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LANGUAGE IDEOLOGIES AND PRACTICES IN GHANA'S ENGLISH LANGUAGE
EDUCATION: A CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF GOLDEN ENGLISH AND NATIONAL
LITERACY ACCELERATION PROGRAM FORMATIVE REPORT

GIDEON KWASHIE KWAWUKUMEY

162 Pages

Ghana's transitional bilingual education has received scholarly attention of policymakers and language educators. Despite the extensive scholarship on transitional bilingual education in Ghana, little has been done to examine the relationship between transitional bilingual policy: National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) and language teaching materials (e.g., English Textbooks) to ascertain whether the two have a shared ideology in promoting multilingual education. Through the use of thematic analysis and discourse analysis tools, this thesis examines both linguistic and the rhetorical (specifically visual) features of Golden English. In it, I emphasize the importance of storytelling as a language practice used to show local cultures and bilingual ideologies. Through linguistic features (words, sentences, and structures) and discourse makers in the NALAP report, I look at discourses that promote bilingual education with the aim of ascertaining whether such discourses of bilingual education are promoted in Golden English textbook, a textbook that is prevalent in Ghana's primary (lower grade) education. The study's findings show that while NALAP policy underlines the importance of multilingual language ideologies such as the inclusion of mother tongue and promotion of biliteracy instruction), language ideologies promoted in Golden English are centered around monolingual use of English, with Ghanaian language ideologies minimally integrated into

images and names of local characters. Based on this study's analysis and observations, I propose a number of innovation and approaches such as the integration of translingual approaches into the curriculum, effective representation of bilingual identities through localized contents, and teacher training that focuses on bilingual curricula and culturally sustained pedagogies to continually push for localized voice and identity of Ghanaian English learners.

KEYWORDS: language ideologies, language policy, multiliteracies, transitional bilingual education, translingual pedagogies, voice and identity, Ghanaian English learners

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GIDEON KWASHIE KWAWUKUMEY

A Thesis Submitted in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

Department of English

ILLINOIS STATE UNIVERSITY

2023

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Growing up as a multilingual student in Ghana, my formative years of literacy and language instruction were marked by two languages: my mother tongue (Ewe) as my home language and English as the medium of instruction, particularly for teaching and learning in school. Ewe, as my first language, is also utilized during classroom lessons by my literacy teacher when I encounter difficulty in understanding a concept. Aside that, I have always utilized both English and Ewe in my writing practices. Over the years, I also have experienced how these two languages combine effectively for different purposes—in my exciting moments of singing morning assembly songs and recitals of poems and in academic settings to complete schoolwork. I can boldly state that I equally used both languages to execute such activities. In my early literacy experiences, where teachers embraced such translanguaging communication, I utilized item matching, bilingual labeling, and visual presentations that used a medley of Ewe and English to make my ideas explicit and meaningful. Not only did I benefit from biliteracy instruction as a student, but my formative years in teaching at the primary level advanced my pedagogical skills today as a teacher by utilizing visual displays and drawings that integrated my mother tongue with English in my conversations with the class. I vividly remember my multilingual journey as a writer, especially how the complex layers of these languages have shaped my conceptualization of writing and writing instruction as a future teacher. For what it is worth, credit must be given to my mother tongue, Ewe, for laying a solid foundation for my understanding of concepts of the world and contributing immensely to my multilingual writerly identity. As I pondered over how I struggled to write the word "seven," my teacher, Miss Ahiable, kept telling me, "Anytime you are asked to write the word 'seven,' always keep in mind 'adre," which is an Ewe word for 'seven.' This cross-language synergy helped me immensely grasp the most fundamental concepts

in both languages. In effect, reading comprehension and short stories and poems in Ewe and English, with guidance from my teacher, improved my literacy skills. As a result, my first language, Ewe (L1), has been valuable and helpful in situations where I found it challenging to understand and read new concepts in English.

Having these formative experiences in the Ghanaian educational setting, especially about the fluidity of language use in many academic settings, my current research interest is to embrace minoritized languages and the voice and identity of multilingual students as they seek higher education in the United States (US) and other foreign countries who may have been trained within monoglossic language ideologies, where one language holds more power than the other. My deep interest in multilingualism continued to exist as a teacher of first-year composition in the US and Ghana. I benefited immensely from the translingual model of writing that the Illinois State University (ISU) Writing Program embraces and how the writing program values multilingualism as an asset in writing instruction. As a teacher in the Writing Program, I have been able to design a project on translingual writing and assign activities to my multilingual students to embrace their multilingual writerly identities. These multicultural teaching experiences have inspired my study to explore pedagogies that can value multilingualism in the Ghanaian setting. I am, therefore, particularly invested in examining the kind of relationship that exists between national and institutional language policies and micro-classroom teaching materials. On my journey as a teacher in Ghana, I realized that literacy education is not only important for student development, but it is a responsive educational practice that has yielded positive results for transitional bilingual education programs—especially in the context of multilingual students' language use in primary education. In this regard, the purpose of this study is to employ a thematic analysis and discourse analysis approaches, with its focus on power

relations and cultural values which is extended in this project to look at features of language and the rhetoric (context) of Ghanaian educational texts: the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) Baseline Assessment Report, NALAP Formative Evaluation Report, and the Golden English Textbook for Lower Grade Two. These educational texts form the scope of the study because they reveal the current state of National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) and the pressing issues facing its implementation in Ghana. Aside from this goal, the educational texts attend to contexts in which transitional bilingual education operates in Ghana. My study also draws on theories and frameworks like translingual theory, language policy and implementation, and the role of English and Ghana's indigenous languages to help understand the relationship between national language policies and micro-classroom teaching materials. My study will therefore engage in an analysis of Ghana's transitional bilingual programs and attempt to establish how these language policies support or prevent the development of multilingual education in Ghanaian primary education. This research intends to evaluate the state of implementation of the educational language policy in Ghana and, perhaps, move the conversation forward by explicitly looking at what various research tells us about how these bilingual programs operate in Ghana. By so doing, using a thematic and discourse analysis approach, the study will explore how language policy and biliteracy instruction work in Ghana (with a specific attention to language instruction within a commonly used textbook) and ways in which translanguaging approaches can be promoted within transitional bilingual instruction.

It is obvious to state in this study that not much research has been conducted in the outer-circle context, such as Ghana, on bilingualism, and more focus is needed on the policy-level document analysis to better understand the value of students' home languages in their academic advancement and literacy acquisition and socialization. A growing body of research shows that

most studies on bilingualism are carried out in inner-circle countries such as United Kingdom and others (Opoku-Amankwa, 2012). Therefore, bilingual studies in multilingual societies like Ghana need to receive more scholarly attention.

Additionally, it is important to emphasize that most Ghanaian scholars are concerned with the country's literacy education because literacy and numeracy rates continue to be abysmal, as reported by the National Education Assessment Report (2016), which is one of the gaps identified with the implementation of Ghana's bilingual program: National Literacy Acceleration (NALAP). The National Education Assessment Report (2016) indicated that only 16.4% and 23.6% of pupils who reach the third and sixth years of primary school are literate in English. However, the Report did not account for consistent local language literacy rates. In the account of Mathematics, the report indicated that 18.6% and 9.8% of pupils who reach the third and sixth years of primary school are numerate. Aside from that, according to the National Acceleration Literacy Program's (NALAP) Baseline Assessment Report (2009), only 26% of students are literate in English, and only 11% are numerate by the time they enter their sixth and final year of primary school.

Furthermore, the Education Strategic Plan of the Ministry of Education of Ghana, which is a macro-level inquiry and assessment of Ghana's overall educational infrastructure, also failed to account for any consistent national figures for local language literacy. The strategic plan specifically explores physical variables such as human resources, the quality of teachers, the availability of textbooks, and the quality of reading, writing, and arithmetic and how these impact the overall educational framework across the board, but there is not any particular examination of the linguistic and pedagogical practices that enable multilingualism in Ghanaian educational context.

Unstable switches between language education policies over the years have drawn the attention of Ghanaian scholars like Owu-Ewie, Owusu-Ansah, Adika, Yevudey, Agbozo and others to keep pushing for a stable national developmental plan with a smooth language policy implementation strategy. According to Ansah (2014), the country's educational policies have witnessed unstable switches between emphasizing and de-emphasizing Ghanaian transitional bilingual education in the policy model. The debate over unstable switches in language policy in education has picked up a heated controversy and momentum from academics and educational planners, and the general populace. On account of Owu-Ewie (2007), a switch to English-only instruction in the past did not help develop the child's strong foundation in the local language; thus, the reinforcement of Ghanaian language use as the medium of instruction by implementing late-exit transitional bilingual education would help children connect to their L1 and psychologically, sociologically, and educationally benefit learners. The above paucity of research on bilingualism, aforementioned statistical gaps in local literacy as well as gaps identified with bilingual programs-unstable switches between educational policies in the Ghanaian educational strata are pressing gaps that need to be addressed to better understand the nature of multilingualism in Ghana. Given such identified gaps, this thesis will provide a theoretical and practical understanding of Ghana's transitional bilingual program and its capacity to embrace multilingualism by closely analyzing three Ghanaian educational texts.

With this in mind, this thesis is concerned with gaining insights into Ghana's transitional bilingual models by doing a linguistic and rhetorical analysis of two educational texts as primary data sources. To better meet the needs of such multilingual students in Ghana, this study seeks to analyze the state of implementation of bilingual education programs to ascertain whether these

bilingual programs have embraced minoritized languages and students' voices and identities. To achieve such an objective, the study is framed by the following research questions.

1. How is English language instruction characterized in the Golden English textbook?
2. How are Ghanaian languages and cultures represented in the Golden English textbook?
3. What aspects of the existing language policy in Ghana (specifically, NALAP formative evaluation report) are integrated in English language textbooks?

By asking these research questions, the goal is to contribute to the current scholarly discussion on Ghana's transitional bilingual education and ways it can be transformed to improve biliteracy and embrace pedagogies that can help revitalize minoritized languages and cultures in the community.

The Linguistic Landscape of Ghana

In order to address how bilingualism can be improved in Ghana's linguistic landscape, it is crucial to look at the roles of English in and out of micro classroom instruction. Because Ghana is an outer-circle country (Kachru, 1992), English plays a significant role in biliteracy instruction and official communication in government, and it is the preferred language for media, business, and commerce. This use of English as the official language has its historical ties to Britain as its former colony, so English remains one of the most widely spoken languages in the country today. Appiah and Ardila (2020) reported that English is the language of instruction in schools and universities and is the language of government and official communication. It is also an important language in business and commerce, as it is widely spoken in the professional and corporate sectors. However, as many other outer-circle countries, the use of English in Ghana is unique with its own localized words, and variations in proficiency and dialect are unique among speakers of outer-circle languages. Hence, Ghanaian English, as the unique outer circle variety,

is essential for connecting with the international community, promoting economic opportunities, and enabling Ghanaians to access global knowledge, as indicated by Opoku Agyemang (2015). According to Ngula (2011), Ghanaian English remains one of the remarkable varieties of English in the discussion of world Englishes. The scholar added that such an outer-circle variety of English is used in different stages of Ghana's bilingual education.

In nudging for bilingualism, it is important to give a complete picture of the country's linguistic landscape, where English is not the first language but is widely used as a second language. According to Yevudey (2019), there are eleven government-sponsored languages: Akuapem Twi, Asante Twi, Fante, Dagaare and Dagbani, Ewe, Dangme, Ga, Nzema, Gonja, and Kasem and many Ghanaians speak one or more of the country's indigenous languages. Despite Ghana's multilingual culture, it is important to stress that English is often pidginized using a combination of English and local languages by most bilingual students. This includes the use of words and phrases from local languages, such as Twi, Ga, and Ewe, as well as the use of English words with a local pronunciation. For example, the English word "hello" may be pronounced "heh-low" in Ghanaian English pidgin. It is interesting to note that Ghanaian languages and English pidgin are not considered official languages but are widely used in informal settings such as street vendors, marketplaces, etc., and surprisingly, formal settings like tertiary campuses among students, even competent speakers of standard English. Although Ghanaian languages are regarded as non-English languages and Ghanaian English pidgin is considered a non-standardized genre in Ghanaian bilingual instruction, such varieties of language have helped in understanding and breaking communication barriers among the Ghanaian youth (Opoku Agyemang, 2015).

Closely looking at Ghana's multilingual ecology, it is important to state that educational documents in this context are significant to the sustenance of multilingualism. In valuing multilingual culture, educational documents are important because their effectiveness and applicability to bilingual education programs in Ghana are desperately needed, given the rising number of English Language Learners (ELLs) nationally and in Ghana's educational system. Making sure these educational documents largely incorporate multi-language use has been an interest to most Ghanaian Applied Linguists. More specifically, the significance of this research is to explore pedagogies and research that revitalize and offer a deeper level of representation and inclusion of minoritized languages in Ghanaian educational documents and classroom teaching materials. I hope that incorporating my rich cultural and linguistic experiences into the way the bilingual program operates in the Ghanaian context, which is seen as a local reflexive site, will contribute to nudging the US educational system to reposition their writing and bilingual instruction program to help second language writers to adapt to the writing practices in the United States once they come to the United States. This study would contribute to biliteracy research in non-US contexts and specifically help other Ghanaian scholars and practitioners who might want to look at their local situations to examine the state of the implementation of language policy in the country and why it should be responsive to the needs of the local multilingual learners.

Aside from the above, the importance of language policy to this study cannot be overlooked because the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP), as the only surviving language policy in the past year, has impacted embracing bilingual education. It is also generally believed that this language policy has operated on a multilingualism framework in facilitating the development of literacy skills in the first language, enhancing the second language's academic

skills. By emphasizing the importance of language policy to this study, researchers can gain insights into how multilingualism operates in Ghana and the challenges and opportunities for embracing minoritized language development (Owu-Ewie, 2007).

Additionally, Ghanaian politicians and educational leaders could benefit from the findings of this study, particularly on ways to improve curriculum design and ELT materials in schools to enhance English proficiency of Ghanaian students. Looking critically at how language ideologies permeate ELT materials can also help the Ministry of Education in Ghana to create more inclusive spaces for consistent strategic reforms to the current transitional bilingual education programs. Finally, it is important to state that students' bilingual identities are essential in second-language learning (Ganaa, 2022).

Through the help of discourse analysis and thematic analysis, this thesis will discuss how language policies in Ghana are reflected in English language teaching materials and unpack how English language instruction is characterized in textbooks. The study also discusses pedagogical ways English Language Teaching (ELT) materials (Golden English) integrate local cultures and ideologies in English language instruction. This line of research on material analysis can help develop praxis that emphasizes transitional bilingual policies that revolve around transitional models rather than English-only models.

Finally, this study makes use of the following key terms in its discussion: transitional bilingualism, language policy, early and late-exit transitional models, and translanguaging practices. To clarify how I use them in the thesis, a brief discussion of them is provided below.

Definition of Terms

Transitional bilingualism: The term transitional bilingualism is an essential concept in promoting Ghana's multilingual education. Transitional bilingualism is an educational approach that aims to help multilingual students who speak a language other than the language of instruction in school to transition from their native language to the language of instruction gradually. In the Ghanaian context, the ultimate goal of transitional bilingualism is to help multilingual students become proficient in the school's language while maintaining their home language and culture. According to Cummins and Schecter (2003), transitional bilingualism has been implemented in many parts of the nation as a means for multilingual students to learn English through their home language. A transitional bilingual education, according to Garcia (2000), is a transitional model of bilingual education that utilizes students' L1 in the early years of schooling but aims to quickly transfer pupils away from their L1 in favor of higher usage of English (L2). Transitional bilingual education seeks "to use both languages in the classroom during a transitional period, to support learners whose home language is not English" (Murphy, 2014, p.6). As the students gain mastery of English, the primary language is gradually phased out until the student is mainstreamed into English-only instruction. It should be noted that such a term is used in my study to educate readers on how important biliteracy is valued in Ghanaian educational strata.

Language policy: Shohamy (2004) looks at language education policy as decisions about which language(s) should be taught in the specific contexts of schools and universities with respect to home languages, foreign, and second languages. Spolsky (2004) also posits that understanding language policy sets a basis for the realization that all speech communities include complex linguistic repertoires, which are condensed into recognized linguistic varieties that are sometimes

given a name. He adds that in studying language policy, we understand just how non-language variables interact with the language variables. This means that language policy exists in the larger social, political, economic, cultural, religious, and ideological milieu that constitutes human society. It is crucial to state that the nature of people's language policy must be derived from a study of their language practice or beliefs. This, therefore, implies that the study of language policy is important in the context of Ghanaian multilingual education.

Language policy in Ghana is a critical subject to investigate to understand the country's underrepresented and complex educational issues. In the Ghanaian context, bilingual education policies are typically designed to promote multilingualism and maintain the use of indigenous languages in addition to English as the official language. Ghana's only surviving language policy is the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP), which emphasizes English and Ghanaian indigenous language instruction. According to Adika (2012), the underlying framework of this program is based on the relationship between home and target languages such that there is a transfer of knowledge across languages. The goal of NALAP is to encourage a smooth transition from students' mother tongues to the school's language in order to support students' success by enhancing their early literacy development. Therefore, it is justifiable to say that the language policy- National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP), has facilitated the development of literacy skills in the first language, enhancing the second language's academic skills. Thus, using this term in my study is crucial in this study.

Early and Late-exit Transitional Bilingual Models: In efforts to ensure that the National Literacy Acceleration Program as a language policy is implemented to meet the needs of Ghanaian multilingual students, most Ghanaian scholars in the field of literacy and language education have been focusing attention to the area of late and early-exit bilingual transitional

models and how NALAP can be enacted under these models. According to Bronteng (2018), an early-exit transitional bilingual model is one in which the switch from L1 to L2 as the medium of instruction is completed after the first or second, and most often third, year of schooling. Ghana's educational system practiced an early-exit transitional bilingual model under the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP), as Adika (2011) indicated. However, Adekemi (2012) describes a late-exit bilingual model as switching from L1 to L2 in the fifth or sixth year of school. Depending on the model implemented, the teacher only utilizes English as a medium of instruction after the third or sixth year but resorts to the local language for micro scaffolding when necessary for classroom practices. Pedagogically considered, the early and late-exit models are culturally responsive in recognizing the multiple languages that could exist within the classroom. Thus, there is a sense in which the concept of 'the homestead'-where one is from and the language(s) one speaks informs instruction, recognizes, and gives voice to the medley of languages that might exist in the Ghanaian multicultural classroom.

Translanguaging: Lastly, the term translanguaging is essential in embracing the linguistic diversity of Ghanaian multilingual students. As an emerging scholar in the area of Applied Linguistics and TESOL, I realized practices and pedagogies around translanguaging in second-language scholarship are discussed in close connection with multilinguals' language and culture. Hence, without such translanguaging practices, most Ghanaian students struggle to understand complex content taught in English. According to Garcia (2016), translanguaging practices are pedagogical practices where students in bilingual classrooms are asked to alternate languages for receptive or productive use. Garcia adds that translanguaging practices consider students' unitary linguistic systems and allow students to deploy the entire linguistic repertoire, not only a particular primary language. Garcia's scholarly assertion shows that translanguaging instruction

can actually help pupils manage the movement between languages, as well as to grasp different kinds of learning concepts, where that linguistic movement can help them understand and remember. It is important to emphasize in this study that all bilingual communities are translingual, and translanguaging practices influence and legitimize bilingual and multilingual communication. Canagarajah (2011) sees translanguaging practices as pedagogies that build on the concept of languaging to respect the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages and treat several languages that make up their repertoire as an interconnected system. According to Yevudey (2012), Ghana's bilingual education provides room for translanguaging practices. In Ghanaian classroom practices where students have not developed enough literacy for communication practices, translanguaging practices allow them to use bilingual labeling, repetition, translation, and simultaneous literacies to interact and negotiate meanings (Yevudey, 2012).

As a teacher, I observed that Ghanaian classrooms view languages as social resources that are flexible and provide a setting for developing bilinguals to develop their personal histories, beliefs, and practices. By utilizing translanguaging practices, National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) has been seen as a learner-centered approach to literacy where the linguistic repertoires of the learners, in cases of Ghanaian indigenous languages, are harnessed and tapped upon to enable pupils to learn a second language. This practice of NALAP language policy, according to Yevudey (2014), depicts translanguaging practices of the country's bilingual education because multilingual students are given spaces to shuttle between their home languages and English.

Conclusion

This chapter foregrounds the need for biliteracy instruction in Ghana to promote multilingual education. The study draws on scholarly conversations about the need to investigate whether the existing language policy—the National Literacy Acceleration Program—is effectively enacted to embrace minority languages and the voice and identity of Ghanaian multilingual students. This is done through closely analyzing selected sections of Golden English textbook, which is a textbook that is most commonly used in Ghana’s K-12. Due to the fact that there is limited research that specifically addresses these issues in the context of Ghana, this current study expands the radius of this conversation about the implementation of the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) to invite all stakeholders to heed the exigent call to expand literacy and numeracy education in Ghana, especially through a bilingual lens.

Organization of Thesis and Chapter Descriptions

There are five chapters in this thesis. The first chapter addressed the background and statement of the problem to provide contextual information. This chapter also provided an overview of the study, including research questions, methodology, and definitions of essential terminologies. Chapter II foregrounds the theoretical framework—translanguaging as a language practice—adopted for this study. The chapter offers a literature review of previous research on language policy and implementation, early and late-exit transitional bilingual models, the impact of language policy on literacy education, the sociolinguistic context of English, and the role of textbooks in language learning in Ghana. The chapter also provides an overview of language policies in Ghana. In Chapter III, I discuss my methodology—discourse analysis and thematic analysis. The chapter also discusses discourse analysis tools such as linguistic and rhetorical analysis since they are heavily influenced by discourse analysis. I provide a rationale behind

these methods and discuss the three educational texts and other aspects of importance, such as researcher positionality and methodological limitations. The findings and data analysis are presented in Chapter IV, which is organized thematically. In the first part of the chapter, I focus on the discourse analysis tools for Golden English textbook analysis. In the second part of the chapter, the findings of my close analysis of the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) Formative report are presented. In the last chapter, I present the implications of my findings and discuss future research on biliteracy instruction and language policy in Ghana. This final chapter also gives pedagogical implications and recommendations about critically looking at textbooks at multiple levels and recommends longitudinal research to examine relationships that exist between national language policies and micro classroom practices and instructional materials.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

The need for effective language policy and instruction for multilingual students has led academics and educators to continuously push for locally contextualized pedagogies in Ghanaian primary education. In efforts to ensure that the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) language policy is implemented to meet the needs of Ghanaian multilingual students, most scholars in the field of literacy and language education have been focusing attention on the area of late and early-exit bilingual transitional models and try to understand how National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) can be enacted under these models. Canagarajah (2005) argues that in representing the language and culture of multilinguals, it is crucial for regional customs, linguistic realities, and knowledge paradigms to actively inform language policies for multilingual classrooms and communities in particular circumstances since the local contains complex values. According to Canagarajah (2005), the local context holds intricate values that should not be disregarded when designing language policies. This means that when students see their own languages and cultures represented in classroom practices, they feel their cultural identities are valued and recognized. Moreover, understanding the relationship between the local languages and cultures and language policies can contribute to the revitalization of endangered languages. Integrating local languages into classroom practices can help reverse language shifts and promote linguistic diversity. One example of how language policies inform classroom practices is seen in a study by Ojentis (2021), where she studied Haitian English language learners in Kenmakabi School District to ascertain the impact of transitional bilingual program on teaching literacies. Her findings show that bilingual teachers utilized a variety of reading strategies to make content comprehensible which improves reading skills of bilinguals. Additionally, her research on the impact of the bilingual transitional policy on Haitian learners

shows that a language policy implementation must meet the learning needs of a particular contextualized community if learners need to be successful in reading comprehension. She adds that Haitian school and district administration should develop a curriculum that is aligned with the transitional bilingual program to address the language needs of Haitian bilingual students. What her study illustrates about transitional bilingual education is that bilingual policy implementation needs to address the linguistic needs of students. These observations are not far different from the goal of implementing a multilingual language policy in Ghanaian primary education—to ensure that multilingual students have proficiency in both the native language and target language and ideally address their localized language needs. In the Ghanaian context, bilingual education programs are typically designed to promote multilingualism and maintain the use of indigenous languages and English as the official language. The transitional bilingual education in Ghana can be seen through the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP), which emphasizes English and Ghanaian indigenous language instruction. It is worth noting that just as the Bilingual Act of 1968 was aimed at solving bilingual students' education inequality in the U.S, the implementation of a localized language policy-NALAP in Ghana was also to maintain the bilingual repertoire of these multilingual students so that they have equal access to their linguistic rights. Therefore, this thesis aims to analyze the existing early and late-exit transitional bilingual models and explore how NALAP supports or prevents the development of multilingual education in primary education.

Focusing on the existing theoretical and conceptual frameworks on language policy and implementation in multilingual societies, this chapter reviews the literature on translanguaging, language policy in Ghana, early and late-exit transitional bilingual models, the impact of language policy and implementation on literacy education, and the role of textbooks in learning

English and the importance of representation issues in Ghana. I also review the sociolinguistic context of English in Ghana to provide some background for these theories.

In the next section, I discuss theoretical frameworks that are relevant to this study. I look at translanguaging theory, language policy, early and late-exit transitional bilingual models, the role of textbooks in learning English, and the sociolinguistic landscape of English in Ghana.

Translanguaging as a Theory of Language Practice

There is numerous research in the field of TESOL and Applied Linguistics regarding the nexus between national language policies and micro-classroom practices. The growing interest among scholars in such fields also shows that language and literacy instructions go beyond a single language modality approach. As a master's student specializing in TESOL and Applied Linguistics, my multiliterate and bi-literate studies have exposed me to several second language instructional approaches, theoretical frameworks, and methodologies for teaching English as a global language and pedagogies around translanguaging where we discussed the close connection between language and culture. In light of this, the theoretical foundation of this thesis is grounded in translanguaging (Baker, 2017; Canagarajah, 2014; Garcia, 2016; Williams, 1994) as a culturally sustained framework that help me make a better sense of the Ghana's transitional bilingual education and the implementation of language policies. This section also addresses how the concept is understood (and the complications of that understanding) in the Ghanaian linguistic ecology before explaining how the concept can be applied to Ghanaian bilingual education.

To describe how emerging bilinguals use their linguistic resources to make sense of the world, translanguaging is offered as a pedagogical process that involves using multiple languages in a classroom. The term translanguaging was first coined in Welsh by Cen Williams

(1994), who posited in his work that translingualism as a pedagogical practice helps students in bilingual Welsh/English classrooms in a single lesson to alternate languages for the purposes of receptive or productive use. In his study, he discovered that such a translanguaging practice was able to equalize language learning and support higher-order thinking among Welsh bilinguals. According to Baker (2001), the term was used in its original sense as a pedagogical practice in helping Welsh students read, write, and use the two languages (English and Welsh) and vice versa. The term then has received broader interest from leading scholars and practitioners in the fields of bilingual education and applied linguistics (Canagarajah, 2011; Garcia, 2016; Hornberger, 2003). According to Garcia (2016), translanguaging is a pedagogical practice where students in bilingual classrooms are asked to alternate languages for receptive or productive use. Garcia adds that a translingual classroom considers students' unitary linguistic systems and allows students to deploy the entire linguistic repertoire, not only a particular primary language. Because it can liberate students' voices from language minority groups, I have used the term primarily to refer to bilinguals' flexible use of linguistic resources to make sense of their worlds (Garcia, 2009). According to Garcia and Leiva (2014), translanguaging theory acknowledges that students have a complex and interconnected set of linguistic resources that they draw on in various ways depending on the communicative context. Such linguistic theory emphasizes the fluid and dynamic nature of multilingual communication. The scholars indicate in their work that multilingual students do not simply switch between languages or codes when communicating but instead draw on their entire linguistic repertoire to create meaning in a given context. Their article examines how translanguaging in classroom discourse is enacted through images, signs, and the spoken word in music videos. In their finding, translanguaging is used for scaffolding English language instruction for students who are still emergent bilinguals and for

developing and performing their translanguaging discourse in writing. According to Garcia and Leiva (2014), the fact that Camila, the teacher, allows students to translanguaging in the dialogue means that the voices of emergent bilinguals who otherwise would have been silenced are released. The students' translanguaging serves three important "discursive functions—enabling participation, elaboration of ideas, and raising questions" (Garcia & Leiva, 2014, p. 210). This demonstrates that translanguaging, as a pedagogical practice, is embraced to construct and allow student voices and identities to ensure that monolingual ideologies are not privileged in the classroom. It is therefore important to emphasize in this study that all bilingual communities are translingual, and translanguaging theory influences and legitimizes bilingual and multilingual communication practices.

