MISMATCH BETWEEN FAMILIAR LANGUAGE AND LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION AMONG PUPILS: EFFECT ON READING COMPREHENSION IN SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT, ZAMBIA

BY

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A Dissertation Submitted to the University of Zambia in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of the Degree of Master of Education in Educational Psychology.

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

LUSAKA

2019

DECLARATION

I, **Marvin Kapenda**, do hereby declare that the work in this study is solely mine. I further declare that this research has not been previously submitted at any other university and that all referencing from other works has been acknowledged.

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APPROVAL

This dissertation by **Marvin Kapenda** is approved as a fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Educational Psychology of the University of Zambia.

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ABSTRACT

This paper examines the extent of the mismatch between familiar language and language of instruction among pupils and its effect on reading comprehension in selected primary schools in Lusaka district of Zambia. In order to conduct an investigation, the study adopted quantitative method following the cross sectional survey design. The study sample comprised 240 Grade 5 pupils from three (3) government primary schools in Lusaka District. Multi-stage sampling procedure was applied in the selection of schools and in the selection of pupil-participants, the stratified simple random sampling was desirable and applied. Eligible children came from the average and above average ability groups who could at least read and write. The study adopted a questionnaire survey and two tests were used to collect data and the data was analysed statistically using inferential and descriptive statistics. The study employed the simple view of reading (SVR) and socio-cultural perspective for its framework .This study as desired by objectives achieved the following: Compiled profiles of language in schools of Lusaka as well as individual pupils. The language profile suggests language diversity and nature of schools in multilingualism. The study furthermore suggests the influence of language familiarity (home and instructional Language) and its effects on reading and listening Comprehension, results of the independent sample t-tests indicated that there were significant differences in Reading comprehension between Cinyanja and English, as result of the mismatch between familiar and language of instruction (t (239) = -9.655, $p < .001$). Results of the dependent (paired) sample t-tests indicated that there were similarly significant differences in performance results between Listening comprehension in Cinyanja and Listening comprehension in English, (t (239) = -7.941, $p < .001$). These results suggests that if a child is linguistically unfamiliar with Listening comprehension in Cinyanja, the reading comprehension will definitely be affected too, hence the low performance in reading. Additionally, the results of the study illustrate how a child's socio-economic status (SES) as defined by schools attended determined listening and reading comprehension. One-way ANOVA results to determine how a child's socio-economic status (SES) as defined by schools attended determines listening and reading comprehension demonstrated non-statistically significant mean differences, F (1,238) = 1.897, p =170, an indication of a non-significant effect of socio-economic status on the observed mean differences in reading and listening comprehension in Cinyanja performance. On the other hand, results on how language spoken at home determines reading and listening comprehension skills in both English and Cinyanja provides evidence contrary to the expectations that children who claim to come from Cinyanja speaking homes are not benefiting in the language of instruction as they have difficulties in reading and listening comprehension compared to those that come from English speaking homes. A two-way ANOVA indicated statistically significant differences in pupils' performance in English language based on home language, ($3,405$) = 14.38, $p < .05$. The regression results shows that Pupils' age had a significant impact on performance in reading comprehension in both languages but was a factor only in listening comprehension in English language p=<.002, and not in listening comprehension in Cinyanja p= >.05.Even though there is some commonality between pupils' vocabularies and the language of instruction in most Lusaka District schools, children experience serious problems with reading as the low scores of pupils on the reading comprehension in Cinyanja tests illustrate. The current findings also suggest that pupils in primary schools are not benefiting in using Cinyanja as a language of instruction as it contradict with their familiar language. Therefore, the study recommended, among other things, that there is need to simplify the class language of instruction to children's home and language of play and to train teachers in specific Zambian languages.

***Key words*: language of instruction; reading comprehension; familiar language; Mismatch**

DEDICATION

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ACRONYMS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
DEBS	District Education Board Secretary
ECE	Early Childhood Education
ECF	Education Curriculum Framework
ECZ	Examination Council of Zambia
FOL	Focus on Learning
HSD	Honestly Significant Difference
L1	Mother Tongue/ First language
L2	Second language
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance
MEVSTEE	Ministry of Education, Vocational Science Training and Early Education.
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOGE	Ministry of General education
MoI	Medium of instruction
MTB MLE	Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education
NBTL	New Breakthrough to Literacy
NLP	New Language Policy
PRP	Primary Reading Program
SACMEQ	Southern African consortium for monitoring Education Quality
UNDHR	United Nations Declaration of Human Rights
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations Children Emergence Fund.

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Language mismatch means using a language the learner understands and speaks well for some or all instruction. The learner's best language has traditionally been known as the mother tongue or L1. Bi-/multilingual people may have several L1s.

Familiar language is a language which is well known and commonly used by an individual.

Language in Education Policy is a policy that gives a mandate on which language to use as medium of instruction.

Mother tongue (MT) or (L1) is one's native language. It can be one's first language (L1). It is defined as the language one learns as a child growing up in the home.

Local language is the language that is familiar to a particular community. It can be the mother tongue (LI) or simply a familiar language.

A Medium of Instruction (MoI) /Language of Instruction is a language through which learning in a school takes place. It is a chosen official language used in teaching and learning.

Language of the Community/ Language of the community is the Language spoken by the majority of the children in a locality during or for purposes of social interaction/play.

Initial literacy is the official start of learning in a familiar language of how to read, write and speak.

Multi ethnic is a class consisting of pupils who belong to different ethnic groups Language of instruction (LoI) is defined as the language in which subject matter is taught in a public or private school setting.

Second language (L2) has traditionally been used in different contexts and can mean (a) the second language learned (chronologically); (b) the weaker language; (c) a language that is not the mother tongue; or (d) the less used language.

Socioeconomic Status (SES) can be defined as a person's overall social position to which attainments in both the social and economic domain contribute (Ainley et al., 1995: ix). When used in studies of children's school achievement, it refers to the SES of the parents or family.

Official language is defined as one or more languages that a country utilizes as an official form of communication in education, government, or commerce.

National language, which is a "language spoken by a large part of the population of a country, which may or may not be designated an official language (UNESCO, 2013)".

Mother tongue based multilingual education (MTB MLE), This approach involves teaching initial literacy (reading and writing) in the L1, teaching an Lx as an additional language using appropriate methodology

L1-based MLE Transfer of literacy skills from L1 to Lx, and gradually moving from L1 as language of instruction (LOI) to using both L1 and Lx through bilingual methods (UNESCO 2013).

Population density is defined as the total number of persons per square kilometer

Ethnicity: This is the tribal group that one identifies himself/herself with. Ethnic group is a self-perceived conception of social group membership.

Widely Used Language of communication: This is the language which is mostly spoken by an individual during their day to day communication, at work, with neighbours or in market places. This is simply the language currently spoken or most often spoken by the individual in his/her present home.

Peri-urban area: As used in this study is an open swath of land that has few homes or other buildings, and not very many people. A peri-urban areas population density is very low. An area between consolidated urban and rural regions.

Urban area: An urban area is a location characterized by high human population density and many built environment features in comparison to the areas surrounding it. In an urban area homes and businesses are located very close to one another.

Low densely populated area: As used in this study refer to townships and suburbs within the city. Most low densely populated areas are less densely populated than medium densely populated areas. They serve as the residential area for much of the city's elites and mostly upper class family homes, stores, and services.

Medium densely populated area: As used in this study to denote townships and suburbs within Lusaka city. Most medium densely populated areas are less densely populated than high densely populated areas. They serve as the residential area for much of the city's work force. The suburbs are made up of mostly middle class family homes, stores, and services.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

This chapter provides the general background information that sets the context of the research. The background is followed by the statement of the problem under investigation, the purpose of the study, the significance of the study, the research objectives and questions. The chapter also presents the theoretical and conceptual framework in which this study is situated followed by the definition of terms as they have been used in the study.

1.2 Background

Zambia's pre-independence education was characterized by an emphasis on local language as a medium education (Manchisi, 2004). However when Zambia gained independence from Britain in 1964 it declared English as the country's only official language. The government policy permitted seven Zambian languages to be used as well: "in addition to the choice of English as the official language, the government also designated seven Zambian languages, namely Bemba, Kaonde, Lunda, Luvale, Lozi, Nyanja and Tonga as regional lingua francas to be used alongside English as school subjects, for functional literacy and public education" (Nkolola-Wakumelo, 2012).

However in practice, the medium of instruction became English (Masaiti and Chiti, 2014). English was the language of textbooks, although teachers were allowed to use one of the seven regional languages for oral explanations (Linehan, 2005). Linehan (2005) notes that the thirty-year period between 1965 and 1995 saw a number of moves to reverse this 'straight-for-English' approach.

In 1995, following the work of a National Reading Commission, it was decided to distinguish the language of initial literacy instruction from the language of overall instruction, with Zambian languages filling the first role and English filling the second. In addition, local languages were to be taught as a subject into the curriculum from Grade 1.

Ethnologue lists 46 languages for Zambia. The current language policy takes a much firmer stand on the use of Zambian languages in education. The January 2013 National Guide for language of instruction practice, published by the Zambian Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational

Training and Early Education (MoESVTEE, 2013), mandates that Zambian languages to be an extension of English as medium of instruction in Grades 1 to 4, in all primary schools in the nation.

The Ministry declared that familiar languages will be used for teaching initial literacy and content subjects in the early education (pre-school) and lower primary school (Grades 1 to 4). The new policy shall be implemented in January 2014, in all the primary schools, public and private" (MoESVTEE, 2013). The term "familiar language" as used in the policy is not necessarily referring to the seven regional languages, but rather to the local language of the community.

This intense policy change is based on the advocacy of Zambian linguists for many years, who argued that the use of English as medium of instruction was not serving the nation well (Muyebaa, 2009; Mwila, 2011; Sampa, 2005; Tambulakani and Bus, 2011). The 2013 local language-medium policy statement is expressed strongly. The National Guide document states that one of the key factors contributing to a poor reading level in the past was the use of wrong language of instruction in Zambia, i.e. English. The National Guide also finds fault with the accepted use of zonal languages. For all these past years the seven zonal languages have been synonymous with Zambian languages used in education. However, with evidence that some school catchment areas have been found to be disadvantaged because their familiar language or language of play is not any of these seven, it has become imperative that other dialects be brought on board (MoESVTEE, 2013). The process by which this is to happen is delineated as well. Each local community is to agree on which Zambian language will be used as medium of instruction in the first four grades. English is to be taught as a subject from Grade 2 or 3. Regarding the likelihood of English being chosen by the community as its "local language", the National Guide notes that, though in Zambia we have never yet had a community in which English language is the familiar language of pupils or the community language of such a one, this is likely to be claimed by some segment of our nation.

1.3. Statement of the Problem

For all these past years the seven regional languages have been synonymous with Zambian languages used in education. However, with evidence that some school catchment areas have been found to be disadvantaged because their familiar language or language of play is not any of these seven, it has become vital that other dialects be brought on board (MoESVTEE, 2013). The use of

language which did not match the learner's language of play and language used at home for instruction in Zambia, such as English has been a contributing factor to a poor reading level according to the National Guide document. The National Guide also finds fault with the accepted use of zonal languages. Grave concerns with regards to low levels of learner achievement pervade research initiatives and educational debates. Persistently poor results across a number of cycles of international assessment programmes such as the Southern and East African Consortium for the Monitoring of Education Quality and the Progress in International Reading Literacy Study (PIRLS) provide evidence for a system under pressure to produce adequately literate and numerate learners. Evidence of poor performance has also formed the basis from which policy developments, changes and implementation have taken place.

Children's experiences with literacy do not begin with formal reading and writing instruction: most children become acquainted with the nature and functions of written language long before their first day in school, through observing and participating in literacy activities in their homes and other environments. Lessons in key competence areas: synthetic phonics and daily instruction that offers pupils opportunities to practice reading, writing, speaking and listening in the local language (CDC, 2013). There may not be any great overlap between the local Zambian language that is officially designated as the language of instruction in a particular district and the language spoken at home and in the playground. For instance, the standard Nyanja, the official Zambian language used for teaching literacy in the first four grades in Lusaka, may differ from the language spoken by most Lusaka children. They speak a non-standard variety of Nyanja, 'town Nyanja', characterized by borrowings from English as well as other Zambian languages (Kashoki, 1990; Williams, 1996).

