests* are also used to analyse relationships between teachers' perspectives and biographical attributes. The structured part of the questionnaire (section E) and open interviews address the fourth theme whilst the fifth theme is addressed by the classroom observations. For these last two broad themes, data are presented using pie charts followed similarly, by a qualitative discussion. The nature of correlation between questionnaire findings and classroom observation findings is described.

4.2 The construction of the questionnaire instrument

The questionnaire was designed to investigate the main research question, namely, what are the perspectives of secondary school teachers towards English as a LoLT? The questionnaire used in this study is essentially informed by Oppenheim (1992), Leedy (1993) and Karavas-Doukas (1996). Karavas-Doukas (1996:190) advises that the first step in the construction of a Likert-type questionnaire is to compose “a series of statements that cover all aspects” of the phenomenon under study. Against that background, I ensured that all aspects of the

perspectives of teachers on English as a LoLT were covered in sections B, C and D of the questionnaire. This was achieved after a thorough review of research articles and other theoretical publications on the phenomena of LoLT and teacher perspectives as set out in Chapter 2. The analysis focused on identifying the functions that a language designated as a LoLT has. These were then used as a basis for the formulation of the questionnaire items.

The first section of the questionnaire, Section A, presents the participants' biographical data. Section 4.3 below gives an analysis of the biographical attributes of the informants used for this study. Appendix B gives fuller details on the attributes as well as the responses of the informants.

4.3 The biographical attributes of the informants

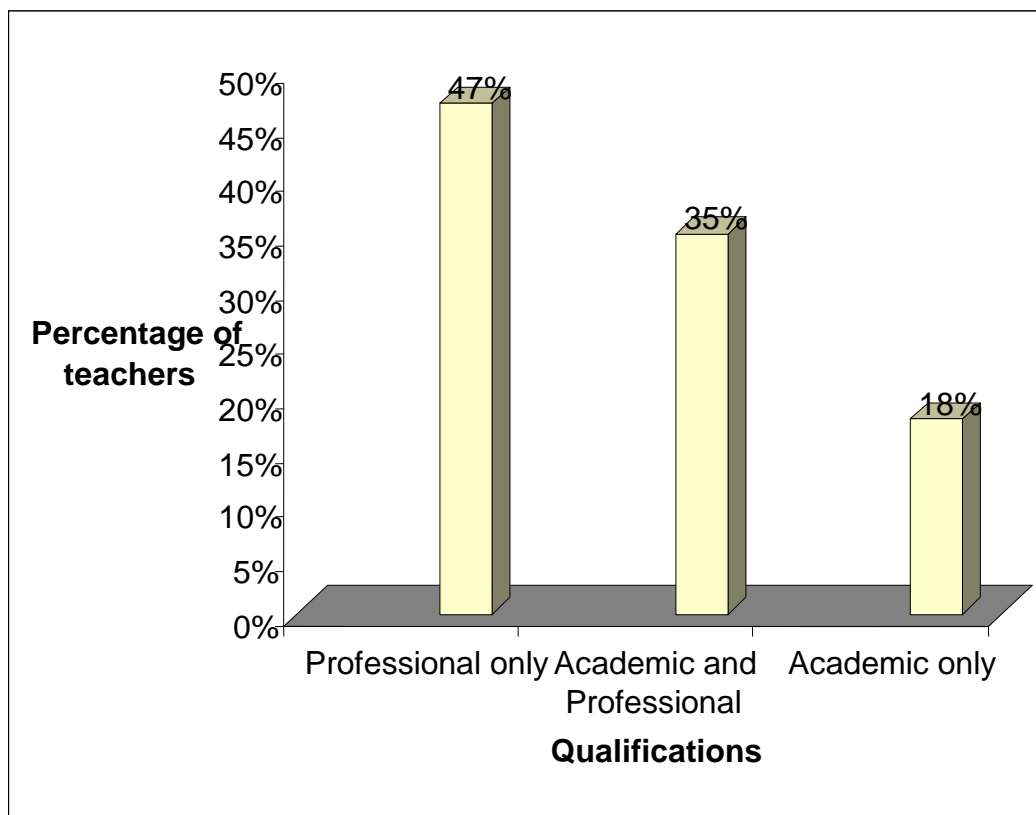
In descriptive studies it is important to describe the sample population in detail. Gall et al. (1996). This is important in that it helps to determine the extent of generalisability of the findings of the study. It is also important to know the teachers' biographical attributes so that, as indicated in Chapter 3, the extent to which such attributes influence the teachers' perspectives could be determined. The biographical details of the informants that were sought for the purposes of this study include the teachers' qualifications, length of teaching experience, mother tongue/s, language in which the teachers were trained to teach their subjects, the mother tongue composition of the classes they taught and the grade levels they taught.

4.3.1 The qualifications of the teachers

As evident in **Figure 3** below, the sample consisted mainly of teachers with both academic and professional qualifications. Only a small minority of 18% of the teachers were not professionally trained, holding either an Advanced Level certificate (an equivalent of a matriculation certificate in the South African context) or a non-teaching Bachelor's degree. The holders of professional qualifications category had such qualifications as Certificate in Education (CE), Diploma in Education (DipEd), Bachelor of Education (BE) or Master in Education (MEd). The category of academic and professional qualifications includes Bachelor's degrees accompanied by a teaching qualification such as Graduate Certificate in

Education (Grad. CE), Postgraduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) as well as CE or DipEd. This sample was quite satisfactory in that, because of the teachers' high qualifications, they could give in-depth information on LoLT issues, drawing from their training and experience, especially regarding pedagogical beliefs and perceived difficulties or benefits associated with using English as a LoLT.

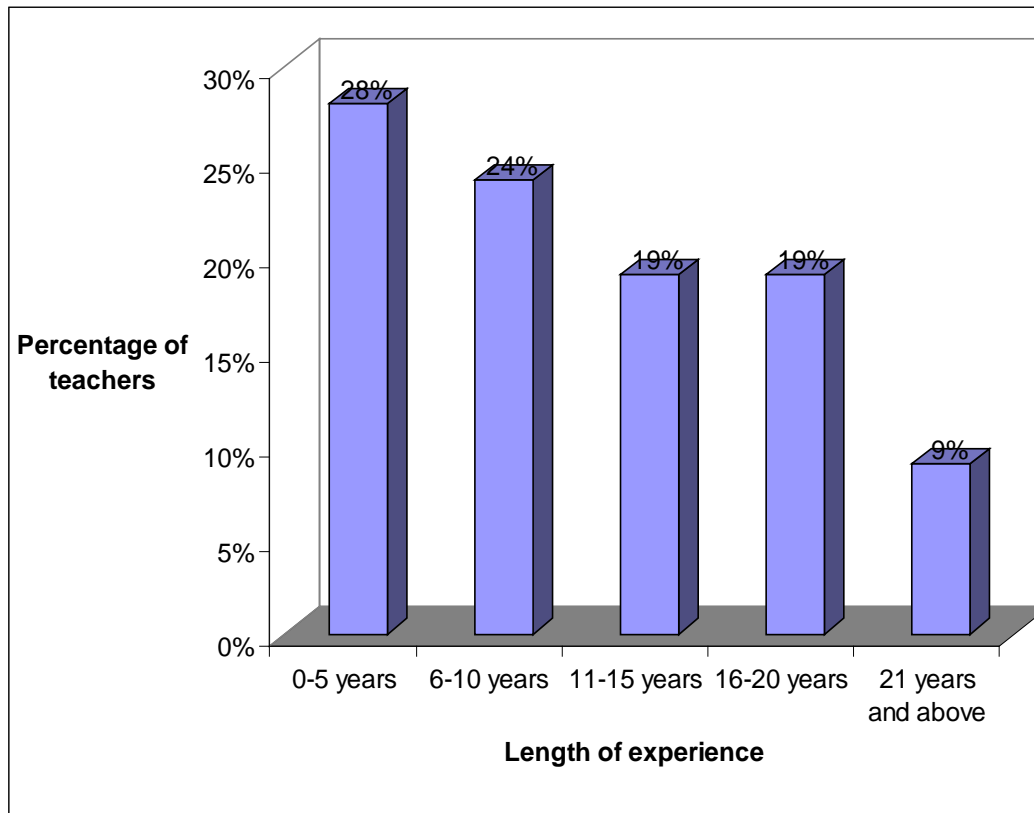
Figure 3: The qualifications of the teachers in the sample



4.3.2 Length of teaching experience

Regarding the length of teaching experience of the teachers who were used as the informants in the study, as **Figure 4** shows, the sample was also quite varied, with the majority of the teachers falling in the 0-5 years category, followed by those in the 6-10 years category. The most experienced teachers i.e. those in the 21 years and above category constitute 9% and were the smallest group.

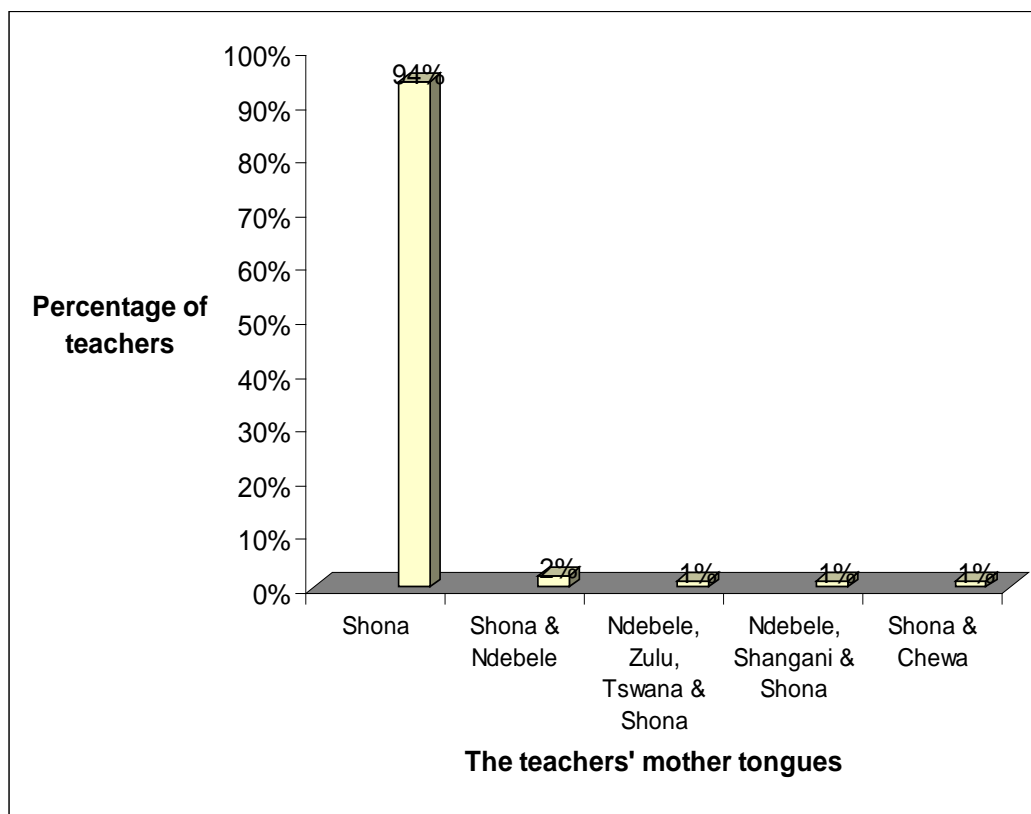
Figure 4: The teachers' length of teaching experience



4.3.3 Mother-tongue composition of the teachers

As can be seen in **Figure 5** below, a great majority (94%) of the teachers in the sample have one mother tongue, namely Shona. Of the multilingual informants, 2% are Shona-Ndebele bilinguals, 1% speaks Ndebele, Zulu, Tswana and Shona and again 1% speaks Shangani, Ndebele and Shona. It also has to be remarked that all the informants have Shona L1 proficiency.

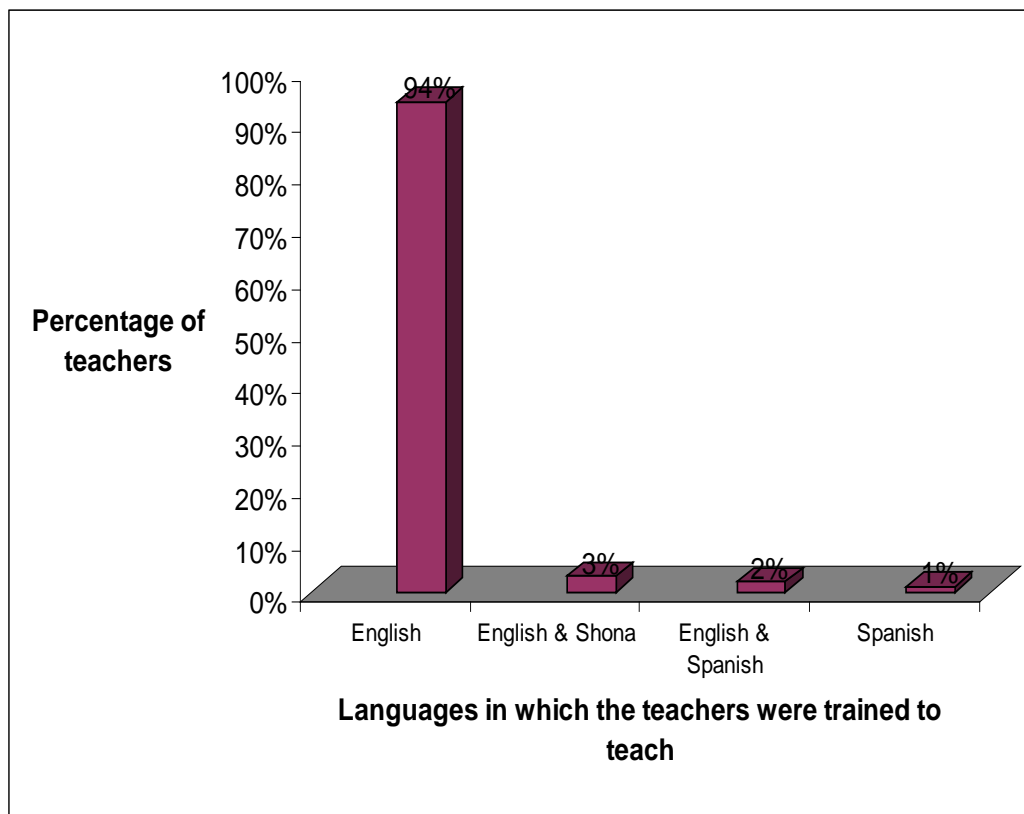
Figure 5: The teachers' mother tongues



4.3.4 The language/s in which the teachers were trained to teach

Regarding the languages in which the teachers were trained to teach their languages, it is remarkable that 94% of the teachers reported that English was used as the LoLT while only 3% reported that both English and Shona were used (See **Figure 6** below). It may be noted here that the 3% who reported both English and Shona could have been reporting on actual LoLT practice in the classes that they attended and not the official policy. The interviews that followed the administration of the questionnaires indicated a similar fact. It also emerged that those informants that reported the use of Spanish as the language in which they were trained to teach had done part of their training in Cuba where, until a few years ago, Zimbabwe used to send prospective teachers for training in the teaching of Science subjects.