Translanguaging theory considers bilinguals' complex and fluid language practices and the pedagogical approaches that leverage those practices. Canagarajah (2011) sees translanguaging as a linguistic theory that builds on the concept of languaging that respects the ability of multilingual speakers to shuttle between languages, treating the several languages that make up their repertoire as an interconnected system. This evidence is bolstered by Garcia (2009) on her biliteracy research and Hornberger (2003) in her continua of the biliteracy model, which theorizes how students may shuttle between languages and modalities in their learning. Hornberger defends that multilingual shuttling between languages depends on the dimensions of their biliteracy development. These dimensions: linguistic, modal, and sociocultural continuum, help understand contexts where multilingual develop their biliteracy skills. However, such an act of shuttling between languages is performative and social practice because "it depends on aligning one's language resources to the features of the ecology to construct meaning" (Canagarajah, 2014, p. 5). In his research, it is evident from a classroom ethnography of a

writing course that teaching strategies are established for the co-construction of meaning and orientations for evaluating effective translanguaging practices (Canagarajah, 2014). By looking at students' literacy narratives in a graduate-level course on the teaching of second language writing, the researcher found that multilingual students explore their voices and footing through translanguaging practices. Canagarajah's ethnographic research shows that these choices made by multilingual students are rhetorically and contextually motivated, and language and literacy instructors should pay attention to the culturally guided ways of writing to promote the pluralization of academic literacies and multiliteracy instruction in their instruction.

Additionally, Seloni (2012) in her micro-ethnographic study of the socialization of academic literacy in six multilingual doctoral students, demonstrates that spaces provided in the academic discourse enable them to challenge the academic practices they came across and attempt to become reflective members of the doctoral communities during their first year of study. Thus, translanguaging theory recognizes that using multiple languages in communication can be a powerful tool for creating new meanings, building social connections, and challenging dominant language ideologies that perpetuate linguistic inequality. In this sense, translanguaging can be seen as a way to resist the idea that one language or language variety is superior to others and to create spaces for multilingualism and linguistic diversity. The concept of translanguaging also helps me understand the value of multilingualism in the Ghanaian context. This framework is important as Ghanaian students also use multitude of languages to make sense of their world, and Ghanaian language classrooms are usually shaped by Ghana's language educational policy: National Literacy Acceleration Program, which sometimes don't embrace translanguaging as a valid framework.

A growing body of recent Ghanaian scholarship has demonstrated that translanguaging is a natural characteristic practice among Ghanaian multilingual students and has great promise as a pedagogical tool. In Ghanaian linguistic ecology—the relationships that exist between different languages and their sociocultural contexts (Spolsky, 2004), the concept is understood by scholars as the practice of using multiple languages fluidly in classroom communication and learning. For most Ghanaian applied linguists, translanguaging has been advocated to promote linguistic and cultural diversity in micro-classroom practices. From my teaching experiences in Ghana, I can attest that this concept could promote equitable access to bilingual education, particularly for multilingual students who speak local languages that differ from the languages of instruction (mother tongue and English medium instruction). Agbozo (2020) believes that translanguaging pedagogies may only be fully realized when connected to other practices in and beyond the Ghanaian micro-classroom that affirm and support bilingualism and multilingual learners. In support of Agbozo's research, Elaine (2017), in his ethnographic study of two teachers, shows that teachers' use of translanguaging in classroom space increases students' participation and access to class content. The researcher discovered that in ESL science and reading classes, teachers translanguaged during lectures while explaining texts written in English. Additionally, when teachers posed questions in English, they were pedagogically flexible by accepting responses from students in Spanish. In cases where the teacher is not fluent in all of the languages that students are bringing to the space, the teacher relies on students who are fluent in both language of instruction and the languages spoken by peers as pedagogic resources in translating and explaining concepts to their peers. This shows that translanguaging pedagogies have helped develop the bilingual identities of students where students and teachers might actually have different multilingual resources.

However, understanding and implementing translanguaging in Ghana's bilingual education is not without complications. One of the main complications in the understanding and implementation of translanguaging in Ghana's primary education system is the fact that the official language of instruction from grade 4 upward is English, a language that many multilingual students may not speak fluently, particularly in rural areas (NALAP Baseline Assessment, 2009). This means that students who are still not literate at that early exit stage may struggle to understand classroom lessons and be unable to participate fully in classroom activities. Furthermore, teachers may need to be proficient in the local languages spoken by their students, and the designated mother-tongue medium of instruction can create communication barriers and limit the effectiveness of translanguaging practices. Another complication is that the use of translanguaging may be seen as a threat to the dominance of English as the language of instruction. Some stakeholders may argue that students should focus solely on learning English to succeed academically and in the job market. In contrast, others may advocate for the use of local languages as a means of promoting cultural preservation and identity. This creates a tension between the desire to promote equitable access to education and the need to prepare students for the demands of a globalized economy. The above contrasting arguments show that there is a need to expand the understanding of multiple linguistic resources in countries where English is the primary language, and therefore there is an understanding that multi-language speakers need to make sure they are capable of using English in the way that the dominant, English-speaking population uses it.

Additionally, one issue that received scholarly attention is that some language teaching materials do not support translingual goals. Language and teaching materials play a key role in promoting the learning and revitalization of local languages in Ghana's education. Particularly,

Ghanaian English textbooks as teaching and learning materials play a crucial role in shaping language and literacy education (Frimpong, 2021). However, some of these materials do not always fully support the translingual goals. Some Ghanaian English textbooks primarily focus on teaching British English, thus neglecting the rich linguistic diversities, multiliteracies and translingual communication presents in the country's sociolinguistic landscape. This approach reinforces linguistic hierarchies and does not create culturally sustained spaces for the representation of outer circle varieties spoken by Ghanaian multilingual students. It is therefore important to acknowledge that some of these teaching materials-textbooks do not always fully support the translingual goals, which is a pressing challenge.

Despite these challenges, Ghana Education Service (GES) and stakeholders have tried to promote translanguaging in Ghana's bilingual education, particularly in implementing the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP). The policy acknowledges the importance of using students' mother tongues as a medium of instruction in the early years of education and gradually transitioning to English as the language of instruction. This approach is based on research that shows that when children are taught in their mother tongue, they are more likely to develop a strong foundation in their education, which helps them succeed in later years. Additionally, some NGOs and researchers (Bronteng, 2018) conducted studies and developed resources to support translanguaging practices in the classroom. For example, the Springboard Initiative, a non-governmental organization promoting literacy and education in Ghana, has developed bilingual storybooks in several languages and English. These storybooks can be used in the classroom to promote literacy and help students develop proficiency in their mother tongue and English.

It is important in this research to review Ghanaian scholarship that looks at how translanguaging is applied to Ghanaian bilingual education. One significant work that aligns with how translanguaging theory is applied in Ghana's early exit bilingual education is Yevudey's research. According to Yevudey (2012), in Ghana's transitional bilingual education, translanguaging practices emerge due to postcolonial language issues regarding literacy instruction. The scholar, in his research, looks at the pedagogical relevance of translanguaging in Ghanaian classrooms as he comparatively observed two different classrooms for his study. The first type of classroom employs translanguaging practices and a bilingual medium of instruction. The language and literacy lessons in these classrooms follow the National Acceleration Literacy Program (NALAP), a bilingual literacy program of Ghana in which a specific topic is taught in Ewe for the first half of the lesson, and the same topic is taught in English for the second half. The second type of classroom, from a privately owned school, adopts a monolingual use of English as the medium of instruction. On the other hand, the researcher stated that the hybrid linguistic modeled class employs a learner-centered approach to literacy where the teacher taps into what students already know in their home language. This is what made pupils averagely literate in L1 and L2. Yevudey (2014) added that repeating the same concept in Ewe and English to reiterate a point, switching to either Ewe or English in order to explain a concept or (new) terminology used during a lesson are some bilingual practices that improve students' literacy skills. His study demonstrates that teachers and students have more positive perceptions of the combination of English and Ewe in teaching in lower-grade classes. Their perception is that such an instructional approach will help pupils improve the usage of English and native languages and create space to present and preserve the relevance of indigenous languages in the classroom. As Yevudey (2004) stated:

In response to which language or combination of languages should be used for teaching in the lower grade classes, teachers predominantly chose a combination of Ewe and English. In Schools A and C which are public schools, 91.4% and 100% respectively chose a combination of Ewe and English as ideal medium of instruction. The responses from Schools B and D, which are private schools, were in favor of a combination of Ewe and English in the classroom thus constituting 94.4% and 94.1% respectively. (p. 266)

These perceptions from teachers show that most teachers aim to value students' bilingual identities.

Translanguaging allows students to use bilingual labeling, repetition, translation, and simultaneous literacies to interact and negotiate meanings (Yevudey, 2012). Similarly, this scholarly finding is evident in my teacher-practitioner research. As a teacher, I also observed that most Ghanaian classrooms perceive languages as flexible social resources and provide a setting for developing bilingual practices. While learning and teaching English, there are instances that I switch to my Ewe tongue if words in Ewe do not have their L2 (English) reference. For example, words like Kete (traditional wear) and gari (flour fresh starchy cassava) do not have their L2 (English) references. I also utilize this flexible practice in my teaching by relying on both English and Ewe. Pedagogically, I encourage students to provide difficult answers in the language comfortable to them, after which I explain the answer in English to the whole class. Using translanguaging practices, language activities in early and late-exit transitional bilingual models have been beneficial (Yevudey, 2012). Thus, using a case of two classrooms in his study, Yevudey (2012) reports that students did well when they were exposed to the fluid use of English and Ewe instruction.

Another research that aligns with the research interest of this study is Bronteng's (2018) research on the instructional use of translanguaging in Ghana's bilingual classroom. The scholar used qualitative design—visual research method to study kindergarten teachers' bilingual practices about classroom displays and their translanguaging practices at morning assemblies in some selected schools in the Cape Coast Metropolis in the Central Region of Ghana. It is evident in her finding that all but one of the schools had bilingually labeled classroom displays, with English and Fante language being the most important language pair for the bilingual labeling (albeit bilingual labeling received less attention). The study also revealed that most of the bilingually labeled displays were posted within the eye level of the students, which facilitated participation. More so, about the sign type, most of the bilingually labeled displays were iconic. Regarding the teachers' translanguaging practices at morning assemblies, the findings show that all the participating schools and teachers translanguaged during their morning assemblies. It was revealed that aside from using translanguaging as a comprehension enhancer, it was also used linguistically as a downtoner and an alienation tool. In Bronteng (2018), "an example of downtowner is where one of the teachers used the word 'hyper' instead of its Fante version, 'begyabegya' to downtone the negativity of the students' rowdiness" (p. 173). Despite the fact that the two words have the same signifier, their signified differ in this context (Bronteng, 2018). What the researcher also means by alienation tool is that, in classroom communication, teachers sometimes utilize certain Fante words to maintain confidential information in one language (Fante) and switch to the other language (English) for the rest of the instruction. This idea of utilizing multilingual resources is therefore useful for readers because it emphasizes the way pupils and teachers move between languages as a resource for communication which is really an important key point when discussing translanguaging.

In a similar study, Agbozo and ResCue (2020) discuss the inconsistencies of educational policies in Ghana's education space after independence. This study emphasizes that language policies must be modified in Ghana and make more spaces for translanguaging practices to preserve the country's pluralistic and heterogeneous nature. The researchers state that applying translanguaging practices to classroom pedagogy in implementing language policy gives teachers and students a chance to employ their entire linguistic repertoires in achieving pedagogical goals. To meet the linguistic needs of the pupils and the community in which they live, code-switching (which is not seen as a separate code) in a translanguaging mode is a way of addressing the ineffectiveness of the language policy implementation. What Agbozo and Rescue (2020) mean by code switching operating in a translanguaging mode is that code-switching is the "concurrent use of the two languages and safe-talk" (p. 81). The scholars observe that such fluid language practice is one of the phenomena that lead to translingual communication, where Ghanaian multilinguals access diverse linguistic features when they are communicating in a Ghanaian classroom. This evidence is supported by Adika (2004), that once the translanguaging practices of multilingual language users of linguistic diversity are allowed to reshape pedagogical practice in the classroom, flexible implementation of the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) will be fruitful.

Yevudey (2015) also lends credence to Owu-Ewie and Eshun (2015) on their findings that English instruction is seen as a means of language and literacy instruction. This means that at the early years of schooling local languages are used alongside English as a medium of instruction. Own-Ewie and Eshun (2015) conducted a study in Winneba, Ajumako, in the Central Region of Ghana, looking at how English as a medium of instruction from Upper Primary to the JHS is practiced. The study shows that both English and Ghanaian languages (in this case, Fante)

were used as a medium of instruction, and some of the English lessons were taught in the Ghanaian language. This study demonstrates that translanguaging practices occur when teachers explain what was said in English in the Ghanaian language and when teachers and students negotiate meanings.

Based on my teaching experience in the classroom, I found that the role of translanguaging on language policy and implementation cannot be overlooked. Translanguaging practices inform and shape language-in-education policies by emphasizing the importance of maintaining and developing local languages alongside English. It is important to state that much research is needed to further investigate how translanguaging can be more culturally integrated into Ghanaian language policies and implementation. Stakeholders need to ensure such how multilingual practices are reflected in language policy implementation. In the next section, I review studies on language policy in Ghana and clarify why this research must examine micro and macro-level decisions in implementing language policy.

Language Policy in Ghana

To get a better understanding of the impact of language education policies on classroom instruction and materials, this thesis also reviewed research from other foreign contexts. Shohamy (2004) defines language education policy as decisions about which language(s) should be taught in the specific contexts of schools and universities concerning home languages, foreign and second languages. Shohamy states that the scholarship around language policy helps to understand that language policies need to follow the rules of pluralist democratic societies and appreciate that citizens should have the opportunity to use a variety of languages in different spaces and with different speech communities. Spolsky (2004) posits that understanding language policy sets a basis for the realization that all speech communities include complex

repertoires of linguistic units of various sizes, which are condensed into recognized linguistic varieties that are sometimes given a name. He adds that in studying language policy, we understand just what non-language variables co-vary with the language variables. This means that language policy exists in human society's broader social, political, economic, cultural, religious, and ideological context. The nature of people's language policy must be derived from a study of their language practice or beliefs. In this regard, it is crucial to examine the role of these external policy actors and their macro-level decisions because the decisions made by internal policy actors: teachers and students, are based on these macro-level decisions. In Ghana, one of the macro-level decisions from policy actors is the use of English and mother tongue instruction in lower grade levels. Therefore, this implies that the study of language policy is essential in Ghanaian multilingual education because internal policy actors implement such policies based on macro-level decisions.

In Ghana, language policy is a critical subject to investigate and understand the country's underrepresented and complex educational issues. While most people have advocated a national development plan that will cater for a standardized educational policy plan, this is yet to be implemented by politicians and continues to be debatable. This perspective is supported by Adika (2012) as he emphasizes that there is an ongoing debate regarding the implementation of language policy for the primary level of education. While some educators side with English-only instruction for lower grade levels, some side with a bilingual medium of instruction. As a result of this debate on English-only or bilingual instruction, practitioners have called on successive governments to have language policies that respect the development of bilingual education at primary levels. One of the language policies that emerged is National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP).

National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) is one of the national language policies that emerged in 2009. The NALAP is a tool for educational language policy that aims to increase Ghana's literacy rates. According to National Literacy Acceleration Report (NALAP) Baseline Assessment report (2009), NALAP aims to ensure all children in kindergarten to grade three have quality literacy skills, practical instruction, and public support to learn to read and write in their mother tongue and English. It has a tri-thematic focus: All children from kindergarten to Primary 3 should have access to high-quality literacy materials, practical instruction, and community support to learn to read and write in their native language and English. This NALAP policy seeks to protect and promote the learners' cultural heritage (Yevudey, 2014), which is consistent with the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)'s recognition of the learner's fundamental right to access language. Yevudey (2014) added that NALAP, as a bilingual literacy program, at its inception in 2009, was run on an experimental trial to determine its success rate. The NALAP policy, previously under pilot research, proved to be successful as L2 students in the pilot study could read and write both L1 and L2 after grade three. In effect, the policy was then implemented in public schools while private schools pursued English-medium instruction. Therefore, the NALAP policy promotes late and early-exit bilingual education because it enhances the smooth transition from students' mother tongue to English to enhance their literacy acquisition. However, from my personal experience, in the Volta Region of Ghana, teachers in public schools are using both the English language and Ewe—the dominant local dialect of the Volta region as a medium of instruction. Ewe and English lessons are joined into one language and literacy teaching period. With the use of multi-sensory resources like bilingual labels and posters, a typical class in the Volta Region, therefore, involves teaching the topic or the lesson of the day in

the English Language for the first half of the lesson period and repeating the same lesson in Ewe for the last half of the lesson period. While this sounds cumbersome, this is the way local teachers implement early and late-exit bilingual instruction in the public schools of the Volta Region.

Implementation of Language Policy in Ghana: A Historical Overview

Generally, language has been viewed as a vehicle for facilitating smooth instructional sessions. Just as Ojentis (2021) views the history of bilingual education in the United States as inconsistent and contradictory, Ghana's bilingual education also takes slightly the same path. The history surrounding inconsistencies of language policies in the country cannot be overlooked as far as this study is concerned.

Language policy and its implementation is critical to the country's development. However, Ghana has had a checkered history in the choice of language policies and language instruction. Research indicates there have been unstable switches and inconsistencies in the implementation of the language policies, particularly uncertainties between the use of English-only medium of instruction (EMoI) and mother tongue-based bilingual medium of instruction (MTB- BMoI), with EMoI having the higher preference among some advocates (Opoku-Amankwa & Brew-Hammond, 2011). These long tussles between early and late-exit models were characterized by Ghana's bilingual education. According to Ansah (2014), with a close look at the issue in Ghana, there was no formal language-in-education policy throughout Ghana's precolonial era. Therefore, the language of instruction in the castle schools changed depending on which European group was in power at the time.

At this point, it is also important to note the historical background of Christian Missions that operated during the pre-colonial era and how the language policies changed throughout

history in Ghana. The earliest form of bilingual education in Ghana can be traced back to the days of colonial rule and Christian missionaries. Between 1529 and 1874, no Ghanaian language was employed as the language of instruction. The Portuguese (1529-1637), the Dutch (1637-1722), the Danes (1722-1694), and the English (1694-1874), utilized their languages as a medium of instruction during their respective regimes (Owu-Ewie, 2013). After these regimes, the Christian Missions that existed during Ghana's precolonial era were Basel, Bremen, and Wesleyan. These missions shared a major goal of providing education and spreading Christianity in Ghana. The mission of Bremen and Basel Christian Missions is to establish schools by providing basic education to Ghanaian children, focusing on literacy, numeracy, and religious instruction. The Wesleyan mission also sought to provide formal education to Ghanaian children, focusing on academic instruction, moral values, and religious teachings.

During and after the administration of Gordon Guggisberg (1919-1927), these Christian missions (Bremen and Basel vs. Wesleyan) practiced different language policies in education. The Basel and Bremen Christian mission (1921-1951) promoted three-year mother tongue education. An instance is where the Basel and Bremen Christian missions promoted the use of the local or indigenous Ghanaian language in the regions where they operated, while the Wesleyan Mission (1921-1951) emphasized only English in the regions they operated. In this sense, Gbedor (1994), as referenced by Ansah (2014), occlude that the Basel and Bremen missions adopted a mother tongue-based education policy, utilizing the native languages of the communities in which they operated as the medium of instruction in formal education, in contrast to the Wesleyan mission, which adopted an English monolingual education policy. Even though Wesleyan missionaries (1921-51) were operating in some regions of Gold Coast, the recognition of local language received significant attention during Sir Governor Gordon

Guggisberg's (1919–1927) administration (Wiafe, 2021). Guggisberg's policy stated that the lower primary school must employ the mother tongue as the significant teaching language from primary 1-3 under the bilingual education policy, after which the use of local languages will phase out to English only policy. Subsequently, the 1951 educational reform that was implemented included the Accelerated Development Plan (ADP), which placed further emphasis on the use of local languages as the primary medium of instruction at early primary stages (P1-P3). As indicated by Owu-Ewie (2012), the three-year mother tongue education policy was converted to an early mother tongue medium policy (1951–1956) under the government's "Accelerated Development Plan" of 1951.

Though efforts at valuing and developing the local languages by the missionaries and the colonial governments were minimal, some significant progress was made by the time of independence in 1957. In the next section, I look at the historical background of the language policies implemented during the post-colonial era.

On the verge of Ghana's independence in 1956, The Bernard Committee was established to look at the viability of using English as the only teaching language in Ghana's formal education. Under the official administration of Dr. Kwame Nkrumah, the first president of Ghana, the Committee advocated going back to the three-year mother tongue education policy of 1951, but a minority report of The Bernard Committee of 1956's suggestion of only-English policy was adopted by the post-colonial government (1957–1966). So, Nkrumah government opted for only English education policy since Nkrumah believes that English is used for all official business, government, and media. He saw the local languages as a significant part of cultural heritage rather than as tools for education and development (Mfum-Mensah, 2005). Unfortunately, the overthrow of the first post-colonial government (1967-1969) led to an early

mother tongue medium of instruction policy (L1 at primary one only). A civilian government of Edward Akuffo Addo and Busia (1970-1974) restores the 1921-1951 three-year mother tongue education. According to Owu-Ewie (2004), this early-exit language policy (1974-2002) continues to exist with a slight modification of the study of the Ghanaian language, a compulsory subject up to the secondary school level.

From 2002-2008, the New Patriotic Party government of Ghana formulated an only-English-education policy which triggered public protest and was debated among lawmakers in Ghana's parliament on a number of occasions. The debate is that some are siding for English only as a medium of instruction for primary schools, while some educators are siding for bilingual instruction. This is because the New Patriotic Party government implemented only English instruction, which language educators see as not workable. Kraft (2003), a language educator, described the policy as akin to committing intellectual, cultural, and educational suicide. As a result of this step, practitioners have called on successive governments to have language policies that respect the development of bilingual education at primary levels. Most public protests advocate that future emerging language policies should aim to produce learners with bilingual competencies in their original language and official language.

One of the surviving language policies that emerge in 2009 is NALAP (National Literacy Acceleration Program). The NALAP has two objectives. First, while L2 (English language) is being taught as a subject, L1 should be used for classroom interactions for the first five years of schooling (from Kindergarten to Primary 3). Instruction in mother tongue is then switched to English for the remainder of the child's education, starting in upper primary (sixth year). The second objective is to protect the learners' cultural heritage, which is consistent with UNICEF's recognition of the learner's fundamental right to access language. As illustrated in table 1 below,

Owu-Ewie (2013) shows the trend of language policy implementation in Ghana. The table below shows a diagrammatic representation of Ghanaian language policy from precolonial era to present (1529-2009) (Owu-Ewie, 2013).

Table I: Historical Representation Of Ghana’s Education Language Policy

PERIOD	1 ST YEAR	2 ND YEAR	3 RD YEAR	4 TH YEAR
1529-1925				
a. Castle schools Era	-	-	-	-
b. Missionary Era	+	+	+	-
1925-1951	+	+	+	-
1951-1955	+	-	-	-
1956-1966	-	-	-	-
1967-1969	+	-	-	-
1970-1973	+	+	+	+
1974-2002	+	+	+	-
2002-2007	-	-	-	-
2009-present	NALAP Bilingual instruction: use of mother tongue and English (NALAP)			-

+: A Ghanaian language was used as a medium of instruction

-: A Ghanaian language not used

Despite these inconsistencies and the checkered history of language policy and its implementation in the above table, the current NALAP policy allows the use of Ghanaian indigenous languages from preschool to grade three as a medium of instruction. English is taught as a subject. From grade four onwards, the Ghanaian indigenous language is taught as a subject, and English becomes the medium of instruction. The import of the NALAP policy is to enhance young learners' comprehension of thought in their early years of schooling using a familiar local language for instruction while children are exposed to the English Language (Bronteng, 2018; Ministry of Education, 2004; Opoku-Amankwa et al., 2015).

Having looked at language education policies that colonial rulers and Christian missions promoted in the pre-and post-colonial era, in the following section, I discuss the early and late-exit transitional bilingual models.

Transitional Bilingual models

There are other kinds of bilingual programs around the world, but this thesis only focuses on early and late-exit models since they are the most commonly used ones in the Ghanaian educational context to support multilinguals in acquiring proficiency in multiple languages.

Early-Exit Model

According to Cummins (1991), the connection between the home and target languages is the foundation for the transitional bilingual education framework. Researchers have shown that cross-linguistic transfer of language as well as metacognitive knowledge help deliver a successful bilingual education (Cummins,1991). In transitional bilingual education programs, initial instruction is mainly in the student's native tongue, with a limited amount of instruction in English that gets progressively more intense each year until the student can function well in classes where English is the exclusive language of instruction. Based on the student's English

language proficiency and grade levels, different amounts of time are spent on topic instruction in both the native language and English.

According to the Massachusetts Department of elementary school education (2021), a bilingual program approach known as transitional bilingual/early exit serves students with limited English proficiency and transitions them to English-only teaching. This approach combines English oral language and academic language development training with instruction in English and academic subject matter through the student's native language. According to Owu-Ewie (2006), the early transition model allows the use of the mother tongue as a medium of instruction at the lower primary level, and English is taught as a subject. In the early-exit transitional bilingual model, English becomes the medium of instruction at the fourth level of the primary stage. This policy makes it short-term for children to understand the complex workings of their L1 to transfer effectively. Irrespective of this short-term language instruction experienced by children, Mensah (2000) indicates that language education policy is important because it emphasizes language instruction in both learners' L1 and English at the initial level.

Martinez (2014) mentions that the early exit transitional bilingual model is one of the most popular approaches for supporting English language learners' instructional needs in the US. The scholar adds that the early exit bilingual program's primary goal is to make it easier for English Language Learners to adapt to a classroom where only English is spoken while ensuring they receive the requisite academic subject training in their native tongue. Ojentis (2021) indicates that early exit bilingual programs aim to develop students' English proficiency at the fastest rate so that they can transition to mainstream classrooms with a dominant culture. In early-exit bilingual programs, students move into English-only classrooms within two to three years of becoming proficient in the language, and every student has the same linguistic

background. Contextually, as an English teacher who taught at Revival Flames Evangelistic Mission Primary School, I observed that the duration of the early-exit program varies depending on the school and the region. For instance, some Ghanaian schools, not only private schools in the Volta Region of Ghana, transitioned into English-only instruction at grade three or four after using the native language as an instructional tool to help students master the second language. Nonetheless, this pedagogical step does not prevent them from using some concepts in the L1 to make explanations in L2.

Generally, the objective of the early exit program in Ghana is not only to transition students from the program into an all-English but to develop their bilingual repertoire and support the impact of minority languages in teaching L2. Whether a multilingual student needs an early-exit or late-exit bilingual program, Polanco and Luft de Baker (2018), therefore, defend that teachers should be given the pedagogical flexibility to decide the kind of bilingual model that need to be implemented based on the child's language difficulties.