For instance, Lusaka children are more familiar with the 'town Nyanja' term 'maegges' (from the English 'eggs', but with Nyanja ma as a plural marker, and Nyanja phonology) rather than the standard 'madzila'. Or as a child put it: 'when we are told to write, we are given different things, things that are spoken by other people, and not the Nyanja we speak' (Williams, 1998). This methodology is being explicitly replaced by "reading instruction based on clarity under discussion and extensively researched for some time, it is not known if there is a mismatch between children's familiar language and language of instruction among pupils and its effect on reading and listening comprehension. The questions that need to be answered are: (i) what is the language diversity

outlook of the particular schools, classrooms and individual pupils and what is the extent and nature of multilingualism of schools in Lusaka? (ii)What is the influence of language familiarity (home and instructional Language) and its effect on reading and listening Comprehension? (iii) How does a child's socio-economic status (SES) as defined by schools attended determine listening comprehension? (iv) Does the language spoken at home determine reading and listening comprehension skills in both English and Cinyanja among pupils in Grade five in primary schools?

1.4. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the extent of the disparity between familiar language and language of instruction and its effect on reading comprehension among pupils specifically in Grade five in selected primary schools of Lusaka district. The study focused on few selected government primary schools in Lusaka district of Zambia.

1.5. Objectives of the Study

i. To determine profiles of language diversity in schools, classrooms and individual pupils and to obtain a sense of the extent and nature of multilingualism types of schools in Lusaka.
ii. Determine the influence of language familiarity (home and instructional Language) on reading and listening Comprehension
iii. To determine the extent of a child's socio-economic status (SES) as defined by schools attended affects reading and listening comprehension.
iv. To establish how language spoken at home determines reading and listening comprehension skills in both English and Cinyanja among pupils in Grade five in primary schools.

1.6. Research Questions

i. What is the language diversity outlook of the particular schools, classrooms, individual pupils and what is the extent and nature of multilingualism of schools in Lusaka?
ii. What is the influence of language familiarity (home and instructional Language) on reading and listening Comprehension?

iii. How does a child's socio-economic status (SES) as defined by schools attended determine reading and listening comprehension?

iv. Does language spoken at home determine reading and listening comprehension skills in both English and Cinyanja among pupils in Grade five in primary schools?

1.7. Significance of the Study

The findings of this study extended the current understanding of the effect of mismatch between familiar and language of instruction among pupils in primary schools to reading comprehension. Most current reading theories, models, and practices have traditionally been framed from the Eurocentric perspective. Therefore, insights of these findings have extended our understanding of early reading development beyond the Eurocentric perspective and the monolingual cross-national research paradigms. Additionally, the study has also provided new insights into the patterns of reading trajectories of bilingual pupils in resource deprived communities such as Lusaka. After the introduction of the 2014 language policy by the ministry of education in Zambia, most focus has been on the teachers' perception, performance evaluation of the policy as well as teaching and learning materials.

The study proposed answers to the vital questions which will lead in the contributing to the gap that is in the language policy that has a major impact on the learning and teaching. This study has contributed to the body of knowledge significant to the researchers, Academicians and Scholars.

1.8. Delimitation of the Study

The study was conducted in three school zones of Lusaka district, Zambia. Out of the 10 zones of Lusaka district, the study was done in Chilenje, Lusaka central and Kaunda Square zones. The choice of the three zones necessitated the separation of geographical locations such as low densely populated area, peri- urban and medium densely populated areas. The other reason was that at the time of this study, the medium of instruction in Grade one to Grade four was Cinyanja for Lusaka province while Grade five generally used English as the medium of instruction.

1.9. Limitations of the Study

Permission to use a standard examination council of Zambia Grade five national assessment examinations was declined as it was only meant to be used by the national examination body. Hence, the researcher had to design his own test instrument. Secondly, the data was collected using self-reported questionnaire and may, therefore, have been subject to misreporting either deliberately or unintentionally. Additionally, causation could not be determined because of the nature of the study design. Although reading instructions in Zambian schools are initially conducted in the child's mother tongue or most familiar language, pupils' oral and reading proficiency may have been moderated by their knowledge of the English language. There is a general bias towards English when teaching in the content areas. Finally, the number of schools involved in this study was rather small for a multilevel approach, and results of multilevel analysis can be improved by including more schools and more pupils per school (Bickel 2007)

1.10. Theoretical Framework

This study employs the Simple View of Reading (SVR) model proposed by researchers Gough and Tunmer in 1986. It was developed to reconcile "The Reading Wars" argument of the 1980s, between advocates of bottom up processing (decoding) and those who supported top down processing (language comprehension.). The Simple View of Reading shows us that, while reading is a complex activity, it can be represented as two interdependent processes: Word recognition (decoding) and language comprehension. Word recognition is the ability to read and understand the words on a page, and language comprehension is the ability to make sense of the language we hear and the language we read. Considering the two processes in the SVR, there are in fact four possible outcomes, or reading profiles, and for each of these profiles, individual pupils' difficulties may range from mild to severe.

The SVR has drawn particular attention to poor readers with the second type of reading problem (Cain & Oakhill, 1999; Nation, Cocksey, Taylor, & Bishop, 2010). This group is more often referred to as poor comprehenders or children with a specific comprehension deficit rather than Gough and Tunmer's original designation of hyperlexic. These children have poor reading comprehension but adequate or better decoding. The SVR assumes that these children have a primary problem in language comprehension. Indeed, research has shown that poor comprehenders

have oral language deficits (Catts, Adlof, & Weismer, 2006; Nation et al., 2010). However, poor comprehenders' problems go beyond oral language and include difficulties in working memory, inferencing, and world knowledge (Cain, 2006; Cain & Oakhill, 1999; Compton, Miller, Gilbert, & Steacy, 2013). These factors, however, may still be considered to be part of language comprehension, and variability in them may be partitioned into this component along with variability due to oral language. Since the formulation of the SVR was intended to reconcile the Reading Wars" argument of the 1980s, between advocates of bottom up processing (decoding) and those who supported top down processing (language comprehension.), this study has employed it to contribute to the current debate on reading comprehension in Zambia.

In addition to the SVR, the study will be reinforced by Bronfenbrenner (1979) who on the other hand recognized the ecological systems that place different contexts at play in development. Bronfenbrenner's theory encompasses a totality of aspects including economic resources, interactions and broader contextual factors that affect the child's learning both directly and indirectly. In the ecological system, individual life experiences not limited to children are a function of who they are; what they anticipate to be; what they do, anticipate doing; with whom they interact, have interacted, and anticipate interacting (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998).

These experiences underscore the interrelatedness of people and their physical, emotional, and cognitive behaviors as they occur in relation to specific environmental contexts. The local environment as a primary context for child development provides children with literacy experiences that support reading development. These contexts encompass interacting elements (i.e. Process, Person, Context, and Time) that facilitate learning. Process encompasses forms of interaction between the individual and environment (objects and symbols), called proximal processes. These processes operate over time and are postulated as the primary mechanisms that produce human development. Nevertheless, the power of such processes to influence development is presumed, and shown, to vary significantly as a function of the characteristics of the developing Person, of the immediate and more remote environmental Contexts, and the Time periods, in which the proximal processes take place (Bronfenbrenner & Morris, 1998).

As a function of nested systems of interpersonal relationships human development occurs within physical settings (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). Using the metaphor of the Russian doll (the Matryoshka) Bronfenbrenner illustrated the ecological model as concentric systems of progressively more

distant environmental relationships of micro, meso, exo and macro-system levels. The inner circle depicts the ecological self that interacts with single dyads and triads of face-to-face interactions with parents, siblings, friends, and teachers that occur in the micro-system. The meso-system consists of all the interconnections and linkages among all of these face-to-face settings. These interconnections may include the home, community in relation to the neighbourhood, church and school. Beyond the meso-system exist the exo-system which includes settings such as parents' friends and workplace, community politics, and school administration that have indirect influences on the child's development. The outer macro-system layer of the ecological model consists of the individual's ethnicity and culture referring to the larger social and political organization, belief system and lifestyle of the individuals.

Thus, Bronfenbrenner's inner "Russian doll" represents immediate settings that are embedded in the next doll's intersections of these immediate settings, embedded in the next doll's indirect settings, embedded in the outer doll's cultural setting. The children who are learning to read can be said to participate and engage in their own concentric systems of ecological relationships, as well as those relationships more or less proximal influencing the development of reading skill. In this model, distal processes such as historical, cultural, and social and environment conditions contribute to development. Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory has critical implications on the current study. This theory acknowledges that children do not develop in isolation, but in relation to the family, school, community and society at large. It recognises that although teachers and school systems can provide a stable long term relationships with children, the primary relationship needs to be with home and community who can provide language and habits that is meant to last long. It demonstrates that the most important settings for a young child is his/her family and surrounding environment because that is where the child spends most of his/her time. The family also has the greatest language influence on the young child. This theory postulates that child development is influenced by the interaction between characteristics of the child and the parents as well as the environmental context in which the child develops.

Although Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems applies to the familiar language, integrating Super & Harkness' (1986) 'the Developmental Niche', gives this study a stronger foundation of interactional processes of the physical, social, customs and psychological processes within the child's environment. Both Bronfenbrenner and Super and Harkness acknowledge that each child

comes with his or her own biological predispositions, which in interaction with the environment shape development. While Bronfenbrenner places customs and historical factors at his outermost layer, indirectly influencing development, Super and Harkness places the customs at the immediate family as a practice that directly influences the child's learning and development opportunities.

In the niche, three components make up the children's culture that shapes their life. The niche presents physical and social settings of everyday life like size, shape, and location of living space, toys, objects, reading materials, family structure, presence or absence of parents, number of siblings, and the company the child keeps. These are people who serve as playmates, caretakers and coaches of daily life activities. In reading acquisition, resources like books and reading activities are determined by these settings. For instance, exposure to reading opportunities is determined by presence of reading materials, individuals surrounding the child, and whether they possess the appropriate skills and as the third part of the niche.

1.11. Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework explains the relationship between the independent and dependent variables (Mwinyi, 2013). The conceptual framework for this study is depicted in figure 1. The independent variables were reading and listening comprehension which were divided into the following components; reading comprehension in English, listening comprehension in English, reading comprehension in Cinyanja and listening comprehension in Cinyanja. The dependent variable was performance in reading in English Language and Cinyanja among Grade 5 pupils in primary schools of Lusaka District.

The Simple View of Reading (SVR) was proposed by researchers Gough and Tunmer in 1986. The Simple View of Reading model shows us that, while reading is a complex activity, it can be represented as two interdependent processes: Word recognition (decoding) and language comprehension. Word recognition is the ability to read and understand the words on a page, and language comprehension is the ability to make sense of the language we hear and the language we read. Considering the two processes in the SVR, there are in fact four possible outcomes, or reading profiles, and for each of these profiles, individual pupils' difficulties may range from mild to severe.

The Simple View of Reading (SVR) is a model of the process of learning to read. As such it is intended as a representation of reality that is simplified in order to allow for better understanding of a complex phenomenon and better management of it. The SVR presents Reading Comprehension (RC) as the product of Listening Comprehension (LC) and Decoding (D). The relationship is formalised in the equation, RC = LC x D. A visual of these four reading profiles is represented in the diagram below:

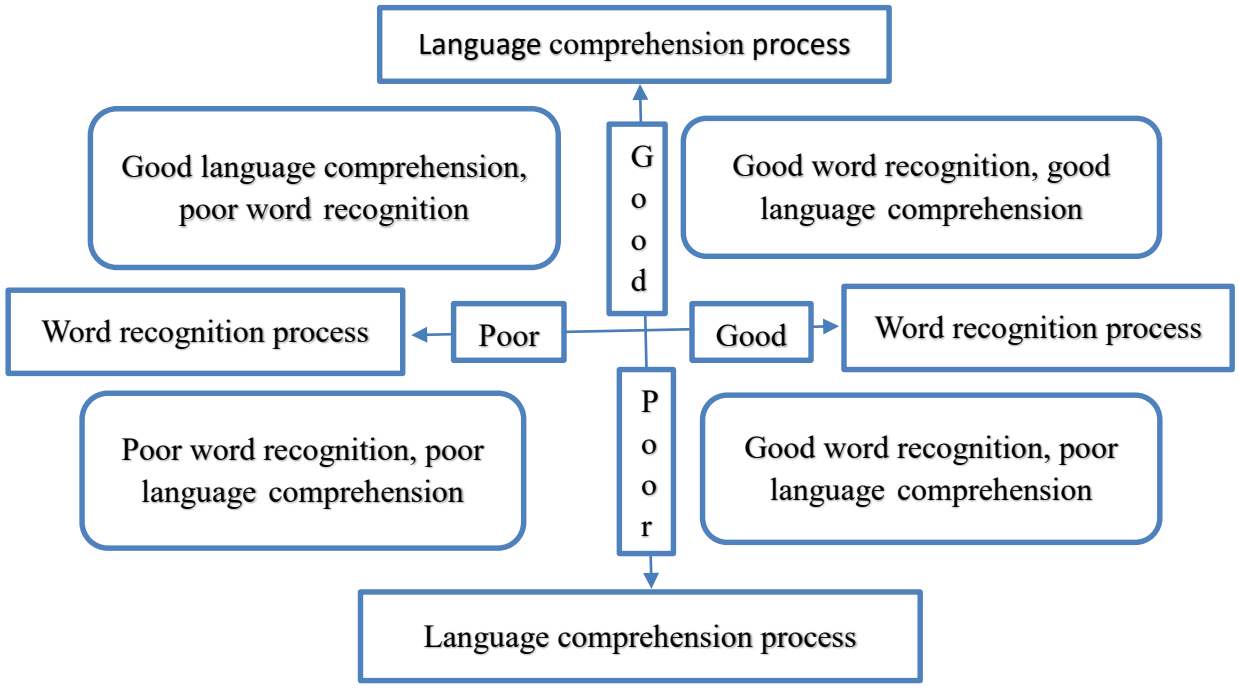

Figure 1: Conceptual framework of the mismatch between familiar and language of instructions among pupils and its effect to reading comprehension

1.12 Organisation of the Dissertation

This dissertation comprised of six chapters. Chapter One presented the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, study objectives and research questions. The chapter also presents the significance of the study, the limitations of the study and delimitations of the study, theoretical framework as well as the summary of the chapter is given.