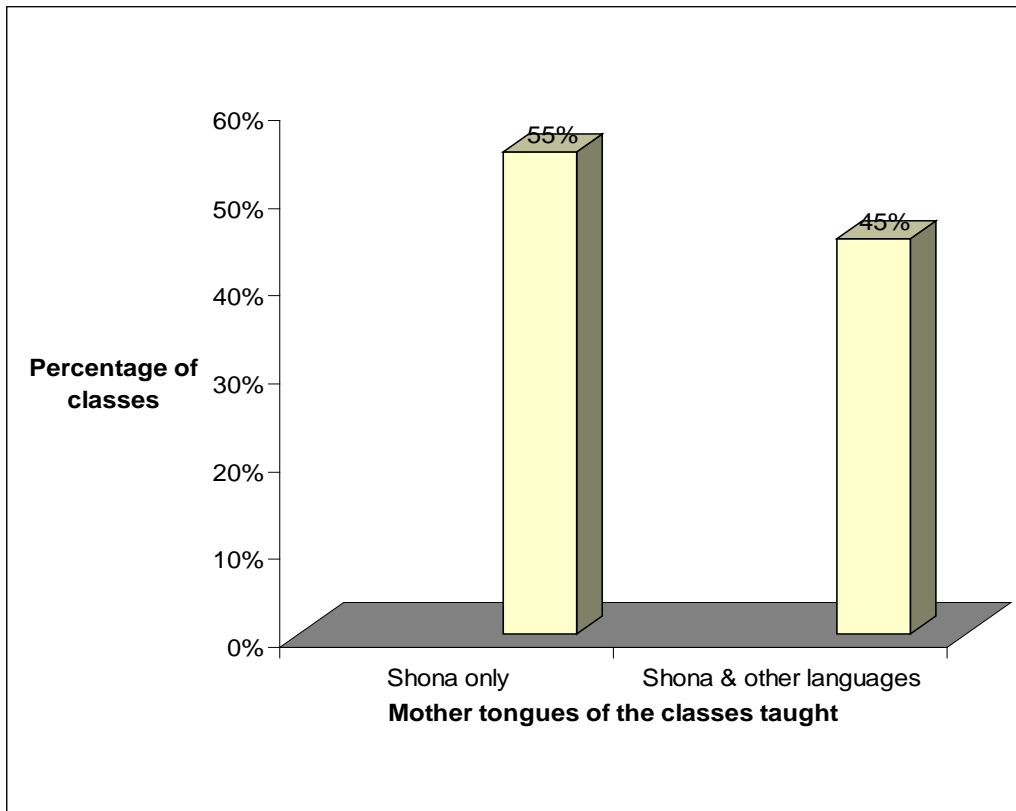
Figure 6: The languages in which the teachers were trained to teach their subjects



4.3.5 The mother tongue composition of the classes taught

In terms of the mother-tongue composition of the classes that the informants taught, 55% of the teachers reported that their classes had a homogeneous mother-tongue composition and in all cases, the mother tongue was Shona. This was certainly predictable in a district (Masvingo) where Shona is the dominant language, as discussed in Chapter 2. It can also be noted that of the classes that had a heterogeneous mother-tongue composition, the pupils that did not speak Shona as their mother tongue constituted very low percentages.

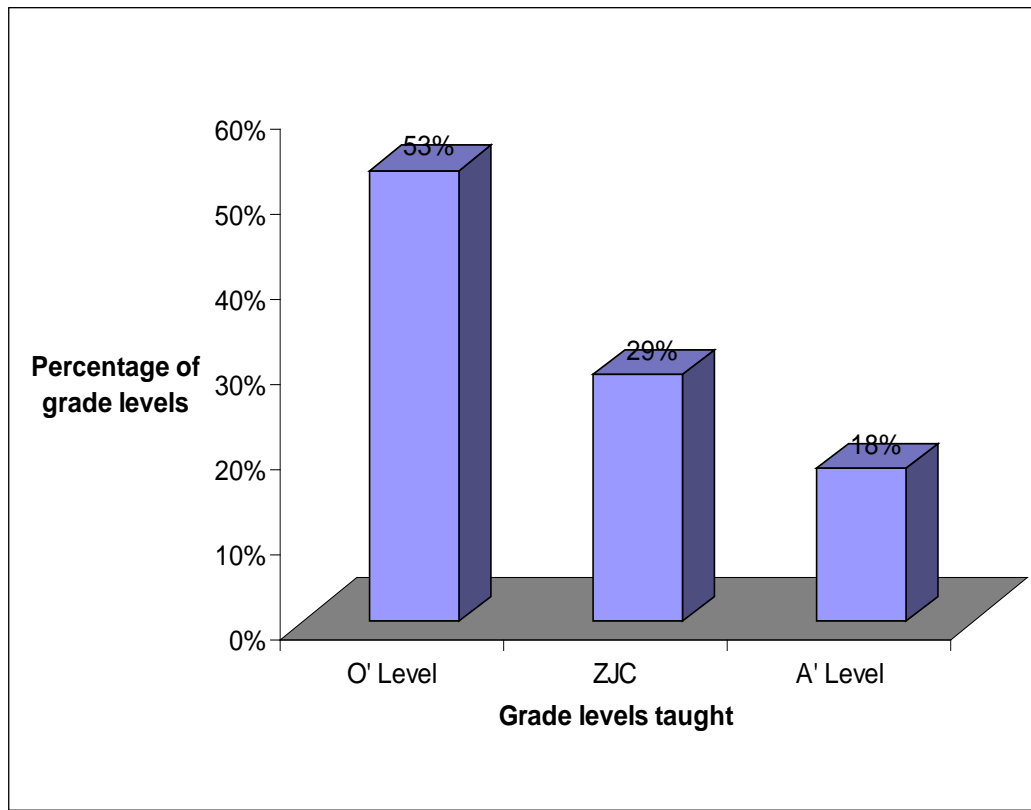
Figure 7: The mother tongue composition of the classes taught



4.3.6 The grade levels taught by the teachers

A majority of the informants (53%) in the study taught Ordinary level ('O' Level) grades while those that taught Advanced Level ('A' Level) had the lowest percentage (18%) as **Figure 8** shows. Zimbabwe Junior Certificate level had 29%. These statistics reflect that most of the schools have more teachers for 'O' Level and the least number of teachers for 'A' Level. This would be normal for there are generally more students at 'O' Level and ZJC than at 'A' Level.

Figure 8: The levels mostly taught by the teachers in the sample



4.4. Attitudes of teachers towards English as a LoLT

As discussed in Chapter 2, a study of teachers' attitudes is an important aspect in evaluating the likely success or failure of educational policy in general and LoLT policy in particular. It was highlighted that neglecting such an important aspect is a recipe for disharmony between policy and practice or outright resistance to new policies. According to Tollefson (2002:179) "a key to the success of language policies in education is public acceptance, not only among groups affected by the policies, but also among groups such as teachers who play a role in implementing policies." Section 4.4.1 below looks again at the motivation behind statements on the attitude scale and presents the findings to each of the statements in terms of a percentage score. Such description makes it possible to determine the intensity of the teachers' attitudes for each statement before a consolidated score of all the statements is given. In Section 4.4.2, I move on to inferential statistics where the various hypotheses set out in Section 1.6 are tested.

4.4.1 Motivation for and responses to the statements on the attitude scale

All the statements in Section A of the questionnaire sought to find out how favourable or unfavourable the teachers' attitudes towards English LoLT were. Statements 18, 19, 20, 21, and 22 were regarded as favourable i.e. inclined to agree, as far as English LoLT is concerned. Thus 'Strongly agree', 'Agree', 'Not sure', 'Disagree' and 'Strongly disagree' were given scores of 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively for these statements. Statements 14, 15, 16, 17, 23, 24, 25 and 26 were considered unfavourable i.e. inclined to disagree, and the scoring criterion was therefore reversed i.e. 'Strongly agree', 'Agree', 'Not sure', 'Disagree' and 'Strongly disagree' corresponded with 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 respectively.

A statement that elicited the most strongly favourable attitude towards English as a LoLT would have a score of 100% (600 out of 600) arrived at by eliciting 5 points times 120 respondents while the least favourable attitude would have a score of 20% (120 out of 600) arrived at by eliciting 1 point times 120 informants. The neutral point was 60% (360 out of 600) arrived at by eliciting 3 points times 120 informants. **Table 4.1** gives the scores obtained from the study for the different statements that concerned the teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT. (NB: Scores for the negatively phrased statements in relation to English as a LoLT have been asterisked but the scores still indicate the favourability degree of English as a LoLT as the other positively phrased statements).

It can be noted from responses in **Table 4.1** above that the statement that elicited the most strongly positive attitude is statement 18, which related to whether or not the teachers admired students who were fluent in English. Second in eliciting the most strongly positive attitude was statement 19 that sought the teachers' response on whether or not they felt that their respective schools were ready for medium of instruction changeover. Statement 20 followed by statement 23 had the least scores, showing that the teachers neither felt that they did not have a personal attachment to English or that mother-tongue instruction was good in principle.

Table 4.1: Scores for statements 14-26: Consolidated results (rural and urban)

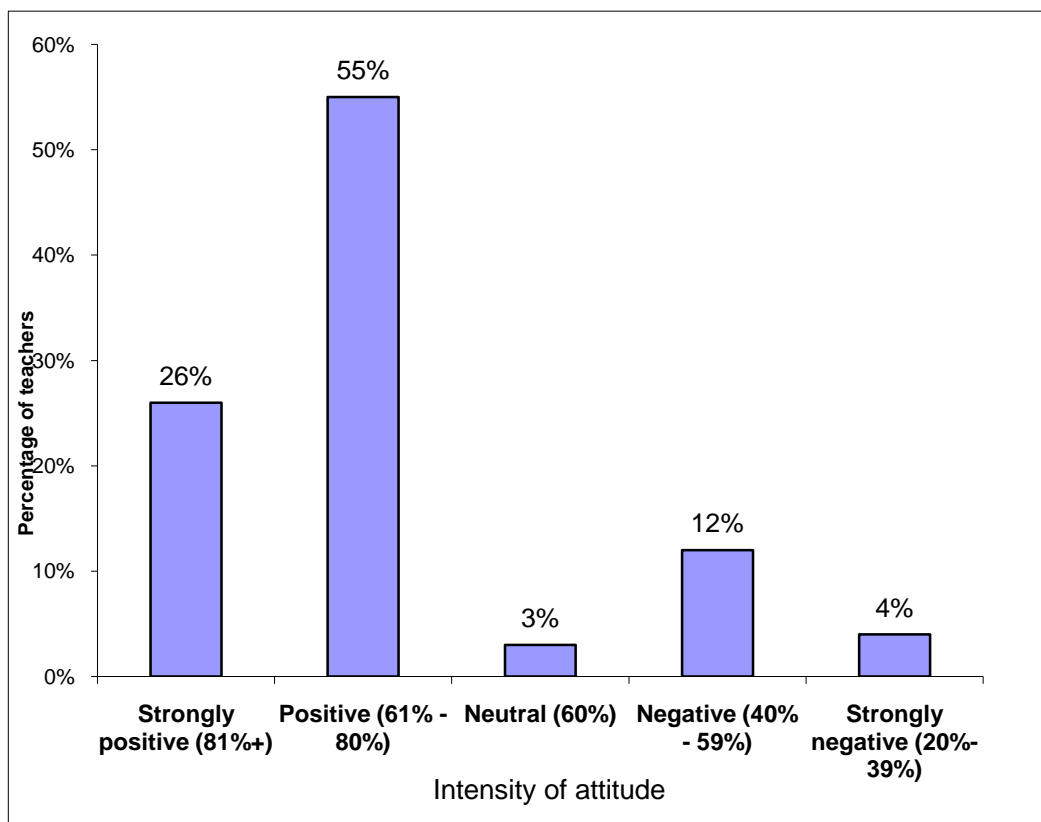
No.	Statement	%
18	I admire students who communicate fluently in English during lessons.	90%
19	I feel that my school is not yet ready to replace English with mother tongue instruction.	*81%
14	I am against the current policy in which English is the medium of instruction in my school.	*80%
21	Teaching my subject in English gives me satisfaction.	80%
22	I am keen on my students answering oral questions in English.	79%
15	I think that English should be replaced with mother tongue as medium of instruction in my school.	*76%
17	I prefer that my learners give oral answers in their mother tongue in my subject.	*75%
24	Teaching my subject in the mother tongue gives me satisfaction.	*74%
26	I would love to teach my subject in the mother tongue.	*73%
16	I prefer that my students do their group/pair work in their mother tongue.	*69%
25	I think that using English as a medium of instruction reduces the participation levels of my learners in my classes.	*64%
23	I am of the opinion that mother tongue instruction is good in principle.	*61%
20	I have a personal attachment to English as part of my identity.	56%

It can also be argued that statement 20 received the lowest score due to the fact that the majority of teachers - being African - felt no personal attachment to English as part of their identity, but this does not detract from their regarding English as a LoLT as a good policy. In fact the majority of those informants who reported a 'positive' to 'strongly positive' attitude towards English disagreed with the statement that they had a personal attachment to English as part of their identity. It is also noteworthy that statement 20 is the only statement that elicited a negative attitude. The rest of the statements i.e. 14, 15, 16, 24 and 26 received scores above the

neutral point (60%) showing that the statements elicited generally favourable attitudes towards English as a LoLT.

Figure 9 shows a summary of the consolidated results of the attitude scale. These results show that 81% of the 120 teachers surveyed have positive attitudes towards English as a LoLT, 26% of them strongly agreeing that English is a suitable language for the purposes of learning and teaching. A paltry 3% are undecided in terms of their attitude towards English as a LoLT. On the other hand, the remaining 16% hold negative attitudes towards English as a LoLT, 4% of them strongly against it.

Figure 9: Consolidated results of teachers' attitude towards English as a LoLT



4.4.2 The influence of various teacher attributes on their attitudes towards English as a LoLT

It was indicated in Sections 4.1 and 4.2 that the biographical attributes of the teachers were important in the sense that they would make it possible for relationships between teacher attitudes and particular teacher attributes to be determined. These attributes, among them school locality, qualifications, length of teaching experience and subject discipline, were delineated in Section 4.3. This section establishes the relationships between these attributes and the teachers' attitudes by subjecting the hypotheses outlined in Section 1.6 to inferential statistical tests. One-way ANOVA and *t-test* were the two tests that were used to determine the relationships and the degree of significance of these relationships.

4.4.2.1 Teacher attitudes and school locality

Hypothesis 1A below examines how significantly the teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT depend on the locality of their school;

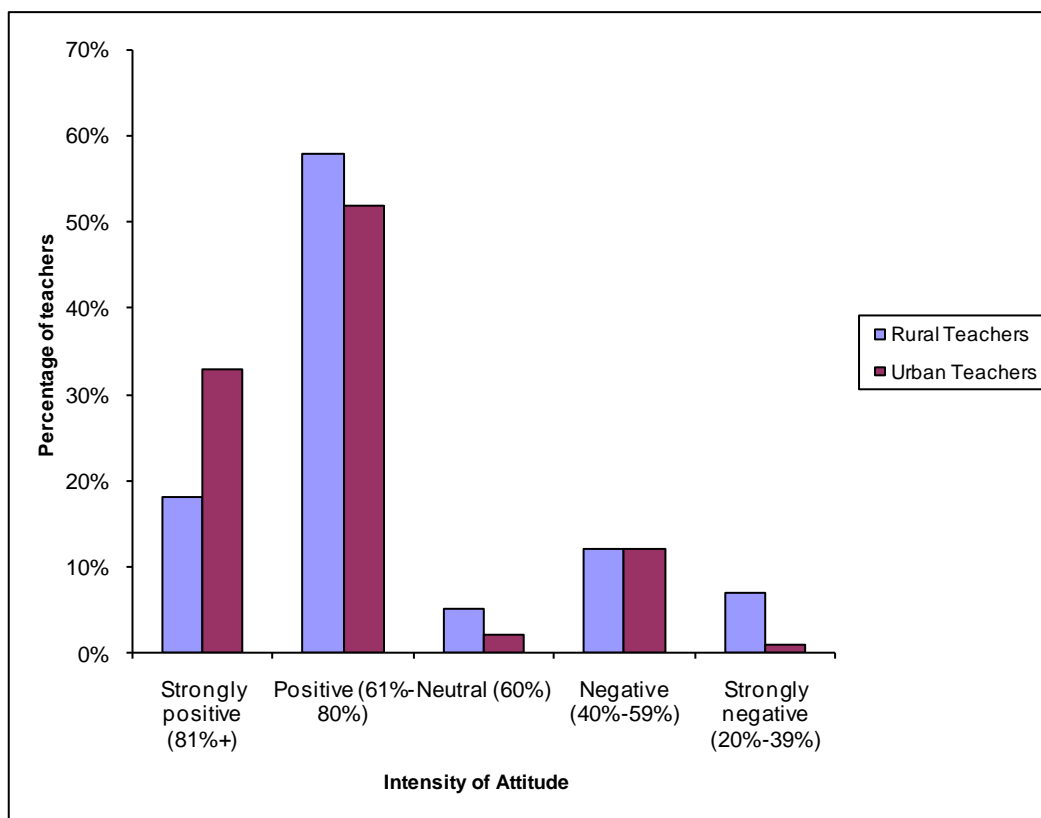
H 1A: *The teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT will significantly depend on the locality of their school.*

When this hypothesis was tested using a 2-tailed *t-test*, it was found that there were significant differences between the attitudes of rural teachers and the attitudes of their urban counterparts ($t = -2.050$, $df = 118$, $p = 0.043$). Findings from the in-depth interviews as well as the open-ended section of the questionnaire also confirmed these significant differences.