Late-Exit Model

According to Owu-Ewie (2009), language policy has an important role in a child's success in bilingual education. He explains further that when a child develops a solid linguistic competence of L1, there is a direct influence on the development of L2, particularly in late-exit bilingual transitional instruction. Adekemi (2012) justifies that if learners prematurely transit into English, it substantially hinders the acquisition of communicative competence since the learners do not attain full proficiency at their early-exit level. According to Thomas and Collier (2003), the late-exit transitional model advocates for about 40% use of the mother tongue in teaching until the 6th year of school. The target of late-exit model is to perfectly develop the learner's mother tongue literacy skills to help multilingual learn the second language effectively.

In the Ghanaian educational context, the late-exit transitional bilingual model delays the switch from L1 to L2 as the primary instructional language until years five and six. Ghana currently uses a late-exit bilingual curriculum since students first complete the NALAP for five years (two years in KG and three years in lower primary) before moving on to English as a medium of instruction (Bronteng, 2018). This shows that there are paradoxes in the conceptualization of the early and late-exit models among Ghanaian scholars. Whereas Owu-Ewie (2007) says Ghana practiced an early-exit model, Bronteng (2018) indicates Ghana currently practices a late exit-exit model. Given that appropriate first and second-language pedagogy is applied in the classroom with proper content area literacy education, a successful late-exit model that preserves the mother tongue as a subject beyond five to six years can result in fluid bilingualism.

In the late-exit bilingual model, all forms of instructional and language learning support the teacher gives help learners to develop biliteracy until year six forms part of Ghana's late-exit transitional bilingual education support. In the United States context, a bilingual student with low English proficiency is also served by a bilingual program model known as the late-exit transitional bilingual model (Garcia, 2013). According to Martirosyan et al. (2015), the objective of bilingual programs is to encourage excellent academic performance and complete academic language fluency in both students' native language and English. The scholars added that a student participating in a late-exit transitional bilingual model might not leave the program before six years of schooling or after seven years of enrollment. This differs from Ghanaian primary education, particularly in government schools. However, the description of transitional bilingual education depends on how and where (rural area) it is offered. Depending on the school, after three or four years of bilingual instruction at the kindergarten level, the child spends another

three years in the lower primary for biliteracy to be developed in the student's native language and English. Most teachers in the bilingual program in Ghana adopt the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP), which advises that Primary four be designated as the year when mother language instruction is gradually phased out in favor of English-only instruction. The late-exit model's primary objective in government schools in Ghana is to promote student understanding of all essential curriculum areas while preserving the use of their mother tongue. This allows for a more extended transitional period, during which children can pick up the second language more slowly and develop their bilingual repertoire.

In trying to develop the biliteracy, transitional bilingual education has become one of the essential educational programs that may serve kids from various linguistic and cultural backgrounds to provide high-quality, equitable, and equitable education and accessible. Nevertheless, L2 is typically the target language of instruction in developing nations like Ghana since it is the language the school places the most significant emphasis on and wants the students to acquire at the junior high level (Carroll & Mazak, 2017; Owu-Ewie, 2006). Africa's target educational languages are foreign tongues typically passed down from the respective colonial powers (Boakye-Boateng, 2010).

Despite the challenges associated with the implementation of Ghana's bilingual policies, the impact of such policies on literacy education cannot be overlooked. In the next section, I look at the impact of language policy and implementation on literacy education.

Impact of Language Policies and Implementation on Literacy Education in Ghana

Yevudey (2018) postulated that NALAP positively impacted students in the Volta Region. In his study, students exposed to English and Ewe instruction read both L1 and L2 very well with comprehension after three years. No wonder Brew-Daniels (2011) argues that bilingual

language use in the classroom should be considered a teachable pedagogic resource. Hence the NALAP policy has been helpful since its inception. Yevudey and Agbozo (2019) found that a flexible bilingual language-in-education policy like NALAP presents multilingual realities for the students because it rests on the needs of the students. Since one of the literacy principles is from known to unknown, the NALAP policy tries to develop and build on what students already know in L1.

In Ghana, USAID (2011) and Rosekrans et al. (2012) conducted studies on the NALAP that showed improvements in children's school-based language and literacy development. Their research study demonstrates that improving early language and literacy acquisition in schools depends critically on the NALAP's effective implementation. To further this argument, the findings of the South African study by Swadener et al. (2013) that pupils learn more effectively using bilingual policies with an emphasis on L1 support Owu-Ewie (2006)'s assertion about the positive impacts of bilingual policies if implemented well in Ghana. These studies also highlighted the positive impacts of mother language bilingual instruction in the classroom and how it aids non-native L2 teachers in explaining topics to students, as was already indicated. These investigations showed that L1 plays a crucial role as a linguistic resource in the teaching process when there is a vocabulary deficit or communication barrier in using English as the sole medium of instruction.

Yevudey (2012) provided replies to questionnaire surveys and interviews performed in the Ghanaian Volta Region. In this research, the data are analyzed qualitatively—showing how teachers and students use code-switching as bilingual practices to accomplish various roles in classroom interactions and how teachers generally have favorable attitudes regarding codeswitching. Based on these findings, it is suggested that bilingual practices in the form of

codeswitching under the National Literacy Acceleration Program allowed students to comprehend topics in both languages and engage in active learning. Similarly, Aboagye and Adade-Yeboah (2019), in their study of teachers' perception of language policy, present some reasons the bilingual medium of instruction through NALAP has positively impacted instruction. They argue that the bilingual medium of instruction through NALAP creates faster and easier learning and allows students to express themselves better. For example, the “spelling B contest” in Ghana’s bilingual education has enhanced literacy education by exposing students to learn new vocabulary. Despite the fact that “spelling b contests” are mostly focused on English, they can promote multilingualism by exposing pupils to new vocabulary and linguistic structures in English as well as other languages spoken in Ghana. For the explanation concepts, NALAP has promoted and made flexible provisions for scaffolding as far as mother tongue and English instruction are concerned.

In another line of research, Abreh and Wilmot (2018) reveal that when Wing Schools implemented bilingual practices through the NALAP, learner literacy and numeracy increased, which had a favorable effect on second language acquisition. According to these researchers, children from hamlets and rural communities in Ghana's northern region typically come from homogenous linguistic environments, which facilitates the implementation of bilingual practices in the classroom. Additionally, studies by Bialystok (2002) point to the positive impact of bilingual policies on children's metalinguistic awareness. Her research explores the differences between bilingual and monolingual children in the development of literacy acquisition. The scholar reveals that bilingual policies undoubtedly impact the development of reading in multilingual students. On the other hand, Cummins (2002), in a study of 102 English-Spanish first, third, and sixth graders in Miami, Florida, shows that there are significant positive

associations between receptive vocabulary in Spanish (L1) and English (L2). Nearly 27% of the variation in English vocabulary knowledge was attributed to Spanish vocabulary knowledge. They concluded that the best predictor of English receptive vocabulary scores was the development of Spanish receptive vocabulary. Their results support the argument that bilingual policies positively impact multilingual literacy education. This holds that the development of a second language in the implementation of bilingual policy is facilitated by a firm foundation in the first language.

Nonetheless, one of the drawbacks of bilingual policies is the inconsistent nature of the changeover in bilingual policies since policies did not give clear guidelines from the beginning of language planning and implementation. According to Bisilki (2018), there have been several changes to bilingual programs in Ghana's precolonial and post-colonial era. The nation would have been moving in the right direction if the NALAP in 2009 had been introduced earlier than it was. Looking at the negative impact of the inconsistencies in previous language policies, Bisilki (2018) argues that under the NALAP regime, the government did not really take into consideration a more significant number of Ghanaian indigenous languages. From my teaching experiences, such linguistic fragmentations like dialects of Akan and Ewe languages need to be catered to by revising the language policies to accommodate every heterogeneous multilingual student.

However, in solving some of these geographical and linguistic issues of mother tongue instruction in Ghana, Owu-Ewie (2006) blames its ineffectiveness on the type of bilingual education that Ghana uses, which was the early exit model where school children are unseasonably transitioned into English medium of instruction in grade 3; in this case, students would not have mastered the linguistic complexities to transition effectively to the target

language to be able to transfer those patterns into the L2. A formidable solution is the “late-exit transitional model, which will make learners ‘balanced bilinguals’; competent in both the Ghanaian language and English” (Owu-Ewie, 2006, p. 80). Under this model, students would have matured enough to understand the nuances of their L1 to zoom into the L2 efficaciously. Owu-Ewie (2006) further proposed a late-exit transitional bilingual model, which the NALAP has respected. Owu-Ewie (2006) outlines this with the following statements:

In the Ghanaian context, this means the mother tongue will be used as the medium of instruction from Primary 1 to Primary 4. At the same time, English is gradually introduced into the system as the medium of instruction from Primary 5 and finally becomes the medium of instruction from Primary 6 onwards. From primary one to four, English will be a subject of study. From Primary 6, the Ghanaian language will be studied as a core subject up to the end of Junior Secondary School and continue to be a core subject to the end of the Senior Secondary School program. (Owu-Ewie, 2006, p. 81)

In rejecting ‘English only’ instruction at the primary level, Owu-Ewie (2006) defends that pushing for mother tongue instruction at the early level of schooling helps facilitate Second language instruction. This is because research in second language acquisition research has duly acknowledged the pivotal role of the first language in learning L2 (Ortega, 2014). Owu-Ewie (2006) further contended that NALAP as a bilingual education program is a possible solution to the language education crisis if policies are not politically motivated in the future. He, therefore, suggested that such bilingual policy should be operated on the level of late-exit models to help develop Ghanaian students’ multiliteracies.

In the following section, I look at the sociolinguistic landscape of English in Ghana since English has been regarded as a global language. Reviewing the sociolinguistic landscape of Ghana in the latter part of this chapter seeks to provide the background for the afore-explained theories that guide this study. By delving into the sociolinguistic context later in this chapter, this section gives insights into the linguistic diversity, language practices, and societal dynamics that shape afore-explained language policies. This section therefore serves as a necessary foundation for understanding the language policies in Ghana, as it provides a deeper understanding of the sociocultural factors that influence transitional bilingualism and language policies coupled with early and late transitional models.

The Sociolinguistic Context of English in Ghana

According to Ghana Education Service (GES) (2010), Ghana has eighty (80) different languages spoken across the ten regions of Ghana. Some Ghanaian languages are Akan (Akuapem, Fante, and Akyem, which are variations of Akan), Ewe Nzema, Ga, Dagaare, Kasem, Dagbani, and Gonja, which are most prevalently used and government-sponsored ones. With a population of over thirty-six million people, where multiple groups of people interact, language choice both in institutional spaces and private spaces is always a site of contention. Owu-Ewie (2006) mentions that the conundrum of choosing a language policy for education in Ghana should capture the linguistic ecology of Ghanaian indigenous languages and cultures.

Looking at the sociolinguistic space of the country, the way English Language teaching operates in Ghanaian society differs from many other English-dominant societies (Adika, 2009). For instance, Ghanaian communities comprise heterogeneous linguistic groups like Akans, Gas, Adangbes, Ewes, Dagombas, and the rest. Hence, using English as Ghana's official language is paradoxical because "Ghana uses English as the official language, and yet the majority of

Ghanaians do not speak English as L1” (Andoh-Kumi, 2000, p. 1). According to Agozo (2012), at government primary schools, English language teaching does not only regard using only English to teach students. Language teachers draw on (from) learners’ mother tongue to help them learn the target language. Looking at the Ghanaian socio-cultural space, English Language is not the language that parents, relatives, or even some teachers speak to those students at home, except for a few educated elites who championed monolingual speaking methods. Most times, only a few students are seen in British and American Montessori schools in the country trying to develop the skill of only English, but it is difficult for them. In as much as they come into contact with their friends (who are bilingual and function within that domain), it also affects their choice of words by merging local words with that English words. In his article "Socio-Pragmatics of Conversational Codeswitching in Ghana," Amuzu (2012) supports this claim that bilinguals use stylistic code-switching to indicate specific social and discourse objectives. The issue is framed within an ongoing conversation regarding the fate of Ghanaian indigenous languages in close interaction with English. Bilinguals continue to switch between English words and local words to indicate social and discourse intentions, even though many codeswitching occurrences may pass for trivial pragmatic and discursive tasks in interactions beyond indicating speakers' solidarity.

According to Abdulai (2018), the British and American versions of the Montessori models used in six childhood centers in the Kumasi Metropolis do not align with the sociocultural norms of the area. The goal of these institutions is to encourage English-only proficiency. This is not the case in the day-to-day interactions among students in public schools (Appiah Amfo & Anderson, 2019). The scholars reveal that multilingualism has become pervasive in government schools and rural community study, and whenever multilingual students are out of the classroom, they mostly rely on code-switching and meshing to help their peers

understand the concepts taught in class. It is evident that the English language is not the language that is spoken to students by parents and guardians in larger network communities in which these students are socialized during their early stages of development. During infancy, childhood, and adolescence, English is typically considered a second language for most Ghanaian citizens. Hence, English is not always seen as a dominant part of Ghanaian socio-linguistic history.

Regarding the languages used at the governmental level, including the legislative, executive, and judicial branches, professionals in these fraternities use English in most of their official discussions. In addition, English is the official language of all official documents in Ghana. Ghanaian languages are primarily used in informally conducted exchanges, including daily chats, hawking, trading, local dispute resolution, religious rituals, funerals, puberty, and marriage customs. Depending on the ethnic group performing the ceremony, these customary ceremonies in diverse, cosmopolitan places like Accra are either conducted in English or a combination of English and the appropriate Ghanaian languages. In the urban regions with a high proportion of multilingualism, some church services are performed in English with translations into the Ghanaian languages. Some churches offer early-morning English services, while others offer services in the most dominant Ghanaian languages like Ewe, Ga, and Akan. This is similar to shuttling between linguistic codes in schools in Ghana, particularly the school I had my primary education, Anloga Avete Basic School. I experience this shuttling between linguistic codes in our playgrounds and interaction with friends. Additionally, English and mother tongue are used in primary schools for morning devotion services and gatherings. Based on my experiences as a Sports journalist, I realized that most local media stations in rich indigenous regions use English and their mother tongue to draw the attention of local folks and the elites.

This shows that it is not only Ghanaian students that switch between linguistic codes, but local media stations also engage in fluid switching of codes to connect with the local folks.

Additionally, how the youth approach chats among their peers has different social and discourse intentions depending on the rhetorical situation. As part of the Ghanaian youth discourse community, conversations between students in and out of primary grade, secondary, and tertiary levels show that they do a lot of fluid switching of codes to make the conversation interesting. In some of the most informal encounters at universities and tertiary institutions, especially among male students, students typically switch between their mother tongue, English, and Ghanaian pidgin English to make sense of their world. The finding of Agbozo (2014) on code-switching strategies among the Ghanaian discourse community corroborates this evidence. He found that code-switching exists among the students and indigenous of Sogakope, the South-Eastern part of Ghana, and should not be regarded as separate codes. They, therefore, engage in such translanguaging practices to negotiate meanings among themselves.

In the next section, I discuss the role of language teaching materials and the importance of representation issues in textbooks. This area of discussion is important because the implication of language teaching materials on micro-classroom practices in Ghanaian multicultural classrooms cannot be underestimated.

The Role of Textbooks in Language Learning

Language teaching materials play an important part in shaping language and literacy education, particularly in promoting the learning and revitalizing of local languages in Ghana. These teaching materials, such as textbooks and digital learning resources: video, audio, images, etc., are vital in teaching and learning English in multilingual societies such as Ghana. According to Boakye-Amponsah et al. (2007), language teaching materials, particularly textbooks, provide

learners with opportunities to practice vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and other language skills. Textbooks are important tools to reflect local culture by incorporating rich Ghanaian stories, poems, and songs. By incorporating cultural content, these materials help learners develop intercultural competence and promote the preservation of Ghanaian cultural heritage.

As a language teacher, it is, therefore, important to note that some of these teaching materials-textbooks do not always or fully represent the students' bilingual identities. In this regard, issues of representation in textbooks are important. Kelen and Yazan (2020) note that "representation always involves selection; that which is not selected becomes invisible or negated" (p.3). Similarly, Azimova and Johnston (2012) state that language textbooks are powerful instruments of representation that mold the learners' conceptualization of self, the other, and the relationship between the two" (p. 339). This idea of localization of English in textbooks helps students reflect on their own culture vis-à-vis cultures represented in English-dominant contexts (McKay, 2002). As a teacher, I notice that the contents of these language textbooks do not entirely reflect multicultural Ghanaian students' linguistic and cultural experiences. Taking into consideration Golden English, language ideologies in some important parts reflect the British English variety, whereas images and local names represent the Ghanaian culture. The insufficient portrayal of Ghanaian English and L1 in the textbook could be seen as a barrier to students' ability to connect with the content presented in textbooks.

Previous research on various local languages raised concerns about how the representation of cultures and communities in language textbooks is depicted (Canale, 2016). According to Kelen and Yazan (2020), "language textbooks provide ahistorical, apolitical, and uncritical representation of target cultures" (p. 3). That is to say that English textbooks predominantly represent an Anglo-American cultural image of the target language world, thereby

neglecting the history and politics behind the heterogeneity of communities that use their own language. Again, this means that textbooks position language learners as learners of the target communities (British and America) and fail to engage the source cultures of language learners.

However, based on my teaching and research experience, most Ghanaian English textbooks have little engagement with the pluralistic view of English language varieties. According to Frimpong (2021), instructional materials are crucial in Ghanaian classrooms' teaching and learning process. Such teaching and learning materials need to incorporate and reflect the representation of Ghanaian cultures and practices. Frimpong (2021) laments that limited language materials in some rural Ghanaian classrooms are detrimental to instructional success. He adds that classroom interaction is negatively impacted if English textbooks are not provided and connected to students' cultures. Building on Frimpong's argument, Opoku-Amankwa et al. (2015) highlight that some Ghanaian English textbooks primarily focus on teaching mostly English, thus neglecting the rich linguistic diversities, multiliteracies, and translingual communication present in the country's sociolinguistic landscape. Opoku-Amankwa et al. (2015) added:

Any policy that places strong emphasis on English is likely to have the effect of eroding the status of indigenous languages. The focus of the policy impacts greatly on textbooks and learning materials that are published for schools. It stands to reason that if the policy favours English, there is a greater incentive for publishers to publish English textbooks and readers and other learning materials in English. (p. 10)

In other words, textbooks do not entirely create culturally sustained spaces for representation of outer circle varieties spoken by Ghanaian students. Instead, it reinforces linguistic hierarchies. To keep pushing for the actualization of translingual goals in Ghanaian English textbooks,

Opoku-Amankwa et al. (2015) state that language educators responsible for publishing Ghanaian English textbooks (Golden English and others) must recognize and incorporate the linguistic diversity present in Ghana, including non-standard varieties of English and local languages.

Conclusion

This chapter revised major theories and literature in translanguaging, language policy in Ghana, early and late-exit transitional bilingual models, the impact of language policy and implementation on literacy education, and the role of textbooks in learning English in Ghana. I also discussed the sociolinguistic context of English in Ghana to provide some background for these theories.

In the next chapter, I describe the research designs that I used to study the current state of Ghana's transitional bilingual models, the implementation of NALAP as a biliteracy program and discourses of language ideologies presented in the Golden English textbook English. Building on the conceptualizations and existing research in the field of language policy and revitalization and translanguaging as a language theory in this chapter, next chapter presents a more detailed consideration of my methodological choices for this particular study, the rationale behind the methods used to gather data and analyze them and the limitations of my methodology.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, I provide a detailed description of the methodological designs that I adopted to investigate how educational texts inform language instruction in the National Literacy Acceleration Program's (NALAP) implementation in Ghana's lower grades. Through the use of a qualitative research framework, I mainly focus on three educational texts—Golden English Textbook, NALAP Baseline Assessment Report, and NALAP Formative Evaluation Report—and conduct a thematic analysis and employ discourse analysis tools such as features of linguistic and rhetorical analysis to cross-reference what themes emerge while analyzing these three educational texts.

Building on previous literature on biliteracy and language policy implementation and revitalization, in this thesis, I employ discourse analysis tools: features of linguistic and rhetorical analysis to look at educational texts to determine how language instruction is characterized in the three educational texts by examining different models of bilingual education in Ghana. To understand how the only surviving language policy (NALAP) operates in the country's transitional bilingual education and what is currently lacking in Ghana's multilingual education, it is important to employ such discourse analysis tools. Foss (2004) has discussed the use of rhetorical analysis as a qualitative research method and designed a framework for conducting rhetorical analysis in qualitative research. To determine whether the language and literacy instruction in the Golden English Language For Basic 2 plays a role in facilitating biliteracy and translingual pedagogies in the implementation of the National Literacy Accelerated Program, my rhetorical analysis draws on the analysis conducted under each of the earlier themes. On the other hand, linguistic analysis, according to Nimehchisalem (2018), is a qualitative research method that emphasizes the interpretation and understanding of language

rather than quantifying or measuring it. Because all these methods of analysis: thematic analysis and employing discourse tools such as linguistic and rhetorical features, have interrelated goals in analyzing educational documents, I utilize these analysis tools to explore the three selected educational documents in Ghana. Again, both linguistic and rhetorical analysis, as well as thematic analysis, are heavily influenced by tools used in discourse analysis. In order to comprehend people's social realities, qualitative research places emphasis on how people interpret and make meaning of their experiences. It is exploratory and aims to explain how and why a certain social phenomenon or program behaves in a certain way in a specific situation (Mohajan, 2018). Holliday (2015) also states that the application of qualitative research allows applied linguists and language policy experts to expand their understandings on "social and political issues connected with language and language education" (p. 50).

The purpose of this study is to employ the following methodological frameworks: thematic analysis and discourse analysis tools to gain a deeper understanding of how transitional bilingual models work in Ghana's educational system. As Lindholm-Leary and Borsato (2006) stated, more consideration should be paid to how English Language learning programs work in various regional contexts to ascertain social and linguistic realities. Thus, I have adopted a qualitative approach for this research study and conducted a thematic and discourse analysis by employing features of linguistic and rhetorical analysis of three educational texts to help gather comprehensive and richly descriptive data that can help gain a deeper understanding of the current state of implementation of Ghana's bilingual transitional policy. The study's analysis only brings major themes in the NALAP reports about language ideologies and instruction and omissions in terms of literacy issues. I also explore NALAP's implementation by analyzing Golden English Language For Basic 2, which can tell us how literacy is being taught and how

target source culture is represented through storytelling and images characterized in the textbook. To provide a complete description of the study's methodology, I use the remainder of this chapter to provide a discussion on an overview of the methodology— discourse analysis, thematic analysis, data sources: an overview of each educational text, researcher's positionality, data analysis, and study limitations.

Discourse Analysis

The rhetorical and linguistic analysis I employ in this study is highly influenced by tools and frameworks used in discourse analysis. According to Gee (2014), discourse analysis is a valuable tool for understanding how language is used in social contexts and how it can shed light on power dynamics, social practices, and identity formation. Gee argues that discourse is not simply a matter of language-in-use but rather a complex set of practices that are shaped by social and cultural contexts. Discourse analysis, therefore, involves not only the analysis of language structures but also an examination of the social practices and power dynamics that shape language use. One of the key themes that runs throughout Gee's book is the importance of context in understanding discourse. As a result, discourse analysis is one of the methodologies that inform my work because it focuses on both negotiations that are inherent in human communications but specifically attends to contexts and texts being employed to promote forms of biliteracy. Additionally, discourse is considered as a form of social action (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997), hence employing discourse analysis provides insights into other social practices and power dynamics that shape biliteracy instruction. The three texts I examine are important because they are being employed within these contexts for specific purposes, which therefore shape how transitional bilingual education operates in Ghana.

As Fairclough (2001) indicated, discourse analysis seeks to demonstrate non-visible ways in which language is involved in social relations of power and domination. It is therefore important to state that issues such as how literacy instruction is characterized in educational texts and how these texts inform biliteracy and shape the micro classroom practices are all regulated by discourse to great extent. In conducting discourse analysis, Gee (2014) contends that researchers first need to identify the context and practices: social and cultural norms, participants, physical activity undertaken, in which the discourse is occurring; analyze the discourse by examining the language used in the discourse, including the words, grammar, syntax, and discourse markers; identify the larger discourses which include the cultural and social meanings that are being constructed through the discourse and analyze how power is being constructed and negotiated through the discourse. Finally, connecting the analysis to broader social issues and concerns is important to help researchers know how the discourse is related to larger social structures, power relations, and cultural values. This framing of human communicative interactions allows me to examine the discourses that emerge around biliteracy education, as well as how biliteracy discourses and discourses about English as an international language are enacted in language policy documents and texts used for teaching.

The discourse analysis framework also helps me to better contextualize each set of data. This study, then, employs a rhetorical analysis of the NALAP documents and considers visual and linguistic analysis in the Golden English textbook. Below is an explanation of both linguistic and rhetorical analysis. The discourse analysis framework, with its focus on social structure, power relations, and cultural values is extended in this project by features of linguistic and rhetorical analysis. Thus, this study allows me to examine not only specific language choices in the selected texts and how they situate and work to shape biliteracy educational practices but

also to examine the rhetorical strategies employed (alphabetic and visual) and how these strategies represent features of bilingual learning.

Thematic Analysis

In using discourse analysis tools such as linguistic and rhetorical features for the analysis of the educational texts, the data gathered are then thematized in connection with the study's theoretical framework. According to Braun and Clarke (2015), thematic analysis is a method of assigning, classifying, and providing insight into patterns of meaning (themes) throughout a dataset. Thematic analysis enables the researcher to see and make sense of communal or shared meanings and experiences by focusing on meaning across a dataset. The goal of thematic analysis is not to pinpoint particular and peculiar meanings and experiences that can only be discovered in a single data item. Therefore, using this approach is helpful in how a subject is discussed or written about, and interpreted.

A flexible approach like thematic analysis enables the researcher to concentrate on the data in a variety of different ways. According to Castleberry and Nolen (2018), the meaning patterns that thematic analysis enables the researcher to recognize must be significant with respect to the specific topic and research question being investigated. With thematic analysis, researchers are interested in analyzing meaning across the entire dataset. Thematic analysis can take on a variety of shapes, making it suitable for a wide range of research issues and themes. According to Lochmiller (2020), a theme analysis consists of a few different elements. These are classifications, codes, and researcher-produced themes. Looking at codes, Lochmiller (2020) adds that it may be given to a single word, sentence, paragraph, or part of qualitative data that has been visually represented. Codes are "a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a

portion of language-based or visual data" (Saldaa, 2015, p. 4). On the other hand, Nowell (2017) states that categories identify (un)related and (dis)similar patterns in codes that a researcher cannot report due to the effectiveness of themes. Thus, categories serve as the starting point for the discovery of patterns. Emergent patterns are represented by categories, which the analyst combines to create thematic statements. For research-produced themes, overarching statements that characterize what is happening in the underlying data are presented. Thematic statements thus help the researcher to explore more deeply a particular aspect of the data and describe the specifics of the data in a compelling way. In my analysis, the codes I discovered are described in line with my produced themes.

In the next section, I discuss some discourse analysis tools that shape this study.