Chapter Two reviewed literature related to the topic under study. As such, literature review helps the researcher to develop a significant problem which will provide further knowledge in the field of study.

Chapter Three presented the methodology used in the study which includes the research design, population, sample size and sampling techniques. The chapter further explains the research instruments, data quality assurance as well as data collection procedure and data analysis. This chapter ends with ethical considerations.

Chapter Four presented the findings of the study as was provided by the participants. The findings were presented according to the study questions. Chapter Five discussed the findings of the study using emerging themes from each objective. Finally, chapter Six presented the conclusion and recommendations of the study based on the findings.

1.13 Summary

This chapter has presented the background to the study, the statement of the problem, purpose of the study, objectives and research questions, significance, delimitation, limitations, and operational definitions. It is clear that a lot of research has been done regarding the language policy of 2014 and teaching as well as learning using initial literacy and that initial literacy is best taught in a local language. However, the mismatch between the familiar or local language and the language of instruction has been overlooked, as one of the researchers acknowledged and suggested inquiry to the oversight. The next chapter presents the literature review.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

In this chapter the researcher reviewed some of the relevant literature on mismatch between familiar and language of instruction and its effect on reading comprehension. The literature review helps to identify the gaps in the existing knowledge that this study aimed to contribute. The researcher also presents some of the studies conducted in the world and sub-Sahara Africa. This is done in order to relate to the current study on the mismatch between familiar and language of instruction and its effect on reading comprehension among Grade five (5) pupils who have been instructed following Primary Literacy Programme in familiar language, Cinyanja. The chapter ends with a summary on the literature that has been reviewed.

2.2. Reading Comprehension in Primary Schools

There are several significant issues related to the reading skill in L2 Grabe (2002) purposes for reading, definitional criteria for fluent reading, individual processes in reading, social factors that influence reading, and some specific issues in L2 reading in comparison with reading in L1, and applying research results and implications to improve L2 instruction. The primary purpose for reading in L2 is understanding a text. Any discussion of reading must necessarily include its dual nature: reading is, on the one hand, a comprehension process in the learner's mind, but it is also a product (Alderson, 2000).

Although the process of reading has always been of interest to researchers from various fields, its intricacy has led to research which is based on analyzing the products of reading. In other words, conclusions about the processes in the learner's mind are based on comprehension as the outcome of reading. Definitional criteria for fluent reading in order to achieve a general comprehension of the text include several elements: speed and automaticity, interaction with the text, reading strategies and flexibility, reading as a purposeful activity, and reading as a linguistic process (Grabe, 1999). Fluent reading is a rapid process which includes the ability of automatic word recognition. Furthermore, reading is interactive and consists of numerous abilities and skills which are activated automatically and simultaneously. The interaction is also present on a higher level of

comprehension, and is characterized by a relationship between the information in the text and the reader's background knowledge. During reading, readers continually assess whether they are achieving the purpose of reading, in other words they are reading strategically and adapting their activities with regard to the set goals. As mentioned, the purposeful nature of the process refers to text comprehension. However, every reader also monitors his or her progress with regard to more immediate expectations, for example. Whether the task is sufficiently interesting to go on reading.

Furthermore, reading is a linguistic process in which the reader constructs meaning and comes to a particular understanding of the text through linguistic processing. The third significant issue refers to individual processes or levels that make up the reading skill. According to Adams (1990) lower level comprehension processes include rapid and automatic word, structure and sentence recognition. Higher level processes are connected with structuring information and text interpretation on the basis of the reader's background knowledge, aims and attitudes (Grabe, 1999; Kintsch, 1998). While Grabe (1999), Kintsch, (1998) and Alderson, (2000) attribute criteria for fluent reading in order to achieve a general comprehension of the text to include several elements such as speed and automaticity, interaction with the text, reading strategies and flexibility, reading as a purposeful activity, this study will analyse reading as a linguistic process be represented as two interdependent processes: Word recognition (decoding) and language comprehension. Word recognition is the ability to read and understand the words on a page, and language comprehension is the ability to make sense of the language we hear and the language we read.

The issue of social factors which influence the development of the reading skill is of central concern for this study. Numerous studies have shown that the reading skill is influenced by a variety of social factors connected with the family, the home and place of residence, the school and other educational institutions, peer and teacher influence. Various social factors influence how and how much we read and contribute to our reading habits, our attitude to reading and motivation for reading. In case of L2 reading this complex issue is further complicated by factors connected with cognitive and affective transfer from L1. Our complete linguistic knowledge and attitudes towards L1 necessarily influence the development of the reading skill in L2. When we begin reading in L1, we typically have considerable knowledge of the vocabulary (roughly 6000 words) and basic grammatical structures (Grabe, 2002).

In contrast, L2 reading starts without such background knowledge, and the key to successful reading is learning vocabulary (so as to be able to quickly recognize a large number of words), employing reading strategies, being familiar with textual elements and genres and being able to distinguish them, and having a motivation for reading in general. L1 knowledge and its transfer have been proven to influence the development of the L2 reading skill (Verhoven, et al., 1997). The transfer may be positive, but it may also cause serious difficulties in the reading comprehension process. Contrary to this view, this study considers listening comprehension to determine reading comprehension. However, poor comprehenders' problems go beyond oral language and include difficulties in working memory, inferencing, and world knowledge.

In addition, another issue that is of central importance in research of the L2 reading process is applying research results in order to improve L2 instruction. Regardless of the type of research and of variables under investigation, one of the essential questions that a researcher must be able to answer is whether his or her results can be used as the basis of further research and/or to improve existing methods and strategies of reading instruction, and if so how. Before describing the test used in this research project, there will be need to state a few words about the variables which influence the nature of the reading process, relating them to this research.

While the intention of primary schools is to accommodate learners in an additive bilingual model, the reality is that the language system is one of immersion, where a language that is not the language of the larger society is used as a medium of instruction (Admiraal, Westhoff & De Bot 2006). The challenge remains to provide quality education to a multicultural learner population who speak 76 different languages where there is currently no evidence that a solid familiar language foundation forms the basis for second-language acquisition. Brock-Utne (2007) supports the argument of lack of a solid familiar language by stating that millions of children enter school without knowing the language of instruction, while formal schooling also takes place in a language they neither speak nor understand. This study take the view that the prospect for long-term educational parity between Cinyanja second (or even third language) learners and native Cinyanja speakers is at best questionable because of failure by language minority learners to attain grade-level competence in reading, a pattern that often persists well beyond high school. Desai (2001) refers to an 'incomprehensible education' to describe this situation where most children from African language backgrounds are not taught through their primary languages. According to Carlo

et al. (2004) English second-language learners' poor reading comprehension achievement is often because of a low vocabulary in English. Lack of knowledge of middle- and low-frequency words impede comprehension of texts, which in turn is detrimental to learning new word meanings from exposure to such words during reading.

Carlo et al. (2004) describe the effect as reciprocal, where grater vocabulary knowledge makes comprehension easier and wider reading generates larger vocabulary, a cycle that is likely to be perpetuated by learners who learn in a language other than their primary language. Droop and Verhoeven (2003) are of the opinion that children's first-language word-decoding skills shift from accessing word representations via phonic components to accessing the representations directly. In this way, word recognition and reading comprehension are strongly related during the initial stages of learning to read and that this relationship weakens as language increases in importance. However, for second-language learners, the processes between the phonics, graphemic and semantic nodes are weaker than for first-language learners. Limited exposure to the second language may lead to qualitatively weaker word representations and slower and less accurate reading.

Koda (2007) echoes the views of Droop and Verhoeven (2003) by stating that second-language reading differs markedly from first-language reading simply because it involves two languages in virtually all of its operations. Koda (2007) highlights the inherent difficulties when attempting to compare first-language to second-language learners: second-language learners often encompass a wide range of learners from different backgrounds, ages and diverse first-language backgrounds. Cognitive and linguistic resources accessible to second-language learners vary considerably more than those available to first-language learners; therefore, any comparison between first-language and second-language learners have to take into account what learners have learnt through prior literacy experience, how these experiences have been incorporated into second-language reading and how such incorporation affects second-language reading development.

In Zambia, the complexity between first- and second-language learners can be described by the argument that in a multilingual society, such as Zambia, the reading problem is often disguised by the language problem. In this regard. This study has made the following observation: Because so many of the learners study through the medium of a language that is not their primary language, it is generally assumed that poor academic performance stems from poor additional language

proficiency. Such a relationship obviously does exist, but is more complex than it appears and is one that needs to be more closely examined. For instance, when learners have difficulty reading to learn, it is often argued that their comprehension problems stem from limited language proficiency. This reflects an underlying assumption that language proficiency and reading ability are basically 'the same thing'. If this were so, then all familiar language speakers should automatically be good readers in their designated familiar language.

2.3. The Reader and the Text in Reading Comprehension.

Studies of the reading process are traditionally divided into two groups (Alderson, 2000): those that deal with reader variables and those that deal with various aspects of the text. Since this study deals with reader variables, it will list some basic reader variables and describe those that are considered most significant for the interpretation of the results. There are several basic reader variables: reader's background knowledge, reader's motivation and reasons for reading, reading strategies, stable characteristics such as gender and age and physical characteristics such as speed of word recognition, processing automaticity. Reader's background knowledge is the most important variable for this study. The reader must above all possess knowledge of the language.

Carrell (1983) distinguishes linguistic knowledge and knowing linguistic conventions from the so-called knowledge of the world. Linguistic knowledge includes being familiar with the specific characteristics of various genres and the organization of various texts. Some authors also distinguish background knowledge as a component of the knowledge of the world which is not relevant for the comprehension of a particular text. In addition to background knowledge, the knowledge of the world includes specific knowledge connected with the content of the text, in other words subject matter or expert knowledge. All of these types of knowledge are reflected in the levels on which we understand the text, i.e., whether, as Gray (1960) put it, we are reading the lines, reading between the lines or reading beyond the lines. Some authors refer to this as the levels of understanding the text (Kintsch and Yarbrough, 1982). Regardless of how we choose to describe the knowledge of the world it is inseparable from the linguistic knowledge and necessary for any understanding of a linguistic structure, including understanding creating while interacting with a written text. While the above authors regards background knowledge to be irrelevant and place emphasis on expert knowledge, linguistic knowledge and conventions and connecting knowledge

to contents of the text, this study considers background knowledge and familiarity of leaners with the language in the text pertinent in reading comprehension. Linguistic knowledge and conventions seem intricate and may be applied to advanced readers.

Thus, understanding a text requires appropriate knowledge of the world, whose organization is described in terms of categories, schemes, scripts and frames by various authors (Alderson, 2000, Cook, 1991; Schank & Ableson, 1985; Lakoff, 1987; Taylor, 1995). These structures enable the reader to process new information and integrate it into existing cognitive models. Although this study will not deal with the relationship between motivation and achievement on the reading test, it should be mentioned that the second most reader's variable is his or her motivation and the reasons for reading.