It is also evident from **Figure 10** below that favourable attitudes towards English are more pronounced in urban areas than in rural areas. For example in urban schools, 85% are in favour of English as a LoLT whilst in rural areas 76% are in support of the policy in which English is the LoLT. There are also higher percentages for respondents against this policy in rural schools (19% compared to 13% for urban teachers).

I would argue from these results that the more pronounced multilingual nature (70% of the urban teachers reported teaching multilingual classes) could be responsible for swaying the teachers' preference towards English as a LoLT, a language that is more neutral as compared to any other mother tongue that might be used as a LoLT. This would be plausible in the sense that incorporating mother-tongue instruction into learning and teaching activities in a multilingual classroom places a high demand on the teacher in terms of skill and expertise (Faleni 1993). Most teachers lack such skills and expertise because of the nature of their training (the curricula in the majority of teacher training institutions do not feature the study of strategies for handling LoLT issues in a multilingual classroom, save those for prospective language teachers).

Figure 10: Teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT: Comparison by school locality



On the other hand, rural classrooms are less multilingual, especially in day schools (37% of the rural teachers reported teaching multilingual classes) and even in such cases, there would be an

average of 1 learner speaking a mother tongue which is different from the mother tongue of the rest of the class. In rural classrooms, the implementation of mother tongue instruction is therefore likely to meet fewer logistical obstacles than would be the case in urban settings. NEPI (1992) recommends that in order for the mother tongue LoLT policy to be successfully implemented, it is necessary that members of the class have a homogeneous mother tongue. However, Leibowitz (1991) as well as Lucas and Katz (1994) suggest a number of strategies that teachers of multilingual classrooms may adopt to ensure that pupils benefit from their different mother tongues. Such strategies include group work and pair work based on the mother tongues of the learners, among others. In the Zimbabwean situation, such strategies dovetail neatly with the *The Amended Education Act of 2006* (see Chapter 2), which does not expressly preclude the use of mother tongue for instructional purposes up to Form 2.

4.4.2.2 Teachers' qualifications and their attitudes

Hypothesis 1B examines how significantly the teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT will depend on their qualifications;

H 1B *The teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their qualifications.*

A one-way ANOVA was used to test the relationship between the teachers' qualifications and their attitudes. The results of the hypothesis showed that there was no significant relationship between the teachers' qualifications and their attitudes ($F_{(2, 119)} = 0.432, p = 0.650$).

4.4.2.3 The teachers' length of experience and their attitudes

Hypothesis 1C focuses on how significantly the teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT are affected by the length of their teaching experience;

H 1C: *The teachers' attitudes towards English as LoLT will depend on their length of teaching experience.*

Again, a one-way *ANOVA* was used to establish the relationship between the teachers' length of experience and their attitudes. The test yielded the result that there was no significant relationship between the teachers' length of experience and their attitudes ($F_{(4, 119)} = 0.633, p = 0.640$).

4.4.2.4 The teachers' subject disciplines and their attitudes

Hypothesis 1D examines how significantly teachers' attitudes are affected by their subject disciplines;

H 1D: *The teachers' attitudes towards English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their subject discipline.*

The relationship between the attitude scores and the subject disciplines of the teachers was measured using a one-way *ANOVA* and no significant relationship between the teachers' subject disciplines and their attitude score was found ($F_{(3,119)} = 0.498, p = 0.195$). This suggests that teachers from different subject disciplines will view any language policy that may be adopted in Masvingo District in almost the same manner. Against that background, in a context where mother-tongue instruction cannot be introduced in all subjects at once, a gradual subject-by-subject introduction of the new LoLT policy can only be based on logistical criteria and not on the attitudes of the teachers.

It is clear from the foregoing discussion that the statistical tests of the four hypotheses that examine the relationship between teacher attitudes and the various perspectives of the teachers yielded results to the effect that the only significant relationship between the two is the one between teachers' school locality and their attitudes. Though there are differences between the attitude scores of teachers with different qualifications, subject disciplines and length of teaching experience, such differences were not found to be statistically significant.

4.5 Pedagogical beliefs of teachers about English LoLT

It was pointed out in Chapter 1 that pedagogical beliefs, just like attitudes, are an integral part of teacher perspectives. It was also pointed out in Chapter 2 (citing Larsen-Freeman 1987 and Basturkmen et al. 2004) that sometimes a teacher's pedagogical beliefs may be at variance with the scientific or technical knowledge that he/she obtained from professional training or even with policy stipulations as some studies discussed in Chapter 2 showed. The following section provides reasons for including the statements that sought the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and describes the responses to those statements.

4.5.1 Motivation and responses to the statements on teachers' pedagogical beliefs

The statements discussed in this section were intended to find out how favourable or unfavourable the pedagogical beliefs of teachers towards English as a LoLT were. Statements 29, 31 and 33 were considered to be in consonance with English as a LoLT, thus 'Strongly agree', 'Agree', 'Not sure', 'Disagree' and 'Strongly disagree' were given scores of 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 respectively. On the other hand, statements 27, 28, 30 and 32 were deemed to be against the use of English as a LoLT but in support of mother-tongue instruction, so the scoring criterion was reversed i.e. 'Strongly agree', 'Agree', 'Not sure', 'Disagree' and 'Strongly disagree' corresponded with 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 respectively.

As was the case in Section 4.4.1 above, a statement that elicited the most strongly favourable belief would have a score of 100% (600 out of 600), while the least favourable attitude would have a score of 20% (120 out of 600). The neutral point was 60%. **Table 4.2** gives, in ascending order, the scores obtained from the study for the different statements that concerned the teachers' pedagogical beliefs towards English as a LoLT. (NB: Scores for the negatively phrased statements in relation to English as a LoLT have been asterisked but the scores still indicate the favourability degree of English as a LoLT as the other positively phrased statements).

Table 4.2: Scores for statements 27-33: Consolidated results (rural and urban).

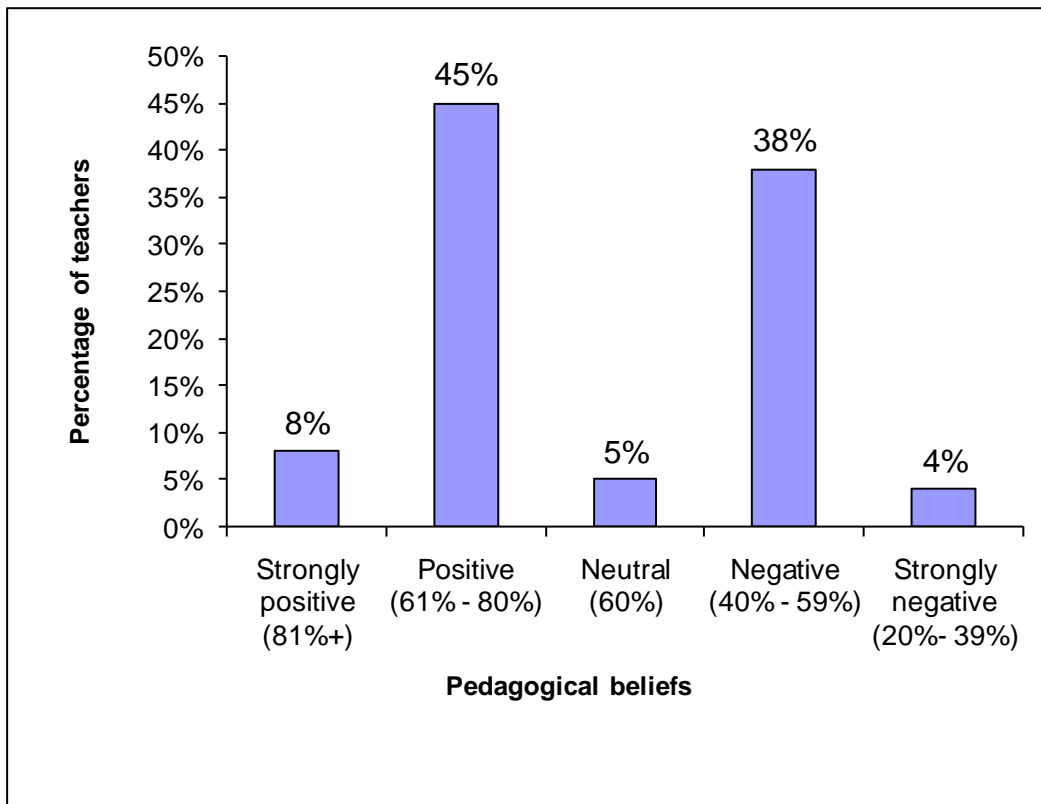
No.	Statement	%
31	I think that I can teach my subject more efficiently through the medium of English.	79%
33	I think that the advantages of learning through the medium of English outweigh the disadvantages.	79%
29	I think that I can teach my subject better through the medium of English.	76%
28	I believe that if mother-tongue instruction were to be introduced in my school, this would give learners advantages.	*63%
27	I believe that the English medium of instruction negatively affects the performance of learners in examinations	*54%
30	I believe that my students are more motivated if I explain concepts in their mother tongue.	*48%
32	I believe that my students' knowledge of subject content is more important than language skills.	*43%

Of the seven statements in this section, it can be noted that four have a score above 60% i.e. statements 31, 33, 29 and 28. This suggests a favourable belief about English as a LoLT. The rest of the statements have percentages lower than the neutral point (60%) suggesting a negative disposition towards English as a LoLT. Statement 31 (I think that I can teach my subject more efficiently through the medium of English) and statement 33 (I think that the advantages of learning through the medium of English outweigh the disadvantages) elicited the most positive beliefs about English as a LoLT, while statement 32 (I believe that my students' knowledge of subject content is more important than language skills) elicited the most negative belief. However, as will again be seen later (Section 4.6), these statements do not necessarily betray an unfavourable disposition towards English as a LoLT. In fact, the unfavourable responses are an acknowledgement that though they have positive pedagogical beliefs about English, its use has its own constraints. From another perspective, this could be understood as an instance of ambivalence on the part of the teachers i.e. they prefer English as a LoLT but it has some pedagogical disadvantages. Thus, they would rather put up with the disadvantages than do away with it altogether.

4.5.2 The influence of various teacher attributes on their pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT

Pedagogical beliefs are another perspective of teachers that may be influenced by the school locality, qualifications, length of teaching experience and subject discipline of the teachers. This section focuses on the extent of that influence in a manner similar to that done for attitudes in Section 4.4.2 above. **Figure 11** shows the summary of the consolidated results for the pedagogical beliefs scale:

Figure 11: The teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT: Consolidated results



These results show that 53% of the teachers have favourable beliefs about English as a LoLT, 8% of them holding strongly favourable beliefs about it. On the other hand, 42% of the teachers have negative beliefs about English as a LoLT. Only 5% of the teachers hold beliefs that are neutral.

Responses to the statements in this section are interesting in the sense that they show a marked shift from the overwhelmingly positive attitude seen in Section B to a more tepid support for English as a LoLT. (It should be remembered that the attitude scale showed a favourability degree of 81%, compared to the favourability degree of 53% for the pedagogical beliefs.) This graphically dramatises the conflict between teachers' attitudes and the pedagogical beliefs they hold. It is evident that teachers' pedagogical beliefs are shaped by practical considerations i.e. considerations to do with the feasibility of particular pedagogical practices. On face value, it would appear as if teachers do not believe that English as a LoLT is good but the truth of the matter is that practical constraints attendant upon the use of English as a LoLT as well as the sound basis of mother tongue instruction have tempered the teachers' responses. On the other hand, attitudes seem to be so ingrained and deep-seated in the respondents that they are not influenced by practical considerations in a direct and obvious manner. This is one reason why there is a seemingly ambivalent attitude towards English LoLT in Zimbabwe.

Hypotheses 2A through 2D, which focused on the degree of significance of the relationship between the various biographical attributes of the teachers and their pedagogical beliefs, were tested using one-way *ANOVA* and *t-test*. The results of the test are presented in Sections 4.5.2.1 through 4.5.2.4.

4.5.2.1 The teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their school locality

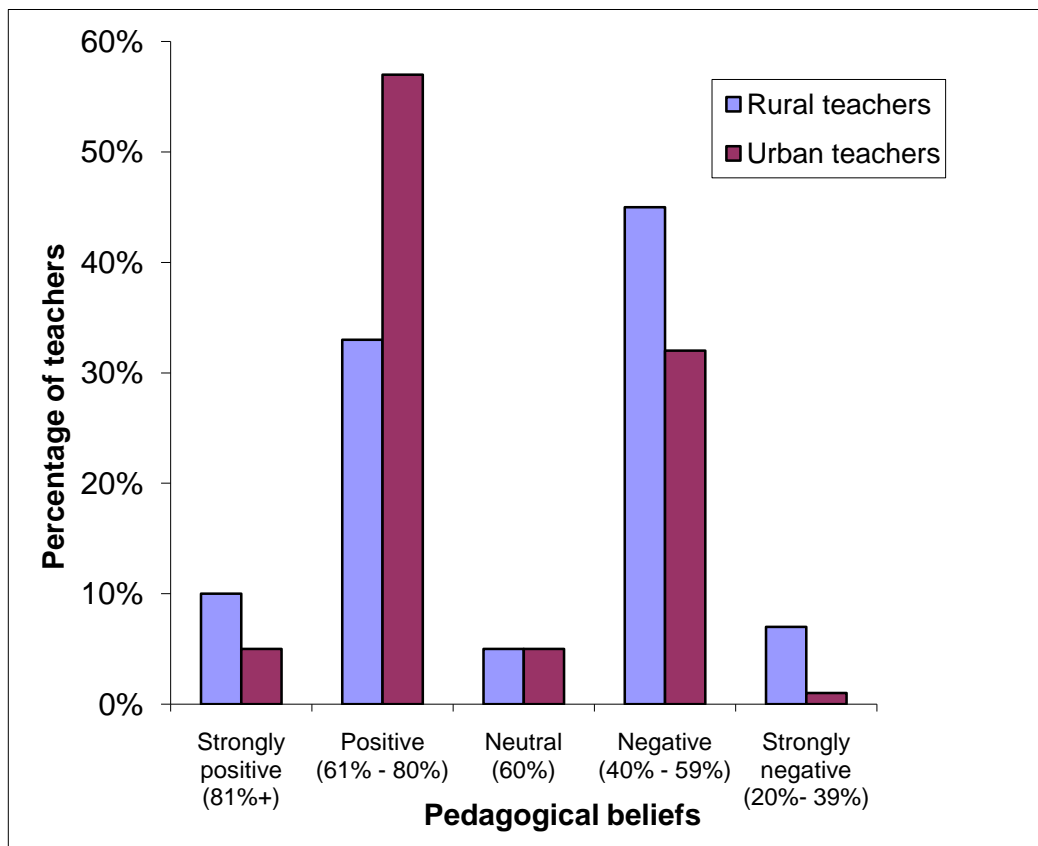
Hypothesis 2A focuses on how significantly the teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT will depend on the locality of their school;

H 2A: *The teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on the locality of their school.*

The hypothesis was tested using a 2-tailed *t-test*, and it emerged that there were no significant differences between the pedagogical beliefs of the teachers who taught in rural schools and the pedagogical beliefs of the teachers who taught in urban schools ($t = -1.832$, $df = 118$, $p = 0.069$).

Figure 12 below also confirms that, unlike what we saw in the results of the attitude scale, there are no significant differences between the pedagogical beliefs of the teachers who taught in rural schools and the pedagogical beliefs of the teachers who taught in urban schools.

Figure 12: Teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT: Comparison by school locality



4.5.2.2 Teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their qualifications

Hypothesis 2B below examines how significantly the teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT will depend on their qualifications;

H 2B: *The teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their qualifications.*

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed that there was no significant relationship between teachers' qualifications and their pedagogical beliefs ($F_{(2, 119)} = 0.713, p = 0.492$).