Towards a Linguistic Analysis

Linguistic analysis is used within the discourse analysis framework, which is a method used in analyzing texts linguistically. Such an analysis is considered an important element in doing written and spoken discourse analysis in most qualitative research that centers on language and social issues. Howley et al. (2013) regard linguistic analysis as an analysis that employs constructs from the field of linguistics that are designed to study language as a primary focus of inquiry. There are various methods and techniques used in linguistic analysis, such as corpus analysis, experimental methods, formal grammar analysis, and other discourse analyses. According to Pennebaker (2017), analyzing the linguistic characteristics of written texts, speeches, and audio-visual materials is widely established in the humanities and psychology. Kaatz et al. (2015) also argue that linguistic analysis tool has become increasingly powerful for analyzing evaluative texts, such as reports of annual performance interviews, and that the tools supporting such analysis are becoming available. Basically, Heine and Narrog (2015) extrapolate

that linguistic analysis as a discourse analysis tool helps in studying a language in order to understand its structure, meaning, and use, and this can include analyzing the phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, and pragmatics of a language. Linguistic analysis has extensively involved looking at the social and cultural context in which a language is used, as well as the history of a language and how it has evolved over time. Howley et al. (2013) argue that one advantage of using a linguistic analysis tool is that it allows researchers to avoid making a commitment to one specific theoretical perspective within the learning sciences. Although some scholars like Pennebaker (2017) use this approach to understand a language's structure, phonology, morphology, semantics, pragmatics, and other linguistic components, my linguistic approach is customized to look at how discourse markers like active and passive voices, hedges, intensifiers, frame markers, evidentials, code glosses etc. are used in doing overall assessment of NALAP policy implementation in the two NALAP reports. Hyland (2005) indicates that the use of such interactive and interactional discourse markers is helpful in understanding a particular discourse. Hence, the use of meta-discourse markers in the NALAP reports is related to the context and content of language teaching and learning. The discourse meta-discourse markers of the NALAP Baseline Assessment I employed in my analysis are transitions, frame, and endophoric markers. Again, I analyzed frame, transitions and endophoric markers in the NALAP Formative Evaluation Report. I also analyze the textbook's use of discourse markers (engagement markers and evidentials) to see how English as an international language is localized in the Golden English textbook and how biliteracy instruction is employed in the textbook's in-class tasks and activities. I therefore regard such meta-discourse markers as important in my project because they reveal how the NALAP policy is enacted and implemented as well as what is lacking in the current instructional material (Golden English for Basic 2).

Linguistic analysis is one of the tools of discourse analysis that allows for an in-depth understanding of how language is used. In this study, the analysis of discourse markers is important because it allows for a comprehensive analysis of the ways language is used in these educational texts and its relation to the culture and power of the Ghanaian discourse community. Since language is a socio-cultural phenomenon that is constantly changing and evolving, linguistic analysts are interested in studying language in its natural context. Hence, applying a linguistic analysis tool to studying these educational texts helps understand how biliteracy is enacted by language and literacy teachers in Ghana. In addition, analysis of discourse markers provides a means to study the ¹relationship between language and culture. Ilić (2004) states that language reflects the culture of a society, and studying the way language is used can provide insight into the beliefs, values, and practices of that culture. During my primary school teaching practices, I used Golden English Language For Basic 2 and National Literacy Acceleration Program Conversation posters as part of my Teaching and Learning Materials (TLMs). My stance on Golden English Language for Basic 2 is that the textbook highly embraces Ghanaian cultural pedagogies. These cultural pedagogies, like the integration of local language, cultural practices, and traditional stories, are highly embraced to promote the country's cultural landmarks. I see this as a way of talking about Ghanaian communities and their cultures. In units

¹ The Golden English Language For Basic 2, as authored by Okyere Baafi Alexander, is the fifth in a series of English language books designed for lower primary learners based on the current National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NaCCA) curriculum issued to primary schools. The textbook is categorized into thirty-six units with content instructions in five areas: oral language, reading, writing, grammar, and extensive reading, and its target audience is primary-two students and primary teachers. The textbook uses Ghanaian culture pedagogies like the integration of local language and cultural practices and traditional stories into units and topics to promote the country's cultural heritage and inclusion of local historical and cultural landmarks in the curriculum. Aside from culture pedagogies, the author's intention is to guide language teachers to help Ghanaian multilingual students develop a communicative competence in English and develop confident in communicating issues outside classroom. The textbook seeks to develop language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing for communication in both oral and written media. The textbook also intends to help students learn grammatical, phonological, etc. structures of English language.

where biliteracy is less embraced, National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) bilingual conversational posters serve as a complement to facilitate the teaching and learning of the contents. Thus, doing a linguistic analysis of the Golden English textbook gives a comprehensive understanding of how language and literacy instruction reflect Ghanaian culture.

Again, this approach to analyzing educational texts like textbooks has many practical applications, including language teaching, language planning and policy, language technology, and natural language processing. The primary purpose of textbooks has been to convey knowledge, so they have placed a strong emphasis on informational content and activities that are consistent with that content (Walker and Horsley, 2003). Kubota (2003) asserts that the majority of studies on language textbooks deal with representations in one way or another. My formative years of teaching in Ghana show that the contents of most textbooks in Ghana encompass a wide range of phenomena, such as social and cultural representations and ideologies of local and global languages and cultures. My teacher-practitioner view on content selection of Ghanaian textbook corroborates what Xiong (2012) says: that some of these textbooks address issues of hegemonic socio-political discourses, sociolinguistic diversities and identities, intercultural awareness, and global citizenship. Indeed, these educational texts—whether textbooks or policy documents embrace the importance of teachers' pedagogical skills, including specific skills for working with textbooks and educational texts.

Rhetorical Analysis

According to Selzer (2003), there is no general definition of rhetorical analysis since there is no widely accepted single definition of rhetoric. Rhetorical analysis, according to Carroll (2010), takes into account all aspects of the rhetorical situation—the audience, purpose, medium, and context within which a communication was generated in order to make an argument regarding that communication. For Selzer (2003), rhetorical analysis as a discourse analysis tool can be understood as how people within specific social situations attempt to influence others not only through language, but to help understand every important symbolic action used. Therefore, understanding the social contexts that give rise to and direct the course of a rhetorical situation is necessary for effective rhetorical analysis.

It can be challenging to deduce the cultural and historical context in which the language is utilized while conducting linguistic analysis. For this reason, within the discourse analysis framework, I employ features of rhetorical analysis to understand areas of study that are difficult to interpret solely on linguistic parameters. According to Nordquist (2019), rhetorical analysis is a form of criticism that makes use of rhetorical principles to look at how an author, an audience, and a text interact. Rhetorical analysis, “like writing, is a social activity. It involves not simply passively decoding a message but actively understanding the designs the message has for readers who are living and breathing within a given culture” (Selzer, p. 293, 2003). Rhetorical analysis makes it easier to understand how good authors engage their readers, urge them to consider their messages, and why bad writers fail to do so. Rhetorical analysis, therefore, involves identifying the rhetorical situation and strategies used by the speaker or writer to achieve their purpose. The goal of rhetorical analysis is to ascertain the particular stance or image that the author is establishing in this particular work so as to judge the communication's credibility and

effectiveness, as well as how the audience might react to it. In order to assess and analyze the various ways language is utilized to influence, it is crucial to employ such a methodological design.

The importance of employing features of a rhetorical analysis cannot be overstated. Rhetorical analysis, as a social activity, entails not only passively decoding a message but also actively comprehending the designs the message has for readers who live in a specific culture. Using a rhetorical analysis tool, mostly paying attention to the visuals and alphabetic, the Golden English Language For Basic 2 shows how what is included and excluded in the textbook plays a role in how ideas, concepts, and contents are taught in Ghanaian transitional bilingual education. Applying this analytical method by looking at the rhetorical strategies: visuals, and alphabetic, my study helps identify the extent to which the choice of contents in teaching oral language, reading, and writing depicts Ghanaian culture representation and brings out aspects of the textbook that need improvement. Bringing out these aspects that need improvements helps my study develop a balancing approach to the development of biliteracy skills in writing, speaking, listening, and reading and the quality of biliteracy contents that can inform pedagogies and tasks to make contents culturally relevant to diverse students. By conducting this type of analysis, I would be able to determine whether the textbook is culturally inclusive in meeting the learner needs of Ghanaian multilingual students, as well as offer pedagogical recommendations to policymakers on how to incorporate multicultural perspectives of biliteracy instruction by localizing interculturality in emerging textbooks. Using features of rhetorical analysis to investigate the discourses that emerge in the Ghanaian textbook is important because it provides insight into how these texts shape the way multilingual students understand and interpret the world around them. Additionally, it is envisaged that this rhetorical analysis, which is employed

as a discourse analysis tool, would reveal how the textbook may be contributing to the maintenance of social, cultural, and political power structures in Ghana's educational system.

Data Sources: Overview of Ghanaian Educational Texts

Research into educational texts like the ones I have selected for this project is important to applied linguistics research globally. Such research can help to uncover both subtle and not-so-subtle ways language practice is shaped through both educational policy and the texts used to teach language. In terms of how English Language Teaching (ELT) textbooks are created and distributed, Matsuda (2002) reiterates the need for outer circle textbooks to represent the voice and identity of second language learners. She argues that it is crucial for the language to be positioned as such in key textbooks used in English classrooms, which aim to prepare multilingual students for future use of English. Thus, the texts of my study are educational, cultural, pedagogical, and ideological sites for examining language policy and its implementation. Analysis of the texts, therefore, brings out what can be done to ensure that national policies inform learning outcomes in Ghanaian textbooks. Additionally, these texts—Golden English Textbook 2, NALAP Baseline Assessment Report, and NALAP Formative Evaluation Report—discuss language and literacy instruction and assessment, which are important to my study.

I provide a brief discussion of these texts in the next section. My study employs a rhetorical and linguistic analysis in the Golden English Language for Basic 2, and more of linguistic analysis in two NALAP documents: the National Literacy Accelerated Program (NALAP) Baseline Assessment Report and the NALAP Formative Evaluation Report. These three educational texts, explained below, constitute the data sources.

Golden English Textbook Two

According to Canale (2021), language textbook studies have certainly provided insightful contributions on critical aspects of textbooks, their contents, and discourses in biliteracy instruction. Keith (1991) states that textbooks are frequently the student's major source of information on a particular subject taught in school and may even constitute the only exposure the student receives on a given topic within a subject area. Hence, the content selection of textbooks becomes a critical issue in the dispensation of cognitive, affective, and psychomotor knowledge in a Ghanaian localized context. The Golden English Language For Basic 2, which is published in 2021, is one of the educational texts that I explore in my study. The Golden English Textbook 2, as authored by Okyere Baafi Alexander, is the fifth in a series of English language books designed for lower primary learners based on the current National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NaCCA) curriculum issued to primary schools. The author is a renowned writer of lower grade English textbooks that help Ghanaian language teachers to guide students to learn confidently and communicate in and out of classroom effectively. His writing covers topics like oral language, reading, writing, using writing conventions and extensive reading. The writer therefore uses Ghanaian culture pedagogies like the integration of local language and cultural practices and traditional stories into units and topics to promote the country's cultural heritage and inclusion of local, historical, and cultural landmarks in the curriculum. Aside from culture pedagogies, the author's intention is to guide language teachers to help Ghanaian multilingual students develop a communicative competence in English and develop confidence in communicating issues outside classroom. The textbook is categorized into thirty-six units with content instructions in five areas: oral language, reading, writing, grammar, and extensive reading, and its target audience is primary-two students and primary teachers. Employing more

of linguistic analysis of Golden English Language For Basic 2, the study's analysis looks at units 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 10, 18, 13, and 24.

According to the National Council for Curriculum and Assessment (NaCCA) (2021), the goal of textbooks is to help teachers guide students to communicate in English in everyday life situations that lie outside the classroom. Guldenoglu (2021) indicated that the characteristics of textbooks are divided into two categories: design-related qualities and content-related characteristics. In this case, a book's cover, paper quality, binding, and page arrangement are examples of exterior structure aspects that are related to design and affect the book's durability (Ari, 2010). Additionally, the images on the book's cover and interior are connected to design elements that ought to fascinate pupils and enhance the subject matter (Aslan, 2010). It is crucial to refer to the images and contents in the Golden English Language for Basic 2 at this point while discussing these two characteristic categories of textbooks. According to research, images make up the majority of design elements, and their efficient use is particularly crucial for concretizing the course material and improving students' understanding and retention of it (Aslan, 2016). On the other hand, content-related features refer to the texts, inquiries, and tasks that are included in the book. The improvement of students' linguistic abilities is one of the language education policy's main objectives; the caliber of texts, exercises, and other activities in textbooks is crucial. In other words, material aspects should be appropriate for students' developmental characteristics, satisfy their requirements, and enhance students' linguistic and cognitive abilities with regard to language.

Critically looking at the content of the textbook, English language teaching is seen as language and literacy instruction that seeks to help students achieve biliteracy to communicate in situations that happen outside the classroom. In oral language lessons, there are instructions

centered around rhymes, storytelling, dramatization, roleplay, and conversation—talking about oneself, etc. Whereas reading lessons incorporate comprehension, phonics, and fluency, writing lessons are centered around topics like labeling, writing simple words, guided composition, and descriptive and narrative writing. Aside from that, "using writing conventions" and "extensive reading lessons" are both considered extended lessons for writing and reading.

Although other discourse analysis tools can be used in doing analysis of textbooks, my study uses features of linguistic and rhetorical analysis to help ascertain whether these contents have helped to actualize the country's transitional bilingual policy. The data generated from my study of the Golden English textbook guides language policymakers in ²developing future textbooks that would enable NALAP policy implementation in Ghanaian micro classroom practices.

National Literacy Accelerated Program (NALAP) Baseline Assessment Report

The goal of the National Literacy Accelerated Program (NALAP) Baseline Assessment is to gather baseline information on reading instruction methods used by teachers and early grade literacy levels, as well as generate current data on pedagogical practices in order to create a comprehensive system for future Ghana Education Service-conducted NALAP assessments and inform NALAP training design and implementation in Ghana. The report was prepared by Kay

² The National Literacy Accelerated Program (NALAP) Baseline Assessment Report's goal was to gather a baseline information on early grade literacy levels and reading instruction methods used by teachers, as well as to generate current information on pedagogical practices, in order to develop a comprehensive system for future NALAP assessments that will guide the development and implementation of NALAP training in Ghana. The report seeks to investigate the effectiveness of NALAP's introduction strategies in order to identify what is working, where there are gaps, and what approaches would be most effective in bridging those gaps in the short and long terms. The study focuses on teacher effectiveness, student achievement, general language and learning findings, relevance of the materials, coverage of the training for education stakeholders and teachers, degree of implementation seen in schools and classrooms, including a timetable change to a 90-minute Language and Literacy period, and coverage and impact of the public advocacy campaign. As a result of the implementation time being far too small to anticipate any discernible increases in literacy rates, the report makes no attempt to measure the impact of NALAP solely based on student performance.

Leherr of the Education Development Center of the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and submitted to Eric Johnson, USAID/Ghana, on June 8th, 2009. Kay Leherr has been the director of USAID's Office of Education, Youth, and Child Development for the past 15 years. He is interested in child's inclusive and equitable quality education and argues that language education policies should acknowledge and value the importance of mother tongue learning. To meet the needs of multilinguals, his report contends that policymakers must consider a child's first language when selecting and implementing language education policies such as the National Literacy Acceleration Program. The study employs more of linguistic analysis in Section 3 and 4 (p. 19–33) of NALAP report, which looks at teacher capacity in using teaching materials in teaching literacy, pupil Ghanaian language literacy, and language learning.

The NALAP Baseline Assessment Report, one of the datasets I am investigating in this study, is divided into five sections. The first section, which is the introduction, foregrounds the study's report on literacy and numeracy rates in lower primary education. In order to give general performance measurements and qualitative data, it was envisaged that the study report would determine local language literacy rates across Ghana, as well as in geographic regions and across public and private schools, by utilizing a broader approach for teacher assessment. The second section, which is the NALAP baseline assessment study design, was largely based on the work that has been done to measure teacher and student performance on the Education Quality for All (EQUAL) project, but with significant revisions to match the methodologies with the design and needs of NALAP. This section provides further details on the sample teacher and pupil assessment methodologies, data analysis and reporting, data quality and assurance, and assumptions and limitations of the approach. In section 3 of the report, the results of the teacher assessment and the student assessment from the NALAP baseline assessment are presented.

These results have been broken down by zone, language, kind of school, class, and gender for each section. An analysis of instructor performance in comparison to learner performance is also included in the pupil assessment subsection. Under section 4, the results of the NALAP baseline assessment have been summarized into three categories: teacher effectiveness, student achievement, and overall language and learning findings. However, section 5 of this report details a number of recommendations for both the implementation and future evaluation of NALAP for consideration by the Ministry of Education (MOE), Ghana Education Service (GES), and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID). I believe these report recommendations—policy reform, teacher professional development, social marketing, and a two-tiered approach to NALAP evaluation—would be pedagogically valuable in the study implications section of the thesis.

A stratified random sampling was employed for the NALAP Baseline Assessment in order to acquire national measures of Ghanaian language literacy levels and to make comparisons across geographic regions and between public and private schools. The report's authors, Leherr and Johnson, select a sample of 225 schools using a stratified random sampling technique, with proportional representation from each of the three geographic zones and the populations of public and private schools. Nguyen (2019) defines stratified random sampling as a sampling approach in which a random sample is chosen from each subgroup after the population has been divided into subgroups (or strata) depending on one or more attributes. By guaranteeing that each subgroup is represented according to its size in the population, this technique is employed to ensure that the sample is representative of the population as a whole. The sampling plan called for 30 students—10 from each of the three classes of one, two, and three—to be evaluated in each school, resulting in an anticipated student sample of 6,750 kids. A total of 100

of the 225 schools were chosen at random for the teacher assessment in order to obtain adequate measures of teacher performance to identify strengths and weaknesses and to compare with learner results in order to identify the critical aspects of teaching that the training model should emphasize more. The intended sample for the baseline assessment was 300 instructors because the sampling method asked for all Primary 1 (P1) through Primary 3 (P3) teachers in each school to be assessed.

To show how language and literacy instruction is characterized in the classroom in this study, I focus on how authors of the educational texts use discourse markers such as sentences with active and passive voice, the use of stance and hedging, and other discourse markers in section four of the report looks at teacher performance in teaching reading during the Ghanaian language and English period under National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP). Section 3 and 4 of the report, therefore, contribute immensely to my analysis because it looks at informative data about literacy instruction and its practice by discussing teacher capacity to teach reading, pupils' Ghanaian language literacy, and language and learning.

NALAP Formative Evaluation Report

The National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) Formative Evaluation Report (2011) is a micro-level assessment of the current status of NALAP in Ghana. The report, which was prepared by Research Triangle Institute (RTI International), offers innovative research in education as one of the areas of research in order to address equity-centered transformative education issues. The report intends to examine the implementation of NALAP's policy, whether the pedagogical approaches used by teachers are effective, and, more importantly, how effectively teachers are utilizing NALAP teaching and learning materials. Employing more of linguistic analysis, my study looks at section 4 (p. 4–11), which discusses literacy and

instructional findings about the implementation of NALAP. The NALAP program was developed to provide the educational system with the resources and training necessary to effectively execute a mother-tongue policy. It accomplishes this by utilizing locally-made reading resources and teacher manuals to assist instructors with the relatively difficult task of changing how they teach reading.

A mixed-methods research design is used in the report. Classroom observation protocol, a 90-minute NALAP lesson was to be observed, and aspects of the lesson assessed were lesson planning, use of classroom time, managing learner task-related behavior, arrangement of learners, classroom displays, learner engagement, learner interaction, gender sensitivity, use of teaching and learning materials, thinking skills, feedback, and oral and written communication in Ghanaian and English. These mixed methodological designs are instrumental in drawing relevant conclusions from this report on specific examples of micro classroom practices.³

The tools employed in the study include pupil literacy assessment, associated pupil interviews, interviews with teachers and head teachers, and structured classroom observations investigating the quality of NALAP implementation. Five areas of content instruction tasks were used to assess oral literacy skills as part of the literacy evaluation of the students. The literacy assessment measures pupils' knowledge of letter-sound correspondence, fluency with reading

³ The National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) formative evaluation report (2011) provides a micro-level assessment of the NALAP's current state implementation in Ghana. The report aims to look at how NALAP's policy operates, whether teachers are using effective pedagogical methods, and most importantly, how well teachers are utilizing NALAP's teaching and learning resources. According to the report's instructional findings, most students were actively engaged in 75% of the classrooms that were under-studied. One of the predicted advantages of NALAP is that kids will be more engaged in the lesson because it is being presented to them in a language they can comprehend. Aside this, study's result from teacher and headteacher interviews indicates that NALAP instructional approaches inspired pupils, causing them to be more engaged and eager to study. The report reveals teachers followed portions of the NALAP lessons but did not strictly follow the scripts in the Teacher's Guide because, according to several teachers, the stories in the NALAP readers were too long for the pupils, especially in P2 Teacher's Guide (TG).

isolated words and connected text, and reading and listening comprehension. For these literacy tests, three Ghanaian languages—Fante, Dagbani, and Akuapem Twi—were used on 132 students, 74 of whom were male and 54 of whom were female. On account of the interview protocol, three interview protocols were designed. At each school visited, students, teachers, and heads of schools were questioned. Following the literacy assessment, student interviews were conducted, in which they were asked about their literacy-related interests outside of school as well as their opinions on reading. The interview questions for teachers and head teachers were updated to take into account any changes in NALAP program execution and the attitudes of teachers and head teachers over time. These questions were based on interview questions used in a previous NALAP evaluation study done in May 2010.

Data Analysis

According to Gee (2014), discourse analysis looks at how language is used in a specific context by looking at the language of discourse and how other discourse markers help to understand language use and meaning. Aside from that, it focuses on the linguistic aspects of the discursive social and cultural processes. The first part of the study's methodology is to look at NALAP reports and language policy rhetorically and linguistically to see how bilingual language instruction is characterized and discussed in these documents. I employ Boye and Harder's (2009) evidentiality to indicate and examine what part of the NALAP documents' wordings are mirrored in the Golden English textbook as far as biliteracy instruction and NALAP policy implementation are concerned. The analysis started with reading through the Golden English Language For Basic 2 and the two NALAP policy reports in order to identify active and passive voices—sentences, phrases, concepts, statements, etc.—with identical or similar meanings that answered my research questions. A description of the meanings of language use is important in a

linguistic analysis because it provides insights into the context and discourse of language and helps to build a more complete understanding of language and its use in context. For this reason, Bielak et al. (2013) assert that the description of meanings in English has two main voices—active and passive voices and that the choices that authors map out in making meaning are mostly in these two main voices. Within the broad field of linguistic analysis, I specifically focus on how authors use discourse markers like active and passive voices, hedging, and other markers in doing an overall assessment and analysis of the NALAP Assessment and Formative Evaluation Report. Aside from that, I analyze the textbook's use of discourse markers to see if biliteracy and translingual pedagogies are employed in the textbook tasks and micro classroom practices. According to Benamara et al. (2017), discourse markers are all instances of evidentiality.

My second level of approach involves the analysis of tasks and activities in Okyere's Golden English Language for Basic 2 to find out the extent to which the tasks conform to the tenets of the biliteracy and translanguaging approaches in micro-classroom practices based on my teaching experience. My analysis of discourse markers, therefore, brings out how translingual practices are promoted by authors through the use of hedging and imperative structures in the Golden English Language for Basic 2. Additionally, in doing a linguistic and content selection of the Golden English Language For Basic 2, I pay attention to how oral language, reading, writing, and grammar are taught.

For rhetorical analysis, I specifically examined how language and culture are prioritized through the teaching of storytelling and ascertained whether there is a rich element of translanguaging activities and their practical implications in this textbook and classroom. Again, I pay attention to how images are used rhetorically in the textbooks to represent Ghanaian

cultural ideologies. Thus, in doing the rhetorical analysis, the textbook's target audience—language teachers and students—forms the core of the discussion and analysis. Major categories for the analysis are reading comprehension and writing, which involve tasks that link the school to the real world. As far as the textbook is concerned, I am also following model that is more of a rhetorical analysis because the textbook employed other aspects that contribute to meaning making which is beyond linguistic parameters. My final stage of the analysis draws on the analysis conducted under each of the previous themes to ascertain whether the language and literacy instruction underpinning the Golden English Language for Basic 2 has a role in facilitating biliteracy and translingual pedagogies in the National Literacy Accelerated Program's implementation. Using a thematic and discourse analysis, this research is useful in demonstrating how various bilingual education models are effective at the lower levels of Ghana's primary schools. I focus on how current transitional bilingual education operates, as well as what is currently lacking in Ghana's multilingual education in terms of how the policy shapes learning outcomes and classroom practices.

To provide a more comprehensive understanding of how bilingual education operates in the social and cultural context of Ghana, I employed linguistic and rhetorical analysis to provide an assessment of language instruction in educational texts. The study then justifies and examines whether the key discourses that I am looking for in these educational texts emerge around biliteracy education. The study then ascertains whether there is a gap between what NALAP is saying and what we see in teaching materials (Golden English) used in classrooms.

Thus, employing such linguistic and rhetorical analysis tools, the study unpacks what classroom teachers in transitional biliteracy programs are told to do and what lacking aspects I see around the language ideologies promoted in Ghanaian education.

Researcher's Positionality

Qualitative research is, by its nature, a form of inquiry that is fundamentally shaped by the researcher's positionality and lived experiences. As I come into this study as an English teacher in Ghana and then in my new context in the US as an international graduate student and writing instructor, I need to acknowledge my positionality about my role in the Ghanaian educational context as well as my lived experience in teaching in Ghana, all of which help me deeply look at the educational texts I am examining. As a native Ghanaian, I received my primary, junior high, secondary, and tertiary education (undergraduate studies) in Ghanaian institutions. The medium of instruction in classes is mostly English, but English and home languages are used as the medium of instruction at the lower grade level (kindergarten—grade 3). English instruction is considered an English as Second Language (ESL) one, but fluency varies depending on the quality of instruction one is exposed to. Apart from the importance of English in school instruction, English is used for official purposes: the language for business and communication, government, and administrative purposes. I have been fortunate to have taught English at all levels of Ghanaian education: once as a primary school teacher, once as a secondary school English tutor, and once as a tertiary teaching assistant. I studied Golden English Language for Basic 2 as a primary school student, used it as a teaching resource during my time as a primary school teacher, and now examining it as a graduate student in the area of Applied Linguistics and TESOL. Since I am sensitive to issues of diversity and inclusion in my classroom, I make sure I use textbooks and materials that reflect the cultural contexts of my students. One of the most interesting revelations is that I never realized what ideologies this textbook was promoting when I was a primary school student. Becoming a teacher and then a graduate student, I realized that several discourses and themes that emerge in this textbook

concur with the practices and beliefs of the Ghanaian community. Some of these practices favor Ghanaian culture pedagogies in promoting bilingual education, yet some modify the way literacy is taught. Having acknowledged my positionality, role, and experiences in teaching, doing a discourse analysis of these texts would help investigate discourses that emerge around Ghana's biliteracy education. Thus, considering my localized understanding of socio-cultural aspects of these texts helps my study to ascertain whether what NALAP policy says is reflected in the Golden English Language for Basic 2.

Scope and Limitation of the Study

Although this thesis offers a thematic and discourse analysis in looking at transitional bilingual models in Ghana based on the selected policy documents and textbooks as well as the current state of implementation of the National Literacy Acceleration Program, it has some limitations, particularly with regard to the transferability of the results. First, the methodology for gathering data for this research relies heavily on Ghanaian educational texts rather than human participants, observation, and classroom data. Hatch et al. (2020) refer to these as unobtrusive data because they are collected without interfering with the study participants. I have conducted research with such educational texts rather than doing longitudinal research in the field, which would have involved participants—both Ghanaian students and language and literacy teachers. Ghanaian multilingual students would have benefited from this kind of fieldwork that involves teacher and students' perspectives because such longitudinal research provides insights into micro classroom teaching practices that are effective in promoting biliteracy as well as challenges and strategies that can help students develop their bilingual identities. Again, longitudinal work that involves teacher and student perspectives provides a deeper understanding of the socio-cultural factors that influence and contribute to students' biliteracy development. In

this regard, this study is only limited to the document analysis, but I want to acknowledge that a future research agenda that include participants could provide even a deeper picture of Ghanaian micro classroom practices. But given the scope of my work, this study only focuses on selected documents and materials created by language policy stakeholders and consumed by teachers and students in Ghana.