Research into reading, both in L1 and L2, have shown that poor readers lack motivation for reading and are not interested in reading (Cooper, 1984). Moreover, some research (Fransson, 1984) has shown that internal motivation as opposed to external motivation directly affects understanding of the main ideas in a text and making connections between them, as well as connecting the text with other texts, subject matter knowledge and knowledge of the world in general.

2.4 Reading Comprehension as a Product of Decoding and Language Comprehension

Ziegler and Goswami (2005) argue that the complex developmental processes that govern the acquisition of literacy cannot be identified by researchers who treat these processes as entirely separable. As Goswami (2008) puts it:

> "Development depends on complex interactions between these component skills…. Brain imaging is revealing the immense complexity of the human brain and of the neural networks that develop to support human skills. Reading is one of the most complex cognitive skills that humans can learn. It is supported by multi-modal networks uniting motor systems, language systems, semantic systems and reasoning systems. It seems inherently unlikely that a 'simple view' of reading can provide a framework for teaching that is sufficiently rich to capture this complexity." (Goswami, 2008, p. 73).

Another cognitive neuro-scientist, Wolf observes:

> "The development of reading, therefore, has two parts. First, the ideal acquisition of reading is based on the development of an amazing display of phonological, pragmatic, conceptual, social, affective, articulatory and motor systems, and the ability of these systems to become integrated and synchronised into increasingly fluent comprehension. Second, as reading develops, each of these abilities is facilitated further by this development. Knowing "what's in a word" helps you read it better; reading a word deepens your understanding of its place in the continuum of knowledge." (Wolf, 2008, p.223)

Since the introduction of the SVR, hundreds of studies have used this model to guide their investigation and/or interpret their results. Many investigations have directly examined the main premise of the model; that is, reading comprehension is the product of decoding and language comprehension. This work has confirmed that much of the variance in reading comprehension can be accounted for by individual differences in decoding and language comprehension (Catts, Hogan, & Adlof, 2005; de Jong & van der Leij, 2002; Hoover & Gough, 1990). This has been shown to be the case in English readers as well as readers of other alphabetic orthographies including Greek (Protopapas, et al, 2012), Hebrew (Joshi, et al, 2015), and Italian (Tobia & Bonifacci, 2015) as well as non-alphabetic writing systems like Chinese (Ho, et al, 2012; Florit & Cain, 2011). The SVR has also been used to account for individual differences in reading comprehension of second-language pupils (Hoover & Gough, 1990; Verhoeven & van Leeuwe, 2012) and dual-language users (Bonifacci & Tobia, 2017).

Whereas decoding and language comprehension account for much of the variance in reading comprehension, the relative relationship of these components to comprehension appears to vary across the school grades (Catts, et al., 2005; Language and Reading Research Consortium, 2015; Tilstra, McMaster, van den Broek, Kendeou, & Rapp, 2009). In the initial school grades, decoding abilities explain a majority of the variance in reading comprehension, whereas in later grades, it is the language comprehension component that accounts for most of the variability. It is not surprising that for children just learning to read that decoding skill has the greatest impact on comprehension. The shift to the dominance of language comprehension appears to occur once decoding has become faster and more automatic, and the vocabulary, grammar, and discourse

demands of reading materials have increased. This occurs somewhere around 3rd or 4th grade for typically developing readers in English (Catts et al., 2005; Language and Reading Research Consortium, 2015). However, this may occur later in more opaque orthographies (Joshi et al., 2015) and perhaps even earlier in transparent orthographies. For example, in a cross-sectional study involving Italian speaking children, Tobia and Bonifacci (2015) found that language comprehension was the primary contributor to reading comprehension right from the beginning of the primary grades (Florit & Cain, 2011).

The changing relationship between factors in the SVR was also investigated by Lonigan, Burgess, and Schatschneider (2018). Using a latent variable approach, they showed that decoding and language comprehension accounted for nearly all of the variance in reading comprehension among a sample of children in grades three (3) through five (5). Like the studies above, they observed that decoding played a larger role in reading comprehension in earlier grades and language comprehension played a greater role in later grades. Such a finding may indicate that language comprehension is more important for more skilled readers than it is for less skilled readers.

Lonigan and colleagues further provided some limited support for this inference using quantile regression analyses to look at relationships across comprehension ability independent of grade. Finally, the authors highlight an important finding that is often overlooked. That is, the variance shared by decoding and language comprehension typically accounts for as much, if not more, variance in reading comprehension than does the unique variance of either variable. They speculate that this shared variance may be related to general cognitive linguistic ability, and as such, may limit how easy it will be to substantially improve reading comprehension.

This study is concerned with the constituent components of reading comprehension as posited by the simple view. With respect to the print-dependent component, consideration of measures of word and non-word reading accuracy and fluency. As far as the print-independent component is concerned, it will examine the role of vocabulary measures in combination with more typical listening comprehension measures. The introduction of vocabulary measures into the explanation of reading comprehension brings into question the status of the oral language component of the simple view. The relation of vocabulary to listening comprehension measures may be undisputed; however the correlation between vocabulary and reading measures. For example, word recognition

threatens the validity of the simple view notion of two dissociable components, each contributing independent variance to reading comprehension. Therefore it is imperative to examine the extent to which vocabulary is both conceptually and empirically a constituent of the print-independent component. Vocabulary development and the role it plays in reading skills acquisition have received much less attention than decoding and comprehension strategies. There is a close relationship between vocabulary and comprehension; hence, individuals with poor vocabulary have difficulty understanding written text. Further, pupils with poor vocabulary knowledge read less and acquire fewer new words, while pupils with better vocabulary knowledge read more and improve their comprehension (the Matthew Effect). To prevent the Matthew Effect from taking hold, vocabulary assessment and instruction should become important components of reading programs for struggling readers with vocabulary problems (Joshi, 2005).

2.5. The Global Perspective of the Mismatch between Familiar and Language of Instruction in the Education Sector.

The mismatch between familiar and school language of instruction has long overwhelmed education systems worldwide, but is particularly problematic in low-income countries, including those whose colonial legacies burdened them with foreign languages in formal and official domains, as well as those where certain politically powerful languages dominated over others. The "one nation, one language" ideology that continues to prevail internationally has caused confusion with regard to education policy, where dominant languages are considered self-evident languages of instruction in complete disregard for what is most practical or effective in terms of pedagogy. Exclusive use of dominant languages for instruction has been criticized for decades as negatively impacting pupils' access to knowledge, the quality of classroom teaching they are offered, the validity of assessment of their learning, and any future opportunities they may have for education or work (Modiano, 1974; OAU 1986; Prah, 1995; UNESCO 1953).

As many scholars have pointed out simply using a foreign language as medium of instruction does not guarantee effective learning of that language. The use of pupils' own languages for literacy and learning across the curriculum provides a solid foundation for basic and continuing education and for transfer of skills and knowledge to additional languages. This has been established by large-scale research in North America (Cummins 2009; Thomas & Collier 1997, 2002) and

substantiated in low-income settings, particularly in Eritrea and Ethiopia, whose systems use pupils' home languages for up to eight years of primary schooling (Walter & Davis 2005; Heugh et al 2012).

In educational development, there is a growing recognition of the role played by language of instruction in educational access, quality and equity, particularly for groups that have been socially marginalized (ADEA 2010; Ouane & Glanz 2011; UNESCO 2010, 2012). For instance, Use of pupils' own languages has been linked to increased parent involvement (Ball 2010) and greater participation of girls and women in education (Benson 2004; Hovens 2002; Lewis & Lockheed 2012). Most recently, the Early Raised awareness is not enough. An estimated 40 percent, or 2.3 billion, of the world's people still lack access to instruction in a language they speak or understand (Walter & Benson 2012).

According to the World Bank (2005), 50 percent of the world's out-of-school children live in communities where the language of the school is different than the language of the home. These rough figures are based on the cross-referencing of national populations, language demographics and education policies. Further cross referencing demonstrated the extent of the problem in countries whose dominant educational languages are only spoken at home by elite minorities, like Spanish in Equatorial Guinea or French in Benin (Albaugh, 2012).The development of effective indicators could prompt the collection of more and better data on language use, literacy and proficiency in sub-national contexts like communities and schools, generating greater national and international attention toward addressing language issues in education.

2.6. The Disparity between Familiar and Language of Education: The African Outlook

The debate on the use of familiar language in education has been unresolved not only in Zambia, but also in a number of African countries. The language of instruction in an education system determines the quality of education in the country and overall learner achievement. Prah (2003) describes the language or medium of instruction as the language in which basic skills and knowledge are imparted to pupils. In Kenya, the official language of instruction policy states that children have a right to be taught in the language of the catchment area in classes (Grades) one (1)- three (3) (Kenya Institute of Education, KIE, 1992), in schools in the rural areas, during which English is taught as a subject in the curriculum. Kiswahili is used as the language of instruction in

lower primary in schools in urban areas. From Grade four (4) English is used as the medium of instruction. According to the Constitution of Kenya 2010 (Republic of Kenya, 2010), Kiswahili and English are the country's official languages, while the former is also the national language.

The Constitution also recognizes and protects the local languages. Furthermore, the country is a host to over forty two local languages making the country multilingual, a number of the languages have dialects (Ogechi, 2002). The use of mother tongue for instruction has always been challenged as well as supported by parents, teachers, scholars and other stakeholders in the education sector. This paper attempted to get possible answers to the questions: how does the language of instruction used in lower primary in schools in rural areas in Kenya benefit the learner and why are teachers not using mother tongue as a medium of instruction in lower primary in schools in rural areas in Kenya. It is argued that the use of familiar language as a language of instruction in lower primary in schools in the rural areas in Kenya is claimed to be beneficial to the learner yet it is the least preferred medium of instruction in lower primary in schools in rural areas in Kenya.

Adoption of a familiar language in class improves learning outcomes. In instances where pupils are instructed in a language that is familiar, learning outcomes are higher with increased efficiency and learner participation in class. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO,1953) states that the best medium for teaching a child is the familiar language through which children understand and express themselves freely. Furthermore, when the language of instruction is familiar, the teacher is able to use more active and effective teaching methods as well as instructional materials. Therefore, the use of familiar language enables pupils identify instruments which can be used to produce instructional materials in their immediate environment.

Baker (2001) and Cummins (2000) note that the use of familiar language to teach beginning literacy facilitates an understanding of sound symbols or meaning symbols correspondence among young children. Furthermore, the learner's psychological stress is reduced through the use of a language related to the learner's familiar language. Moreover, Kioko et al., (2008) opine that pupils instructed in a new language from the start of schooling experience delayed or ineffective fluency especially in reading and spelling in the new language. The language of instruction adopted also has a bearing on school performance. In instances where pupils enter school and are taught in a language which is not familiar, they have more difficulties to master reading skills and to

perform well in school (Rivera, 1990; Wolfaardt, 2004). In support of this position, Cummins (2000) argues that a solid foundation in familiar language results in pupils being more confident at school and therefore, it strengthens the affective domain involving confidence, self-esteem and identity.

As echoed by Geller and Robinson (1998), a familiar language gives confidence to pupils as a symbol of their history and culture. Due to improved learner participation in class because of use of a familiar language according to Prah (2003), pupils become more creative and innovative in their own mother tongues. Learner centered pedagogy provides opportunity for teachers and pupils to utilize higher order skills.

The use of familiar language enhances cognitive development of a child. In instances where familiar language use in lower primary schools is adequately structured and implemented, cognitive development is improved. According to Noormohamadi (2008), familiar language is essential for learning as part of intellectual ability. Moreover, Plessis (2008), posits that much of a child's future social and intellectual development hinges on the milestone of mother tongue. In support of this position, a study by Njogu (2015), though done among pre-school children, revealed that familiar language contributes positively towards the learning of the English language and both languages, that is, mother tongue (L1) and English (L2) nurture each other. Studies have also shown that literacy is important for long lasting lexical development and fluency (Baker, 2006; Cohen, 1989).

Therefore, the use of familiar language, which Kosonen (2009) associates to a good link to be used to succeed in literacy and language of instruction in education and enables the pupils to move from home to school and get familiar with activities in the teaching and learning process. Furthermore, according to the imagery by Kosonen, pupils taught using English as a Second Language, lacks the link, therefore, they either progress or not. However, the ones who progress successfully in initial literacy are a minority.

Moreover, a study by Khejeri (2014) revealed that English, Kiswahili and mother tongue are used for instruction but mother tongue is the least preferred for instruction. A mismatch between language policies and practice exists in schools and this indicates that children are being instructed in a language they are not yet familiar with when they enter school. According to Webb (2004),

children receiving instruction in an unfamiliar language in their learning process in schools are likely to be negatively affected. Moreover, children who struggle to understand lessons in an unfamiliar language are more likely to skip school, repeat grades, drop out and fail to learn than those taught in their mother tongue.