4.5.2.3 Teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their length of experience

Hypothesis 2C examines how significantly teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT depend on the length of their teaching experience;

H 2C: *The teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as LoLT will significantly depend on the length of their teaching experience.*

This hypothesis was tested using a one-way ANOVA and no significant relationship based on teaching experience were found ($F_{(4, 119)} = 1.750, p = 0.144$).

4.5.2.4 Teachers' pedagogical beliefs and their subject disciplines

Hypothesis 2D examines how significantly the teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT will depend on their subject disciplines;

H 2 D: *The teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their subject disciplines.*

The results of the one-way ANOVA showed that there was no significant relationship between the teachers' subject disciplines and their pedagogical beliefs ($F_{(3, 119)} = 0.103, p = 0.958$).

The test results of the four hypotheses thus confirm the conclusion that the teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT are independent from their individual biographical attributes. This implies that teachers teaching in rural schools and those teaching in urban schools as well as teachers with various qualifications, length of teaching experience and teaching different subjects all concur in their pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT .

4.6 Teachers' perceived difficulties in regard to the use of English as a LoLT

Sometimes policies that are noble in principle fail to take off due to perceptions (inherent in the teachers) of difficulties associated with the implementation of such policies. It was important in this study to gain a perspective as far as such perceived difficulties are concerned. Section **4.6.1** below discusses the motivation and the teachers' responses to the pedagogical difficulties scale.

4.6.1 Motivation of and responses to the statements on teachers' perceived difficulties in regard to use of English LoLT

The statements in this section were intended to establish the teachers' perspectives as far as the difficulties associated with English as a LoLT are concerned. Statements 34, 38 and 39 were considered to be in consonance with English as a LoLT, thus 'Strongly agree', 'Agree', 'Not sure', 'Disagree' and 'Strongly disagree' were given scores of 5, 4, 3, 2, and 1 respectively. On the other hand, statements 35, 36 and 37, 40 and 41 were judged to be against the use of English as a LoLT, so the scoring criterion was reversed i.e. 'Strongly agree', 'Agree', 'Not sure', 'Disagree' and 'Strongly disagree' corresponded with 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5 respectively.

As was the case in Sections **4.4.1** and **4.5.1** above, a statement that elicited the most strongly favourable response would have a score of 100% (600 out of 600), while the least favourable perspective would have a score of 20% (120 out of 600). Again, 60% was the neutral point. The following are the scores obtained for the different statements that concerned the teachers' perceived difficulties. The scores are arranged in ascending order. (NB: Scores for the negatively phrased statements in relation to English as a LoLT have been asterisked but the scores still indicate the favourability degree of English as a LoLT as the other positively phrased statements).

Table 4.3: Scores for statements 34-41: Consolidated results

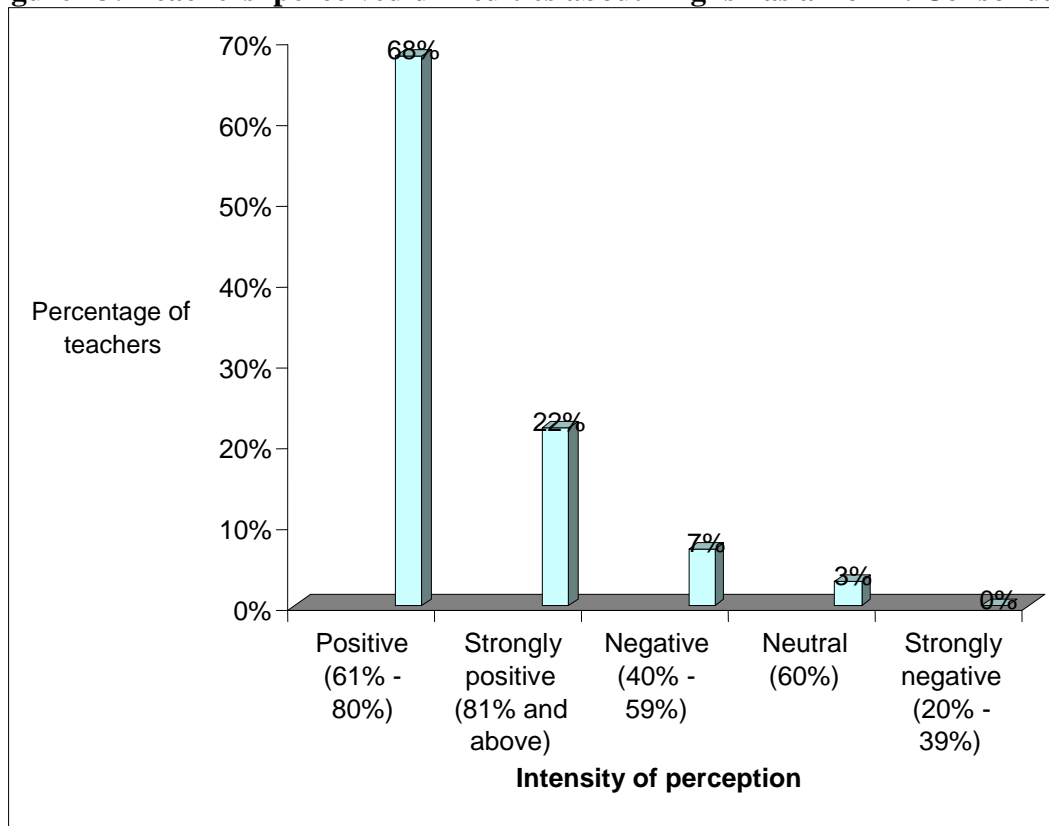
No.	Statement	%
38	There are not enough textbooks in the mother tongue in my subject.	87%
37	I am not proficient enough to teach effectively in English.	*86%
39	The mother tongue has limited vocabulary for use in my subject.	84%
35	I think that English is an unsuitable language for teaching my subject.	*82%
36	I feel that the textbooks that I use for teaching my subject have difficult English.	*74%
34	It is difficult for me to teach my subject in any other language except English.	71%
41	My learners seem to find it difficult to understand concepts explained in English.	*56%
40	It seems my students have difficulties explaining concepts in English.	*47%

It is evident from these results that the majority of statements received favourable responses from the informants, an indication that the teachers generally agree that the difficulties associated with using an alternative LoLT policy such as mother-tongue instruction make them feel strongly that English as a LoLT is the most practicable option.

Figure 13 shows the consolidated results of teachers' responses to statements to do with their perceived difficulties concerning the use of English as LoLT. It shows that the great majority, 90 % of the teachers, have a positive inclination towards English as a LoLT, 22% of them strongly so. On the other hand, 7% are against English as a LoLT and 3% are undecided. It is evident again here that a positive inclination towards English is premised on the logistical exigencies associated with the use of the mother tongue instruction. In other words, there are more constraints associated with mother tongue instruction than those associated with English instruction. This supports Fasold's (1987) view that when instituting a LoLT policy, a language

that has fewer constraints is usually chosen for use as medium of instruction. This fact is shown by a positive inclination towards English even in instances where constraints associated with its use are acknowledged.

Figure 13: Teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT: Consolidated results.



4.6.2 The influence of various teacher attributes on their perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT

As was seen with attitudes and pedagogical beliefs, perceived difficulties may also relate in particular ways to the teachers' biographical attributes. Sections 4.6.2.1 through 4.6.2.4 below present the extent of the relationships between the teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT and their biographical attributes. Again, this was established through subjecting hypotheses that examined that relationship to inferential statistical tests.

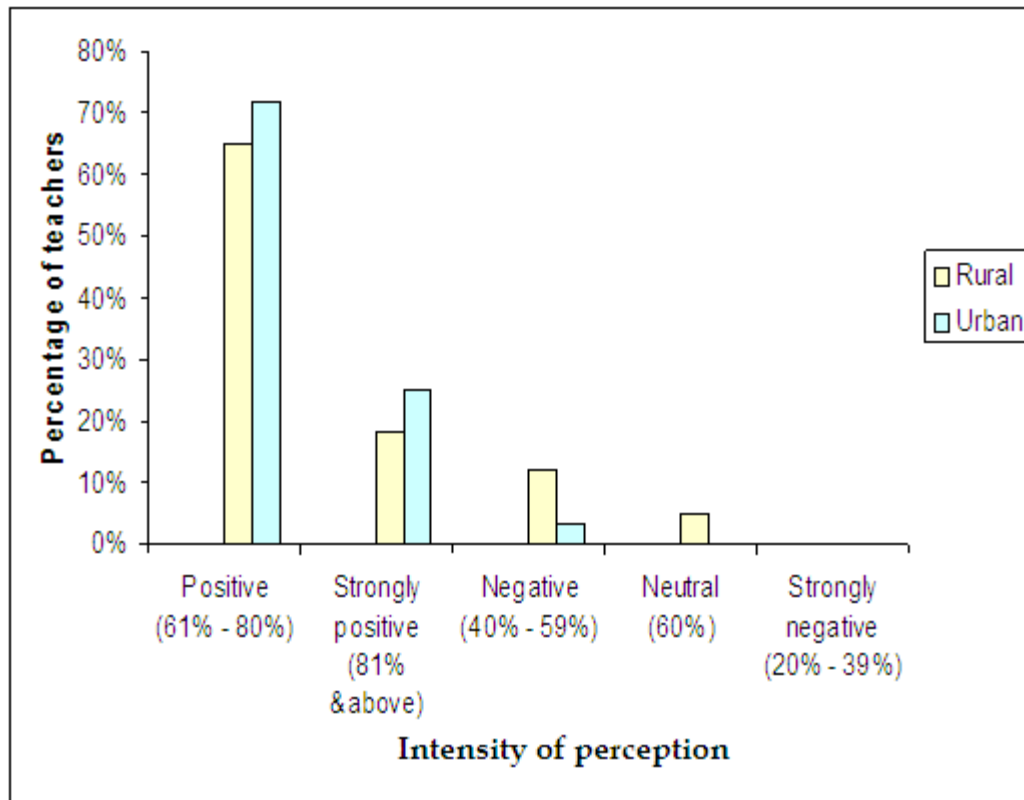
4.6.2.1 Teachers' perceived difficulties and their school locality

Hypothesis 3A examines how significantly the teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT depend on the locality of their school;

H 3A: *The teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on the locality of their school.*

This hypothesis was tested using a 2-tailed *t-test* and the differences in perceived difficulties between rural teachers and urban teachers were found to be highly statistically significant ($t = -2.672$ $df = 118$ $p = 0.009$). As was the case with attitudes and pedagogical beliefs, the urban teachers have a more positive inclination towards English as a LoLT than their rural counterparts. (See **Figure 14**) For example, 72% of the urban teachers have a positive inclination towards English as a LoLT, in comparison to the 65% of rural teachers.

Figure 14: Teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT: Comparison of rural and urban results



4.6.2.2 Teachers' perceived difficulties and their qualifications

Hypothesis 3B examines how significantly the teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT will depend on their qualifications;

H 3B: *The teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their qualifications.*

A one-way ANOVA was used to establish the relationship between the teachers' perception of the difficulties associated with English and their qualifications. The result was that there was no significant relationship between the teachers' perceived difficulties and their qualifications ($F_{(2, 119)} = 0.631, p = 0.534$).

4.6.2.3 Teachers' perceived difficulties and their length of teaching experience

Hypothesis 3C focused on how significantly the teachers' perceived difficulties will depend on the length of their teaching experience;

H 3C: *The teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on the length of their experience.*

This hypothesis was tested using a one-way *ANOVA* and the results of the test indicated that there was no significant relationship between the teachers' perceived difficulties and the length of their teaching experience ($F_{(4, 119)} = 0.833, p = 0.507$).

4.6.2.4 Teachers' perceived difficulties and their subject disciplines

Hypothesis 3D examines how significantly teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT will depend on their subject disciplines;

H 3D: *The teachers' perceived difficulties about English as a LoLT will significantly depend on their subject discipline.*

This hypothesis was tested using a one-way *ANOVA* and the result ($F_{(3,119)} = 1.170, p = 0.324$) showed that there was no significant relationship between the teachers' subject disciplines and their perceptions.

It is evident in the foregoing discussion that the only significant relationship between teacher perspectives and their biographical attributes is the one between school locality and perceived difficulties. On the other hand, whatever differences there are between the teachers' perceived difficulties and other teacher attributes aside of school locality, these differences are not statistically significant.

When we compare the degree of favourability of English as a LoLT policy across the three broad themes, i.e. attitudes, pedagogical beliefs and perceived difficulties, it can be noted that perceived difficulties have the highest percentage, 90% against 81% for attitudes and 53% for pedagogical beliefs. Some may want to argue that such findings do not really show that the teachers are against English as a LoLT but it must be remembered that the presence of those perceived difficulties in the minds of the respondents point to the fact that implementing a LoLT policy change is unlikely to succeed for logistical reasons. In fact, the score for this section most forcefully demonstrates that pragmatic considerations are a potent factor in shaping teachers' dispositions towards proposed LoLT options. However noble, if the mother tongue LoLT policy fails the practical implementation test, teachers are not likely to endorse it as a wise choice.

Contrary to the finding of the Nziramasanga Commission that public opinion is swaying from English as a LoLT towards mother tongue instruction, in the current study, teachers' attitudes, pedagogical beliefs and perception of difficulties and benefits in regard to English instruction are in fact indicative of a positive disposition towards English as a LoLT. To pick from a range of attitudinal responses to language planning proposals outlined by Crystal (1997) (see Section 2.2), this study shows that the teachers' responses can be characterised as ranging from partial approval to general indifference.

4.7 Teachers' reasons for self-reported LoLT choices

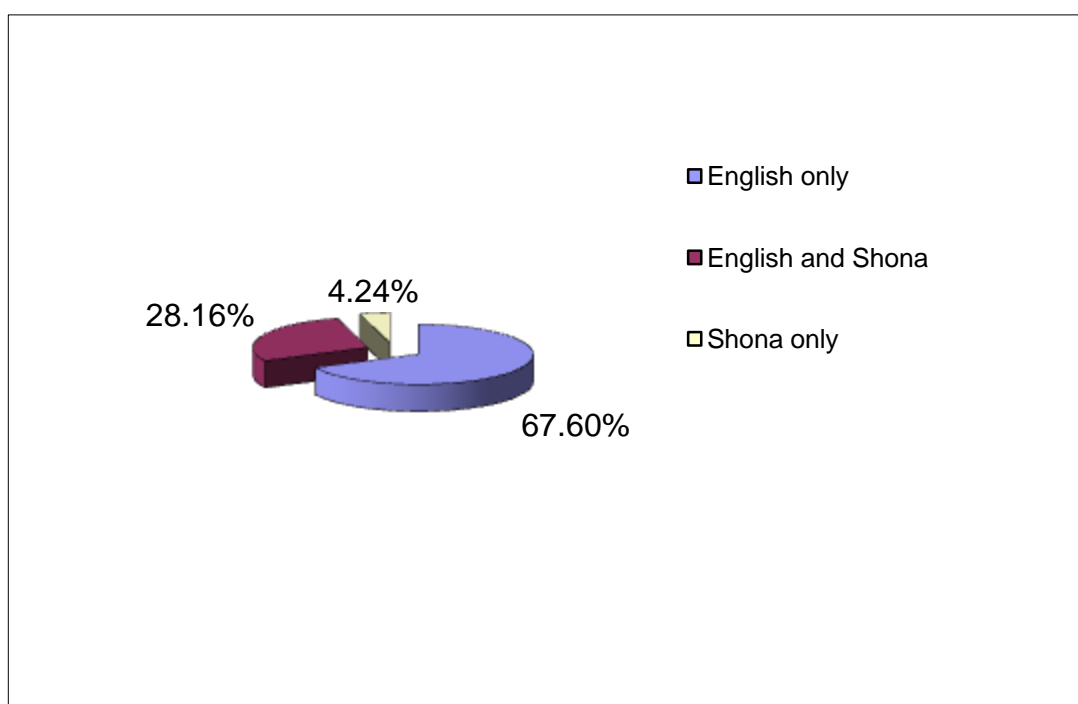
Section E of the questionnaire as well as the interviews that were conducted after the completion of the questionnaires sought the teachers' views on most appropriate LoLT choices that would suit their different contexts. The following section discusses the findings to this part of the questionnaire. Where appropriate, references to specific interviews will be made and in such cases, the informant's code name will be followed by the abbreviation 'Int', for interview, in brackets. Three LoLT policy options were reported in the open-ended section of the questionnaire and the interviews, namely:

- English only in all subjects except languages
- English and Shona in all subjects

- Shona only.