In addition, this study does not attest to or speak to all other language textbooks, whether they are private textbooks or any other educational texts that have different learning outcomes and purposes for promoting language and literacy instruction. Nevertheless, the three educational texts give a plethora of data about the current literacy rate in English and numeracy, with inconsistent data on the local language literacy rate. Even though my study cannot be not generalized, it aims to tap on these educational texts to explore pedagogies that embrace minoritized languages and promote biliteracy in the enactment of NALAP policy in Ghanaian educational strata. Regardless of the above-mentioned limitations of this study, I voice and utilize my multicultural emic perspectives and experiences of teaching in Ghanaian and American micro classrooms in parts of my thematic and discourse analysis.

Finally, it is important to acknowledge that the interpretation of the text, looking at the language and rhetoric of the text, and the analysis that is produced by the analyst may be influenced by the analyst's own viewpoints towards biliteracy instruction. Critically looking at discourse markers in selected textbooks and policy-level documents, my study also conceives that linguistic analysis is often based on subjective judgments, which can lead to different interpretations of the same educational texts. A linguistics analysis tool may "comprise discourses and can work to change cultural and historical meanings over time" (Korobov, 2001, p. 9). Since these educational texts are socio-culturally situated, it is sometimes difficult to

understand the local exigencies of these texts when adopting a linguistic analysis as a discourse analysis tool to analyzing these texts. On the account of rhetorical analysis, since it depends on the analyst's perception and viewpoint, it might be subjective. It can be challenging to recognize and comprehend the rhetorical strategies and techniques used because of the complexity of these educational texts that are being analyzed. It might be difficult to fully examine the rhetoric of a work without a thorough understanding of the context in which it was written. Thus, rhetorical and linguistic analysis tools are restricted to these educational texts and might not account for other elements that might have an impact on such texts.

Conclusion

This chapter provided a detailed description of the methodological designs I adopted to investigate how educational texts inform language instruction in National Literacy Acceleration Program's implementation in micro classroom practices. The chapter did an in-depth description of three educational texts— Golden English Language for Basic 2, NALAP Baseline Assessment Report, and NALAP Formative Evaluation Report—and discussed my methodological designs— thematic and discourse analysis and its linguistic and rhetorical analysis tools—with its limitations in detail. The study chapter is therefore shaped by a qualitative research framework.

In the following chapter, I offer a thorough discussion and analysis of my data by using discourse analysis tools such as features of linguistic and rhetorical analysis to show how discourse markers like active and passive voices and others are used to do an overall assessment and analysis of NALAP policy in NALAP assessment report and formative evaluation report. In analyzing how content selections in Golden English Language for Basic 2 informs biliteracy and translingual approaches, I present the research findings by addressing the primary research

questions of the study and provided sections in which I discuss the common themes that have emerged in my overall analysis.

CHAPTER IV: ANALYSIS

This chapter provides analysis and observations that come from two educational texts in Ghana: 1) Golden English Language for Basic 2 (Golden English, thereof), and 2) the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) Formative Evaluation Report. Inspired by thematic analysis and discourse analysis tools used to analyze texts, I specifically looked at linguistic and rhetorical aspects employed in these texts. Out of the two NALAP reports that were described in my methodology, this chapter will specifically focus on the NALAP Formative Evaluation Report. To address the research questions of this study, I discuss key emerging themes developed based on the study's theoretical framework and the interrelations between the various text categories (Guldenoglu, 2021). The analysis employed here focuses on features of linguistic and rhetorical analysis of the two educational texts and specifically looks at the discourses that emerge around bilingual education, early and late-exit transitional bilingual models, literacy instruction, translanguaging pedagogies, language policy, and representation of target source culture in the textbook. The findings reveal significant themes that emerged in response to the primary research questions. Some of the key themes include the integration of literacy skills in the implementation of NALAP, and the state of literacy instruction in Golden English, which focused on Ghanaian rhetorical storytelling tradition as a pedagogical tool. Other themes centered on how Ghanaian storytelling is portrayed in images and language and how cultural ideologies are integrated in the NALAP report and Golden English.

This chapter has two main sections. The first section begins with a discussion of the overall structure of Golden English. Here, I briefly focus on the number of units, the unit lessons, the images, formatting, and other critical discourse that form the structure of the textbook. Following that, I shift to the analysis, which is categorized into sections through which the data

are discussed and analyzed. The data analysis presents detailed accounts of common themes in Golden English, specifically discussing preferred pedagogies in the textbook and pinpointing sections where biliteracy was promoted or prevented, all of which are indications of how language policies are implemented. This section also looks at how English Language instruction in the textbook is localized to teach oral language, reading, writing, extensive writing, grammar, and extensive reading. Aside from this, through a rhetorical analysis, I look at the visual rhetoric perspective of the textbook to show how images as discursive features reinforce Ghanaian cultural ideologies. Through evidential and endophoric discourse markers, the second section discusses the incongruence between the language ideologies promoted in Golden English and the NALAP reports. I discuss the findings by looking at the gaps between what NALAP posits about language education and language ideologies promoted in the Ghanaian educational landscape, and what I see in the textbook's lessons and language exercises.

To reiterate the research questions, this chapter answers the following research questions:

1. How is language instruction in Ghanaian characterized in Golden English textbook?
2. How are Ghanaian languages and culture represented in the Golden English textbook?
3. What aspects of the existing language policy in Ghana (specifically, NALAP formative evaluation report) are integrated in English Language textbooks?

To address the first research question, I first look at the structure of Golden English, after which I dive into the analysis of how language instruction is characterized in Golden English.

SECTION I: The Structure of Golden English Language For Basic 2

The Golden English is categorized into 36 units with content instructions in five areas: oral language, reading, writing, grammar, and extensive reading, and its target audience is primary-two students and primary-two teachers. Each unit consists of 5 lessons, with a total of 180 lessons. Excluding the cover image of the textbook, there are 948 images, of which 502 are male characters, 327 represent female characters, and 9 of these images are unspecified due to the poor visibility and readability of the images. Again, 119 of these images are animate images. While some of the lessons are narrated from the author's point of view, some lessons are narrated from the third person point of view. Even though the writing activities promoted in this textbook do not directly exemplify a five-paragraph essay format, there is no emphasis on things like thesis structure and conclusion. The textbook instead exemplifies functional writings such as descriptive and narrative text types in the form of short paragraph presentations and storytelling.

Each unit starts with a list of learning outcomes that a student would have achieved by the end of the lesson. The textbook is in yellow, white, and black print, with visuals in black, blue, and red in any part of the book. Golden English is written in British English with some Ghanaian language vocabulary, phrases, and terms. The textbook uses some aspects of Ghanaian cultural pedagogies, such as integrating local languages, cultural practices, and traditional stories into units and topics to promote the country's cultural and historical heritage in the curriculum.

For the purpose of this analysis, I specifically focus on units 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 9, 10, 18, 13, and 24 because these units provide the most telling examples of Ghanaian culture pedagogies and approaches to biliteracy and language education. Based on the discourse analysis approach, data were classified into categories connected to the themes I found. These themes highlight how

language domains are taught, how storytelling and visuals reinforce cultural ideologies, and how NALAP and Golden English have a shared aim of cultural and linguistic values.

RQ 1. How is language instruction characterized in Golden English textbook?

Theme 1: English language domains were equally integrated through storytelling and narration.

Golden English embraces the contents of literacy instruction. Opoku-Amankwah (2010), an applied linguist, who investigates the language and literacy learning principles of the ‘Gateway to English’ textbook series, mentions that Ghanaian lower primary textbooks determine assumptions about teaching and learning. Most Golden English textbook lessons are centered on teaching oral language, reading, writing, grammar, and extensive reading. It is crucial to state in my discussion that these language domains are not mutually exclusive, so my analysis looks at how each of the language domains is taught in micro classroom practices and how NALAP is related to teaching listening, reading, writing, and speaking skills which are core skills to enhance quality language education. Integration of such skills in English is needed because the combination of these skills and language practices promotes the students’ content understanding and eventually improves their academic performance.

Four language domains inform pedagogies promoted in this book. Language tasks seem to make content culturally relevant to diverse students and present a balanced approach to developing literacy skills in writing, speaking, listening, and reading. The development of oral language is one of the significant accomplishments of Golden English for improving the oral literacy of Ghanaian multilingual students in their formative years of early-exit transitional bilingual education. In this regard, classroom teaching artifacts like textbooks are essential to actualizing this goal. Golden English uses activities such as multilingual students hearing two

similar words in a sentence after identifying an area of phonological differences and describing the differences in the sounds. For example, on page 11, the textbook uses the engagement marker “Read the passage below” to teach minimal pairs. Such minimal pairs such as bat/van/fan/cat/bat/ and shop/chop were used to teach phonological differences. Such micro-level language focus could help Ghanaian English language learners to refine their pronunciation skills and recognize the corresponding names of such words in their mother tongue. Since English language instruction is akin to literacy instruction, I, as a teacher, adopted this book for a similar linguistic scaffolding to help students recognize the corresponding names of these words in their mother tongue to understand what they mean in English. Although the textbook did not include any L1 reference, most language teachers employ such linguistic scaffolding in L1 in teaching word recognition. As students engage in this activity, they could appreciate the recognition of words in English and words with L1 references.

In addition to micro-level pronunciation activities, this textbook pays attention to reading skills, but again only at the level of vocabulary and word recognition. In one activity, it says the following:

Read the passage and identify all the words which contain the “fr” blend. Write and present them in class.

Madam Frema came from France to meet Francisca and Francis in the house. She took the fried rice from the fridge and placed on the table before frying her frozen fish for her friends, Freda and Fredua. After which she took some pictures of the food and placed them in a frame. (p. 42)

The teacher is encouraged to utilize this activity to teach sound initials (phonotactics), which could help multilingual students to identify each word but might not directly contribute to

improving reading comprehension. While this task is presented as a reading activity, it seems to promote approaches to emphasize word recognition. Brown & Abeywickrama (2019) confirm that having students engage in such micro-level language activities helps them learn discriminating between the distinctive sounds of English and their mother tongue. By doing so, they enhance their phonetic awareness and ability to recognize the specific sounds present in different languages.

Apart from the above, stories can play an important role in English language teaching, especially in Ghanaian culture(s). Storytelling is used as a pedagogical tool to introduce the integration of oral literacy skills. This textbook in unit 3 (p. 16) uses storytelling with story maps and graphic organizers as discourse modes to teach English. The endophoric marker “read the story below” engages readers to participate in the reading of the picture stories. In this regard, within similar activities, the textbook uses language such as “in groups, use the pictures below” to engage readers to use graphic organizers to retell stories about the pictures observed. Using pictures to retell stories observed is seen as an evidence-based approach to teaching multilingual students and even students with or at risk of reading disabilities. Khodabandeh (2018) states that students respond well to storytelling and that their memory is improved when concepts and ideas are linked to a story. In his study, the study participants were assigned into two groups of control and experimental, where an instructor taught four stories to both groups through the online class. While the participants in the control group responded to comprehension questions about the stories, the control group participants answered the questions about the stories. All the participants were to record their voices and share them in their groups, and their peers were supposed to listen to the speaker and post their comments. The results of the study confirmed that the positive effect of storytelling and answering the questions on Telegram improved the

speaking abilities of both experimental and control groups because the participants were able to answer comprehension questions such as, “Who were the main characters of the story? Where did the story happen? How many characters were there in the story? Was there a problem in the story? What was it? What happened first, next, and last? How did the characters of the story solve the problem? How did the story end?” (Khodabandeh, 2018, p. 29). Participants provided, recorded, and communicated the answers to these questions in their group. This study demonstrates that storytelling has a beneficial effect on their speaking skills. Mirroring what Khodabandeh (2018) demonstrates about the value of storytelling, teaching English through simple stories and retelling parts of the stories were found in Golden English. This can help teachers use narration and illustration with actions, pictures, labeling, sketches, puppets, or toys. For instance, on page 18 of the textbook used for this study, Ghanaian multilingual students are encouraged to break into groups to retell stories about a monkey that saved himself from a greedy crocodile.

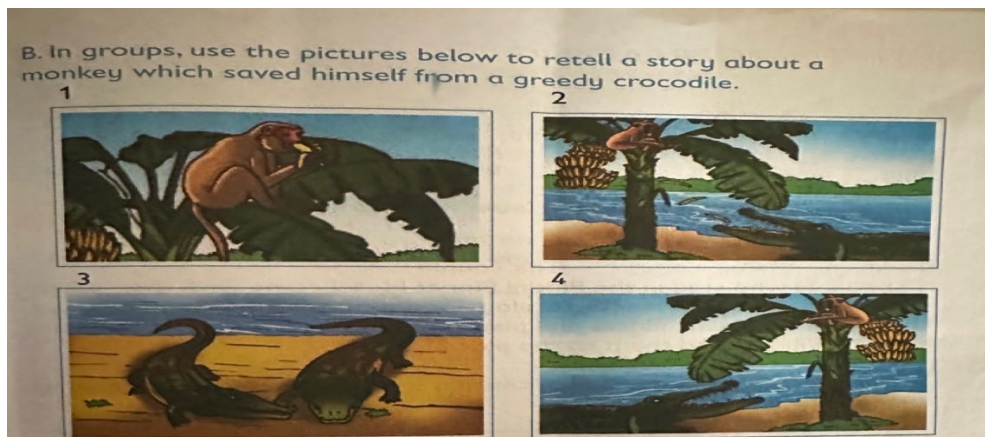


Figure 1: Monkey and Crocodile (p.18)

As a Ghanaian teacher who once used Golden English, I remember how group activities help to support diverse learning and cognitive abilities, both proficient and novice students. Much research in the field of TESOL indicates the value of narration in improving learners’

literacy skills and helping them improve their academic metalanguage. Laursen et al. (2022) state that multilingual students can develop their shared metalanguage if these activities connect to their learning experiences. They assert that the academic metalanguage of multilinguals can improve if the textbook tasks and activities are grounded in literary and informational texts. In their research, the authors examine how groups of three multilingual children in a primary school setting use metalinguistic resources to talk to a research assistant talk about a number of texts in several written languages. In two particular interactions, the researchers explore how the children “engage with the meta” (Laursen et al., 2022, p. 1) by navigating between different languages and sign systems and how their use of metalinguistic resources is linked to performative negotiation of social identity and social relations. This research shows that children's metalinguistic statements about language are closely interwoven with ongoing production and negotiation of the communicative situation around them. The research finding, therefore, demonstrates that children, through drawing and picture stories, use metalanguaging to talk about language and texts and negotiate their linguistic interaction in accordance with the framing of the activity. As this research also indicates, language learning is a more meaningful practice when tasks include textual evidence and storytelling and connect to their personal and multilingual experiences. These tasks also help students to acquire an understanding of how language is used in different contexts. Similarly, in the example shown above in Image 1, students are encouraged to narrate stories about crocodiles and monkeys, which help them put language to meaningful use. With the use of engagement discourse markers such as “in groups, use the pictures below...,” students engage in activities that aim to improve their oral literacy. This observation corroborates my experience as a student and a teacher having experience in language and literacy instruction under the early-exit transitional model. My

formative years as a primary student made me witness such instructions with engagement markers where we were asked to dramatize actions in English and my mother tongue (Ewe). While mother tongue instruction is not portrayed in Golden English, the use of both English and mother tongue is orally encouraged and promoted in these dramatization activities in class. This is one of the few pedagogical ways the textbook and its instructional messages follow tasks that align with biliteracy instruction.

The textbook also employs discourse modes such as narratives to help students narrate folktales connected to their cultures. Through images and characters that depict Ghanaian culture, students usually refer to their L1. As a multilingual student learning English in Ghana in the early 2000s, I remember also benefiting from these activities. Participating in these activities in the classroom does not only embrace students' cultural affinities, but it embraces multilingual voices and identities. Gomes and Hillis (2004) provide evidence in support of their position that the role of storytelling in assessing oral language among multilingual students helps make sense of their multicultural worldviews and identities. On page 226 of the textbook, a listening comprehension activity allows students to look at the pictures and predict what they see. Through sentences that include engagement markers, such as "look at the pictures, observe and predict what you see" (p. 226), students describe what they see in these pictures. Even though this activity is titled a listening comprehension lesson, students concurrently learn to develop their speaking abilities.

In another oral language lesson, there are discussions about self, family, socio-cultural values and customs, and the country's current affairs.

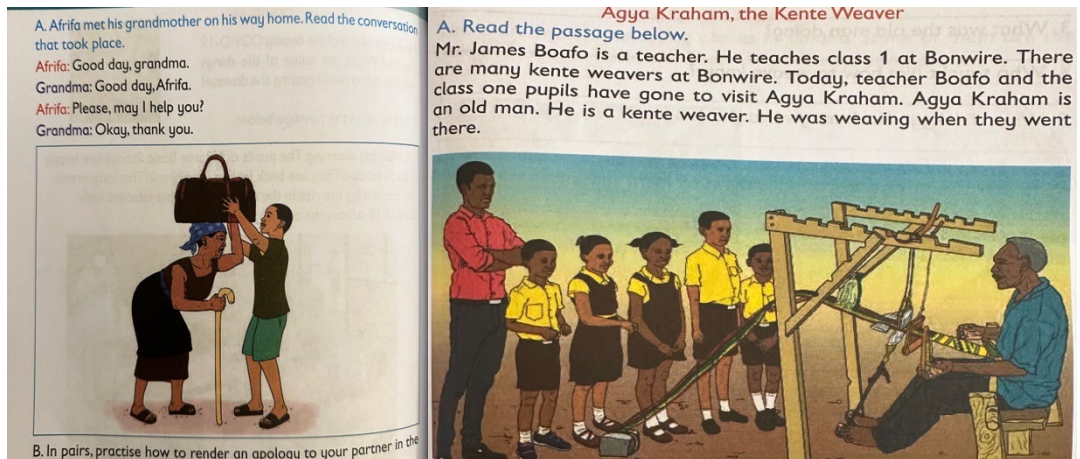


Figure 2: Afrifa and Grandma (p. 277) Figure 3: Agya Kraham, the Kente Weaver (p. 200)

Through these activities, students are also exposed to familiar cultures, such as ‘kente’ (Ghanaian culture fabric) weaving and other cultural values of showing gratitude to the elderly through conversations. On page 192, there is a discussion about Ghana’s map of 16 new demarcated Regions, where students have a chance to learn about regions and their capitals.

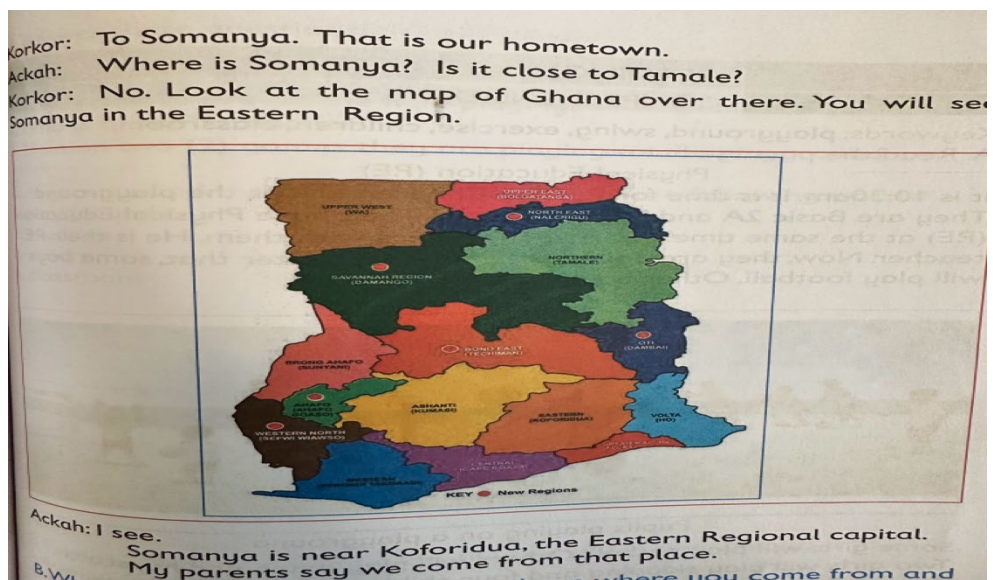


Figure 4: Map of Ghana (p. 192)

Conversations about such activities help students understand Ghana's physical geography and the diversity of the country’s cultures and traditions (Opoku-Amankwa, 2012). The issue of how local English textbooks should introduce local values rather than inner circle varieties and

cultural practices is important because local textbooks need to reflect students' values and cultural practices by emphasizing the importance of incorporating relevant and meaningful content into the learners' cultural context. This recognizes the need for multilingual learners to develop intercultural communicative competence, which involves understanding and appreciating different cultures and perspectives. Additionally, when learners see their own cultural practices and values reflected in the material, they are more likely to engage with it and develop a stronger sense of ownership over their language-learning journey. For instance, in Image 4, a lesson about the map of Ghana gives multilingual learners the opportunity to learn about their respective regions and capitals, making them feel proud to be Ghanaians.

However, it is important for local textbooks to strike a balance between local values and the teaching of standard varieties of English. English remains a global language, and proficiency in standard varieties is crucial for effective communication across different contexts. Therefore, local textbooks should aim to include both global and local content, providing learners with a well-rounded education that prepares them for both international communication and understanding their own cultural context.

Regarding reading activities, some lessons center on phonics, comprehension, word families, everyday vocabulary, rhyme ending, and fluency. As a language teacher, I realized a strong relationship exists between L2 students' vocabulary knowledge and reading abilities. Much research in second language studies demonstrates that extensive and intentional reading help improve English learners' vocabulary knowledge and phonological awareness. According to Molle et. al (2021), reading highly improves vocabulary knowledge because it exposes readers to words in meaningful contexts. In this research, they specifically report that multilinguals are able to make logical inferences about the meaning of some new words as they read or may cultivate

an innate curiosity that drives them to learn new words and phrases even when the reading activity in which they are engaging has no explicit focus on vocabulary. This vocabulary knowledge and phonological scaffolding help multilingual students recall important information encountered in reading a linguistically dense text. Grabe (2009) states that "extensive research on L1 contexts across languages has demonstrated that training in phonological awareness and letter–sound correspondences predict later reading development among multilingual readers" (p. 442). With this, Golden English uses activities and tasks that may help students improve their phonological awareness. I want to emphasize that multilingual students benefit from instructions in phonics, word families, and rhyme. An activity where students write down two rhyming words from the passage and read them could improve their reading ability in L2. Again, in unit 5, one activity states the following: "C. In groups, read the passage *Indecent Dressing*. Search for the words that have consonant digraphs-ch and sh. Use each of them to form a sentence. Example ch: chest and sh: shoe" (p. 38). Such activities seem to put emphasis on vocabulary instruction by raising phonological awareness and word recognition. In this regard, Golden English demonstrates pedagogical ways to help Ghanaian students to improve their phonological and letter-sound correspondence awareness.

Golden English uses instructional approaches that may contribute to teaching multilingual students L2 reading. One notable instance is that reading instruction in the textbook integrates four language domains: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Most reading comprehension passages used to teach reading also combine awareness of vocabulary, grammar, central idea identification, and comprehension strategies. In teaching reading, Golden English particularly emphasizes the acquisition of vocabulary knowledge and how these words are used in specific contexts. As students develop a deep understanding of words and their meanings, they

are better equipped to understand what they are reading. In the expertise below, students are assigned to form sentences with selected focal words such as fisherman, trader, cheered, money, pocket, and clapped. Exercise B reads, “Read the passage below and C, identify all the words that contain the ‘pl’ blend and list them in the spaces below.” Exercise A reads, “Read the passage below and B. In groups, read the passage above and identify the words that belong to the ‘ot’ family.”

One of the goals of these tasks seems to engage students in group reading activities to improve on their L2 vocabulary knowledge of names within meaningful contexts. Some examples of these activities are seen on pages 130, 200, and 23 and include words such as kente, trader, plywood, and fisherman. Similarly, these examples demonstrate that Golden English emphasizes the role of L2 vocabulary knowledge in L2 reading fluency and comprehension. Reading fluency activities also involve students being assigned to say these words ending with (-st). After saying words that end with (-st), students are grouped in pairs to find words from the passage “Ants” that end with (-est). Such activity, which is finding words that ends with (-est) may be designed to facilitate reading fluency. In this regard, Kim (2015) demonstrated a moderate correlation between word reading fluency and reading comprehension among most multilingual students learning English in non-English dominant contexts. In her research, the author used longitudinal data from Korean-speaking English language learners to examine the relation of word reading comprehension to text reading fluency. The findings show that text reading fluency was related to reading comprehension and reading comprehension was related to text reading fluency over and above word reading fluency and listening comprehension. Kim (2015) found that unique emergent literacy predictors such as phonological awareness, orthographic awareness, morphological awareness, letter name knowledge, and vocabulary were

related to both word reading fluency and comprehension. The findings also show that orthographic awareness was related to text reading fluency because the knowledge of English orthography helps students to decode and read more fluently and understand the text better. The participants' knowledge of recognizing letters and spelling patterns of words such as airplanes, angry, and furniture, contributes to their reading fluency. The scholar added that vocabulary and grammatical knowledge might be related to text reading fluency and reading comprehension. As Kim states:

This might be because when children are still developing reading skills, semantic access is constrained by decoding processes (converting orthography to phonology e.g., see Perfetti & Stafura, 2014) to a greater extent than when reading skills are more advanced. Because reading comprehension and text reading fluency both involve decoding processes whereas listening comprehension does not, this might explain the unique, independent relation of reading comprehension to text reading fluency. (p. 17)

This scholarly assertion shows that there might be a correlation between word reading fluency and reading comprehension among multilinguals.

One interesting observation is that having activities in groups conforms to the local textbook's agenda of valuing collective fluency reading activities and improving L2 vocabulary knowledge by working together in pairs. Once students engage in group reading activities, they improve their L2 vocabulary knowledge because they also learn other non-English words. Additionally, group reading activities involve stories or texts featuring characters with names based on their day of birth. In Ghanaian culture(s), people are given names based on the day of the week they were born. Each day of the week is associated with specific names and meanings. For instance, in the Akan culture, a child born on Monday may be given the name "Kwadwo" for

a male or "Adwoa" for a female. Students come across characters with names like these through reading activities and have discussions about their cultural connotations and meanings. This exposure to Ghanaian naming traditions enhances their vocabulary by introducing them to unique names and cultural practices.

Additionally, I observe that some reading fluency activities attempt to reflect the authentic discourse of Ghanaian communities and the issues affecting the students. For instance, in Exercise B on page 109, students are asked to write about a composition on the topic "Malaria" and present it as project work in class to help talk about Malaria and its rampant spread in their communities. This reading lesson about "Malaria" shows that Malaria is a significant public health issue in Ghana, and it raises awareness about the prevalence and impact of Malaria in the communities. Doing reading around this title does not only help students to interact with the image-text in the passage, but it provides an opportunity for students to learn about the scientific and medical aspects of malaria, including its causes, symptoms, and treatment. This can help to promote scientific literacy and critical thinking skills. One interesting passage from the textbook is titled "Road Safety, on p.173". This reading lesson raises awareness about road safety and traffic rules and regulations. The country has recorded a persistent number of road accidents, so incorporating such reading lessons in the textbook contributes to the country's agenda of raising awareness of the need to reduce accidents on roads. Vocabularies of traffic light colors that are learned are applied in their personal academic pursuits. Another real-life discourse of most Ghanaian communities in portraying their culture is "Kente." Reading about "Agya Kraham, the Kente Weaver" in Image 3 teaches students about the long history of "kente" in the portrayal of Ghana cultural fabrics in the festival, marriages, naming ceremonies, etc. The textbook finally uses COVID-19, a more recent topic, to educate Ghanaian multilingual

students about health measures that need to be taken to reduce the high number of cases in Ghana. The textbook uses the above discourse evidential to highlight measures such as wearing nose masks, washing hands frequently, and practicing physical distancing. Such discourse evidential raises awareness among students about their social responsibility in preventing the spread of the disease. As students read this passage as a group, they can know the impact of the global pandemic on their communities.