An earlier study by Colclough, et al. (2000), on gender inequalities in primary schooling, indicated that the language of instruction used in schools is one school factor, which contributed to pupils dropping out of school. Though there has been a mismatch between language policies and practice, some studies indicate that teachers play a crucial role in the ultimate choice of the language of instruction used (Chiori and Harris, 2001). Additionally, teachers' choices may be an outcome of an interplay of factors such as individual language preference and competence, attitude and values, pupils' social and cultural environments, parents and the larger community (Muthwii, 2002).

Harmse (2014) conducted a study in South Africa dabbed 'Linguistic profile of multilingual pupils in English Home Language Classrooms 'This study sought to describe the actual target audience seated in the so called English Home Language class and explores the profile of junior secondary school pupils whose mother tongue was not English yet they took English Home Language as a school subject. Quantitative data were collected through a survey questionnaire completed by 642 Grade 8 and 9 respondents at three suburban schools in Gauteng. Cross tabulations were then used to compare different variables investigated in the questionnaire. Key findings based on the data indicate that respondents although multilingual were often more proficient in English than their mother tongue and that the role of the caregiver as initial source of learning English had been underestimated.

2.7. Studies on the Medium of Instruction and Reading Levels in Zambia

A number of studies over the years have demonstrated the ineffectiveness of the local languages dominant medium of instruction policies and practices in Zambia. A 2011 study by Tambulukani and Bus (2011) tested the degree of fit between pupils' home language and the language of instruction, on the reading skills of those pupils. The study found that "a better fit between children's most familiar Zambian language and the Zambian language in which basic reading skills are practiced leads to better reading skills in the Zambian language. The authors conclude that the existing language policy at the time falls short of expectations.

Matafwali (2010) examined the link between proficiency in language of instruction and reading performance in Zambian schoolchildren. The study found that language fluency and alphabetic skills are separate predictors of reading. It was also found that Grade two pupils in the study performed no better than Grade one pupils; this was attributed to the move from Zambian language-medium instruction to English medium in Grade two. Williams' reading research in the 1990s (Williams, 1998; Gordon 2014) demonstrated that reading levels among the Zambian pupils assessed were poor in both English and the local language; indeed, most pupils were reading at two levels below their appropriate grade. Williams notes that "not only are Zambian languages (one of the 'official' seven) not used as media of instruction, they are also neglected even as subjects in primary school teaching" (Williams, 1998).

A case study on Zambian community schools, part of the USAID-funded Equip2 project, noted that these schools were receiving radio based instruction in literacy and numeracy in both English and the local languages, "following the official curriculum in those subjects." (EQUIP2, 2006). Pollard and Gardsbane (2013) found that pupils performed poorly in basic reading skills in local languages as a number of schools report that they teach reading in English, not the local language, even in early grades. The Zambian situation provided itself for a natural experiment for testing the importance of teaching in Grade 2 in a familiar language. Despite the fact that reading is taught in a local language, there were grounds to suspect that not all Grade one (1) pupils thus had the benefit of being taught in a familiar language.

At the request of the Zambian Ministry of Education, the first author visited various parts of the country in the period that the new language-medium policy was implemented. He observed that there may not be any great overlap between the local Zambian language that was officially designated as the language of instruction in a particular district and the language spoken at home and in the playground. For instance, the standard Nyanja, the official Zambian language used for teaching literacy in Grade 1 in Lusaka, may differ from the language spoken by most Lusaka children. They speak a non-standard variety of Nyanja, 'town Nyanja', characterized by borrowings from English as well as other Zambian languages (Kashoki, 1990; Williams 1996).

For example, Lusaka children are more familiar with the 'town Nyanja' term mabrikisi (from the English 'bricks', but with Nyanja Maas a plural marker, and Nyanja phonology) rather than the

standard ncherwa. Or as a child put it: 'when we are told to write, we are given different things, things that are spoken by other people, and not the Nyanja we speak' (Williams 1998).

To test the benefit of a familiar language the first author selected similar public schools from districts where the overlap between the official language of instruction and the language spoken by the children was expected to vary. He estimated that the overlap in vocabulary would be rather good in Mongu (Western Province) but very poor in Lusaka Province, with Chipata (Eastern Province) scoring in between. In Mongu most pupils are assumed to be familiar with Lozi, the official Zambian language in that place although some children may be more familiar with Mbunda, another local language with a different vocabulary. In Lusaka and Chipata 'standard Nyanja' is the lingua franca of these areas and has therefore been designated as the official language of teaching. The 'standard Nyanja' is said to be based on Malawian Chichewa which is generally regarded as a 'pure' or, in the African metaphor, 'deep' form of a Bantu language (Kashoki 1990; Kishindo 1990).

As argued above there are, however, many discrepancies between the vocabularies of the 'town Nyanja' spoken by most Lusaka children and the 'standard Nyanja'. In the district Chipata the Nyanja used in schools also differs from the language spoken in the homes but there may be more overlap in vocabulary between both versions of Nyanja than in Lusaka because of the proximity of Chipata to the districts of Katete and Chadiza where the 'deep Nyanja' is spoken both on the streets and in homes. Zambia thus was an appropriate candidate for comparisons between pupils differing in familiarity with the language that is officially designated to practice beginning reading skills a question to our best knowledge not yet studied in Zambia or surrounding countries (Kelly 1995). On average children scored 9.71 words (SD=*3.99*) on the Familiar Language Test. A minority scored 4 or lower (11%) or over 16 (6%). When this test is a valid indicator of children's familiarity with the language of instruction we may expect higher or lower scores when pupils were classified as L1 or L2 by their teachers, respectively. This was indeed the case, t=13.40, df=238, $p<0.000$. Average percentages of words in the language of instruction for pupils classified by their teacher as L1 and L2 were 90.75% (*SD=16.06*) and 30.18% (SD=*34.18*), respectively.

Schools in Lusaka had the lowest scores on the Familiar Language Test with means ranging from 6% to 9%, indicating that pupils were more familiar with the vocabulary of another local language than with the vocabulary used in the reading method. By contrast, the schools in Mongu had the

highest scores ranging from 90% to 100%, indicating that pupils at these schools were familiar with the language of teaching. The scores of Chipata schools laid between those of the Lusaka and Mongu schools (14–55%).

Most studies assessing reading skills among Zambian pupils have constantly reported very poor levels of proficiency (Chikalanga, 1991; Matafwali & Bus, 2013; Sharma, 1973; Williams, 1998). For instance, Williams assessed English reading comprehension skills of Zambian pupils in elementary school and found that 85% o third graders and 88% of fourth graders failed to meet the national minimum expected levels. This state of affair is what prompted the implementation of the Primary Reading Program with a view of taking advantage of pupils' oral competence in their respective Zambian languages. However, even after the implementation of the Primary Reading Program, recent studies by Matafwali and Bus (2013), and Tambulukani and Bus (2011) still reported very marginal gains in reading performance. The results showed that the new language-medium policy in Zambia falls short of expectations. Not only is progress in the reading of English rather weak but progress in reading of a local language is as well. The majority's reading ability does not enable them to comprehend simple written sentences in a Zambian language even though they have been exposed to 18 months of reading instruction. The average score of 8.15 Zambian words per minute is low compared with reading proficiency of children in countries with an equally transparent orthography after the same period of instruction. This study reported that on a 40-item measure of word recognition only 4.20 percent of the sample were able read all items correctly although test items were drawn from grade level Zambia Primary Course (ZPC) English textbooks. While more than 5% of the participants could not read a single test item on the test. Similarly, McAdam (1973) compared fourth graders' reading performance in English and a Zambian language and found a bimodal distribution on the English test scores. Almost half of the English taught pupils performed as poorly as their Zambian language instructed counterparts.

2.8. Language: Context and Policy in Zambia

Zambia is a multilingual society with children being exposed and learning to converse and code switch between two or more languages. Zambia has 22 local languages and 73 dialects (Kashioki, 1990). Of these local languages, only seven (Cinyanja, Icibemba, Kaonde, Isilozi, Lunda, Luvale and Chitonga) are officially recognized and used in the Zambian schooling system. With

tremendous language diversity, home language for some pupils differs from the school official language of instruction. Like many other African countries, English is the official language for Zambia since independence.

For the purposes of unity as understood then, English gained its prominence as the language for the media, schools and legislation. Until recently, the language of instruction from pre- Grade to Grade four has reverted to the official local languages. Although English is still the official language, the new language policy states that English as language of instruction will be introduced from Grade five onwards (Use of local languages, 2013).

2.9. Home Environment Factors Associated with Reading Skill Development

The home environment supports different aspects of development for children including reading. Early manifestations of how children practice reading are embedded in their family structure within their social contexts (Neuman & Dickinson, 2002). As children enter school, they are differentially prepared by their families to benefit from their educational experiences which become manifested in their reading skill, academic achievement and socio-emotional functioning (Farver, et. al., 2006; Raver & Knitzer, 2002; Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000; Stipek & Ryan, 1997).

The home environment is conceptually and empirically a context for 'emergent literacy' (Sulzby & Teale, 1991) which provides children with a broad base of literate knowledge before formal schooling. In the home, children build background knowledge of the nature and function of written language i.e. how to hold a pencil, crayon; holding, positioning a book correctly, studying, entertainment and gaining information.

The home equips children with antecedents for reading development such as language (Adams, 1990; Beals & De Temple, 1994; Bowers & Wolf, 1993; Hart & Risley, 1995; Huttenlocher, Haight, Bryk, Seltzer & Lyons, 1991; Roth, Speece & Cooper, 2002; Shany, Geva & Melech-Feder, 2010; Walker, Greenwood, Hart & Carter, 1994) and other early forms of literacy, both conceptual and behavioural experiences that facilitate their first steps into the literate world (Dickinson & Tabors, 2001; Kaunda, 2013; Musonda, 2011; Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1998; Teale, 1991; Zimba, 2011). Although the home environment provides opportunities for learning about literacy, children engage in literacy activities for purposes other than explicit learning. For example observing written material cultivates print awareness even without direct instruction. Although

antecedents for reading development are placed in the home environment, the process involved in learning to read is complex. The complexity of the process requires multifaceted approach that involves specialized expertise of the teachers. In the home, facilitating reading skills has been linked to formal and informal literacy interactive processes (Aram & Levin, 2002; Kirby & Hogan, 2008; Lonigan & Whitehurst, 1998; Manolitsis et al., 2011; Reese & Gallimore, 2000; Sénéchal, 2006; Sénéchal & LeFevre, 2002; Storch & Whitehurst, 2001; van Steensel, 2006; Whitehurst & Lonigan, 2001).

These interactive processes differ from place to place; culture to culture and family to family. Important to realize is that different groups of people are literate in different ways following their cultural practices that invoke different patterns of cognitive demands and opportunities for learning (Heath, 1983; Nerlove & Snipper, 1981; Serpell, 1991; Vygotsky, 1978; Wells, 1990). There exists strong, cumulative and empirical evidence that the family not only influences school preparedness but also performance (Wasik & Hendrickson, 2004). These differential effects on literacy achievement in early school years are closely tied to the quality and quantity of literacy-related experiences and language development in early childhood (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1997; Snow, Burns & Griffin, 1999; Stanovich, 1986). Several potential hosts of stress factors that negatively impact the quality and quantity of literacy interactions impede the learning process. Examples of these factors include: 1). Family income- most processes connecting home environment and school success have examined family socio-economic status (SES).

Studies have generally reported that families with low income, low maternal education, low proficiency in English experience greater hardships, have limited access to resources which compromises the children's success in school (Farver, et. al., 2006). McLoyd (1998) reported in a review of literature, that poverty status and SES were significant predictors of children's early language skills, academic achievement and social competence. However, evidence shows that low income and ethnic minority families do provide opportunities and experiences which support children's early skill development (Aram & Levin, 2002; Delgado-Gaitini, 1992; Heath, 1983; Reece & Gallimore, 2000; Teale 1986). 2). Family size. Studies indicate that crowded homes are associated with disparities in children's vocabulary growth rates, cognitive abilities and social emotional functioning (Hart & Risley, 1995).

Others found an inverse relationship of sibship size and academic achievement even when variables like race, SES and age were controlled for (Blake, 1989). 3). Parents' own literacy habits influence children's interest and motivation for reading (Serpell, Baker & Sonnenschein, 2005). 4) The extents to which parents actively embrace school activities at home have been found to influence academic achievement (Bennett, Martin & Weigel, 2002; Christian, Morrison, & Bryant, 1998; Fantuzzo, Tighe, & Childs, 2000; Leseman & deJong, 1998; Snow, Barnes, Chandler, Goodman, & Hemphill, 1991).