It emerged that the majority of the teachers thought that the prevailing LoLT policy whereby English is used as a LoLT for all subjects except languages in secondary school was indeed an appropriate option. In all, as shown by the pie chart below, slightly more than two-thirds (67.6%) of the teachers opted for this policy, 28.16% chose a combination of English and mother-tongue instruction while the remaining 4.24% reported that exclusive mother-tongue instruction was the most appropriate policy.

Figure 15: Pie chart showing teachers' self-reported LoLT choices



The following section details the reasons for the three LoLT options as reported by the teachers.

4.7.1. English for all subjects except languages

The teachers suggested a number of reasons as to why they thought that the prevailing option in which English was used in all subjects except language subjects was the most appropriate. These reasons are discussed under the following categories:

- Perceived practical benefits to the students
- Difficulties associated with mother-tongue instruction
- Expense associated with mother-tongue instruction
- Divisive nature of mother-tongue instruction
- Disinclination to change
- Personal attachment to English

4.7.1.1 Perceived practical benefits

Two types of perceived benefits featured in the teachers' self-reported LoLT choices i.e. benefits that accrue to the students during their school life and benefits that accrue to the students in their post-school life. The benefits that were reported by the teachers mainly centred on the students and to a lesser extent on themselves. This implies that the teachers were confident in using English as a LoLT. Observations of actual classroom practice as well as responses to the Likert-scale part of the questionnaire largely supported this. I start with benefits that accrue to the learners during their school life.

A number of teachers gave responses that pointed to the pedagogical benefits of using English as the LoLT. The following are some quotations and code names (in brackets) of the teachers who proffered them, to illustrate how they were convinced that studying in English was of practical benefit to the learners:

- Students have been studying curriculum subjects in English since Grade 4, so a medium of instruction changeover should start at primary level (N 3, Int.).
- Students will have to learn mother-tongue translations again, taking away much of their learning time for subject content (N 7, Int.).
- A change in the policy (a change to mother-tongue instruction) would result in less meaningful learning since pupils have no background knowledge of these subjects in any other language that is not English (MT 5).
- English makes pupils improve their communication skills and understanding (MC 1, Int., WN 10).

- It (English) is working well. Everyone has become used to it (MC 10, Int.).
- The majority of pupils are quite good and fluent in English (VC 9).
- The use of mother-tongue instruction creates academic dwarfs and tends to water down the quality of education (VC 7).
- Mother-tongue instruction limits pupils' horizons to their particular tribes (WN 3).
- English has produced good results at the school, so it is effective (VC 1).
- English is easy and precise (VC 9, MT 10, MD 10).
- English proves difficult for children as a second language but pupils grapple with it with interest and varying degrees of success depending on their varying levels of intelligence (VC 10, Int.).
- It enhances pupils' understanding and appreciation of concepts (MD 8).

Though some of the responses here show some cynicism about mother-tongue instruction, for example, the quotation that mother-tongue instruction will produce some academic dwarfs and that it would result in less meaningful learning, other responses show that teachers have an apt understanding of the factors that bear on LoLT practice in secondary schools. Such responses include the difficulties that relate to the interlocking nature of the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education, a factor that is also raised by Obeng (2002:100).

On the other hand, the teachers also mentioned that using English in the teaching of all subjects except language subjects was the most appropriate choice because it met the real practical post-school needs of the learners. Numerous examples were given of how English was of practical relevance in the post-school life of the learners. It was reported that almost all jobs in Zimbabwe required proficiency in English. This echoes the findings of The Nziramasanga Commission (Zimbabwe Government 1999) and Zvobgo (1999). Those who supported this premise gave reasons such as:

- English is the universal language not only of instruction but also for day-to-day communication and transactions of business and even in social circles; therefore pupils stand to benefit immensely from it (MCR 3).
- Use of English as the medium of instruction at this moment is proper because it is the medium in the job market (N 10).

- It (English) is quite in order. It prepares students for the world in which we live, where English is universally accepted (MC 3).
- The job market does not recognise any other languages besides English (N 2).
- For pupils to be enrolled in any institution or to be employed anywhere (MT 15).

Closely related to these perceived benefits was also the widely cited argument of the internationality of English. Those who proffered this argument had the following to say:

- To allow for globalisation in education, continuity in language use, avoid costs of reprinting books (N 1).
- English is an international medium of instruction and should be upheld by the school (MT 11, Int.).
- English is the language of commerce internationally (MT 6).
- Exodus to other countries is currently at peak. Communication with people in the countries in which the Zimbabweans will sojourn will be difficult if they do not know English (VC 12).
- We are now living in a global village therefore English should remain the medium of communication (VC 6).
- This will enable students to be marketable after attaining degrees in all English-speaking countries (MC 10).
- Urban schools are melting points for different races and tribes. It (English) also allows our products to be internationally marketable. Zimbabwe in general and the school in particular is part of a regional and global economy (N 1).

However, such perceived practical benefits as those just outlined above show that the teachers seem to regard English as a LoLT as similar to English as a subject. It may be correct that knowledge of English gives pupils some practical benefits or advantages but such benefits may still accrue to them even if they learn English only as a subject without using it as a medium of instruction. According to Chick (1992:38) attainment of grammatical knowledge, which is the core objective of learning English as a subject, “plays a vital role in facilitating effective communication”. It may therefore be concluded that some secondary school teachers in the Masvingo District have no clear conceptualisation of the difference between using a language

as a LoLT and learning it as a subject, and the consequences thereof. Or perhaps they think that learners will have an inferior proficiency in English if they learn English only as a subject! Webb and Kembo-Sure (2000) acknowledge the practical material benefits associated with knowledge of English but add that such proficiency can equally be acquired from learning English as a subject. Bamgbose (1984) and Collier (1989) as reported in Chapter 2 also show how mother-tongue instruction may in fact aid additional language learning.

Another reason that the teachers gave as to why English must continue to be used as the LoLT is that it is the language of the examinations or that it is the language which has always been used or that most subjects are studied in English. The teachers do not seem to realise that the purpose of the research was to investigate their independent opinions, regardless of what the status quo is. This shows that the teachers are not used to being consulted on issues central to their profession; as a result they take the status quo as given or even sacrosanct. However, such responses can also be attributed to some lack of clarity in the phrasing of the questionnaire items concerned.

The idea of focusing attention on producing graduates primarily for the international market, which a number of teachers gave as one of the reasons why English as LoLT is a good policy, can be also challenged. Each individual country invests resources in training its citizens primarily for itself and not for the international market unless something is somewhat wrong in that country. In any case, as mentioned earlier, even the teaching of English as a subject (without necessarily using it as a LoLT) can still meet a significant portion of local and international market needs.

On the other hand, as Barkhuizen and Gough (1996:460) maintain, most of the benefits anticipated from learning in or learning an additional language are never realised because resorting to instruction in an additional language ruins the chances of academic success not only in the additional language learnt separately as a subject, but also in the other subjects of the curriculum. Macdonald (1990) as well as Godwyll (2002) reaches a similar conclusion as discussed in Chapter 2. Similar fears were expressed in the headline ‘Mother tongue best way to learn: Researchers point fingers at failure of rush at English’ which appeared in *The Star* of

Thursday October 6, 2005 as well as another, albeit less direct headline in the October 17 2005 issue of the same publication, 'Kids' future twisted by tongues' (Sukhraj 2005). Amos Sawyer, in a foreword to Obeng and Hartford (2002:ix), summarises the futility of relying on a LoLT that is not the mother tongue of the learner in the following way: "People cannot perform as citizens and become the engines of their own development processes if their capacity to engage in public discourse and improve upon their own development processes is limited due to the fact that their access to information is hampered because they lack literacy in the language in which they think, give meaning to their environment and chart roadmaps to strive to attain their hopes and aspirations".

Some teachers argued that it was actually important, not only to use English as a LoLT, but indeed to adopt strategies that would lead to a greater proficiency in English. Here are some of the arguments:

- To improve English proficiency, pupils must always communicate in English, read many English novels, watch film in English, debate in English (N 7).
- English should be made compulsory to all pupils even during odd hours at school. If this is effected, their ability to communicate and understand instructions will also improve thereby making it easy to apply it whenever needed (RM 1).

While there is widespread evidence that reading in the target language significantly improves performance in that language e.g. Brown (2000), it must also be born in mind that in language learning, practice does not always make perfect (Lightbown 1985) and that successful learning of an additional language can never be dissociated from L1 cognitive development (Collier 1989).

4.7.1.2 Difficulties associated with mother-tongue instruction

An overwhelming majority of the teachers mentioned the difficulties associated with mother-tongue instruction as some of the most potent challenges that militate against the implementation of mother-tongue instruction. In the words of the respondents;

- There are no textbooks in the mother tongue to teach my subject (MZ 3, MD 4 Int., MT 16, VC6 inter alia).
- The school has other students from Namibia and South Africa whose mother tongue is neither Shona nor Ndebele. There are also Ndebele students. Mother-tongue instruction may hardly work in such a multilingual scenario (MT 6).
- The mother tongue has limited vocabulary (MD 1).
- Use of Shona is not efficient. Students, especially the weaker ones will need to reconstruct the Shona translations for writing purposes. It is more important to ensure that pupils understand concepts, even if they may not be able to convey these concepts in correct English. In addition failing an examination does not mean that one doesn't know or understand (MT 14 Int.).
- English is appropriate because classes are multilingual (MT 15).
- It caters for students of different mother tongues (MCR 5).
- Zimbabwe is a multicultural country, so presence of English is not problematic (MCR 12).
- A changeover to the mother tongue as a medium of instruction has many connotations from a political and social point of view in a bilingual country like Zimbabwe. Shona and Ndebele are major native languages, so elevating one of them to a higher status than that of the other creates disharmony. English as medium of instruction has a unifying factor among the different language speaking people of Zimbabwe (sic) (RF 7).
- Pupils transfer to other stations countrywide, so they should find no LoLT difficulty at new stations (WN 4).
- Teachers were trained to teach in English (MZ 8).
- Not only does the mother tongue have limited vocabulary, it falls far short when it comes to employing euphemisms especially when teaching ethically sensitive concepts such as those in human reproduction. Such deficiency militates against brevity in concept articulation – the bedrock of scientific instruction (RM 12).

All these difficulties were contrasted with English, which the teachers believed would be appropriate because:

- Most learning material is in English (MC 4 Int., WN 4 Int., MCR 12, RM 1 Int. inter alia).
- English is a cost-effective choice because textbooks in English are already available (VC 1).
- Only English dictionaries are available (MT 6, RM 4 Int.).
- It is good (English as a LoLT policy) as English has ready vocabulary for many concepts; this makes it easy for pupils to express their ideas (MT 4).

It can be pointed out that some of the disadvantages of using mother tongue instruction mentioned here are reminiscent of those mentioned by Yankah in the late 1950s when he said that “it is pointless to teach any of the vernacular languages as subjects in schools, for such insignificant and uncultivated local dialects can never become so flexible as to assimilate readily new words and to expand their vocabularies to meet new situations” (Barnard Committee 1959 in Godwyll 2002:134). Such remarks are untenable in the sense that it is known that all languages are capable of expressing anything that needs to be expressed in the culture (in all its dynamism) of its speakers (Wardhaugh 1998) and vocabulary deficiency is only a sign that the language in question has not yet been challenged to come up with the vocabulary. In addition, the fact that some languages are more developed than others “is more a reflection of the uses to which those languages have been put rather than an innate characteristic of those languages or the people who speak them” (Roy-Campbell 2003:86).

4.7.1.3. Expense associated with mother-tongue instruction

Closely related to the difficulties associated with the use of mother-tongue instruction were also arguments about the expense of a LoLT policy changeover to mother-tongue instruction. Here are some of the arguments:

- It’s costly to retrain teachers (MC 7 Int., N 1, N 11 inter alia).
- Changing to mother-tongue instruction is expensive (RF 7, MT 14 Int., N 4 inter alia).
- Changing to a different LoLT policy results in high training costs for teachers to enable them to teach in mother tongue (VC 1).

- English must continue because changing over to another language is costly and time-consuming (MD 7).
- It needs thorough research as well as resource mobilisation at school level as well as at national level (MD 2).

4.7.1.4 The divisive nature of mother tongue instruction

The following statements from some teachers indicate that the teachers had feelings that promotion of mother tongue instruction has divisive outcomes:

- Mother tongue instruction sounds regionalistic (MCR 6).
- Mother tongue instruction is not international (MC 1, N 7 Int., RF 8).
- Mother tongue instruction limits pupils' horizons to their particular tribes or races (MC 10).
- It (English as a LoLT policy) is excellent: the school's catchment area stretches far beyond the borders of Zimbabwe and it must be maintained (MT 5).

Inasmuch as the use of exoglossic languages as LoLT helps unify people from diverse ethnolinguistic backgrounds, it must also be remembered that the use of such languages is not the only precondition for peace and harmony. In Mumpane (2006:19), the Chairman of the Kalanga Language Committee, countered the argument of the unifying nature of exoglossic languages by highlighting that a nation is a nation courtesy of its diversity, including linguistic diversity. Apart from that, the use of a particular LoLT is not an end in itself, but a means to an end i.e. to acquire knowledge about the world. Again, as observed earlier (Section 4.7.1.1), it does not follow that if countries adopt mother tongue instruction policies, their citizens cut ties with any additional or foreign languages that they may need.

4.7.1.5 Disinclination to change

The teachers' responses to the open-ended section of the questionnaire as well as the open interviews also showed that there was a rampant disinclination in the teachers to change their LoLT practice. This supports Meyer's (1998) observation that there are a number of things that

teachers are supposed to be made to understand before they can be expected to react positively to anything that requires them to change their professional practice. Such disinclination was evident in the following statements:

- I think English from the colonial era has been the medium of instruction. As a result, people are used to English, hence students are very much comfortable in the use of that language (RF 9).
- The school should always continue using English since this has been a tradition for centuries (N 6).
- Pupils are now used to this language as a medium of instruction (VC 1).
- Ability to express oneself in English has become a benchmark for prospective students. So we envy the use of English (N 8).
- Let's continue using English since it is now a tradition (MD 12).
- It prevents every educator into becoming a learner in areas where they are already experts (N 1).

4.7.1.6 Personal attachment to English

It is also evident from the teachers' responses that some of them identified rather positively and emotionally with the English language, for example:

- English is a modern language (MC 7).
- The generation growing up is more like an English society, hence using mother tongue will be difficult (N 6).
- Both teacher and learner should, strictly speaking, stick to English as the sole medium of instruction and shun the mother tongue religiously (RM 12).

It is also important to note that RM 12 consistently scored 100% on the attitude scale, pedagogical beliefs scale and perceived difficulties scale, showing his uncompromising allegiance to English as a LoLT. Unfortunately, he was not among those teachers whose classroom practice had been observed. It would have been interesting to compare the teacher's self-reported LoLT choice with his actual LoLT practice.

4.7.2 A combination of English and Shona

Figure 15 in Section 4.7 above shows that more than a quarter (28.16 %) of the teachers thought that an appropriate LoLT policy in their schools should feature both English and Shona. The majority of those who mentioned this option also mentioned that English should be the major language and Shona should only be restricted to specific functions. The following quotations from the interviews and the open-ended section of the questionnaire illustrate the different reasons why the teachers thought that a LoLT policy that combined English and Shona would be the appropriate choice for their different contexts:

- We must use Shona for oral explanations but encourage them (students) to write in English. Use of Shona improves the understanding of students (N 4 Int.).
- Use of Shona puts pupils at ease and gives them a sense of belonging (N 5).
- English should be the medium of instruction but also concepts may be stressed or exemplified in the vernacular (N 8).
- Students understand concepts more when they are presented in their mother language than in a foreign language like English. English would help pupils prepare for national examinations, which use English as the medium of examining most subjects (N 9).
- Shona must be used for clarification (MD 3, MT 16, MC 1, MCR 5).
- School has average to below-average students, so these will benefit from mother-tongue instruction (RM 6).
- Total reliance on English results in students finding it difficult to understand and participate (MD 7 Int).
- Shona to be used here and there; using Shona for the greater part and using mother tongue when really necessary to explain crucial concepts (RF 5).
- To facilitate easy mastering of concepts (MC 7 Int.).