Even though research on L1 syntactic and discourse knowledge show that they all have an impact on reading comprehension, I noted that Golden English has not paid much attention to using reading activities to teach syntax, discourse, and pragmatics knowledge. There is extensive linguistic evidence of vocabulary, morphological, and phonological knowledge in the reading lessons rather than syntax, discourse, and pragmatics. I realized that awareness of discourse structures: recognizing main ideas, recognizing major organizing patterns, recognizing how the information is organized in parts of the text, recognizing anaphoric relations in texts, and recognizing other cohesive markers in texts, have not been looked at in teaching reading. While reading lessons paid attention to only four language domains, the textbook should have incorporated much syntactic and discourse knowledge and lessons on voice if we wanted to help multilingual students develop their literacy skills holistically.

Aside from the above, many reading activities focus on short excerpts rather than longer texts. While this approach may be effective for targeting specific skills like reading comprehension or improving vocabulary knowledge, it may not adequately prepare students for the challenges of reading extended texts in academic and real-world settings. By primarily focusing on short passages, students may miss out on developing the skills necessary for understanding the larger reading discourse structure and cogent flow of texts. On how some

reading activities in language textbooks lack a larger discourse reading level, Brown's (2007) research on vocabulary and reading shows that it is not just literal reading and decoding words that make reading instruction effective. The scholar asserts that the provision of engaging language-learner literature and extensive reading aims to develop reading fluency and reading skills in general while at the same time consolidating knowledge of previously met grammatical structures and vocabulary. By language learning literature, Brown (2007) emphasizes the role of adopting a communicative approach, carrying out authentic activities, and using language meaningfully for reading instruction and other language learning activities. The research on vocabulary acquisition and listening to stories by Brown et. al (2008) show that relatively few new words are learned from reading by a graded reader as measured by a meaning-translation test. However, more vocabulary knowledge was acquired from the reading during multiple-choice sessions. At the conclusion of the reading and listening (story) sessions, students were asked to consider these multiple-choice questions (a) what the story they liked the most and why; (b) the story that was easiest and why; (c) the mode they preferred, and why. The data collected from the students' responses was examined to see whether they had vocabulary knowledge in reading and listening (story) sessions. The findings show that learners state words very often they heard from the reading (story) session and remember such words in responding to these multiple-choice questions. These two approaches suggest that the nature of vocabulary learning from extensive reading was effective. Through extensive reading, study participants gained knowledge such as the noticing of lexical phrases, collocational and colligational patterns, new nuances of meanings, and improved lexical access speed, which was beneficial to reading fluency and word comprehension.

Having looked at how reading and writing activities were taught by storytelling and narration, the next theme focuses on the product-oriented literacy instruction that Golden English promotes as its main pedagogical approach to writing instruction.

Theme 2: Product-oriented literacy instruction is regarded as the main pedagogical approach.

Regarding teaching writing, as indicated by Gottlieb (2016), primary school English teachers across disciplines reported using writing to promote student learning. Using various pedagogies to improve writing skills is essential for achieving biliteracy among multilingual students (Houston & Harris, 2016). Writing is a socio-culturally situated practice, and learning to write in a second language encompasses more than just the ability to use vocabulary and grammar appropriately in that language. On how reading and writing are taught in Golden English, I realized that teaching writing is viewed as both product and a process in teaching literacy. Writing is viewed as both a product and a process, as writing tasks throughout this textbook demonstrated. By focusing on the product, the writing tasks in the Golden English textbook may help bilingual writers to improve their ability to write in the target language and home language but prevent them from practicing genre-based writing. During my teaching experiences in Ghana, I realized this product-oriented writing instruction mostly followed teaching five-paragraph format. However, having teaching experience as a writing course instructor in the U.S., I learned that genre-based writing can help students use language meaningfully in multiple contexts to get things done. Genres are typified responses embedded in social situations and related to the social function of a text. Looking at writing through this lens could help students develop a repertoire of writing skills that can be employed in different genres and contexts. According to Caplan and Johns (2019), a product-oriented approach to writing has

several limitations. A five-paragraph essay is an approach to writing that is "insensitive to context, rhetorical situation, audience, or communicative purpose" (p. vi). The scholars assert that centralizing writing instruction on genres; creating meaningful writing assignments; providing opportunities for students to examine purpose, audience, context, and structure; and challenging prescribed rules of writing are some pedagogical ways that writing instruction can be more sensitive to context and communicative purpose.

By a process-based approach to writing, language learners focus on the process by which they produce their written products rather than on the products themselves. Through the writing process, learners utilize the appropriate help and cooperation of the teacher. In Golden English, writing activities also seem to promote process-based writing. The task says:

Write a short composition about yourself. These questions may guide you.

1. What is your name?
2. How old are you?
3. Where do you come from?
4. What is your favorite food?
6. Where do you go to school?
7. In which class are you?
8. What is your favorite sport? (Golden English, p. 273)

Although these strategies are helpful in the writing process, I see it as a typified sequence and linear writing process and a controlled way of teaching writing that does not allow multilingual learners' free flow of thought in writing. Again, these strategies provide a formulaic structure for students to carry out their writing tasks and prevent them from seeing writing as carrying a communicative purpose. As Tardy (2019) states, "When we limit genres to template-

like structures, we lose their social nature, and it is precisely that social nature that makes genres so productive and valuable for student writers" (p. 25). For the purpose of creating genre-based writing instruction, Tardy (2019) discusses important pedagogies which dismantle the process-based and monomodal way of writing. Tardy emphasizes the role of bending genres or variations in genres, parody, role play, and remixing and redesigning genres. Such writing instruction could enable teachers to create different writing activities that would expand students' genre knowledge and help them to be more versatile writers. For example, when students pay attention to genre variations and rhetorical moves, they take ownership of their texts. Such approaches to writing help to appreciate the view that there is no one way of writing or writing instruction.

Following product-oriented literacy instruction, writing is usually reduced to sentence-level forms. For instance, on page 74 of the textbook, activities such as "study the picture and write three sentences on it and read the sentences written to your partner" (p.74) show that writing is associated with decontextualized and product-oriented pedagogies. Through such prompts, writing is reduced to a level of sentential form. Students are asked to answer multiple-choice and fill-in-the-blank type questions rather than focusing on developing awareness on rhetorical expectations, audience, and context of writing. Writing activities have been reduced to sentential forms because of the strong emphasis on multiple choice and fill-in-the-blank questions as a measure of student achievement. In Exercise A, the textbook states, "Rewrite the text, beginning the names of particular places and days with capital letters" (p. 22). As students engage in this activity, the teacher can use it as a precursor to teach proper nouns and how students can grammatically use them in simple sentences. As a language teacher, I expected this writing activity should be an extensive writing, otherwise beyond simple sentential writing. Not only does the writing activity is reduced to sentence level, I realize that teaching writing in some

parts of the textbook has been reduced to mere matching and labelling activities although such tasks help students to tap into their bilingual identities. In Unit 5, words are matched in Column A to the right words in Column B. Most multilingual students know the names of these objects in their home languages; hence, they tap on the knowledge in their first language to successfully match the words in Column A to Column B. Such matching activity could have been transformed into a composition writing exercise so that multilingual can develop their writing skills in meaning and engaging manner.

Additionally, writing instruction in the U.S. context differs from what has been captured in Golden English. Some writing tasks allow students to copy sentences clearly and nicely into their exercise book. As students engage in this activity, they pay close attention to the details of the sentences they are copying. This activity among multilinguals in Ghana is done to improve their penmanship. This position is supported by Morphy et al. (2008) as they reported that primary grade teachers indicated that they taught penmanship using evidence-based practices. By evidenced-based practices, the authors mean that writing instructional approaches should be supported by language learning literature and should show the effectiveness of students' writing skills. According to Morphy et al. (2008), such evidence-based practices are essential in helping multilingual develop biliteracy. Evidence-based practices such as multi-sensory approaches are essential to help students develop biliteracy instruction. In multi-sensory instruction, teachers help students learn letters, words, and spelling rules by assisting them in activities like tracing letters in sand or shaving cream, using magnetic letters to spell words, and using finger spelling to help students connect letters with sounds. Exercise and tasks in Golden English use a structured and sequential approach by breaking down words into their sounds, practicing letter formation, memorizing spelling rules, etc., to teach handwriting and spelling. As a language

teacher, writing is not just about reproducing information but also involves synthesizing ideas, analyzing information, and expressing one's thoughts and opinions. As a result, Ghanaian students who are exposed to Golden English's product-oriented tasks might not develop much essential writing skills when many tasks are limited to copying sentences or one-sentence productions. Nevertheless, implementing such evidence-based practices in the textbook is a valuable tool that conforms to language policies' demand to help multilinguals to develop their handwriting skills, improve their vocabulary and grammar, and introduce them to the writing process.

However, in cases where some in-class and out-of-classroom activities demand digital tools to perform writing activities, Ghanaian primary classrooms lack digital tools. For instance, on page 2 of the textbook, students are asked to “visit the internet and download some songs. Learn how to sing them. Sing them to your partners in the classroom. Write the title of your song” (p. 2). Another digital tasks are realized as: “visit the ICT laboratory and use the internet to learn more about the animals (lion and the mouse) mentioned in the story” (p.8). This is a significant concern to me as a teacher of writing. Students with limited access to the internet access miss out on opportunities to learn digital literacy skills and fail to collaborate and receive feedback on their writing. As stated by Coker et al. (2016), the use of digital tools for writing and teaching writing was conspicuously absent in the regular L2 classroom in Ghana, despite most writing today being done digitally outside of school. The absence of digital tools for performing writing activities has prevented most Ghanaian L2 students from using multimodal literacies to express their ideas creatively and effectively.

Additionally, I noticed that writing tasks based on personal experiences are encouraged in some writing activities in Golden English. Writing prompts based on personal experience elicit

essays with significantly different discourse characteristics and emphasize the voice of Ghanaian multilingual students. For example, “write your feeling about your birthday celebration in simple sentences” (p. 160) and “write a short composition about yourself” (p. 273) are some writing tasks exemplified. The above evidentials show that writing prompts in Golden English build more on students’ existing literacies to embrace their bilingual and multilingual identities.

Similarly, writing tasks of guided composition might allow students to use their emic stories for reenacting their personal experiences. Discourse engagement markers: “write a short narrative essay on a visit to the market to be pasted on the notice board” (p. 161) and “write a short composition about your best friend” (p. 281) help elicit different discourse characteristics that emphasize their students’ voice and identity. Such guided compositions about students’ personal experiences allow them to use stories to express their voices and identities as multilingual writers. In such writing tasks, Ghanaian multilingual students might develop their multilingual identities by reenacting their emic experiences from their local cultures. Students might even develop their L1 if their mother tongues are used in drafting these writings. As students incorporate their emic stories from their local cultures into the writing of guided composition, they can bring their cultural perspective to the text, enriching the content and making it more meaningful and engaging. When students use personal stories in writing composition, they can explore their experiences, feelings, and perspectives, which can help build their self-confidence and sense of identity (Zheng et al. 2021).

In the next section, my analysis addresses how language and culture are addressed as learning outcomes in Golden English.

RQ 2. How are Ghanaian languages and culture represented in Golden English textbook?

Theme 1: Ghanaian Storytelling tradition is a commonly used language practice to show integration of local cultures and ideologies.

One of the ways teaching English as an international language is localized in Golden English is through storytelling. I remember vividly having an interactive session with some colleague teachers in Cape Coast during my teaching practicum about how they conceptualize stories. Most student teachers saw stories as fairytales, storybooks, or narratives. That seems like a limited definition of stories if we see stories as a pedagogical tool and learning resource for Ghanaian multilingual students. In this regard, I concur with Wright's (2002) conceptualization of stories. According to Wright (2002), stories "include any descriptions of dramatic events in fact or fiction: traditional stories, local legends, contemporary fiction, the news, personal anecdotes, stories made by multilingual students that can be offered through personal storytelling, television, theatre, cinema, newspaper, and public events" (p. 1) to reenact the historical issues into the present. This relationship between the past and present, according to Cubbit (2007), is entrenched in the cultural practices of a people and enciphered through rituals, symbols, and cultural artifacts. Although the NALAP report on teaching approaches regarding what transitions occur and how much instruction is characterized in each language, the textbook provides some instances that storytelling and story reading help multilingual students make sense across boundaries by providing a shared cultural experience that transcends language barriers.

Ghanaian storytelling tradition goes back to the early pre-colonial era. As such, Ghana's transitional bilingual education views storytelling as a significant pedagogical tool to teach language and literacy. According to Saboro (2016), storytelling has formed the core genre of Ghanaian oral literature since Ghana's precolonial literature. It is an essential part of Ghanaian culture and is used to pass down traditional stories, folktales, and cultural values from generation

to generation. Storytelling is a powerful tool for teaching biliteracy in the Golden English textbook. The text follows discourse modes like stories, narratives, and poems that convey Ghanaian cultural ideology. According to Hancock (2022, p.225), narratives and stories are “mediating cultural tools within activity systems” that can influence and shape the pedagogical ways literacy and language teachers deliver their biliteracy instruction. One pedagogical way Golden English actualizes biliteracy instruction is through traditional stories, folktales, and story reading. These stories are rich in cultural and historical context and provide an excellent opportunity for multilingual students to learn about their heritage and identity. The overwhelming majority of the main characters in stories of Golden English textbook are from Ghana — an outer circle country where English is used as an additional language. In that sense, Ghanaian multilingual students can connect with their cultural affinities because most dialogues are between Ghanaian characters. As a Ghanaian teacher, I also noticed in my practice that storytelling in Ghanaian education allows students to use context and culture to make meaning. While using a word such as a spider, a Ghanaian student will find it comfortable to use the word ‘Ananse’ (Ghanaian Akan word for spider) for storytelling. This pedagogical flexibility not only retains cultural diversity in an instructional context but also allows success in instruction because students and instructors alike have the freedom to retain cultural affinity and communicate the feelings that may be displaced should multilingual writers write and tell stories without incorporating their first language experience.

In classroom practices, telling traditional stories preserves the fabric of Ghanaian culture and provides a natural context for acquiring comprehension skills.

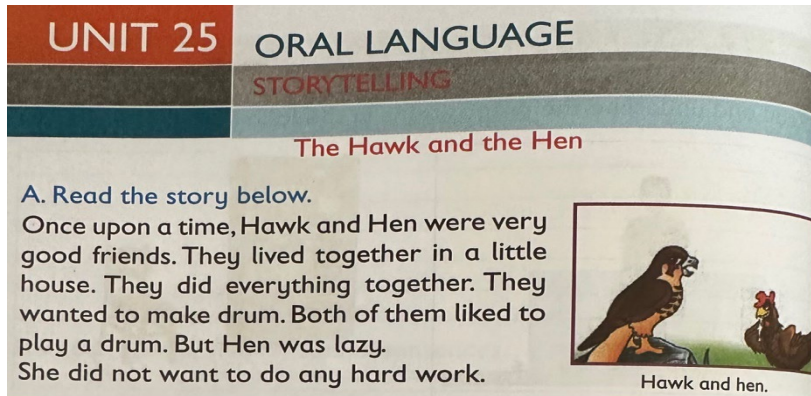


Figure 5: The Hawk And the Hen (p. 197)

Through storytelling, we can see in Image 5 that Ghanaian culture eschews laziness. "Hawk and the Hen" is a popular story that teaches moral lessons and values to children. The story revolves around a hawk and a hen who are neighbors in the animal kingdom. In the story, hawk and hen agree to calve a material to make a drum, but the hen claims she is sick on the day of going to the forest. The hawk calves the materials alone, makes a drum, and warns her not to touch or play the drum. Hawk got angry and almost killed the hen when she caught her playing the drum. The hen then promises the hawk to give one chick to the hawk every time she hatches a new set of baby hens. Although this is a folktale, the story teaches us to eschew the culture of laziness.



Figure 6: The Hawk making the drum (p.197)

This activity of storytelling helps multilingual students to internalize the culture of hardworking and have the mindset that laziness is frowned upon in Ghanaian culture. Tasks on “The hawk and the hen” passage help students to connect with localized words such as “drum and stool” since such words are used in Ghanaian chieftaincy tradition. Students do not only learn about their culture, but they answer questions at the end of this passage. This task is seen as an activity system that helps them appreciate their culture and assess their understanding of language in sentence construction. The questions of a comprehension lesson read:

1. How many people lived in the hawk and hen’s house?
2. Who said they would the wood for their drums?
3. Who did not want to help with the work? (p. 198)

These questions follow a narrative sequence and are presented to help multilingual students match the sequence of the events in the story. Students are asked to use details to retell part of the story that answered the questions. These closed-ended questions allow students to consider ideas and recall specific information from the text. This ensures that students understand the text in relation to the focused subject of the story.

It is also important to note that the reading activity relied heavily on the illustrations to retell the story. In Ghanaian culture, the characters in these picture stories are essential in encoding the meaning of illustrations.

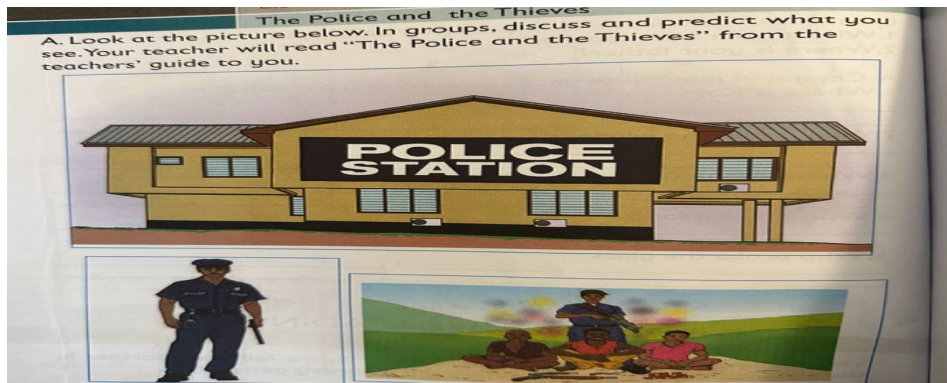


Figure 7: Police and the Thieves (p. 63)

Moreover, illustrations help multilingual students make visual associations with words they cannot recall during the instructional session. I remember vividly teaching proper nouns and common nouns. In one of my own past teaching experiences, a student struggled to come up with an example of a proper noun, “goat,” where he refers to it in his mother tongue as “egbor” and added that it has a brown and black color and has a horn. This leads other colleagues to suggest whether he means a sheep or a goat. Upon hearing the word goat, the student says, “yes, that is exactly what I mean.” Recalling past micro classroom teaching experience and interactions with my multilingual students back in year 2014, I noticed that reading a story with illustrations can help multilingual students map their experiences in the language and visualize images from their mother tongue and another linguistic background. It serves as a model for language and thought that they could imitate. These teacher-practitioner experiences corroborate the findings of Isbell et al. (2004). In their study, they stated that storytelling and story reading can enhance multilingual students' visual imaginations and encourage them to create mental pictures. The finding shows that young children who heard the stories told were able to develop oral retelling skills in narrating the stories they heard; children in the story reading group showed improved language complexity. The researchers found that the study participants were better at providing a setting, naming the moral, and stating the

characters in the story. This finding supports the idea that the inclusion of storytelling improves their oral retelling skills and ability to mentally picture the characters in the story.

Aside from teaching experiences, “look and say activities” in the Golden English textbook emphasize that students critically look at stories with images and conversational pictures and come up with what they have seen. In a story of an image of a lion and mouse, the activity instructs students to “A. in groups, read the story below” (p. 35). As students engage in this activity, they build the love and culture of reading and listening and connect to traditional stories about lions and mice in the world folktale. For every Ghanaian student, a lion is a king in the folktale world. The inclusiveness of “look and say activities” in the Golden English textbook is vital because such activities provide an effective and engaging way for students to build their language skills and develop the confidence they need to communicate effectively in English and know much about their cultures.

Another way storytelling is pedagogically utilized is through interactive techniques such as dramatization and role-playing. These methods allow students to actively engage with the story and make connections between the story and their own lives. For example, students can take on the roles of characters in the story “The Stolen Meat” and act out the story in their own words. After dramatization and role play, it intensifies them to read the stories. This activity not only helps to reinforce their language and academic metalanguage skills, but it allows them to develop their creativity and imagination. The text uses role-playing to have students practice oral language and focus on form.

In groups, dramatise the conversation between Dela and her parents.

Dela: Daddy, where do we come from?

Mr. Dasi: Why do you ask that?

Dela: One day, my teacher will ask me to talk about myself.

Mr Dasi: Can't you talk about yourself? (p.50).

C. In groups, dramatise the story of "The Police and the Thieves." Everyone will practise part of the story till the end of the story. Your group leaders will give each member a role to play, and your teacher will guide you. Dramatize the story as the story is. After the drama, talk about the characters (p.64).

Larbi-Appiah et al. (2020) indicate that putting students in groups or pairs helps them express themselves boldly among peers. His research investigates the effects of storytelling on pupils' language skills in early childhood education at the Elmina Catholic Boys Primary School in the Central Region of Ghana. The study employs an action research design by using 34 respondents, comprising 32 primary two (2) pupils and two (2) class teachers. The results of the study reveal that when multilingual students participate in class discussions, their vocabulary knowledge improves, and errors are corrected by their peers and teachers. According to one of the teachers, placing students in groups encourages them to speak up and express themselves in front of their peers. Another teacher stated, "Group activity enables children to share ideas together and socialize" (Teacher 1, p. 133). As a teacher, I realized that this approach is excellent for teaching multilingual students because it improves their conversational skills. Again, students are more likely to be motivated to learn when engaged in role play and dramatization activities since multilingual students find it exciting and enjoyable. This personal finding concurs with Larbi-Appiah's (2020) research findings that Ghanaian multilingual students learn to listen, participate in, and understand narrative discourse and markers and create a path to more sophisticated language, reading, and writing use in their everyday lives as they engage in storytelling and role-playing. This finding from Larbi-Appiah (2020) corroborates with Mumuni

(2019) that retelling stories is a pedagogical tool for improving pragmatic oral skills, the capacity to use language in specific contexts for specific purposes, which in turn increases the ability to write. Referring to the Ghana Education Service Curriculum (2016), I have noted that there are tasks and activities for speaking skills for primary (grade) 2 that encourage storytelling through dramatization and roleplay. I noticed that skills like speaking clearly and confidently are covered under storytelling. Based on my multicultural experience with my Ghanaian multilingual students, it is unsurprising to state that students who partake in this activity come up with important ‘Ananse’ (Ghanaian Akan name for spider) stories with localized characters from their cultures and home language. This offers students the opportunity to use characters, actions, and narratives to retell stories of their own. This activity system of storytelling and story reading raises multilingual students' awareness of story structures and how language is used in different contexts and for other purposes. Seng (2017) supports the idea that storytelling through dramatization and role play goes a long way in promoting linguistic awareness and development. Her study examines how 34 primary four teachers and 116 primary four students perceived storytelling as a resource for language teaching and learning. According to the researcher, telling stories to primary four pupils raise their awareness of story structures and how language is used in different contexts and for different purposes. The study, therefore, reveals that many stories contain repetition of key vocabulary and structures. As a result, children absorb these linguistic features as they listen to the stories repeatedly and learn how such vocabularies are put together to form structures. As a teacher, I noted that using Golden English for teaching literacy also helps students learn Ghanaian English words such as “kente, ananse, milo, key soap, omo, pear,” etc., in telling their personal stories. These teaching experiences show that as students use such Ghanaian English words to tell their personal stories, their vocabulary knowledge is improved.

The next theme discusses how visuals reinforce cultural ideologies.

Theme 2: Visuals are used to reinforce cultural ideologies and the use of English as an international language.

When it comes to teaching English in a diverse international context, Matsuda (2012) emphasizes the importance of recognizing and valuing the diversity of English Language Learners and the need to develop pedagogical approaches responsive to this diversity. She specifically talks about the use of English as an international language (EIL) in giving inclusive spaces for varieties of World Englishes in various English language teaching materials and contexts. The exposure to different forms and functions of English is crucial for EIL learners because this serves a benchmark for creating an intercultural awareness of different varieties and consequently helps students develop a more comprehensive view of the English language. Because in Ghana, the role of English is different than in English-dominant countries such as U.S., UK, and Australia, the concept of EIL is discussed as a more inclusive framework when teaching English in non-English dominant contexts. In addition, the discussion of EIL in the field of TESOL is a result of English being a global language in many L2 contexts. In reinforcing Ghanaian cultural ideologies, most images in Golden English reflect Ghanaian cultures. My overall analysis of both language and images demonstrates that Ghanaian cultural ideologies were promoted and discussed in Golden English. This idea of localization of English as an international language helps students reflect on their own culture vis-à-vis others (Mckay, 2002). Ghana Education Service (2016) also states that the country's language policy recognizes the need to incorporate students' home cultures and mother tongues into language and literacy instruction. Touching on why teaching materials need to incorporate locally sensitive content, Mckay (2002) reports that English language teaching materials should reflect multilingual

students' cultures. In one of the reading comprehension lessons in Golden English, students learn about 'Okomfo Anokye', a famous priest in Akan culture.

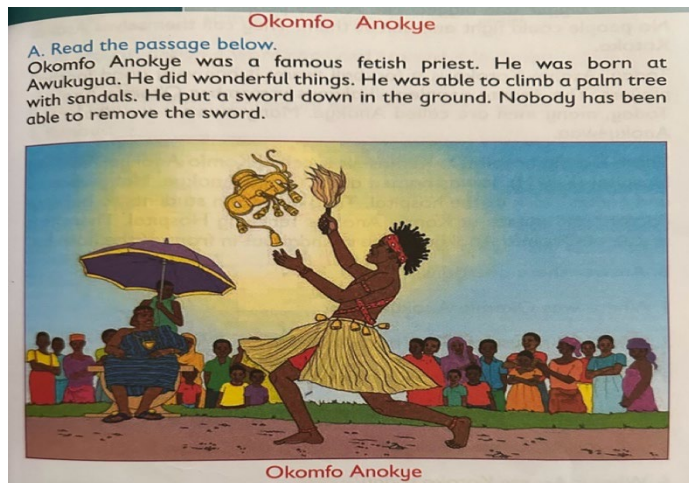


Figure 8: Okomfo Anokye (p. 130)

Although this is a reading comprehension lesson in English, these images showcase Ghana's vibrant and diverse traditional attire, highlighting the importance of clothing as an expression of cultural identity. Also, the image of "Okomfo Anokye, a famous fetish priest," with cultural artifacts like stool, beads, etc., represents Ghana's artistic traditions and the importance of visual arts in Ghanaian culture. This is because these cultural artifacts showcase the craftsmanship, symbolism, and cultural significance of rich Ghanaian culture. Having seen such discourses of images depicting Ghanaian culture in the textbook fortifies the idea that English as an international language has been localized. In this sense, the textbook, through images and other discourse in the images, exemplifies how English as an international language has been localized in teaching about cultures of Ghanaian discourse communities. This evidence, therefore, shows that Golden English prioritizes locally sensitive content.