Another study conducted in South Africa by Marynard (2012) on the effects of socio-economic status on reading comprehension, that can be associated to comparison of schools located in high density areas and schools located in low density areas, examined the differences in reading comprehension performance between pupils from a low socio-economic status and those from a high socioeconomic status. The results indicated that pupils from a low economic background (m= 34.9, SD=*15.3)* performed significantly better than those from a high economic background (m=30.8, SD=*14.2*), t *(465) =3.07*, *p<0.001*, d=0.28) with weak effect size. This illustrates that although socio-economic status between schools located in high density areas and schools located in low density areas play a role in the performance of reading comprehension, it does not play significant a role as that of language, which indicates a moderate size of d=0.53.

2.10. Examination Council of Zambia Grade Five (5) National Assessment Survey

The main aim of the national assessment survey from its inception in 1998 has been to highlight the learning achievement levels among Grade 5 pupils in primary school. The surveys have also been changing over time, including the context and varying educational inputs and processes. The examination council of Zambia is the implementing agency of the program and has successfully conducted the surveys. The 12 years of the national assessment surveys in Zambia has shown that there have been pupils who were very proficient in reading and numeracy at primary level of education, the majority of the pupils have had challenges in reading and as such could not succeed in other learning areas. Such challenges have been attributed to pupils' inability to read both in English and Zambian languages. The patterns of performance which were observed at Grade 5 level also manifested, later at higher grades through examinations results such as Grade 7 and 9

public examinations. The results from this report especially in reading comprehension as inspired this study to launch an inquiry specifically the performance related to Lusaka, province.

In the 2012 national survey, the national mean performance in reading in English was 34.12 percent and 36.81 percent in Zambian languages (Chitonga, Cinyanja, Icibemba and Silozi). At provincial level, Lusaka's mean performance in reading English language was 37.88 percent above the national mean while the mean performance for Cinyanja was 30.68 percent below the national mean. Furthermore, Zambia's Grade 5 national assessment survey report for the year 2014 by the examination council of Zambia reports: generally, the national mean performance showed a downward trend in all learning areas. In literacy, the mean performance in reading in English was 32.05% which was a 2.07% drop compared to the 2012 survey report while Zambian languages had a drop of 1.66% from 36.81% in 2012. With regard to reading in English, Lusaka was the highest mean score at 37.55 percent. In Zambian languages, Luapula topped the list at 44.57 percent and Lusaka had a mean score of 30.5 percent. Despite of these the variation in performance particularly in Lusaka District, the examination council of Zambia has not done any research as to what might be the contributing factors to such performance as indicated by mean score in literacy and reading in both English and Zambian language, even after there has been emphasis on the use of familiar language as language of instruction in education.

2.11. Summary

The chapter has provided literature on the mismatch between familiar and language of instruction among pupils and its effect to reading comprehension in primary schools. It has also reviewed empirical studies conducted outside and within Africa and has established that a fit between familiar and language of instructions affect reading comprehension among pupils in primary schools. However, these studies are inconclusive as they generate conflicting findings regarding the most effective language of instruction in facilitating lessons in literacy.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methods which were employed in this study. It constitutes the following: research design, target population, sample size, sampling procedure, research instruments, data collection and data analysis.

3.2 Research Design

The study employed a cross-sectional survey. The rationale behind the use of this design was to enable the researcher to have access to a large number of pupils in a relatively short period of time in order to gather facts that relate to the variable under study which is one of its advantages. The main goal of cross-sectional research is to make inferences about possible relationships (Akeredola, 2005). Quantitative research seeks to establish relationships and to explain causes of changes in measured social facts. White (2005) states that Quantitative research has a hypothesis in which the relationship between variables such as dependent and independent variables has to be explained at its points of departure. Jere-Folotiya (2014) adds that the strength of the quantitative research lies in terms of amount, frequency and intensity with the view of explaining, describing, and making inferences from obtained results (Babbie, 1993, Denzin, & Lincon, 1994).

The study was carried out when pupils (participants) were half way through grade five (5) in order to determine the extent of the mismatch between familiar language and language of instruction among pupils and how it affects reading comprehension. Predictive role of certain child and school characteristics, home factors and school quality were considered. It was necessary that children needed adequate exposure to learning experiences in reading and listening skills in both Cinyanja and English. In this study, child characteristics are those qualities that each child has as an individual they bring into the school. The qualities have some bearing on learning performance. Child characteristics involved the following variables: age, mother's language, home language, child's language, language of use when playing with other children at home or community, preschool, home literacy, and home learning-support.

School characteristics on the other hand related to whether the school was high performing or low performing. This implied that schools differed in the way they were perceived by children's parents and how these schools performed in national examinations at Grade seven (7) and Grade nine (9) levels. Different activities in the classroom also related to school characteristics. For example, teacher competence and attitude towards the language of instruction and class language as well as school routines. The study was conducted in the second term of the academic year when Grade five children had been exposed to reading, writing and numeracy instructions in Cinyanja for four years.

3.3. Target Population

Target population refers to the group of people to whom the results of a research should apply (Whitley & Kite, 2012). In this study, the population comprised six Grade five classes each comprising of an average of 40 pupils making a total of 240 participants from three primary schools in Lusaka district, Zambia. Care-givers, who in this case were parents or guardians of the participants were also involved in the study just to provide information which became part of pupils' data. Out of the ten school zones of Lusaka district, three zones were targeted. In each one of these targeted zones, one school was purposively selected and within one of each school, two classes were also purposively selected consisting of the at least forty-five children: 20 high achievers and 20 low achievers were randomly sampled from their group membership of 40 based on information provided by class teachers using the regular literacy class assessment and pace grouping of the children. The researcher ensured field calls to three zones, Chilenje, Lusaka central and Kaunda Square.

3.4. Study Sample

Cinyanja is the language used in Lusaka district for literacy as familiar language. According to Ministry of General Education National Policy on Education, (2013), officially English will be used as the language of instruction, but the language used for initial literacy learning in Grades 1 – 4 will be one that seems best suited to promote meaningful learning by children. Based on this policy pupils from Grade 1-4 in Lusaka district are taught to read and write in Cinyanja. In this study, a sample of 240 participants who were pupils in Grade five was used. All the schools chosen in this study were government primary schools and were selected using Multi-stage sampling

procedure. In the first stage, names of schools were written on small pieces of paper which were folded and put in a box according to their zones, and a school was randomly selected from each zone. In the second stage, 50 pupils were randomly selected from each of the sampled school using in-and-out technique to participate in the study. The in-and-out technique involved pupils picking a paper written either ‘in’ or ‘out’. Those who picked the ‘in’ were included in the sample and those who picked the ‘out’ were excluded from the sample. Government schools were targeted because most private schools are not implementing the policy as prescribed by the ministry of education policy guide document as argued by Ndeleki (2015).

It has to be noted that the policy was first implemented when these participants were in Grade one. Hence, they are believed to be the first group to experience the 2013 language policy. From the selected government primary schools, 240 participants (pupils) were selected by proportionate stratified random sampling with stratification based on gender (female 133 and 107 male), class (A and B) 40 from each class. In stratified sampling, the population is divided into relatively homogenous subsets called strata and then random samples are taken from each stratum (Albright, Winston, & Zappea, 2010).

Proportionate stratified random sampling occurs when the percentage of the sample taken from each stratum is proportionate to the percentage that each stratum is within the population (Black, et al. 2012). Stratified random sampling allowed the researcher to take into account the population’s different subgroups and guarantees that the sample accurately represents the population on specific characteristics (Jackson, 2014).

3.5. Criteria Used on the Choice of Participants

The purposeful sampling technique was applied in the selection of high and low performing schools from which children were later drawn. In the selection of pupil-subjects, the stratified simple random sampling was desirable and applied. Children were selected after reviewing their school-attendance. Children with a regular school attendance were eligible for recruitment in the study. Secondly, eligible children came from the average and above average ability groups to exclude those who were in the below average groups. This process was determined by their class teacher using most recent academic assessment performance results. This was done in order to deal with children who could at least read and write unlike those who could not perform these

academic skills. Children who attended school regularly and were not from the lowest ability groups constituted big groups more than the required number for the study. From the eligible bigger groups, the required forty children were then selected and recruited for the study.

3.6. Data Collection Instruments

Data was captured through a pupils' self-report biographical data sheet, an orally administered questionnaire aimed at collecting data from the sampled Grade five (5) pupil participants. The questionnaire probed language background, exposure to literacy activities in class, exposure to literacy activities at home, availability of reading materials at home, exposure to literacy activities in the community, social-economic status and home possessions. Considering the participants age group, degree of legitimacy of the information was skeptical, hence, a care-giver's self-report home literacy questionnaire (Appendix V) was also administered prior to leaner's engagement, this was to validate and consolidate the information from the participants. 221 out of the targeted 240 parents and guardians were captured through the home literacy questionnaire (Appendix V).

Tests to assess reading and listening comprehension skills in both Cinyanja and English were later administered. The reading comprehension test was in order to assess whether pupils read the words correctly or not (fluency), pupils were asked to read aloud a short passage and to answer comprehension questions from the read passage. This test assessed the learner's ability to understand what was read by answering questions. After reading a short passage, a learner was asked five (5) questions just after completing oral passage reading in both English and Cinyanja. The wh-questions (what, who, how) were asked to test pupils' basic understanding of the story. A learner was given two (2) minutes to read the short passage answer the question asked by the test administrator (researcher). Each question answered correctly carried two marks while an incorrect response carried one(1) mark and zero (0) mark for no response.

3.6.1. Questionnaires

A Structured questionnaire (Appendix IV) was orally administered to 240 pupils and the other part which is the home literacy questionnaire was given to the same participants for their parents or guardians to complete. These questionnaire contained both statistical and open-ended questions. These questions sought to collect descriptor data on the pupils and schools; the language diversity

of the pupils; their language background, exposure to literacy activities in class, exposure to literacy activities at home, availability of literacy material at home, exposure to literacy activities in the community, social and economic. The questionnaires were also intended to elicit evidence from parents on how their language background information and child's childhood experience. Questionnaires were employed because they allow for the collection of data from a large population at the same time (Marsden & Wright, 2010).

In all the three schools under study in Lusaka district, 240 pupils were given questionnaires of which all of them were returned. The questionnaires were only administered to pupils who indicated that they were identified as participants. On the part of the home-literacy questionnaire, Minimal resistance was experienced in one school where some pupils, especially those with parents who are unable to read and write, stated that they did not have time to complete the questionnaire. In this school, questionnaire data is thus less complete than in the other participating schools. The overall number of home-literacy questionnaires (appendix V) retained was 221 from all the schools under study. Questionnaires from all the schools were directly returned to the researcher by individual teachers responsible for the classes where participants were drawn from.

3.6.2. Pupil-Demographic Data Sheet

This instrument (Appendix IV) included: age, gender, care-givers' socioeconomic status, caregivers' education attainment, mostly spoken language at home, mostly spoken play language and mostly spoken classroom language and home possessions. This information was provided by each individual child through a self-report questionnaire. Part of the demographic data generated from this instrument focused on the home possessions.

3.6.3. Home-Literacy and Learning-Support Questionnaire

This home-literacy and learning questionnaire (Appendix V) addressed two aspects, namely: the background information, parent's part and the child's childhood experiences. The instrument was administered on participant's care-givers at the beginning of the study as a self-report questionnaire.

3.6.4. Reading Comprehension Test

The reading comprehension (Appendix VI) involved two short passages in English and Cinyanja respectively. Out of the three domains of reading- literacy and the four of language competence, the reading domains were narrative prose, expository prose and documentary material. The language skills tested were those of recall, comprehension and application in the areas of vocabulary and sentence sequencing. Participants were expected to use phonic knowledge to read words, read passages quickly, loudly and understand, interpret and make value judgment on what has been read and answer the follow-up and surface questions.

3.6.5. Listening Comprehension Test

Two stories (Appendix VI) where read to participants slowly and fluently in English language and Cinyanja separately. The language skill tested were those of recall and application in the areas of vocabulary. Participants were expected to listen carefully and attentively, comprehend what had been said and respond to the five (5) follow-up questions in relation to the story. The listening comprehension test included ten (10) questions altogether of which five (5) in Cinyanja were drawn from the Cinyanja story and the other five (5) came from the story in English language.