- Use English as the official language but use native language where appropriate without disadvantaging any of the students (RF 4).
- Native language clears off misconceptions that may be difficult for pupils to understand (RF 3 Int.).
- English should not be removed completely as a medium of instruction as it is an international language. However, it should be restricted to certain subjects that require it as medium of instruction e.g. English Language itself (N 9).
- The English as a LoLT policy should be changed because students whose mother tongue is not English have problems understanding a lesson conducted wholly in English (MT 14).
- English must be used but it must be complemented with Shona especially in the clarification of concepts (MZ 2).

These quotations show that 28.16% of the teachers realise the pedagogical benefits of using the learners' mother tongue, thus they are ready to compromise between English and Shona. However, their mentioning the fact that English should be used because it is the language of instruction again reflects that the teachers take things for granted and do not reflect deeply on how educational policy affects their professional lives. It can be noted that the teachers perceive the importance of Shona in terms of that of a crutch only to be used off the record. Again it can also be noted that one reason why the teachers have such perceptions is that there are a number of pedagogical constraints attendant upon the exclusive use of Shona as the LoLT, as discussed earlier.

4.7.3 Shona only

Finally, 4.24% of the teachers said that Shona only would be the most appropriate LoLT policy and they gave the following reasons:

- It is the home language for most students (N 9).
- Pupils can express themselves fluently and confidently in their mother tongue (RF 9).
- It is the most widely used language in the area (RM 8, WN 4 Int.).

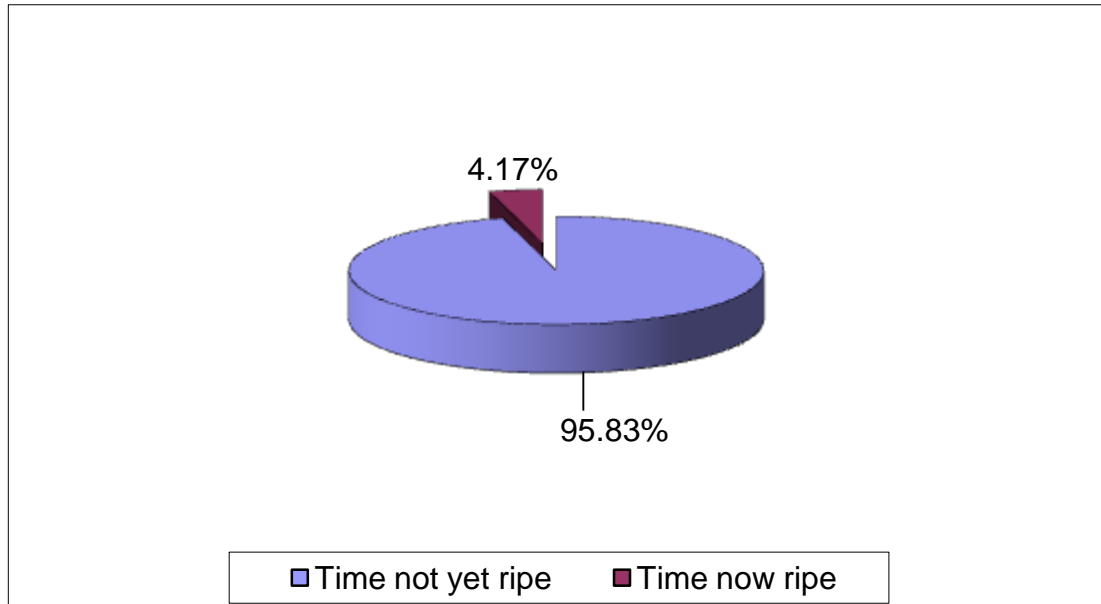
- English is a colonial language and learners do not really understand it in the classroom (MZ 1).
- It's not good to continue with English because it generates inferiority complex in my pupils. Pupils should learn to admire and appreciate their own language and run away from colonial perceptions that English is a superior language (RF 5).
- Not all teachers, let alone pupils, are proficient in English. Restricting instruction to English increases limitations in pupils (RF 11).
- English makes it difficult for pupils to understand concepts since it is a second language (N 9).
- Politically, it perpetuates the colonial mentality that English is taken as a superior language to mother tongue (WN 4).
- This is because all classes are composed of Shona-speaking people; hence the mother-tongue language is ideal to be used at the school (MZ 4).

These responses show that the teachers have a deep understanding of the pedagogical benefits of the mother tongue, though some of the responses seem to be untempered with practical considerations and border on the radical, which Obeng (2002: 77) warns will not work.

4.8 Teachers' self-reported determination of the readiness of time for LoLT policy changeover

Of the 120 teachers who responded to the open-ended section of the questionnaire, the majority expressed the view that time was not yet ripe for their different schools to switch to mother tongue instruction. The proportion of those who reported that the time was not yet ripe and those who felt that it was time for change is represented graphically below:

Figure 16: Teachers' opinions as to whether or not time is ripe for LoLT changeover.



4.8.1 Self-reported reasons for time not being ripe yet

The teachers who reported that time was not yet ripe for their schools to switch over to mother tongue instruction gave reasons such as meagre resources, expense, need for retraining of teachers, resources that have not yet been translated into or published in the mother tongue for the different subjects and the most suitable mother tongue to play that role has not been identified. There were responses such as the following:

- Mother tongue instruction has been overtaken by events and changeover may be costly and take considerable time (RF 14).
- There is no literature and pamphlets written in Shona. Production of these is costly and requires experts to translate reading material to Shona. We block communication with the outside world for trade purposes and other reasons if we resort to turning the mother tongue into the official medium of instruction (RF 7).

4.8.2 Self-reported reasons for time being ripe

A small minority (4.24%) of teachers who gave these responses argued thus:

- There is never a time when time will be ripe. The changeover must be viewed as a process and not as an event and the process must begin as early as possible (N 9).
- Time has always been ripe because most pupils cannot communicate proficiently in English. (MC 2).
- More than 27 years after independence, this should have been put in place a long time ago (RM 8).

4.9 The observed LoLT practice of teachers

As indicated in Chapter 3, classroom observations were meant to check the validity of the teachers' responses to the questionnaire items and to further probe the reasons for the teachers' thinking and practice. It emerged from the classroom observations that the disharmony between LoLT policy and practice was only minimal. Most departures from the official LoLT policy also seemed off the record but were in fact integral components of classroom instruction. However, it was interesting to note that the classroom sessions that were observed contrasted with lessons shown on the 'Extra Lesson' programme on ZBC Television in which teachers painstakingly used only the English language throughout their lessons. It must also be noted that the lessons beamed on television appeared more formal and rather artificial than the live lessons that were observed for this study.

Confirming findings by Meyer (1998), it was observed that, both teachers and pupils departed from the LoLT policy only in the oral modes of communication. However the critical question was not whether or not disharmony between the LoLT policy and practice existed and to what extent, but was to do with the factors that give rise to a departure from the official LoLT policy.

It was observed that departures from the prescribed LoLT policy were mainly in the form of code switching. The observations revealed that switching performed many classroom management, social and pedagogical functions (Nwoye 1992; Canagarajah 1993; Adendorf

1993; Faleni 1993; Holmarsdottir 2007). It seems that conveyance of solidarity, humour, classroom management strategy, clarification and emphasis of difficult concepts and poor command of English by pupils were among these functions. These factors are explained below and are based on the classroom observations.

4.9.1 Classroom management

Many of the observations showed that teachers adopted the modality splitting strategy i.e. the reservation of specific codes or channels of communication for distinct functions (Canagarajah 1993:179) between Shona and English. It was evident that departures to Shona were mainly used for maintenance of classroom management while English was mainly used for content transmission. The following example from a Form 2 (Grade 9) Accounting lesson on three-column cashbooks illustrates that:

- Now the first thing that we want to do is divide our page into relevant columns. You should remember from yesterday how we go about drawing the columns. We shall do this in groups. Division of labour-*ka. Vamwe vachiita izvi, vamwe vachiitawo izvi.* [You should appreciate the importance of division of labour. Some will do this and others will do that] (MT 1).

This example shows that the teacher (MT 1) departs from the official LoLT policy when he is giving instructions on how the class is going to conduct itself in carrying out classroom activities. This is a typical classroom management strategy informed by modality splitting as the large proportion of the lesson is conducted in English.

It can also be argued that in this example, the teacher is also trying to clarify to the students the concept of ‘division of labour’ that he feels learners may not have understood. Thus he goes on to render the Shona equivalent of ‘division of labour’. This confirms Canagarajah’s (1993) observation that code switching can be used as vehicle for clarifying, explaining, exemplifying, reformulating and qualifying during the transmission of learning matter. Though we will notice below that students’ switches to the mother tongue might be a result of linguistic limitations in

the official LoLT, here it is evident that teachers' switches are not a result of linguistic incompetence.

Another episode in the same lesson that shows that the teacher is reserving Shona for classroom management purposes was when he said, some five minutes into the group activity, to a straggling student:

- *Hausati watanga?* [You haven't even started?] (MT 1).
- *Kana tichirula torula takaita sei?*[How do we go about ruling the page?] (Learner A1).
- *Uyo akwanisa wani kurula. Zvokurovha ndozvandisingadi.* [But your colleague there has finished. You are in the habit of bunking lessons and I don't condone that] (MT 1).

In this episode, the teacher switches to Shona when he chides a student for being slow. The teacher proceeds to condemn, in Shona, the tendency of the student to absent herself from lessons.

There are of course scholars (e.g. Kgomoewana 1993) who argue that code switching prevents the learners from experiencing how certain messages are communicated in the target language (usually the LoLT). This is a sound argument in the sense that, in the example above, if the teacher had used the English version to chide the learner, the class in general and the concerned learner in particular, could have learnt how to chide in English. However, by switching to the learner's mother tongue, the teacher foregoes the opportunity of speaking in English in favour of the more pressing and immediate need to discipline. When the questionnaire response to statement 32 'I believe that my students' knowledge of subject content is more important than language skills' was rechecked, it was found that the teacher indeed responded to the statement in the affirmative. It can therefore be surmised from this that at the school concerned the idea of English across the curriculum that Macdonald (1990) as well as Kgomoewana (1993) suggests as one way of improving competence in the LoLT or target language is not recognised.

We note in this example that the student asks the teacher a question in Shona. It can be argued that the student resorts to Shona because that is the language in which the teacher has initiated the exchange with her. Furthermore, it is equally plausible to argue that the student believes that if she asks her question in the mother tongue, the teacher, who in turn may also offer an explanation in the same language, will understand the question unambiguously. In such a scenario it becomes evident that some learners resort to the use of the mother tongue because they are conscious of their limitations in the official LoLT. Such limitations were actually witnessed, even in Form 6 (Grade 13) students, for example:

- Sunshine will be short [for the concept that crops will be competing for sunshine] (Learner G1).
- The government must also chip in with subsidies [for subsidies] so that farmers do not buy inputs at market rates (Learner G2).
- The Agribank is useful to farmers like... like to...giving loans to farmers (Learner G3).
- Fertilisers add more manure [for fertility] to the soil (Learner G4).

There were some sniggers from some sections of the classroom when such grammatically incorrect sentences were uttered. Inspection of the learners' exercise books and examination scripts showed similar linguistic inaccuracies. Such findings tallied with the teachers' responses to the questionnaire instrument in which the teachers admitted that a majority of their learners were "weak" to "mediocre" and would therefore benefit from the use of mother-tongue instruction. However, something that seems to perpetuate such linguistic inaccuracies is the fact that in the interviews with the teachers who were professional examiners of content subjects, they said that students' examination answers that were fraught with language errors would pass for correct answers as long as the answers communicated the desired content.

Another example in which code switching was used to control disruptive behaviour in the class was witnessed in a Form 6 (Grade 13) Geography class in which the teacher said:

- Those who are chatting to themselves *vasingingateereri zviru ku-present-wa ndichakukiyai chaizvo* if you get less than 14 *pa-test ye-Friday*. [Those who are busy chatting to themselves and not listening to what is being presented, I'll deal with you effectively if you score less than 14 on the test coming on Friday] (RM 4).
- *Chitoitai zveshamhu chaiyo*, Sir. [Actually use a whip, Sir] (Learner G 1).

This example also shows, just as the first example that some learners depart from the official LoLT once they notice that the teacher has switched from it. Slabbert and Finlayson (2002) make a similar point. It would be tenable to argue here that learners read a switch from the official LoLT as a toning down of the formality degree of the lesson and they also thus adjust accordingly.

The reservation of the mother tongue for classroom management purposes, this time not necessarily to check disruptive behaviour or maintain classroom discipline, was also evident in a Form 3 (Grade 10) Mathematics lesson in which the teacher (MD 11) asks the class to clap hands for a learner who has successfully worked out a solution to an algebraic problem on the chalkboard. The teacher says:

- *Maoko panonakidzirawo kani* [Come on, we should always clap hands after a good showing from our colleagues] (MD 11).

After another laudable performance from a different student, the teacher also said:

- *Aha, maoko iwayo*. [Yes! Come on, let's clap hands for her as usual] (MD 11).

The same teacher also switched to Shona to create emphasis and humour. After a student had asked a question, the teacher replied:

- *Zvatinoita apa* is very simple. Minus sign *yako inyore ruviri*. *Munoziva*, Maths *yose iri paminus sign*. *Ukainyora ruviri, inopfavisa zvinhu zvako*. *Zvinopfava kuita semambava ekiti*. [What we do here is very simple. You have to write your minus sign twice. You know, all Mathematics rests on the minus sign. If you write the minus sign twice, it renders your task very soft (meaning simple). As soft as the fur of a cat] (MD 11).

The class sniggers in response to this.

Here injecting humour into lesson delivery augurs well with the communicative approach to teaching, which discourages teachers from conducting themselves in a cold and authoritarian manner. Thus humour based on the children's mother tongue may be understood as a pedagogical strategy meant to address the learning needs of the class by promoting a friendly environment. Apart from that, such humour is also a sign of solidarity with the learners on the part of the teacher. Thus code switching may indeed be taken as a potent communicative resource (Canagarajah 1995, Mesthrie 2000, Holmarsdottir 2007) that a sensitive and innovative teacher has at his or her disposal.

4.9.2 Content transmission

It was also determined from classroom observations that one of the roles that code switching played in the classroom is that it may be used during content transmission as a contextualisation cue that alerts pupils to what is coming – a kind of advance organiser (Adendorf 1993). The following example from a Form 4 (Grade 11) Agriculture lesson illustrates this function:

- *Saka*, [So] you will realise that if the terrain is rugged, operation of agricultural machinery is hampered (N 7).

Here, the teacher has switched to Shona to signal to his audience that he was now about to give a kind of summary or conclusion to an earlier explanation. A similar contextualising strategy was observed in a Form 5 (Grade 12) Physics lesson in which the teacher said:

- *Pane ane mubvunzo here pa-speed... OK...ngatitarisei* velocity. [Anyone with a question on the concept 'speed'. Ok, let's go ahead and look at velocity] (VC 10).

Apart from indicating that the teacher is using code switching as a transitional device from one segment of the lesson to another, this example also shows that the teacher departs from the official LoLT to invite questions from the class. Such a switch, apart from being a marker of

solidarity between the teacher and the learners, could also be a strategy to make the learners feel free to ask questions. The teacher seems to understand that sometimes learners shy away from asking questions and by switching to a less formal home language, he could encourage the learners to loosen up and pose questions. This is a pedagogical strategy.

Some episodes of the lesson also yielded findings to the effect that departures from the official LoLT were meant to facilitate clarification, reformulation, reinforcing or qualifying of concepts. For example:

- *Handiti rugged terrain munoiziva? Nzvimbo yakaita sepaSosera paya, tichienda kwaNyika.* You can hardly use a tractor in such a terrain. [Should I believe you know what a rugged terrain is? An area like the vicinity of Sosera on our way to Nyika (N 7).