Images used in Golden English largely represent diverse Ghanaian cultures. Images in multimodal forms depict practices like decent dressing, naming ceremonies, festivals, traditional games, and storytelling, indicating that these are highly entrenched cultural phenomena in Ghanaian religious and sociolinguistic strata. The textbook's use of rhetorical modes—images with picture reading of stories reinforces Ghanaian cultural ideologies. The images are seen as mediational tools in reading comprehension lessons that express Ghanaian cultural affinities about decent dressing, naming ceremonies, traditional games, and festivals. The comprehension lesson on “Indecent dressing” shows images that serialize a well-known story about indecent dressing. These images depict a real-life discourse of Ghanaian sociolinguistic and cultural landscape, and decent dressings are regarded as highly entrenched virtues. These images reinforce discourses and cultures similarly and with similar semantic valency as the text that follows them. I noticed that some images serve as effective rhetorical modes of promoting cultural ideologies- children's moral development because it allows Ghanaian multilingual students to make meaning of their daily experiences. This evidence connects to Saamee and Nomnian (2021)'s idea that textbook images must represent most multilingual students' cultural aspects. Samee and Nomnian (2021) explore the representations of cultural aspects in the ELT textbooks that are used in public primary school in Cambodian, Lao, Myanmar, and Thailand. The finding shows cultural representations and recognition of the learner's sociocultural background were imbalanced and limited in ELT textbooks. They reveal that five cultural aspects, including products, practices, places, persons, and perspectives, plus one unidentified category, are imbalanced and limited. The researchers state that 41% of products (physical, cultural contents, including man-made products such as movies, songs, folklore, books, novels, comics, inventions, food, etc., that depict a particular national culture) are represented in the book. Again, only 26%

of practices in the form of rituals, celebrations, traditions, activities, and cultural practices are portrayed. For places such as popular and famous landmarks, only 20% of that was presented. Additionally, 6% of popular or renowned figures (singers, artists, writers, poets, nationally and internationally famous figures, athletes, heroes, etc.) who convey a certain national culture are represented. There is only a 6% of representation of perspectives, ways certain groups of people regard something that can be compared and contrasted with other cultures and is relevant to forming attitudes, notions, values, myths, and beliefs. The study, therefore, urges language teachers and educators to narrow down the cultural gap that exists between the textbooks' cultural content and learners' sociocultural backgrounds, experience, and contexts. In this regard, Golden English needs to keep embracing all cultures, both minorized and the most prevalent ones. Golden played a great role in embracing most prevalent languages and cultures of Akan, Ewe, Ga, etc., but needs to ensure equal representation of other minoritized cultures. Contents about traditional figures need to be represented in a balanced and equal manner. For example, on page 130, a comprehension passage only talks about “Okonfo Ankoye” (famous Akan fetish priest) without talking about Torgbi Tsali (famous Ewe priest) and Odomankoma, Oson, and Odapagyan (the three great warriors of Fantes) and others. The passage only focuses on Akan names rather than other important names in other cultures. Thus, having equal representation of content, such as traditional figures from all Ghanaian cultures, will narrow down any level of the cultural gap.

In the comprehension lesson (see the image below), images of students depicting indecent and decent dressing were portrayed in the textbooks to educate students on the entrenched moral values of Ghanaian religious and sociocultural space.

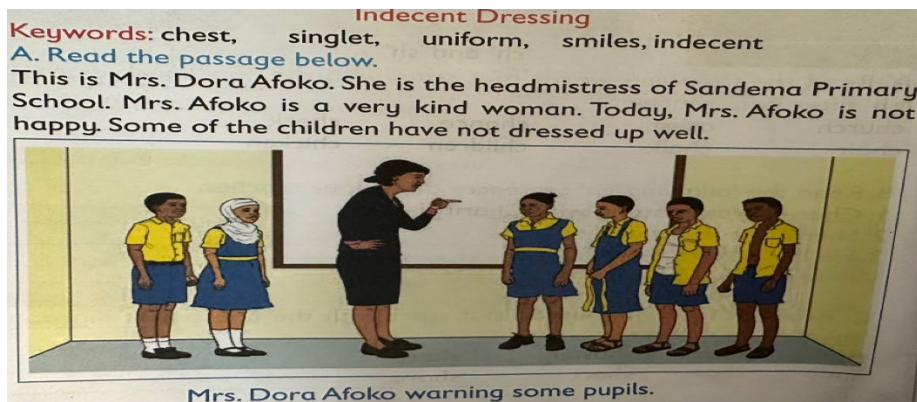


Figure 9: Indecent Dressing (p. 28)

The image above demonstrates that it is the duty of the school as one of the social institutions for moral development of children to use storytelling as a means of instilling moral values. For instance, in my teaching experience in a Ghanaian classroom, I take students through a storyline using a conversational poster, after which I ask them to assess the characters' behaviors in the story to determine whether the characters' actions and reactions were right or wrong. The teacher also in the visuals uses role modeling for students to help distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate dressing in accordance with the generally accepted standards in Ghana. Students attempt to judge the characters' actions in the picture story to evaluate whether their actions are right or wrong by using a storyline presented as a conversational poster. Not only do the images emphasize moral development and school rules, but they also imply the accepted dressing norms in the Ghanaian religious and cultural landscape. Thompson's (2019) research on the perspectives of teachers about socio-cultural influences on their teaching in kindergarten classrooms in Ghana shows that the teachers from Kariba School perceived storytelling through visuals as a means of situating learning within the children's socio-cultural contexts. According to Thompson (2019),

For example, Ramatu (a participant) believed that storytelling could have the desired impact on children's development if the storyline is captured in a visual form. She

explained: Ramatu: I normally select stories from ‘the big book.’ The book contains several traditional stories which are useful for children’s moral development. The stories are in a pictorial form from one stage of the story to another. (p. 187)

Teaching students about images can be done by providing students with the language and tools to critically analyze and interpret the cultural meanings and moral messages conveyed by the images in the textbook. The above visual, therefore, provides content and academic knowledge to the students as well as helps students to learn the cultural values of various Ghanaian discourse communities.

Aside from decent dressing, the content about the naming ceremony of the textbook is significant for fostering biliteracy and preserving local languages and cultural knowledge.

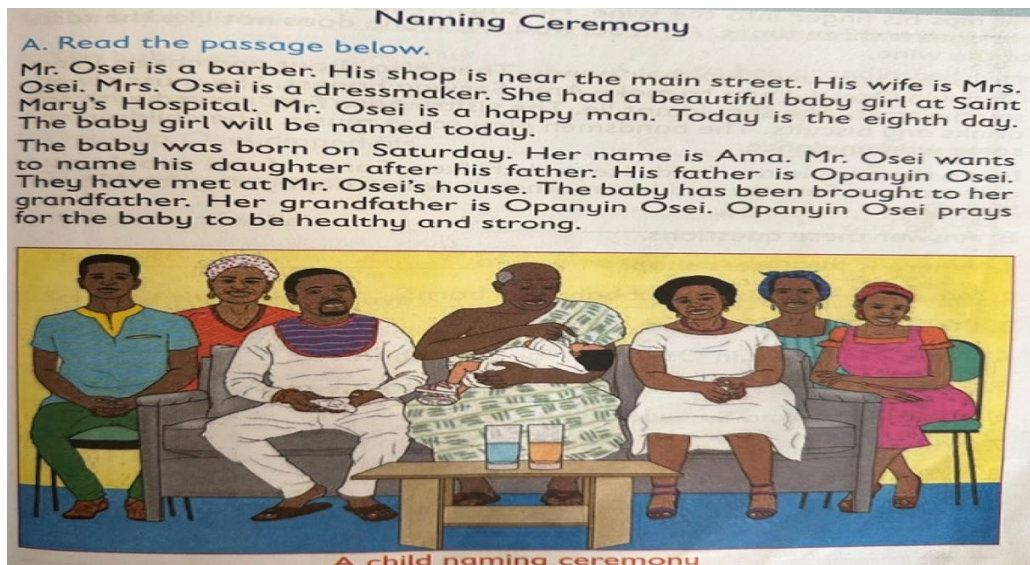


Figure 10: Naming Ceremony (p.28)

By emphasizing the importance of language, the ceremony can help encourage children to build a solid foundation in their mother tongue while fostering a love for language learning. During the ceremony, the child is given a name that reflects their family background, cultural values, and beliefs. This customary event can involve using proverbs, storytelling, and the repetition of

names to emphasize the importance of the naming process. The textbook gives a clear picture of the Ghanaian culture, dressing, and the activity system of the naming ceremony, which involves extended family and community at large. This brings a sense of togetherness. The ceremony is visualized through rhetorical images that show how Ghanaian multicultural societies value this activity as a rite of passage that introduces the child into the community. According to Ross (2004), images in textbooks are “visual makers of cultural identity and, in this case, function as trademarks for the nation” (p. 117). Again, by giving the child a name in the local language, the ceremony helps ensure that these languages remain relevant and are passed down from generation to generation. It is a form of language education that helps children develop an early foundation in their mother tongue and culture. This activity system, therefore, emphasizes the importance of multilingualism and the value of learning multiple languages and being members of multiple discourse communities.

Although it has been established that biliteracy could be observed through storytelling and images, Ghanaian languages were not discussed in detail in *Golden English*. The few Ghanaian languages that were incorporated in the book (i.e., Akan, Ewe, and Ga) were not integrated equally. The following section discusses this third theme, which is about the inclusion of local languages in an English language teaching textbook.

Theme 3: Omission of Ghanaian English and an emphasis on British English were observed throughout *Golden English*.

Looking at the language of *Golden English*, the author did not incorporate Ghanaian local English, a respected outer circle English variety in Ghana. Even though there were mentions of Ghanaian characters and storytelling, key lexical words that are dominant in Ghanaian English language practices were absent. I was expecting words such as *dumsor*, *akwaaba*, *ayekoo*, *barber*,

brutal, chop bar, and good-bye to be incorporated into the lessons and activities in the textbook since they form part of local Ghanaian English vernacular that is used frequently in Ghana. The absence of these lexical words in the textbook shows that Ghanaian English variations were omitted in the book.

Golden English privileges the use of British English spelling. Because Ghana is an outer circle country (Kachru, 1992), English language teaching and writing in the context of Ghanaian education prioritizes the British English variety. For example, the textbook presents British variety in spelling instead of American spelling variety (British vs American). For example, there are spellings of words like centre/center, neighbour/neighbor, organise/organize, supper/dinner, dramatise/dramatize (p.52), practise/ practice (p. 57), labour/labor (p. 65), harbour/harbor (p. 90), soccer/ football (p. 67). Some of these differences exist in words that end in -or, -re, -se in American English and -our, -er, -ze in British English. This is crucial to me because the textbook did not incorporate any other spelling variety (American or other inner circle countries) rather than British spelling variety. The textbook's choice of mainstream British English variety mostly reinforces the power of dominant English forms such that students cannot see how Ghanaian multiliteracy and multilingualism can be valued while using English as a global language (Bonney, 2021). The emphasis on British English is not just a preference, but the choice is as a result of the country's historical colonial ties with Britain. Structural, grammatical, and syntactic choices used in this textbook imply that African Ghanaian English forms are not recognized as a legitimate variety, and the British variety is prioritized in most parts of the textbook under study. In this case, students' right to their own language is missing. According to Zorn (2010), the 1974 Conference on College Composition and Communication affirms the students' right to their own patterns and varieties of language — the dialects of their nurture or whatever dialects help

integrate their own identity and style. The absence of most Ghanaian English varieties in textbooks is challenging because most English textbooks control 95% of the teaching time in Ghanaian public classrooms, and it is often perceived as an authentic source of the target language and culture. Meanwhile, literacy research demonstrates that when there are apparent discrepancies between English-language use in real life and what transpires in textbooks, students do not make sense connections to real-world language use. It is, therefore, crucial to state that the absence of most Ghanaian English words that connect to Ghanaian cultural features shows that Ghanaian English variations have not universally integrated into Golden English.

SECTION II: Analysis of the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) Formative Evaluation Report

Having looked at the themes that emerged in the analysis of Golden English, this section dives into a close analysis of the National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) Formative Evaluation report by addressing how language policies in Ghana are reflected in English language textbooks. NALAP is a bilingual program that emphasizes mother tongue and English instruction to improve literacy rates among early grade primary students in Ghana (Ghana Education Service, 2010). Looking at interactional discourse markers in the NALAP report, the section first shows that the NALAP policy and Golden English have the same ideology of valuing the four literacy skills: writing, listening, speaking, and reading. However, the subsequent section discusses the incongruence between language ideologies promoted in NALAP report and Golden English.

The two themes that emerged are the following — (1) NALAP policy and Golden English value the integration of four language skills: reading, writing, speaking, and listening. Both documents prioritize the idea that Ghanaian multilinguals must be proficient in these four

traditional language domains. (2) There is incongruence between the language ideologies promoted in Golden English and NALAP. While the NALAP policy preaches the value of biliteracy and mother-tongue education, there are minimal L1 references in enacting bilingual practices in Golden English. In this section, the above-mentioned themes answer the third research question:

RQ 3: What aspects of the existing language policy in Ghana (specifically, NALAP formative report) are integrated in English language textbooks?

Theme 1: Both NALAP and Golden English aim to promote local cultural and linguistic values.

Language policy is usually implemented through language textbooks and pedagogy used in class (Man et al. 2019). My analysis shows that NALAP policy values the four language domains: writing, speaking, listening, and reading. Similarly, Golden English learning outcomes also recognize the above language domains are important in developing students' literacy skills. Discourses about promoting literacy skills in the NALAP report are similar to the instructional goals presented in Golden English. NALAP has been a government initiative to improve literacy rates in Ghana through various interventions such as teacher training, curriculum development, and learning resources (NALAP report, 2010). The program's primary goal is to raise literacy rates nationwide, focusing on reducing access to high-quality education inequalities. A crucial element of the NALAP program is the Ghanaian Primary English Textbooks-Golden English textbooks. Such textbooks are designed to support the program's aim of developing literacy skills in primary school students. Golden English is also designed to be used with the program's teaching materials, providing students with a comprehensive approach to teaching and improving literacy skills of Ghanaian multilinguals. As the introduction of the NALAP report says,

“NALAP is a ground-breaking literacy intervention, unique in both Ghana and sub-Saharan Africa” (p.1); the textbook also emphasizes the need to help literacy growth among English language learners. The textbook offers multicultural approaches and provides a range of activities and exercises to help develop Ghanaian students' reading, listening, speaking, and writing abilities in English. As discussed earlier in this chapter, there are various tasks that try to address four language domains: reading, speaking, writing, and listening, with measurable learning outcomes for improving literacy skills. Despite the limitations, the textbook aims to bring in pedagogical flexibility by capturing a variety of activities and tasks. Through a close review of NALAP's documents, such content conforms to NALAP content areas taught in Ghanaian classrooms.

The National Literacy Acceleration Program's objective under the early-exit bilingual education is to raise Ghana's literacy rates, so it stands to reason that the program could encourage the usage of materials like Golden English to actualize learning outcomes. Therefore, National Literacy Acceleration Program's target is to ensure teachers give instruction utilizing materials like Golden English to meet measurable learning objectives. The National Literacy Acceleration Program, therefore, may have the potential to help and improve the literacy skills of English language learners when using teaching materials (Golden English) are effectively utilized. To support this position, Ghana Education Service (2015) reports that the NALAP program and the use of English Textbooks like Golden English have contributed to improving primary school students' literacy skills. The number of multilingual students who achieved reading and writing competency increased significantly as a result of the NALAP program as well as the effective utilization of standardized Ghanaian Primary English textbooks in micro classroom practices (Education Assessment and Research Center, 2017).

In building a synergy between students' identities and learning materials, one of the goals of NALAP is to embrace multilingual students' home languages and cultures. In this regard, the program ensures that teaching and learning resources like Golden English prioritize students' first language and culture in teaching literacy skills. Discourses in the NALAP report about promoting mother tongue education (L1) are evidential. The NALAP report says:

The National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP), a joint initiative by the Ghana Education Service (GES) and USAID, focuses on improving literacy learning through mother tongue instruction in kindergarten through third grade with an early transition to English (p.1).

The above excerpt about embracing multilingual mother tongue through teaching of literacy attests to the fact that NALAP has a cultural theme of imbibing in Ghanaian multilinguals the love of their mother tongue. Closely looking at literacy skills lessons of reading and writing, the integration of home languages and L1 references is seen in images and the names given characters in the textbook. Although I expected appearance of local languages in this textbook, some L1 reference is portrayed in reading lessons through the use of images and local names of characters. The textbooks' unit topics — naming ceremony, traditional songs, storytelling, and indecent dressing incorporate outer circle characters and Ghanaian culture pedagogies in teaching language domains as well as transmitting Ghanaian cultural values and traditions to the younger generations.

Similarly, the NALAP report also indicates:

NALAP has two features which make it stand out in the contentious history of early grade language policy and practice in Ghana and other African countries. First, it

explicitly addresses the relationship between the use of the pupils' first language (L1) and English in acquiring reading and writing skills. (vi)

This quote acknowledges the role of mother tongue and English literacy development in developing writing and reading skills among Ghanaian English learners. The above evidential therefore shows that NALAP supports Golden English's attempt to integrate local cultures through teaching literacy skills such as reading and writing, etc.

In the next section, I discuss the language ideologies promoted in the two educational texts by pinpointing some disconnections between the two.

Theme 2: There is an apparent incongruence between the language ideologies promoted in Golden English and NALAP.

This theme is observed by taking a closer look at the discourses promoted within NALAP and English language variations in Golden English. Even though the NALAP report indicates the importance of both English and mother tongue instruction as indicated in theme 1, mother tongue instruction and Ghanaian English variation are not much evidenced in activities and tasks of Golden English. According to Lippi-Green (1997), standard language ideology is seen as a “bias toward an abstracted, idealized, homogeneous spoken language which is imposed and maintained by dominant bloc institutions” (p. 67). Although this textbook uses Ghanaian storytelling and images, readers are mostly exposed to mainstream British English, which is not frequently used in Ghanaian communities. Discourses of standard language ideology and correctness of communication in one type of English target both teachers' and students' linguistic behavior, as the following extract emphasized:

The objectives of Golden English Book course are not different from the English language syllabus in Ghana. The objectives are as follows: It is to help the teacher to

guide the students to communicate in English in everyday life situations outside the classroom. The course also gives great attention to the need for primary school students to master the structures (grammatical, phonological, etc.) of English since the mastery is essential for success in communication. (Golden English, 2021, p. 293)

Such a description of the textbook implies that it is universally understood what is meant by the standard of using English to communicate effectively. It also suggests that teachers and students must always speak standard English, even outside the classroom. Emphasis on the prepositional phrase “outside the classroom” dismantles African Ghanaian vernaculars that shape Ghanaian discourse communities in-and-out of the classroom. It is unclear how NALAP emphasizes English and mother tongue instruction, but the textbook always encourages to respond to classroom discussions by “saying it like a queen’s language” (Cushing, 2020, p. 329). This standard language ideology is not a random preference. Rather, it’s an intentional choice that connects to Ghana’s colonial ties to the British.

However, discussions on the relevance of L1 literacy instruction in NALAP allow Ghanaian teachers to pedagogically utilize Ghanaian local English varieties in teaching and learning, especially at an early-exit level of education. The National Syllabus for Ghanaian Languages and Culture states:

The instruction in the school system from Kindergarten to Primary 3 is conducted essentially in the local language of the pupil (L1). Mathematics, Natural Science, and all other subjects studied from KG to Primary 3 should be taught using the Ghanaian language, the L1 of the pupils, utilizing textbooks already written in English. (Ministry of Education, Ghana, 2012, p. xi).

Unfortunately, Golden English does not spell out how teachers could actualize this goal and does not provide materials in students' first language to enact this multilingual goal. Although there are L1 characters used in the textbook, there are not enough L1 reference and language discussions that promote mother tongue use and instruction. The NALAP report only makes assumptions about positioning Ghanaian languages as relevant in teaching and learning. The NALAP highlighted biliteracy instruction as relevant, but I do not see much of biliteracy instruction in the textbook that is under study. The NALAP report talks about English and mother tongue development, but such biliteracy instructions do not exist in the textbook. Even though the NALAP report emphasizes that Ghana's most prevalent languages are important in enacting biliteracy, these prevalent languages: Akan, Ga, Adangbe, Fante, Akuapim, Dagomba, and Gonja were not equally discussed and enacted in the textbook's content. The NALAP Formative Evaluation Report (2012) states: "NALAP has three major components. These are: the development of teaching and learning materials in eleven Ghanaian languages, the publishing and distribution of over 5 million textbooks, and the training of 80,000 teachers" (p.1). Similarly, NALAP Formative Evaluation Report (2012) again indicates:

The National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP), a joint initiative by the Ghana Education Service (GES) and USAID, focuses on improving literacy learning through mother tongue instruction in kindergarten through third grade with an early transition to English. ...Because of this, the GES became determined to scale up this pilot to the national level and requested USAID assistance in developing a Ghanaian biliteracy program. (p.1).

These assumptions about promoting local languages as well as biliteracy are made relevant in the NALAP document, but such multilingual spirit is not really enacted well to teach English in the Golden English.

Assumptions like 80% of local languages used for instruction from KG 1 to P3 (grade 3) and pupils will be literate (Soma & Zuberu, 2022) are not really justified well in the textbook. From a pedagogical perspective, I do not see how the quantity of English instruction utilized in the textbook makes it possible for multilingual students to grasp the contents of all language domains as they transition from the early years of schooling. A section of the NALAP Formative Evaluation Report (2012) states:

Currently the NALAP sequence across grades assumes that students are fully proficient in letter/ sound correspondence and word reading by P2, and thus the first page of the student reader for P2 begins with a full-page story. Students who have not fully learned these skills or who have suffered some loss of schools during the long break are likely to fall far behind very quickly (p.14).

On the other hand, Bret and Wilmot (2018) on their research on Ghanaian language policies and multilingualism and their implication for literacy development in basic schools stated:

The assumption underlying National Literacy Acceleration Program (NALAP) is that by P3, pupils would be functionally literate and would have achieved reading fluency in their local language (L1) and in English (L2) (Hartwell, 2010), a philosophy that the Wing Schools championed. (p. 10)

These assumptions do not match up to the real literacy issues. During my teaching, I realized most students did not achieve bilingual fluency by grade 3. Although these assumptions made in

NALAP reports are useful if enacted well, Golden English only uses limited Ghanaian vocabularies and does not embrace much localized Ghanaian English structure, syntax, and semantics in developing language skills. Even Ghanaian vocabularies such as kente and kiosk that are used in the textbook are modeled to ways of teaching the English language where there is only a focus on learning parts like English nouns, pronouns, and adjectives. I was expecting words such as dumsor, akwaaba, ayekoo, barber, brutal, chop bar, good-bye, etc., to be incorporated into the lessons and activities in the textbook since they form part of local Ghanaian English vernacular that is used frequently in daily life. My analysis shows that there is more room for improvement regarding Ghana's biliteracy instruction through the integration of translingual literacy practices, which would incorporate local languages and literacy skills.

Additionally, on account of NALAP reports on teaching reading, both English and the student's mother tongue are frequently emphasized. The emphasis on mother tongue instruction at the primary level is based on the notion that students will comprehend the subject more readily if it is delivered to them in a language they are already proficient in, so they can progressively switch to utilizing English as the primary language of instruction. The United States Agency for International Development (USAID) (2020) supports Early Grade Reading (EGR) initiatives and policies such as NALAP evolved toward using the Language of Instruction (LOI) spoken at home as the language for initial literacy acquisition and switching to a second language (English) as the following language of instruction. The NALAP report also argues that using the student's home language as the primary medium of instruction while also introducing new vocabulary and grammar in English has improved students' bilingual identities. The NALAP report states: "NALAP aims to ensure that all children in kindergarten to grade three have quality literacy materials, effective instruction, and public support to learn to read and write in their mother

tongue and English” (p. i). The above discourse implies that literacy of Ghanaian English learners is developed in their home languages so that conceptual understanding they gain from their home languages would be transferred into learning English (L2). According to Hartwell (2021), “the NALAP methodology and materials, built on research about how pupils learn to read and the inclusion of Ghanaian culture and life, begins by drawing on pupils’ existing experience, knowledge, and interests” (vi). This idea of transfer of knowledge from their home languages into English helps to improve their bilingual identities.

My analysis, therefore, demonstrates that NALAP emphasizes the spirit of multilingualism, but there are less instructional messages that encourage Ghanaian vernacular English and translingual writing in responding to classroom exercises and activities in the Golden English. Even though some cultural pedagogies are employed by talking about some local names used in constructing sentences, embracing mother-tongue instruction, and encouraging Ghanaian vernacular English and translingual writings go beyond that. It sometimes depends on teachers to customize textbooks to represent students’ identities and cultures. Allowing such pedagogical flexibility preserves students' voices and identities in micro-class practices and promotes cultural diversity. It gives both students the freedom to express cultural affinities and convey feelings. Although the incorporation of such English vernacular varieties and translingual writing weren’t enacted well, I believe that teachers are the primary internal actors of NALAP policy, and they need to customize tasks and activities that can connect to the social realities of Ghanaian multilingual students.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I presented a qualitative discussion and analysis of the two educational texts: Golden English and NALAP Formative Evaluation Report. Using thematic analysis and

discourse analysis tools: features of linguistic and rhetorical analysis to examine these educational texts, I found that language ideologies promoted in Ghana and ELT materials do not entirely correspond. The analysis showed that while NALAP promotes the value of native language and biliteracy instruction, language ideologies promoted in Golden English were British English centered, with Ghanaian language ideologies minimally integrated into images and names of local characters in some lessons. The findings show ELT textbook (Golden English) embraced a storytelling approach to reinforce local culture and ideology. The textbook's analysis also shows that some L1 references through the use of images and local names of characters are integrated through storytelling. In chapter five, I discuss the implications of this study and discuss some possible ways in which an equitable representation of bilingual identities and multiliteracies can be actualized through the integration of localized content within ELT materials. Emphasizing the role of translanguaging pedagogies for NALAP policy, I discuss how English language teaching materials could explicitly integrate Ghanaian English variations in addressing Ghanaian English learners' linguistic needs and including representation of the local language and literacy practices. In this concluding section, I present recommendations for language teachers, educators, and policy makers regarding pedagogical implications and directions for future work.

CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study utilized thematic analysis and discourse analysis tools by examining the linguistic and rhetorical features of two Ghanaian educational texts- the NALAP report and Golden English, to investigate ideologies and discourses around language education and biliteracy instruction. My analysis of Golden English revealed that four language domains were introduced with limited L1 reference. The study also found that storytelling and visuals were integral aspects of local culture and ideology in this textbook. Additionally, writing instruction was constructed as product-oriented, and guided writing was encouraged through retelling and storytelling. Finally, the findings demonstrated that while NALAP promotes the value of native language and biliteracy instruction, language ideologies promoted in Golden English are centered around British English, with Ghanaian language ideologies minimally integrated into images and names of local characters. Based on the analysis and findings shared in the previous chapter, this chapter discusses the possible integration of translingual approaches, multiliteracies, effective representation of bilingual identities through localized contents, and effective teacher training with locally sensitive bilingual curricula as culturally responsive and sustained pedagogies to continually push for students' rights to their own language and literacy while learning English as an additional language.

The Value of Translingual Pedagogies

Considering this study's findings, there are several implications for language and literacy teachers and teacher trainers regarding the need to incorporate local languages and literacy skills in ELT textbooks. Looking at current Ghanaian English education, I believe there is room for improvement regarding promoting biliteracy instruction. This could be done by integrating tasks and activities that would promote translingual literacy practices. This could be done through

explicitly integrating into the curriculum local languages and literacy practices used by Ghanaian students learning English.