3.7. Validity and Reliability

3.7.1 Validity

According to Nitko (1996), validity of an instrument refers to the accuracy with which an instrument measures what it sets out to measure. The content of the tests used in the study is drawn from the curriculum being used in schools, hence criterion referenced. The study applied the test similarly structured to the examination council of Zambia Grade five national assessments. In addition, performance benchmarks for the test items were defined during a validation exercise which involved practicing teachers, subject specialists and educational researchers. It was from the validation process that performance targets were set for use as a standard against which learner performance was assessed. This exercise included test items in listening and reading comprehension piloting. The importance of this exercise was to check whether or not the tests were consistently measuring what they were meant to measure. During the process of validation process, some factors that were taken into consideration included scrutiny of the tests' compliance

to the curriculum and conformity to test construction norms. To test the validity of the tests, pilot tests were conducted as part of validation in two Government schools in Lusaka and feedback from pilot tested questionnaires in English and translated to Cinyanja version was used for the final questionnaire editing before it was finally used for actual data collection.

3.7.2 Reliability

A reliability analysis was carried out on the perceived task values scale comprising 84 items. Cronbach's alpha showed the questionnaire to reach acceptable reliability, $\alpha = 0.97$. This figure suggests that internal consistency was excellent. Garson (2006) postulated that reliability of 0.60 is commonly acceptable in exploratory research. However, an overall alpha of at least 0.70 or higher is needed for an instrument to be accepted as reliable. Therefore, the instrument for this study was considered reliable as its alpha level at .97. The assumption of normality was met for this set of data. This is indicated by the fact that none of the standardized Skewness values exceeded +3.29, nor were any of the probability values less than (or equal to) the .001 alpha level set for the Shapiro-Wilks test.

3.8. Data Collection Procedure

3.8.1. Piloting

The researcher conducted a pilot study on 40 participants. The researcher had to first arrange for time to visit the school, there after he was able to make necessary adjustments on the instruments by examining the questions in the questionnaire for bias, sequence and clarity. (Marshall and Rossman (1995) cited in Nkosha (1999). For instance, the researcher was then able to make some amendments on the instruments by omitting the provision of the name on the questionnaire and made changes on the numbering of questions and other items. The question responses were also rearranged starting with strongly agree ending with disagree strongly. The researcher had the opportunity to remove the ambiguities that were identified in some questions. The pilot study was, therefore, a guarantee that the topic was researchable and the instruments were appropriately designed.

3.8.2. Actual Data Collection

Ethical clearance was obtained from Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB (Appendix II) and authorisation from the District Education Board Secretary of Lusaka home literacy questionnaire (Appendix III) to carry out the study in schools of the district was granted. These letters assisted in getting co-operation from the Head Teachers of the selected primary Schools in the District to inform the Grade five (5) pupils about the research, seek their parents or guardians consent to be involved in the study, and make appointments to administer the questionnaire. The researcher took the task of first visiting the targeted schools and arranging on how to meet the various informants. Schools were categorized using pseudonyms Lus 1 referring to the school in the low densely populated residential area, Lus 2, a peri-urban or outskirt of the district and Lus 3, a medium densely populated residential area. The school administrators assigned teachers responsible for the targeted classes to help in organizing the targeted informants who were in Grades five (5). The researcher mostly used either English or Cinyanja depending on which of the two languages a child was comfortable with during the conversations and oral administration of the questionnaire as they were common languages for most pupils in schools under the study. Questionnaires were then orally administered to the sampled pupils individually in a separate classroom. The researcher clearly explained to the respondents before they begun to answer. A Structured questionnaire was used to collect data from sampled pupils. Questionnaires were collected as soon as they were duly filled in and completed by the researcher. Data was collected over a period of one month.

3.8.3. Data Analysis

The data was managed using Microsoft Excel and analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences, SPSS version 23.0 to run frequencies and means. In order to have a statistical description of the data, histograms were used. The data for pupils' responses were statistically analyzed by descriptive statistics to determine the frequencies for which paired sample t-tests were used to test whether there were any significant differences in learner performance in all variables and a one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to establish whether there were any significant differences in learner performance across the three schools.

LSD post-hoc tests were conducted to compare performance by schools. To establish differences in the learner performance by school independent t-tests were used. The researcher then tried to understand variable types. Different data types demanded discrete treatment, so it was important to be able to distinguish variables by both cause and effect (dependent or independent), and their measurement scales (nominal, ordinal, interval, and ratio).

Descriptive statistics were run. These were used to summarize the basic features of a data set through measures of central tendency (mean, mode, and median), dispersion (range, quartiles, variance, and standard deviation), and distribution (skewness and kurtosis).Appropriate inferential statistics were run. This allowed the researcher to assess their ability to draw conclusions that extend beyond the immediate data. For example, if a sample represents the population; if there were differences between two or more groups; if there were changes over time; or if there is a relationship between two or more variables.

The researcher made sure to select the right statistical test. This relied on knowing the nature of the variables; their scale of measurement; their distribution shape; and the types of question which was asked. Furthermore, the researcher looked for statistical significance. This was generally captured through a 'p-value', which assessed the probability that the findings are more than coincidence. The lower the p-value, the more confident the researcher was that findings are genuine.

3.9. Ethical Considerations

This research maintained all ethical issues such as honesty and integrity; it also aimed at avoiding bias in any aspect, including design, data analysis, interpretation and also carefulness, openness, respect for intellectual property and confidentiality. Permission to collect data for the research was obtained from University of Zambia through the directorate of research and Graduate Studies and the researcher sought ethical clearance from Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB reference number HSS REC: 2018-AUG-008 (Appendix II). The researcher then requested consent from the district education board secretary's office of Lusaka. After approval from DEBS, the researcher further visited the identified selected schools for introduction.

During the introductory visits, the researcher sought clearance for the research by the school authorities, made appointments for data collection, briefed the selected class teachers and pupils

on the intended research and sought their cooperation. This interaction was used to make the teacher and participants separately understand what the study was about and asked the teacher to ask for consent from the participants' parents or guardians to take part in the study since the children could not consent on their own as they were under the age of 18. After reading the consent form, the teacher immediately subscribed to assist in the study. Thereafter, the researcher returned to the schools on the scheduled dates for data collection. The names of teachers and pupils who participated in the study were kept confidential.

After data collection, coded and questionnaire data was analysed quantitatively. In adherence to ethical guidelines, all names, whether school names or persons' names, were replaced with pseudonyms during data coding, analysis and reporting in order to secure the anonymity of the participating persons and institutions.

3.10. Summary

This chapter has explained the methodology of the research. It has emphasized the research design, the population, sample size and sampling techniques, data collection instruments and data collection procedures, and data analysis. The chapter has also outlined the ethical issues observed during the research. The next chapter presents the findings of the study.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents findings of study. The purpose of this study was to examine the extent of the mismatch between familiar and language of instruction among pupils and how it affects reading comprehension in selected primary schools in Lusaka District. Research findings are presented according to the research objectives of the study.

The results are presented under the four broad categories: Differences in reading and listening in Cinyanja and English skills, descriptives means and standard deviations, bivariate correlations of the main variables, discriminant analyses and regression analyses. The first section of the presentation of the results deals with the language profiles in class and schools. This was done in order to reduce on the bulkiness of the variables in order to create clusters of variables called components. After performing the dimension reduction analysis, there were four academic variables in total, two of which based on reading comprehension and two on listening comprehension.

4.2 Profiles of Language Diversity in Sampled Schools and Classrooms of Lusaka District.

Objective one of this study was to compile the language profiles of study primary schools in sampled schools with a focus on individual classrooms and pupils, this was done for two reasons: (i) Mindful that the research on language policy in Zambia proposes that urban communities are far more multilingual than peri-urban area, a linguistic profile of pupils, schools was necessary to see how multilingual they are in practice. (ii) Such language diversity profiles will help us to understand the extent to which the practice or disregard of familiar language education in various types of schools in Lusaka is informed by the nature of the multilingualism found in them. A related aspect is the proficiency of pupils in their various languages. Pupils were asked to rate this proficiency, and these results are also presented in this chapter. As explained in the previous chapter, there were three study schools in Lusaka district. All three of these were government schools (Lus-1 is located in low density area, Lus-2, located in the peri-urban area and Lus-3 located in the medium densely populated residential area). The following tables show the

languages spoken in these schools together with the number of pupils for each language in different classrooms. In terms of class language, Table 1 below shows the distribution of the respondents who participated in the study from all the schools located in low density areas, peri- urban and schools located in high density areas. The results shows that pupils in school a peri-urban or outskirt of the district use more of Cinyanja in class than the school located in a low densely populated residential area and interestingly, the school located in the medium densely populated residential area recorded 56 pupils (59.6 %) using Cinyanja and 24; (16.4%) using English language.

On the other hand, pupils in the school situated in the low densely populated residential area recorded 60; (41.1%) of leaners using English language in contrast to 20; (21.3%) pupils using Zambian languages in class. Sixty two (62) pupils represented by 42.5% in the densely populated school use English as a class language while the other 18; (19.1%) of the pupils use Zambian language. The total users of English language in classes for all the three schools is 146; (60.8%) while the total representation of pupils who used Cinyanja was 94; (39.2%). These results suggest language diversity in primary schools of Lusaka District.

Table 1: Languages Spoken by Pupils in Sampled Classes of Lusaka District

	School			
	Lus 1	**Lus 2**	**Lus 3**	**Total**
English	60 (41.1%)	24(16.4%)	62(16.4%)	146(60.8%)
Cinyanja	20(21.3%)	56(59.6%)	18(19.1%)	94(39.2%)
Total	**80(33.3%)**	**80(33.3%)**	**80(33.3%)**	**240(100%)**

Note: Lus 1= the school in low densely populated residential area, Lus 2 = the peri-urban school and Lus 3 = the school in a medium densely populated area.

In addition, it was observed that the preference of language of use by pupils in class in the three schools varied and reviewed that 20; (21.3%) pupils in the school located in the low densely populated zone preferred Cinyanja while only 60; (41.1) pupils favoured English. In the peri- urban school, 24; (16.4%) pupils indicated English while 56; (59.6 %) pupils alleged that Cinyanja was their language of communication in class. Pupils in the school located in a medium densely

populated residential area indicated that 62; (42.5%) used English and 18; (19.1%) of pupils used Cinyanja in class. The overall number of pupils who use English as a language of communication in class was 92; (38.3%) and Cinyanja was submitted by 94; (39.2%) pupils.

A Cross-tabulations was used to examine any differences in the results between groups of interest in this case which are the schools. The percentages in the distribution of languages spoken in class for the three schools were as follows: the low densely populated area school had 41.1% of its pupils who used English language in class while the 21.3% used Cinyanja. On the other hand, school Lus2 had 16.4% using English language as the other 59.6% used Cinyanja as their class language. School Lus3 reported 42.5% of English speakers in class and 19.1% Cinyanja speakers. The results suggests that the school located in a low densely populated area had the highest number of pupils using English in class while the school located in a peri-urban area had the highest number of pupils using Cinyanja in class. The chi- square test between child's language and class language was statistically significant, x^2 (2, N=240) = 48.336, P<.0.1.

4.2.1. Language Demographics of the Pupils in the Sampled Schools: Proportions of Language Distribution by Ethnicity

Acknowledging that in many Zambian communities, it is possible for children to grow up with multiple languages which can all be regarded as their L1, a record of linguistic profiles of pupils was called for. Figure 2 tabulates the child's language in the three schools which were under study. Language one (1) is English, two (2) is Cinyanja, three (3) is IciBemba, four (4) represents Chitonga, five (5) is Silozi, six (6) Lunda, seven (7) Luvale and eight (8) represents other Zambian Languages. The results as expected reveals that the school situated in the low densely populated residential area and the school located in a medium densely populated areas had the highest number of pupils using English Language as represented by the numbers 39 and 41 respectively. These results might be as a result of their location as most pupils came from high class residential area. On the other hand the peri-urban school recorded a small number of pupils using English language in class. This illustration is as a result of its location in the rural peri-urban of the district and pupils came from a low socially and economical homes. Figure 2 presents a summary of language distribution of pupils in sampled schools.