Here, the teacher has switched to Shona in order to clarify through an example the meaning of the phrase ‘rugged terrain’. There is certainly nothing wrong with such a practice because the teacher’s professional obligation is to make sure that the learners understand what he is teaching and we know that conceptualisation of any phenomenon is usually more successful and authentic in one’s mother tongue. It would be reasonable to argue from this example that the teacher is a rational communicator who is sensitive to his audience, the learners. It would not make sense, for example, for a teacher to rumble on in English to a sea of bemused faces because the teacher is very proficient in English or because a piece of legislation insists on the use of English as the LoLT. Furthermore, sticking religiously to any LoLT policy could compromise the teachers’ sense of plausibility i.e. a personal conceptualisation of how a teacher’s teaching leads to desired learning (Prabhu 1990, Holmarsdottir 2007).

As far as code switching between learners is concerned, it was found that learners are less bound to adhere to the official LoLT policy than teachers. It was noted that there is a slight difference in the code switching patterns of the teachers and the learners with the teachers using more of code switching than code mixing.

Few lessons featured opportunities for student-to-student interaction. However, the few that had such interaction showed that mixing Shona and English morphemes and lexemes were the unmarked choice (Herbert 1992). The following are some of the utterances from the learners, which were noted during the classroom observations:

- *Endaka unopresent-a* (Learner M1).
- *Handikwanisi sha-a* (Learner M2).
- First *uno-deal-a nezviri muma*-brackets, then *wozoita* addition and subtraction (Learner M1).
- *Uka-add-a idzi dziri* two, then *inobva yaita* 3m. This one *haugoni kui-expand-a* because *hapana ma*-common terms (Learner M2).

Even though most of the learners expressed themselves in a mixture of English and Shona, various teachers were not really concerned about it. Neither did they show that anything was amiss with the language being used. This supports the findings of item 16 in the questionnaire according to which the teachers in question responded in the negative to the statement that ‘I prefer that my students do their group/pair work in their mother tongue.’

From the foregoing discussion, it is evident that despite some shortcomings that departures from the official LoLT policy might have, such departures, which were largely in the form of code switching, are by and large an important pedagogical resource that teachers must not feel ashamed to use. Dismissing code switching from the classroom on the grounds that it reduces the learner’s exposure to the LoLT, or that incompetent teachers may seize upon it as an avoidance strategy is like, as the Igbo proverb says, throwing away the baby with the bath water. Instead, aspirant teachers should be sensitised on the potential and effects of code switching so that they become sociolinguistically sensitive and judicious. This will equip them with strategies to handle LoLT issues in the classroom, including ways in which an important pedagogical resource such as code switching may be used systematically and purposefully in classroom instruction.

4.10 Conclusion

This chapter has reported findings from the three major instruments used to collect the data, namely, the questionnaire, the open interviews and the classroom observations. Findings from these instruments indicate that by and large, secondary school teachers prefer the use of English as a LoLT.

It was also found out that from the array of factors that had been hypothesised to significantly affect the teachers' perspectives on English as a LoLT, only one; school locality (the rural or urban situation of the school) significantly affected the attitudes and the perceived difficulties of teachers. The teachers' pedagogical beliefs about English as a LoLT were found to be independent of school locality. The other factors, i.e. qualifications, length of teaching experience and subject discipline were found not to have a significant effect on the teachers' perspectives.

In regard to classroom practice, it was observed that teachers also seem to depart from the official policy only in the oral modes of communication. One wonders whether this is what constitutes the inadequate implementation of the LoLT policy reported in the Nziramasanga Commission Report. (See Chapter 1).

The following chapter concludes the study by highlighting the significance of the study as well as its limitations and also summarising the major conclusions of the study and the recommendations emanating from it.

Chapter 5

Conclusion: Summary and implications

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the research study by recapitulating the research problem and the methods that were used to investigate it. The chapter then proceeds to summarise the findings of the study before highlighting the contribution, limitations and implications of the study as well as suggestions for further research.

5.2 Summary

This study was designed to investigate the perspectives of secondary school teachers on English as a language of learning and teaching. The questionnaires, interviews and observation of classroom practice that were used to investigate the teachers' perspectives yielded the following results:

- Teachers have a positive attitude towards English as a LoLT.
- Teachers' pedagogical beliefs are in support of English as a LoLT.
- Teachers perceive mother-tongue instruction as presenting more difficulties than English instruction though they acknowledge the disadvantages of English as a LoLT.
- Teachers' actual LoLT practice show that they only depart from the official LoLT policy to a negligible degree (only in the oral mode) and when they do so, it is mainly a pedagogical strategy meant to achieve content transmission and classroom management goals.
- There is no significant difference in perspectives i.e. attitudes, pedagogical beliefs and perceived difficulties, between rural teachers and urban teachers though urban teachers have a slightly more positive disposition towards English as a LoLT.

Against this background, it can be surmised that the recommendations by the Nziramasanga Commission that Shona and Ndebele be upgraded in status to serve as LoLTs alongside English

is a planning activity by government which can be described as ostensibly educational but in reality political. Government understands the potency of mother tongues as media of instruction but seems not to have the logistical capacity and will to implement mother tongue instruction, particularly in secondary schools, hence playing to the gallery and posturing for political mileage.

5.3 Contribution of the study

A majority of previous studies on teacher perspectives have largely focused on self-reported information by teachers e.g. Munby (1984), Chiwome et al. 1992, Johnson (1992) Sabatini et al. (2000), Ejieh (2004), Iyamu and Ogiegbaen (2007), amongst others. This study, in addition to the self-reported information, also examines teacher perspectives in the form of empirical observation of secondary school LoLT practice.

The study also moves from merely determining, in quantitative terms, the extent of fit or disharmony between the LoLT policy and practice to investigating, using concrete examples from classroom practice, the factors that gave rise to teachers' non-compliance with the official LoLT policy.

Also, in terms of the Zimbabwean context in which the study was carried out, the study diminishes the dearth of teacher perspectives on LoLT policy in Zimbabwe. (Worldwide, teachers are neglected in many research studies that concern educational policies.)

Above all, this study, having been provoked largely by the findings of the Nziramasanga Commission, which did not consult teachers as a separate group, provides the crucial perspectives of teachers in regard to English as a LoLT. Such perspectives have the potential to influence the timing of the implementation of mother tongue instruction in Zimbabwe.

5.4 Limitations of the study

This study used a sample of 120 teachers in a district with more than 50 secondary schools each with an average of about 30 teachers. This could compromise the generalisability of the findings but the smaller sample made it possible to provide more depth than breadth in the analysis.

Secondly, regarding classroom observations, it would also have been desirable to observe the classroom practice of each teacher more than once to minimise the negative impact of observer effect, but time and financial constraints militated against this. Against this background, in future, researchers could consider carrying out more classroom observation sessions per teacher in order to elicit increased and more reliable data regarding teachers' LoLT practice.

5.5 Implications of the study and suggestions for further research

It emerged in this study that the majority of teachers have positive attitudes and pedagogical beliefs towards English as a LoLT. It also emerged that such perspectives are influenced by the fact that the alternative to English LoLT, mother tongue instruction, is riddled with difficulties such as underdeveloped vocabulary, limited textbooks and other learning-teaching media as well as the use of English as a LoLT in teacher training institutions. This should persuade government and policy makers to moot programs in which mother tongue instruction receives meaningful financial and material support. Such support will make the production and rewriting of textbooks and dictionaries across the secondary school curriculum possible.

The recommendation above has, admittedly, become an adage over the years but it has been seen from this study that the LoLT debate is essentially not only a political but also an economic debate (Janks 2005), so African countries intending to use their indigenous languages as LoLT must work hard on the economic front to ensure that such policies, for a long time dubbed 'noble but impractical,' receive all the necessary support and one day see the light of day.

In addition, following the observation that some teachers gave somewhat naïve and unwitting responses to statements that probed their perspectives on English as a LoLT, it is recommended that teachers be educated on the implications and effects of different language policies.

Furthermore, in the face of prospective LoLT policy changeover, it would also be imperative to establish teacher in-service training programs. Such programs must feature, *inter alia*, topics on the role of code switching since it was observed in this study that code switching is an important content transmission and classroom management resource. All these recommendations, however, require not only financial and material resources, but also commitment and passion on the part of all LoLT policy stakeholders.

Finally, against the background that some factors that affect learner academic performance have been found to be unrelated to the language of learning and teaching, it is also imperative that research be conducted in different and specific contexts so that context-specific factors that affect the academic performance of learners can be established.

Overall, the findings of this study need to be complemented by similar studies in other districts and provinces of Zimbabwe so that a cross-comparison of the findings of each district is possible. Once this is done, LoLT policies that are appropriate to each district can be developed and recommended for adoption.

As Davis (1999) observes, there is a need for further research in the area of strategies that can be used to change the attitudes of teachers. Once such strategies are established, learners in Zimbabwe and in Africa may be able to benefit from instruction in their own mother tongues. This can only happen if teachers' perspectives (which this study has shown to be negative) towards mother tongue instruction become positive.

5.6 Conclusion

Instruction in an additional language is fraught with a number of problems that the use of mother tongue can certainly offset if its potential is tapped. This study has shown that in spite of these

disadvantages, secondary school teachers have a positive perspective on English as a LoLT. It also emerged from the study that the majority of secondary school teachers are aware of the critical role that the mother tongue plays in the learning-teaching process. On face value, it appears as if there is some ambivalence on the part of the teachers but it must be remarked that such perspectives are an acknowledgement that once logistical obstacles bedevilling mother tongue instruction are dealt with, teachers' perspectives will probably realign themselves accordingly, hence the need for financial and material support, commitment and passion on the part of governments and policy makers. Thus the 'noble but impractical' curse dogging many education systems and LoLT policies in Africa may be exorcised.

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APPENDIX A: THE QUESTIONNAIRE INSTRUMENT

PERSPECTIVES OF SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS ON LANGUAGE IN EDUCATION ISSUES

Please complete all the sections of this survey instrument appropriately. Your understanding and co-operation will be sincerely appreciated.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. Name of your school: _____

2. Your qualifications: _____

3. Any other training you have: _____

4. What is the length of your teaching experience in years: **(Please tick as appropriate)**

0 - 5

6 - 10

11 - 15

16 - 20

21+

5. What is your mother tongue? _____

6. If you have more than one mother tongue, please state the other/s.

7. In which language or languages were you trained to teach your subject?

8. In which area is your school? **(Please tick as appropriate)**

Rural

Urban

9. To which level do you devote most of your teaching time? **(Please tick as appropriate)**

Zimbabwe Junior Certificate (ZJC)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Ordinary Level (O Level)	<input type="checkbox"/>
Advanced Level (A Level)	<input type="checkbox"/>

10. Which subject do you teach most? **(Please state one)** _____

11. How many pupils, on average, are in your classes **(Please tick as appropriate)**

0 - 24	<input type="checkbox"/>	25 -34	<input type="checkbox"/>
35 -44	<input type="checkbox"/>	45-49	<input type="checkbox"/>
50+	<input type="checkbox"/>		

12. How many classes do you teach? _____

13. What is the mother tongue composition of your classes? **(Please complete the table below)**

Class	ChiShona	IsiNdebele	Other (Specify)
E.g. 3a1	36	2	TshiTshangana (1)

SECTION B: ATTITUDES

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements by ticking under the response of your choice. You may make only one tick for each statement.

		RESPONSES				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	STATEMENTS					
14	I am against the current policy in which English is the medium of instruction in my school.					
15	I think that English should be replaced with mother tongue as medium of instruction in my school.					
16	I prefer that my students do their group/pair work in their mother tongue.					
17	I prefer that my learners give oral answers in their mother tongue in my subject.					
18	I admire students who communicate fluently in English during lessons.					
19	I feel that my school is not yet ready to replace English with mother tongue instruction.					
20	I have a personal attachment to English as part of my identity.					
21	Teaching my subject in English gives me satisfaction.					
22	I am keen on my students answering oral questions in English.					
23	I am of the opinion that mother-tongue instruction is good in principle.					
24	Teaching my subject in the mother tongue gives me satisfaction.					
25	I think that using English as a medium of instruction reduces the participation levels of my learners in my classes.					
26	I would love to teach my subject in the mother tongue.					

SECTION C: PEDAGOGICAL BELIEFS

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements by ticking under the response of your choice. You may make only one tick for each statement.

STATEMENT		RESPONSES				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
27	I believe that the English medium of instruction negatively affects the performance of learners in examinations					
28	I believe that if mother-tongue instruction were to be introduced in my school, this would give learners advantages.					
29	I think that I can teach my subject better through the medium of English.					
30	I believe that my students are more motivated if I explain concepts in their mother tongue.					
31	I think that I can teach my subject more efficiently through the medium of English.					
32	I believe that my students' knowledge of subject content is more important than language skills.					
33	I think that the advantages of learning through the medium of English outweigh the disadvantages.					

SECTION D: PERCEIVED DIFFICULTIES

Please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement with each of the following statements by ticking under the response of your choice. You may make only one tick for each statement.

STATEMENTS		RESPONSES				
		Strongly agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly disagree
34	It is difficult for me to teach my subject in any other language except English.					
35	I think that English is an unsuitable language for teaching my subject.					
36	I feel that the textbooks that I use for teaching my subject have difficult English.					
37	I am not proficient enough to teach effectively in English.					
38	There are not enough textbooks in the mother tongue in my subject.					
39	The mother tongue has limited vocabulary for use in my subject.					
40	It seems my students have difficulties explaining concepts in English.					
41	My learners seem to find it difficult to understand concepts explained in English.					

SECTION E: GENERAL

(Please write your responses in the spaces provided)

42.

(a) Describe the medium of instruction policy you think suits your school best:

(b) Give reasons for your choice:

43.

(a) Do you believe that time is not yet ripe for your school to make a medium of instruction changeover to mother tongue?

(b) Give reasons for your answer:

44. What in your opinion needs to be done to prepare for mother tongue instruction in your school?

45. Express an opinion about the use of English as a medium of instruction in your school?

Please accept my thanks for completing this questionnaire. I am sincerely grateful for your time and effort. If you have any suggestions or comments about the questionnaire, please write them on the space provided below.

COMMENTS:

**APPENDIX B: SCORES ON THE ATTITUDE, PEDAGOGICAL BELIEFS AND PERCEIVED DIFFICULTIES SCALE
(CONSOLIDATED RESULTS)**

Code of teacher	School locality	Qualifications	Experience	Department	Mother Tongue	Language Trained To Teach	Levels mostly taught	Mother Tongue Composition Of Class	Attitude score	Pedagogical belief score	Perceived difficulties score	Mean score
MT 1	R	DipEd., BEd.	6-10	C	Sh	E	O	HMG	76.92	54.25	72.50	67.90
MT 2	R	DipEd., BEd.	11-15	C	Sh	E	O	VRG	93.38	77.14	82.50	71.89
MT 3	R	BA., MBA	16-20	C	Sh	E	A	VRG	60.00	40.00	75.00	74.45
MT 4	R	DipEd., BEd.	11-15	C	Sh	E	O	VRG	92.30	88.57	77.50	68.93
MT 5	R	BscEd.	0-5	H	Sh	E	O	VRG	80.00	62.86	75.00	75.39
MT 6	R	CE, BA	16-20	H	Sh	E	O	HMG	81.54	77.14	67.50	72.62
MT 7	R	BA., PGDE	6-10	H	Sh	E	O	VRG	67.69	25.71	55.00	49.47
MT 8	R	DipEd.	6-10	P	Sh, Shg	E	O	VRG	86.15	68.57	72.50	81.21
MT 9	R	BEnv.Sci.	0-5	P	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	90.77	82.86	70.00	75.74
MT 10	R	DipEd.,DipTex.	0-5	P	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	73.85	54.29	62.50	72.48
MT 11	R	DipEd.	0-5	P	Sh	E	O	VRG	78.46	82.86	85.00	83.79
MT 12	R	CE.,BA.	16-20	P	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	81.54	60.00	70.00	63.70
MT 13	R	CE.,BEd.	21+	S	Sh	E	O	VRG	75.38	65.71	80.00	74.34
MT 14	R	CE., BEd., MPhil.	16-20	S	Sh	E	O	HMG	56.92	57.14	62.50	58.85
MT 15	R	DipEd., BSc.	6-10	S	Sh	E	O	HMG	72.30	65.71	85.00	76.63
MT 16	R	BScEd.	6-10	S	Sh	E	O	HMG	78.46	71.43	80.00	73.70
MZ 1	R	AL	0-5	C	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	49.23	51.43	70.00	65.81
MZ 2	R	DipEd.	0-5	C	Sh	E, Sh	O	HMG	60.00	51.43	67.50	72.62
MZ 3	R	AL	0-5	C	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	66.15	45.71	62.50	74.06
MZ 4	R	BA., Grad CE.	6-10	H	Sh	E	O	HMG	69.23	48.57	62.50	60.21
MZ 5	R	DipEd., BEd.	11-15	P	Sh	E	O	VRG	66.15	48.57	65.00	60.06
MZ 6	R	DipAgric.	6-10	P	Sh	E, Sh	O	HMG	70.76	65.71	62.50	68.20