Translingual framework is already an important part of Ghanaian students' use of a multitude of languages in daily life, but language instructions (grades 1-6) shaped by the use of Golden English (one of the most popular books used in ELT) and Ghana's language educational policy, both of which do not entirely embrace translanguaging as a valid framework to learn and practice language use. In response to that, most teachers and students, who are NALAP policy actors, need to be given spaces to adopt and embrace translingual approaches in classroom teaching and learning. In monitoring Ghanaian classrooms, Yevudey (2012) states that translingual practices observed in classroom instruction implementation allow students to shuttle between their home language and English. As a teacher, I observed that Ghanaian classrooms view languages as flexible social resources and provide students with a space to develop their personal histories, beliefs, and practices. Translingual pedagogies should be a useful framework for enacting biliteracy instruction in ELT textbooks. Bronteng (2018) states that translingual pedagogies promote minoritized languages among Ghanaian kindergarten students. I believe that National Literacy Accelerated Program (NALAP) policy should create room for translanguaging to cater needs of multilingual students at the early grade level in Ghana. In this case, translingual pedagogies should be adopted in textbooks to allow students to make connections between their first language and the language of instruction. By so doing, activities and tasks in Golden English should help teachers realize the NALAP policy vision towards promoting bilingualism.

In my English language teaching in Ghana, I learned to value translingual pedagogies as great assets in helping students embrace their writerly identities. I sometimes model using multiple languages and share bilingual texts such as poetry, and stories with my students.

Although ELT materials (such as Golden English) do not have rich translingual approaches in classroom exercises, I customize unit exercises in ELT materials (Golden English) to allow learners to explore their linguistic and cultural diversity. For instance, one writing activity states:

Write a short composition about yourself. These questions may guide you. What is your name? How old are you? 3. Where do you come from? What is your favorite food? Where do you go to school? In which class are you? What is your favorite sport? (Golden English, p. 273)

Although these questions are helpful in the writing process, such prompts conceptualize writing as a linear and automated process. The questions are restrictive because asking students to provide answers to questions as the format of their writing is not as rich of a linguistic learning experience as asking them to actually think about a way to incorporate their answers to questions about their identities in particular kinds of textual or visual ways that would allow them to use both their full linguistic repertoires. This restricted method of writing instruction does not allow multilingual learners to articulate their thought processes freely and experiment in different writing genres and for different audiences. As a teacher, the writing prompt above can be reformulated by asking students to write their autobiography for a school newspaper or magazine, emphasizing personal voices and reflective experiences that shape them. Framing writing tasks as writing for newspapers or magazines would provide more context and genre awareness since writers will be conscious about who the audience is: peers, teachers, and probably the community. By introducing writers to the genre of autobiography, they will appreciate the need to include personal voices and identities and self-reflective experiences in their writing practices. One of the key elements that can be part of this exercise is encouraging students to use their native languages or local English variations alongside English to express

themselves. Valuing students' multilingual abilities as assets by helping them draw upon their diverse linguistic resources in their compositions is important. This is because such approach gives spaces to students to use their multiple identities to express themselves in writing practices. For example, when students are performing writing activities (composition about themselves), they should be allowed to use their L1 phrases and structures to be aware of their language choices in ways that represent their bilingual identities and perspectives. Allowing students to use their L1 phrases and words in writing will increase their rhetorical agency and showcase their true identities in talking about themselves. In writing instruction (composition about yourself), learning how to use voice as discourse features are also important. According to Hirvela and Belcher (2001), exploring how multilinguals from different contexts and cultures voice themselves in writing practices can promote pluralistic perspectives of L2 literacies. Writing exercises should encourage students to incorporate aspects of their cultural background and experiences into their compositions. This could include traditions, customs, family dynamics, or other culturally significant elements that shape their identities and true selves. Writing exercises should encourage stories, pictures, memories, or events that students can write in multimodal ways to appreciate the significant impacts such different personal experiences and journeys had on their lives. Using home languages could provide students with authentic opportunities to narrate and write their experiences from their linguistic and cultural backgrounds in meaningful ways that relate to their lives and interests. If writing instruction is designed in this way, the approach can help make learning more meaningful and relevant to students, as students use their first language as a bridge to understanding new concepts and ideas in the language of instruction.

Expanding the Goals of Teaching Training

Ghanaian language teachers need to receive training to effectively teach and communicate in both L1 and L2 at Ghana's lower elementary levels. While the scope of this study did not include teacher training in Ghana, looking at textbooks and the language policy prompted me to advocate for effective teacher training. This is because teacher training is the only education program that prepares and develops teachers to have the skills to function effectively and become practitioners capable of providing quality education for English language Learners. For trainees to put their newfound knowledge of teaching language and literacy into practice once they have finished their training, Ghanaian colleges could integrate pedagogies around translanguaging and biliteracy methodologies into their curricula and courses. Using textbooks to teach language literacy is an important part of the curricula. Textbooks must coordinate language instruction with the goals and objectives of the curriculum through effective teacher training. Textbooks offer a well-organized list of topics that direct teachers in teaching essential language skills, such as vocabulary, grammar, reading, writing, speaking, etc. Aside from the fact that exercise books are important parts of the curriculum, the importance of recommending the design of courses such as second language research methodologies is to help aspiring teachers learn about different tools to analyze ELT materials (e.g., discourse analysis, rhetorical analysis, and others). Courses on literacies and translingualism will equip aspiring teachers with the knowledge and expertise necessary to understand the current literacy and language practices of English language Learners. In addition to having better textbooks for teachers in training to use, the kind of teacher training I think specifically teachers need is that teachers need to be taught to think about making lessons that include both concepts of translingualism and the idea of a linguistic ecology, as well as thinking about multimodality and

multiliteracies as ways to help students use a range of communicative resources to make meaning in both of their languages.

Embrace Professional Development

To add to the above, training and professional development for in-service teachers in Ghana could include knowledge and skills for translingual pedagogies such as bilingual labeling, code-meshing, code-switching since the nation is already multilingual. Brew-Daniels (2011) also maintains that using bilingual practices in the classroom should be a useful pedagogic resource to increase pupils' participation and understanding because they are free to use the language(s) most familiar to them. Similarly, Garcia (2017) states that bilingual education should assist bilingual students in choosing intelligently when to select certain features of their repertoire and when to liberate their tongues, their full language repertoire, and their minds and imagination. The linguistic flexibility posed by translingual pedagogies means that teacher education programs must integrate teaching approaches that allow bilingual students to openly utilize their appropriate linguistic features and make them their own.

Another initiative of teacher training programs is to institute pre-professional development early for aspiring teachers. For aspiring teachers to be in tune with language policies, stakeholders must provide pre-professional development opportunities early for aspiring teachers to enhance their understanding of language policies in Ghana. This can include workshops, seminars, or training sessions addressing the language education policy and its implications for classroom practice. These professional development opportunities should also encourage peer support and reflective practice among aspiring teachers so that they will exchange ideas and experiences related to language policies. Through peer support, aspiring teachers should collaborate, and share ideas related to language policies. By reflective practice,

aspiring teachers must critically examine their own teaching approaches considering language policies. Encouraging these opportunities early in teaching training programs will better equip aspiring teachers to understand and implement language policies in their classrooms.

Embracing Storytelling and Equal Representation of Language and Cultures

Ghanaian textbooks should keep embracing storytelling from Ghanaian cultures as a pedagogical tool to increase communication and motivation among pupils since storytelling positively impacts pupils' language learning experience (Larbi-Appiah et al., 2020). I have used some storytelling approaches among Ghanaian primary students as a teacher. This approach has been helpful because storytelling is a strong cultural tenet of most Ghanaian students and can help students embrace their voice and identity. I realized that such pedagogical practice creates spaces for students to express themselves about issues they are concerned about. Ghanaian classrooms should therefore value storytelling as a Ghanaian culture pedagogy in addressing learner needs. By adopting more explicit Ghanaian culture pedagogies in approaching issues of language instruction, I believe that textbooks should make more space for Ghanaian culture that gives flexibility for teachers and students to use language and cultural practices of their choices in expressing ideas and making classroom contributions. Through storytelling from all cultures, the Ghanaian classroom can provide space for multilingual students to learn much about their cultures and express themselves in the cultures they know the best.

Teachers should utilize English textbooks to provide a learning space for students to discuss their cultural identities to promote cross-cultural understanding, open-mindedness, and intercultural awareness (Matsuda, 2012). Teachers play a vital role because they recognize the cultural elements exhibited in ELT textbooks and apply cultural implications through classroom activities and lessons to make them relevant to their students' cultural contexts (Opoku-

Amankwah, 2012). Likewise, Ewu-Ewie (2019) points out that teachers should integrate elements of local cultures into English language lessons, including migrant children's cultures. Since multicultural classrooms have become a familiar feature of the Ghanaian landscape, this aspect should be considered seriously in making sure textbooks make L2 references to the contents discussed. In other words, there should be more Ghanaian English variety promoted in the textbooks.

The results of this study also imply that school administrators should be more aware of the diverse students who may feel alienated using textbooks that represent major ethnic groups in the country. In this regard, they should recognize and promote all cultures of Ghanaian ethnic groups and those along the geographical borderlands, even though textbooks might not always do a good job on this. Adika (2002) suggests that teachers, educators, and stakeholders involved in multicultural education and classroom diversity in Ghanaian education contexts have the responsibility to meet challenges in finding an ideal balance in terms of socio-cultural and linguistic diversity for all multilingual learners so that their identities are recognized, valued, and promoted. I agree with Janks (2013) that when there is not a critical approach to the intentional design or redesign of educational curriculum, policies, and practices that highlight the diversity and multiplicity of semiotic systems, including diverse languages and cultures, the curriculum will maintain the exclusionary force of dominant language practices and literacies.

It behooves publishers of English textbooks in Ghana to design frameworks for making unrestricted spaces for students' bilingual and biliteracy development. The textbook should focus on what multilingual students want to write and express, particularly in their cultures and home languages. Lessons should not restrict students to the four language domains. ELT textbook lessons should also include discussion on voice, identity and discourse knowledge. In this regard,

ELT textbooks' tasks and activities should permit students to translanguage and use bilingual labeling resources and drawing to support their thoughts in the classroom. If learners are given this flexible space to practice their languages, they are doing for themselves what Hornberger (2007) calls continua of biliteracy. This means that students should be given the space to develop and utilize their linguistic abilities across different languages or writing systems. For example, in translingual-oriented textbooks, language learners could be encouraged to engage with their multilingual repertoire by creating posters about themselves through short poems and stories about important experiences in school and at home. Activities like this can provide spaces for students to represent their voices and identities through multimodal literacy tasks.

The Role of Language Policies in Teacher Absenteeism

It is noted from the NALAP report that pupil and teacher absenteeism is a common problem in Ghanaian classrooms. Educators and language policymakers need to conduct consistent and systematic supervision to evaluate the work of teachers in classrooms. My personal conversations with colleagues show that low salaries and limited recognition for their efforts have been some potential reasons for teacher absenteeism. Most teachers also complain bitterly about poor working conditions, including inadequate teaching materials and overcrowded classrooms. These factors contribute to a lack of enthusiasm and commitment on the part of teachers, which leads to higher rates of absenteeism. According to Education Strategic Plan (2018), "In terms of teacher management, absenteeism, attrition, and time-on-task have been widely recognized as a problem, with overall teacher absenteeism as high as 14% in 2014/15 and varying considerably by region" (p.4). This challenges stakeholders to conduct stringent supervision to redress these issues. Teacher trainee allowances should be reinstated to

motivate teachers extrinsically. To solve some of these challenges, stakeholders should find new ways to set up external and internal incentives for teachers that would motivate their effort.

Limitations and Future Research Directions

This study specifically looked at one textbook-Golden English and NALAP Formative Report. The textbook under study does not attest to or speak to all contents of other language textbooks that may have different learning outcomes and purposes for promoting language and literacy instruction. For future research, I recommend that scholars look at various textbooks and ELT materials used in Ghana more critically across different educational contexts. Several educational materials such as digital tools, audiovisual materials, and other in-class teaching materials should be analyzed by looking at how these materials enable class practices to have a positive impact on biliteracy instruction. Additionally, the role of teacher training in promoting biliteracy instruction should be explored by scholars since this area of study is not the main focus of my research. Finally, this study only relied on secondary data rather than human participants, observation, and classrooms. I recommend that textbook analysis such as the one presented in this thesis be complemented with longitudinal research to examine relationships between national language policies and micro-classroom practices. Insights collected from teachers, students and classroom observations could provide us with a more nuanced picture of Ghanaian micro-classroom practices and the status of language use through diverse materials.

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APPENDIX A: FIGURES

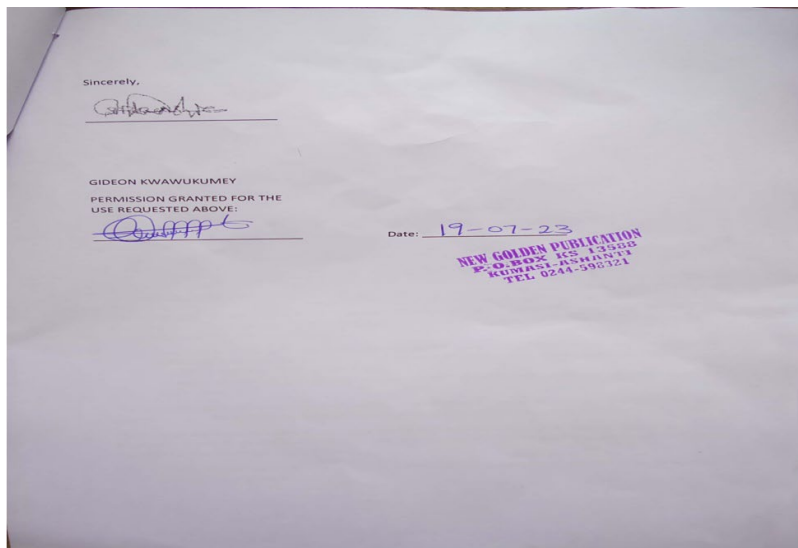
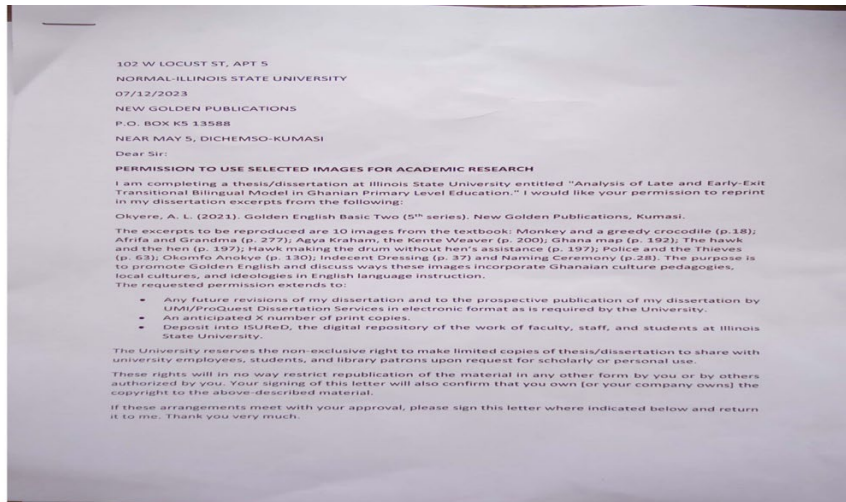


Figure 1: Monkey and a greedy crocodile (p.18)

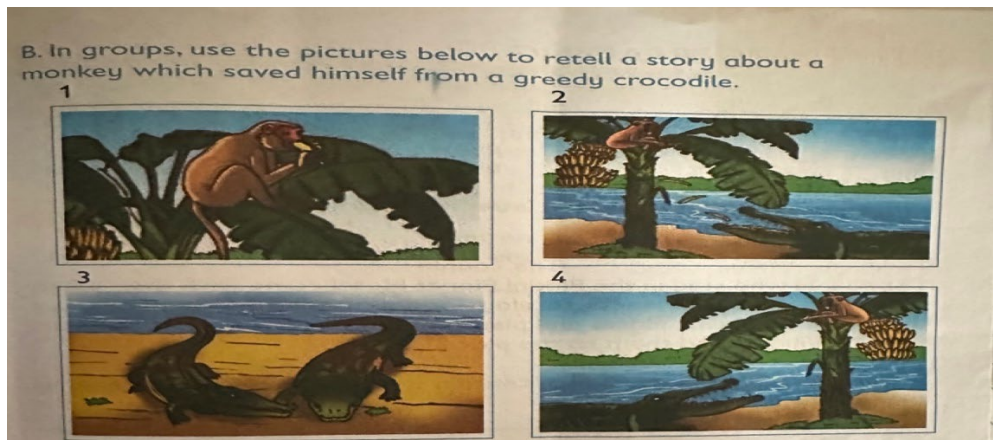


Figure 2: Afrifa and Grandma (p. 277)

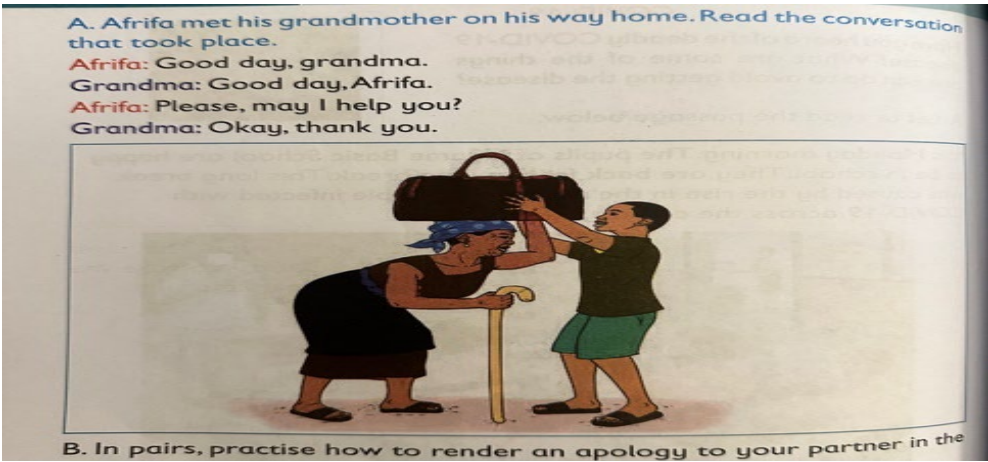


Figure 3: Agya Kraham, the Kente Weaver (p. 200)

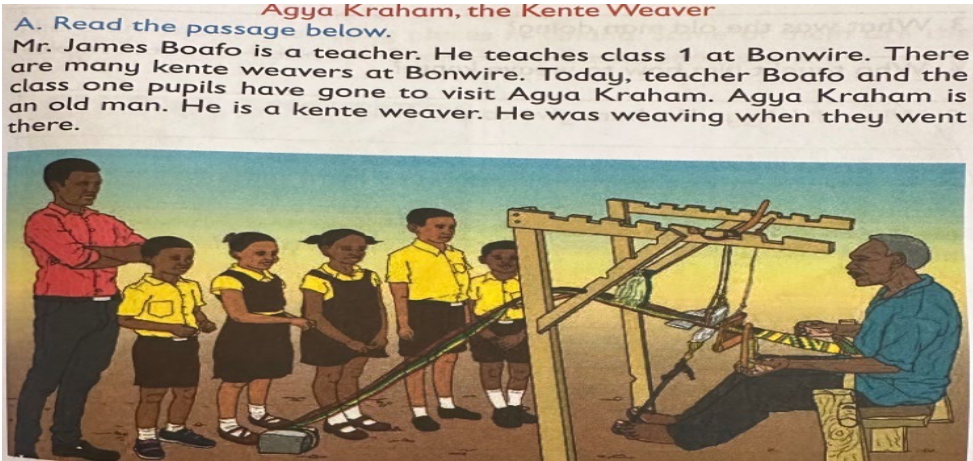


Figure 4: Ghana Map (p. 192)

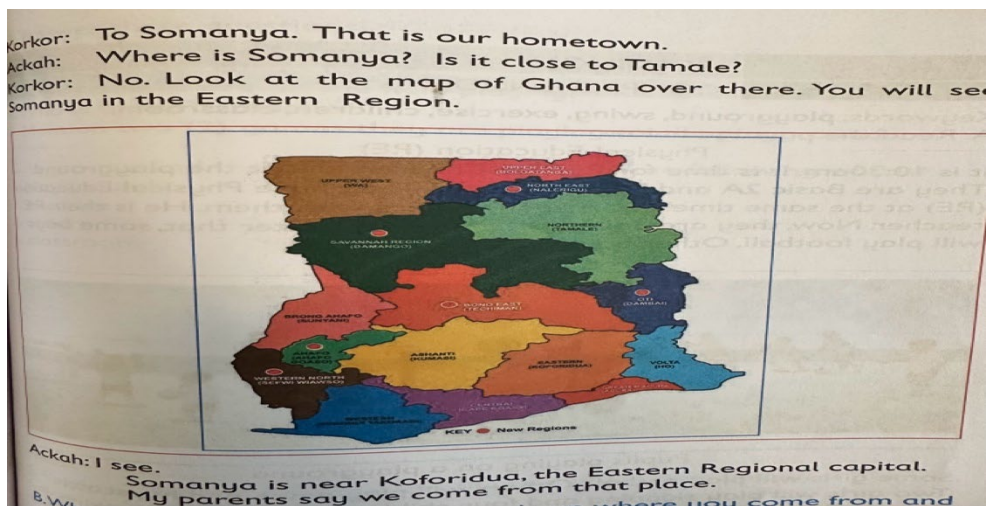


Figure 5: The Hawk and the Hen (p. 197)

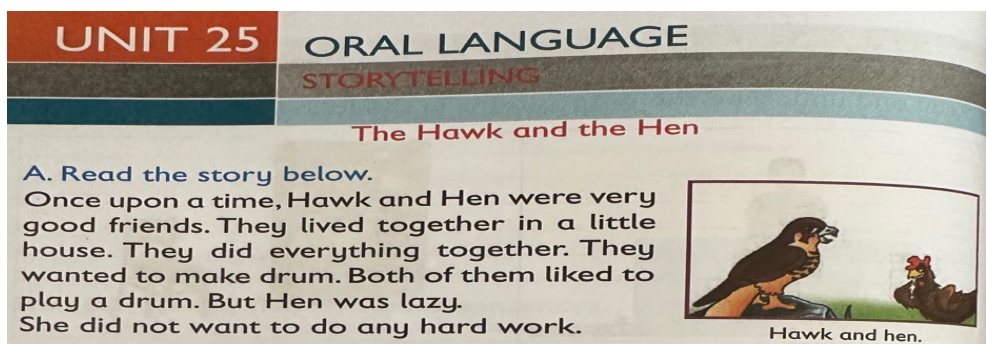


Figure 6: Hawk making the drum without hen's assistance (p.197)



Figure 7: Police and the Thieves (p. 63)

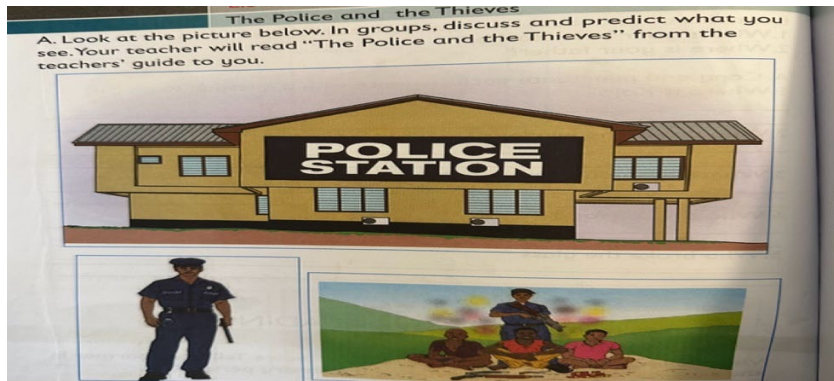


Figure 8: Okomfo Anokye (p. 130)

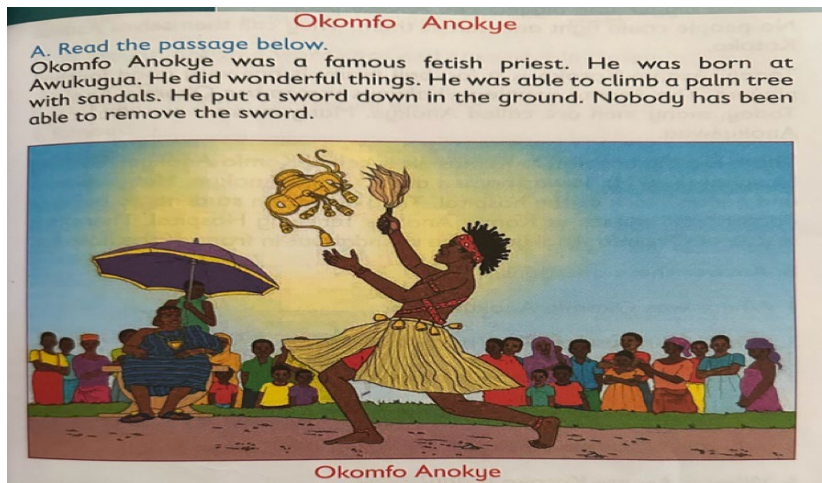


Figure 9: Indecent Dressing (p. 28)

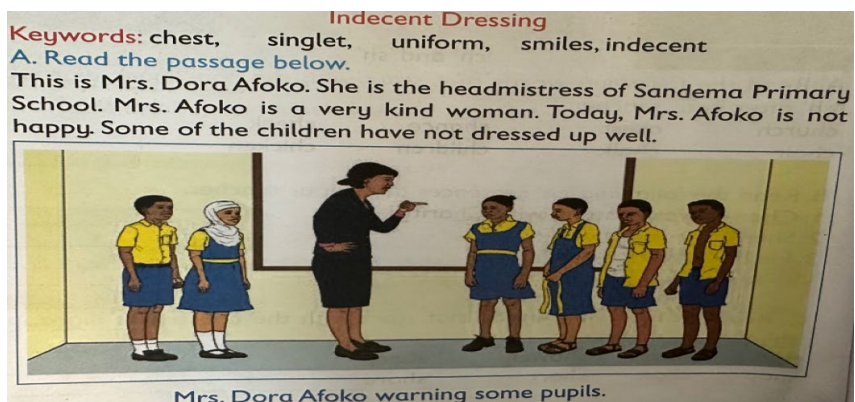



Figure 10: Naming Ceremony (p. 28)

Naming Ceremony

A. Read the passage below.

Mr. Osei is a barber. His shop is near the main street. His wife is Mrs. Osei. Mrs. Osei is a dressmaker. She had a beautiful baby girl at Saint Mary's Hospital. Mr. Osei is a happy man. Today is the eighth day. The baby girl will be named today.

The baby was born on Saturday. Her name is Ama. Mr. Osei wants to name his daughter after his father. His father is Opanyin Osei. They have met at Mr. Osei's house. The baby has been brought to her grandfather. Her grandfather is Opanyin Osei. Opanyin Osei prays for the baby to be healthy and strong.



A child naming ceremony

APPENDIX B: HISTORICAL REPRESENTATION OF GHANA'S EDUCATION
LANGUAGE POLICY

The table below shows a diagrammatic representation of Ghanaian language policy from precolonial era to present (1529-2009) (Owu-Ewie, 2013).

PERIOD	1 ST YEAR	2 ND YEAR	3 RD YEAR	4 TH YEAR
1529-1925				
a. Castle schools Era	-	-	-	-
b. Missionary Era	+	+	+	-
1925-1951	+	+	+	-
1951-1955	+	-	-	-
1956-1966	-	-	-	-
1967-1969	+	-	-	-
1970-1973	+	+	+	+
1974-2002	+	+	+	-
2002-2007	-	-	-	-
2009-present	NALAP Bilingual instruction: use of mother tongue and English (NALAP)			-

+: A Ghanaian language was used as a medium of instruction

-: A Ghanaian language not used