MZ 7	R	BEd.	16-20	P	Sh.	Sp.	ZJC	HMG	60.00	51.43	80.00	74.30
MZ 8	R	DipEd., BEd.	6-10	S	Sh	E	O	HMG	75.38	57.14	65.00	65.96
RF 1	R	BScEd., CIS	16-20	C	Sh.	E	A	HMG	69.23	51.43	75.00	65.22
RF 2	R	DipEd.	6-10	C	Sh.	E	ZJC	VRG	80.00	74.29	82.50	80.70
RF 3	R	BA. Grad.CE.	6-10	H	Sh	E	O	VRG	67.69	57.14	55.00	43.30
RF 4	R	CE.,BAEd.	16-20	H	Sh.	E	A	VRG	61.54	82.86	90.00	78.93
RF 5	R	BA., Grad.CE.	6-10	H	Sh	E	O	HMG	38.46	31.43	60.00	78.13
RF 6	R	BA	6-10	H	Sh.	E	ZJC	VRG	61.54	45.71	62.50	56.58
RF 7	R	CE.,BA	21+	H	Sh	E	A	VRG	80.00	54.29	70.00	68.10
RF 8	R	MEd.	0-5	H	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	93.85	85.71	87.50	89.02
RF 9	R	CEAgric.,DipEd.	16-20	P	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	26.15	40.00	55.00	40.38
RF 10	R	BEd., DipTheo.	16-20	P	Sh	Sp	O	HMG	70.77	51.43	70.00	64.80
RF 11	R	DipEd., DipComp.	21+	S	Sh	E, Sp	O	HMG	50.77	45.71	65.00	53.83
RF 12	R	BEd.	21+	S	Sh	E, Sp	O	VRG	69.23	57.14	70.00	58.94
RF 13	R	BSc.,DipBib.	0-5	S	Sh	E	O	HMG	41.54	27.71	80.00	49.75
RF14	R	DipEd.,BScEd.	11-15	S	Sh	E	O	HMG	55.38	51.43	70.00	64.07
RM 1	R	BSc.	0-5	C	Sh	E	O	HMG	75.38	57.14	87.50	76.04
RM 2	R	DipEd., BEd.	11-15	C	Sh	E	O	VRG	80.00	65.71	67.50	58.55
RM 3	R	DipEd.	0-5	C	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	64.61	51.43	70.00	77.06
RM 4	R	BA	0-5	H	Sh	E	A	HMG	72.30	74.29	87.50	76.77
RM 5	R	BA	0-5	H	Sh	E	A	HMG	80.00	65.71	80.00	75.24
RM 6	R	BA	0-5	H	Sh.	E	A	HMG	89.23	68.57	72.50	78.03
RM 7	R	DipEd.	0-5	P	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	75.38	65.71	65.00	68.70
RM 8	R	DipEd.	16-20	P	Sh	E	O	HMG	35.38	28.57	70.00	44.65
RM 9	R	DipEd.,DipTerEd. DipAgric, BSc.	16-20	P	Sh	E	O	HMG	47.69	54.28	55.00	76.57
RM 10	R	DipEd.	0-5	S	Sh	E	O	HMG	81.54	82.56	87.50	83.97
RM 11	R	BEd.	11-15	S	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	67.69	74.29	77.50	74.77
RM 12	R	DipEd., BScEd.	6-10	S	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	100.00	100.00	100.00	61.34

WN 1	R	BEd.	16-20	C	Sh	E, Sh	ZJC	HMG	73.85	57.14	62.50	64.50
WN 2	R	DipEd.	6-10	C	Sh	E	O	VRG	38.46	60.00	60.00	80.93
WN 3	R	AL	0-5	C	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	84.61	80.00	82.50	70.22
WN 4	R	DipEd.	11-15	H	Sh	E, Sh	ZJC	HMG	75.38	51.43	75.00	67.27
WN 5	R	BA	0-5	H	Sh	E	O	HMG	75.38	71.43	72.50	73.10
WN 6	R	DipEd.	6-10	P	Sh	E	O	HMG	73.85	65.71	60.00	66.52
WN 7	R	DipED.	0-5	P	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	46.15	40.00	57.50	60.72
WN 8	R	CE., BEd.	16-20	S	Sh	E	O	HMG	66.15	62.86	55.00	72.31
WN 9	R	CE., BEd.	16-20	S	Sh	E	O	HMG	69.23	57.14	55.00	65.96
WN 10	R	DipEd.	0-5	S	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	75.38	60.00	62.50	61.34
MC 1	U	DipEd., BEd., CIS	6-10	C	Sh	E	O	HMG	63.08	54.29	57.50	58.29
MC 2	U	DipEd.	6-10	C	Nd. Shg, Sh	E	A	VRG	47.69	45.71	75.00	56.13
MC 3	U	DipEd., BEd., MEd.	11-15	C	Sh	E	O	HMG	58.46	54.29	67.50	60.08
MC 4	U	DipEd.,BEd.	6-10	H	Sh	E	A	HMG	87.69	62.86	77.50	76.02
MC 5	U	DipEd.,BEd.	6-10	H	Sh	E	A	VRG	53.85	54.29	72.50	60.21
MC 6	U	BSc.	0-5	H	Sh	E	O	VRG	73.85	65.71	80.00	73.19
MC 7	U	BA., Grad. CE.	0-5	P	Sh	E	O	VRG	75.38	85.71	92.50	84.53
MC 8	U	DipEd.	6-10	P	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	73.85	62.86	82.50	73.07
MC 9	U	DipAgric., CE.	16-20	P	Sh	E	O	VRG	26.15	40.00	47.50	37.88
MC 10	U	STC, BEd.	16-20	S	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	92.31	51.43	85.00	76.25
MC 11	U	CE.,BSc.	16-20	S	Sh,	E	O	VRG	75.38	62.86	82.50	73.58
MC 12	U	CE., BEd., Med.	21+	S	Sh	E	O	VRG	81.54	57.14	80.00	72.89
MCR 1	U	DipEd., BSc.	11-15	C	Sh, Nd	E	A	HMG	80.00	74.29	85.00	79.76
MCR 2	U	CE.,BEd.	16-20	C	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	80.00	62.86	67.50	70.12
MCR 3	U	CE	21+	C	Sh	E	O	VRG	72.31	62.86	70.00	68.39
MCR 4	U	BA., PGDE.	6-10	H	Sh	E	A	HMG	89.23	80.00	75.00	81.41
MCR 5	U	CE., BA.	0-5	H	Sh	E	O	VRG	76.92	74.29	80.00	77.07
MCR 6	U	BA.	0-5	H	Sh, Zl, Tsw, Nd	E	O	VRG	86.15	77.14	70.00	77.76

MCR 7	U	AL	0-5	P	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	70.77	48.57	75.00	64.78
MCR 8	U	DipEd.	6-10	P	Sh	E	O	VRG	90.77	74.29	90.00	85.02
MCR 9	U	DipEd.	6-10	P	Sh	E	O	VRG	67.69	51.43	80.00	66.37
MCR 10	U	BSc	0-5	S	Sh	E	O	VRG	87.69	77.14	80.00	81.61
MCR 11	U	BSc	11-15	S	Sh	E	O	VRG	75.38	71.43	65.00	70.6
MCR 12	U	CE., BEd.,MBA.	11-15	S	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	73.84	68.57	77.50	73.3
MD 1	U	DipEd., BEd.	16-20	C	Sh	E	O	HMG	92.50	57.14	85.00	78.21
MD 2	U	DipEd.	0-5	C	Sh	E	O	VRG	93.85	85.71	90.00	89.85
MD 3	U	DipEd., BEd.	11-15	C	Sh	E	A	VRG	78.46	60.00	77.50	71.99
MD 4	U	BEd.	11-15	H	Sh	E	A	VRG	50.77	47.50	75.00	57.76
MD 5	U	BA, Grad.CE.	0-5	H	Sh	E	A	VRG	89.23	77.14	80.00	82.12
MD 6	U	DipEd.	6-10	H	Sh	E	O	VRG	81.54	71.43	75.00	75.99
MD 7	U	DipEd.	6-10	P	Sh	E	O	VRG	73.85	57.14	72.50	67.83
MD 8	U	BEd.	16-20	P	Sh	E	A	HMG	76.92	65.71	70.00	70.88
MD 9	U	CE., BA.	21+	P	Sh, Nd	E	O	VRG	80.00	68.57	67.50	72.02
MD 10	U	BSc.	0-5	S	Sh	E	A	VRG	81.54	88.57	90.00	86.7
MD 11	U	CE., BEd.	21+	S	Sh	E, Sp	O	VRG	76.92	68.57	70.00	71.83
MD 12	U	DipEd.	6-10	S	Sh	E	O	VRG	64.62	57.43	75.00	65.68
N 1	U	BSc, BTech., MEd, PGDE	16-20	C	Sh	E	A	HMG	89.23	80.00	90.00	86.41
N 2	U	BEd.	11-15	C	Sh	E	O	VRG	69.23	62.86	92.50	74.86
N 3	U	BSc.	6-10	C	Sh	E	A	VRG	80.00	62.86	80.00	74.29
N 4	U	BAEd.	0-5	H	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	72.31	62.86	67.50	67.56
N 5	U	CE, BA	21+	H	Sh	E	O	VRG	60.00	42.86	67.50	56.79
N 6	U	DipEd.	11-15	H	Sh, Ch.	E	ZJC	VRG	80.00	80.00	87.50	82.5
N 7	U	BEd.	16-20	P	Sh	E	O	HMG	93.85	71.43	75.00	80.09
N 8	U	DipEd.	6-10	P	Sh	E	O	VRG	61.54	62.86	70.00	64.8
N 9	U	BSc., MEd	21+	P	Sh	E	O	HMG	49.23	37.14	52.50	46.29
N 10	U	DipEd.	11-15	S	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	69.23	74.29	72.50	72.01
N 11	U	BSc., Grad.CE.	16-20	S	Sh	E	A	HMG	86.15	60.00	85.00	77.05

N 12	U	CE., BSc.,MBA	16-20	S	Sh	E	O	HMG	81.54	77.14	77.50	78.73
VC 1	U	MBA., CIS	21+	C	Sh	E	A	HMG	75.38	74.29	80.00	76.56
VC 2	U	DipEd., MBA., CIS	21+	C	Sh	E	A	VRG	56.92	42.86	67.50	55.76
VC 3	U	BSc, MBA, CIS	6-10	C	Sh	E	A	VRG	81.54	80.00	82.50	81.35
VC 4	U	DipEd.	11-15	H	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	46.15	51.43	65.00	54.19
VC 5	U	DipEd.	16-20	H	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	89.23	60.00	75.00	74.74
VC 6	U	BA., PGDE.	6-10	H	Sh	E	O	VRG	73.85	57.50	80.00	70.45
VC 7	U	DipAgric.,DipEd., BEd.	11-15	P	Sh	E	O	HMG	80.00	77.14	67.50	74.88
VC 8	U	DipED., BEd.	6-10	P	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	73.84	57.14	65.00	65.33
VC 9	U	DipEd., BEd.	11-15	P	Sh	E	O	HMG	90.77	77.14	77.50	81.8
VC 10	U	CE., BSc.	21+	S	Sh	E	ZJC	HMG	90.77	71.43	72.50	78.23
VC 11	U	DipEd.	0-5	S	Sh	E	ZJC	VRG	78.46	57.14	77.50	71.03
VC 12	U	BEd.	11-15	S	Sh	E	O	VRG	72.31	80.00	80.00	77.44

Key

Code names for qualifications of teachers

AL – Advanced Level

BA –Bachelor of Arts

BAEd. Bachelor of Arts with Education

Bcomm – Bachelor of Commerce

BEd – Bachelor of Education

BEnvSci – Bachelor of Environmental Science

BSc – Bachelor of Science

BScEd – Bachelor of Science with Education

CEAgric – Certificate in Agriculture

CE- Certificate in Education

CIS – Chartered Institute of Secretaries

DipEd. – Diploma in Education
DipAgric – Diploma in Agriculture
DipBib – Diploma in Biblical Studies
DipTheo – Diploma in Theology
DipTex – Diploma in Textile Studies
Grad. CE – Graduate Certificate in Education
MA – Master of Arts
MBA- Master of Business Administration
STC – Secondary Teaching Certificate
PGDE – Postgraduate Diploma in Education
MPhil. – Master of Philosophy

Code names for languages

Sh – Shona
Nd - Ndebele
Shg – Shangani
Ch - Chewa
E - English
Sp - Spanish
Zl – Zulu

Code names for nature of mother tongue composition

HMG – Homogeneous (language group)
VRG – Variegated (language group)

Code names for locality of school

R – Rural
U- Urban

Appendix C: Observation schedule

Code	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
MT 1	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	DNO	E	E	E	E
MT 5	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	DNO	E	E
MT 8	E & Sh	DNO	E & Sh	E	E	DNO	E	E	E	DNO
MT 11	E & Sh	DNO	E	E	E	DNO	E	E	E	E
RM 1	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	E	DNO	E	E
RM 4	E & Sh	DNO	E	E	E	E	E	DNO	E	E
RM 10	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	DNO	E	E	DNO	DNO
RF 2	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	DNO	E	DNO	E	E
RF 8	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
RF 11	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	DNO	E	DNO	E	E
MZ 1	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	DNO	E	E	DNO	E
MZ 3	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	DNO	E	DNO	E	E
WN 4	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	E	DNO	E	DNO	E	E
MC 1	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	E	DNO	E	E	E	DNO
MC 4	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
MC 7	E & Sh	E & Sh	DNO	E	E	DNO	E	DNO	E	E
MC 10	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	E	DNO	E
MCR 1	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	DNO	E	DNO	E	E
MCR 6	E & Sh	E & Sh	DNO	E	E	DNO	E	DNO	E	DNO
MCR 8	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	DNO	E	E	E	E
MCR 10	E & Sh	DNO	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
MD 4	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	DNO	E	DNO	E	E
MD 7	E & Sh	E	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	E	DNO	E
MD 11	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
N 3	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	DNO	E	E	E	E
N 4	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	E	DNO	E	DNO	E	E
N 7	E & Sh	E & Sh	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	E	DNO	DNO
VC 4	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	E	E	DNO	E	E
VC 8	E & Sh	E	E	E	E	DNO	E	E	E	E
VC 10	E & Sh	DNO	E	E	E	DNO	E	DNO	E	E

KEY

Speaking

- 1 Teacher to pupils
- 2 Pupil to pupil
- 3 Pupil to teacher

Writing

- 4 Teacher writing on chalkboard
- 5 Students writing in exercise books

- 6 Pupils writing on chalkboard
- 7 Core text books
- 8 Charts and other audio visuals
- 9 Scheme books
- 10 Teacher writing in students' exercise or note book

E - English

Sh - Shona

E & Sh - English and Shona

DNO - Did not occur

Appendix D: Interview guide for secondary school teachers

1. Which language or languages do you use in the teaching of your subject? If you use more than one, please indicate the proportion of each in your teaching activities.
2. How efficient do you think the language or languages you stated above is/are in helping you attain your teaching objectives?
3. In your view, which language or languages should be used as medium/media of instruction in Zimbabwe? Please give reasons.
4. What difficulties may be encountered in the use of that/those languages in Zimbabwe? Please explain where necessary.
5. Do you agree that the performance in examinations would be improved if learners used their mother tongues for both learning and examination purposes?
6. In what ways would learners be disadvantaged if they were taught and examined in their mother tongues?
7. Do you think the current MOI policy which has English as the official language of learning and teaching for all subjects except languages should be maintained? Please give reasons.
8. Could there be subjects that you think could benefit more if taught in mother tongues? Please explain.
9. Are you willing to continue using English as a medium of instruction? Please explain.