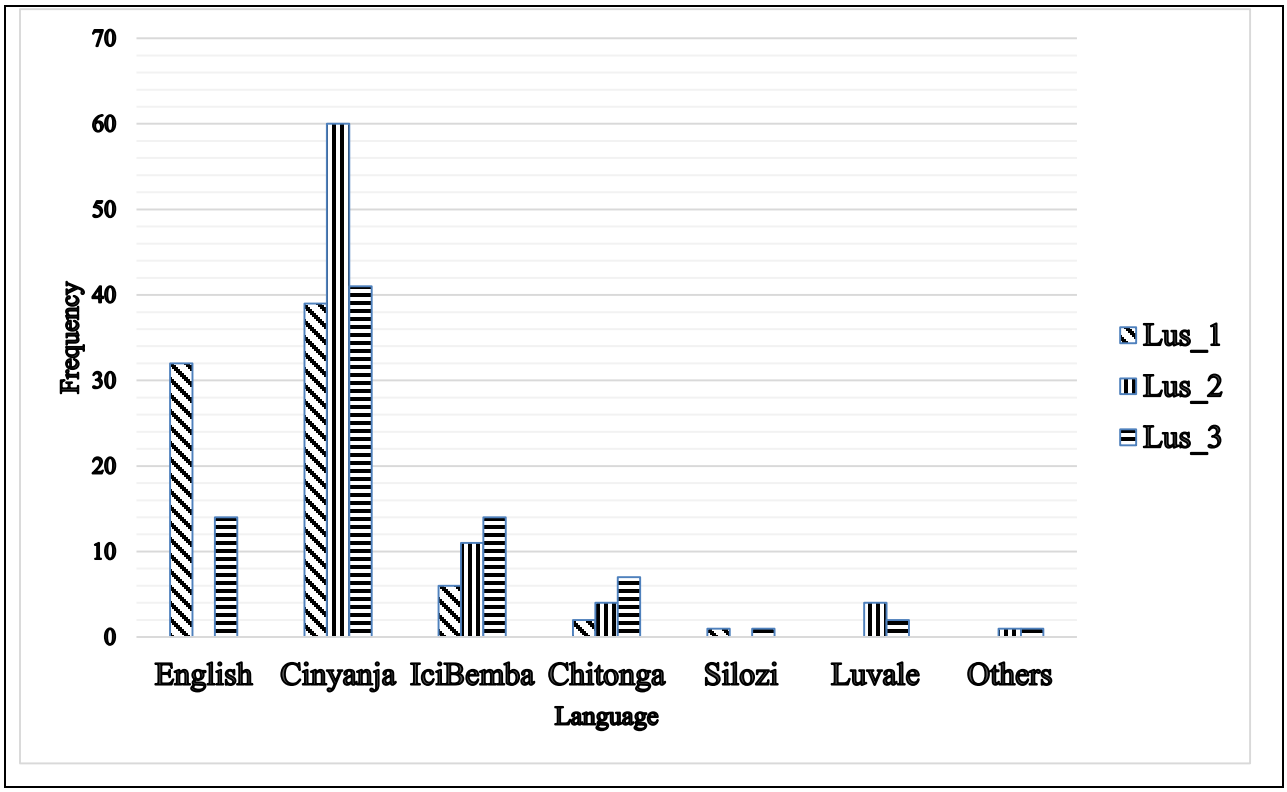

Figure 2: Language demographics of the pupils in the sampled schools: Proportions of language distribution by ethnicity

This justifies the reason why the peri-urban School had the highest number of Zambian language speakers in classes above the school located in a low densely populated residential area and the school situated in a medium densely populated area. The statistics for child language were as follows: the total number of pupils who claimed to speak English language for all the schools was 46 ,Cinyanja 140, Icibemba 31, Chitonga 13, Silozi two (2), Luvale six (6) and other Zambian languages recorded two (2) pupils. Surprisingly, the school in the peri- urban area had no child who claimed to have had used English as home language. Cinyanja appeared to be the most dominant language of all the languages presented in the results, seconded by Icibemba. Almost all the regional languages of Zambia have appeared on the language profile of pupils' language in schools under study of Lusaka district, giving the impression of multilingualism of pupils. In order to understand this language pattern in the profile very well, the study simultaneously probed the background language for the participants under study and recorded that the collective numbers for child mother's language was English 27, Cinyanja 128, IciBemba 36,Chitonga 19, Silozi four (4),

Luvale 14 and other Zambian Languages two (2). Interestingly, the Childs' father language margin for figures were not so much apart from the child mothers' language as the overall numbers for fathers' language indicated; English 21, Cinyanja 113, IciBemba 42,Chitonga 14, Silozi seven (7), Luvale 18 and other Zambian Languages recorded eight (8).

4.3. The Extent of Influence of Language Familiarity (Community and Instructional Language) and How they Affect Reading and Listening Comprehension

The results for the independent variables, reading comprehension in English *(M=5.25, SD=4.35*), Reading comprehension in Cinyanja *(M=2.72, SD= 2.96),* were statistically significant (t (*239*) = *-9.655, p < .001*). Additionally, Listening comprehension in English *(M= 6.51, SD= 3.26),* Listening comprehension in Cinyanja *(M= 2.72, SD=2.92),* (t (*239*) = *-7.941, p < .001*). Results of the Pearson correlation indicated that there was a significant positive association between reading comprehension in Cinyanja and reading comprehension in English r (*240*) = *.43, p<. 001)* and moderately negatively correlated between listening comprehension in Cinyanja and Listening comprehension in English *r* (*240*) = *.35, p < .001*). Table 2 shows descriptive statistics.

Table 2: Descriptive Statistics: Means, SD's, and Correlations

	MEAN	**SD**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Listening Comprehension_Cinyanja	4.72	2.84	1			
Reading Comprehension_Cinyanja	2.72	2.96	**.44****	1		
Listening Comprehension English	6.51	3.26	.35**	.23**	1	
Reading Comprehension English	5.25	4.33	.29**	**.43****	**.67****	1

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Results of the Spearman correlation further showed that there was a significant positive association between reading comprehension in Cinyanja and reading comprehension in English other than listening comprehension in Cinyanja with Listening comprehension in English. In addition, results of the independent sample t-tests specified that there were significant differences in Reading comprehension between Cinyanja and English. Furthermore, results of the dependent (paired)

sample t-tests indicated that there were similarly significant differences in performance results between listening comprehension in Cinyanja and Listening comprehension in English. These results suggests that if a child is unfamiliar with Listening comprehension in Cinyanja, the reading comprehension will definitely be affected too, hence the low performance in reading. This suggestion has been illustrated by the moderately high correlation figure between the two components. The results for this study further reveals the overall effect of familiarity of language listening comprehension on reading by the minimal margin of mean difference between reading and listening comprehension in English and a significantly high correlation.

4.4. The Extent of the Effect of a Child's Socio-Economic Status (SES) as Defined by Schools Attended on Listening and Reading Comprehension

The study also sought to identify the factors experienced by primary school pupils which affect reading comprehension based on the socio-economic status, school attended and location and language used at home. Based on the cross tabulation results, 50% of the participants came from densely populated low socio-economic communities. A small number in pupils using English language in class as it was located in the peri-urban of the district and pupils came from a low socially and economical homes and it had the highest number of Zambian language speakers in classes above the school located in a low densely populated area and the school in the medium densely populated community.

A 3X2 multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the effects of a child's socio-economic status defined by schools attended on reading and listening comprehension. According to descriptive statistics, the school situated in a low densely populated area recorded (M = 4.99, SD= 3.20) the peri-urban school (M = 4.43, SD = 2.75), and the school in a medium densely populated community recorded *(*M = 4.75, SD = 2.54), p = *>05*. There was no significant mean difference in Reading comprehension in Cinyanja in all the three school. it was interesting to discover that there was a significant difference in mean difference examined in listening comprehension in Cinyanja between the school in a low densely populated area (M =8.25, SD = 2.31), and the peri-urban school *(*M =3.96, SD = 2.86), p = < 05 and no significant mean difference in the school located in a medium densely populated area. Similarly, there was barely a significant difference between the school in a low densely populated area and the school in a

medium densely populated community, $p = .074$. There was a statistically significant difference in reading and listening comprehension performance based on a pupil's present school, F (4, 112) = 13.74, $p < .0005$; Wilk's $\Lambda = 0.450$, partial $\eta^2 = .33$. Table 3 shows descriptive statistics for performance in comprehension based on the school type and location.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics for Performance in Comprehension Based on the School Type and Location.

School ID	LC_NY		RC_NY		LC_ENG		RC_ENG	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Lus_1	4.99	3.20	3.06	2.99	8.25	2.31	7.73	3.30
Lus_2	4.43	2.75	2.16	2.74	3.96	2.86	2.14	3.06
Lus_3	4.75	2.54	2.93	3.10	7.31	2.90	5.88	4.49
Total	4.72	2.84	2.72	2.96	6.51	3.26	5.25	4.33

Table 3: shows MANOVA results summary to determine how a child's socio-economic status (SES) as defined by schools attended determines listening and reading comprehension. Results demonstrated non-statistically significant mean differences, F (1,238) = 1.897, $p = .170$, an indication of a non-significant effect of socio-economic status of pupils on the observed mean differences in reading and listening comprehension in Cinyanja performance.

A significant mean difference was recorded in reading comprehension in English between the school in a low densely populated area (M = 7.73, SD =3.30) and the peri-urban school (M =2.14, SD = 3.06), $p = < .05$. A significant mean difference was additionally noted in reading comprehension in English between school in a low densely populated area and the school in a medium densely populated community (M =5.88, SD =4.49), $p = < .05$. Similarly to listening comprehension, the results illustrate a significant difference in reading comprehension in English between the peri-urban school and school in a medium densely populated community , $p = < .05$. The MANOVA test illustrates evident that pupils from schools which was located further in the

outskirt of the district used more of Zambian languages both in class and at home than those within the central business district.

A Multiple Linear Regression Analysis was carried out to evaluate the predictive influence of the variables on Performance in reading and listening comprehension, that is, analysis on reading comprehension in Cinyanja, Listening comprehension in Cinyanja, Reading comprehension in English and Listening comprehension in English. Reading comprehension data sets; Age, school location and home language were the variables used to predict reading and listening comprehension performance variance. Table 4 illustrates both unstandardized and standardized regression coefficients of the predictors of reading and listening comprehension.

The general regression model was statistically significant in all the four data sets: reading comprehension in Cinyanja, F(3,231) = 1.188, p = .307, Listening comprehension in Cinyanja, F(3,231) = .919, p = .501, Reading comprehension in English, F(3,236) = 19.455, p < .05, and Listening comprehension in English , F(3,236) = 27.389, p < .05; with the three variables explaining about 16% (R2 = .040), 0.96% (R2 = .031), 49% (R2 = .221), 67% (R2 = .258) of the performance variances respectively. The regression results shows that Pupils' age had a significant impact on performance in reading comprehension in both languages but was a factor only in listening comprehension in English language p=<.002, and not in listening comprehension in Cinyanja p= >.05.

Age, school location and language spoken at home had statistically significant effect on Listening comprehension in English performance and listening comprehension in Cinyanja, refereeing by the respective largest and smallest proportions of variance accounted for R2. Results indicated that pupils' age had a statistically significant influence on performance in the reading and listening comprehension in English models only, with β = .205, t (-3.078) = -.664, p < .05 and β = -.187, t (-2.367) = -.635, p < .05 respectively. However, the beta coefficient was greater for, Reading comprehension in English than for Listening comprehension in English. Language spoken at home had no statistically significant influence on reading and listening comprehension performance for all the four variables (p > .05). On the other hand, school location had no influence in all the four reading and listening skills.

Table 4: Multiple Regression Results Summary: Unstandardized and standardized Beta Weights

Model		B	.β	P
RC_NY				
	Age	-.339	-.146	.031
	School location	.111	.031	.649
	Home language	.013	.007	.932
LC_NY				
	Age	-.078	-.035	.603
	School location	-.019	-.006	.935
	Home language	.014	.008	.923
RC_ENG				
	Age	-.366	-.1.43	.015
	School location	-.227	-.057	.331
	Home language	.102	.049	.470
LC_ENG				
	Age	-.635	-.187	.002
	School location	-.580	-.109	.073
	Home language	.274	.099	.161

Note. The dependent variable was performance in Comprehension. R2 = .040, .031, .221 and .258; Adjusted R2 = .006, -.003, .194 and .249, Reading comprehension in Cinyanja, listening comprehension in Cinyanja , Reading comprehension in English and Listening comprehension in English respectively.

4.5. Language Spoken at Home as a Determinant of Reading and Listening Comprehension Skills among Pupils in Grade Five in Sampled Primary Schools

While the general depiction of the effect of language familiarity was presented under the heading 4.3, these results illustrate the specific trajectories home language affects reading and listening comprehension. Post hoc comparisons to evaluate pairwise differences among group means were conducted with the use of Tukey HSD test since equal variances were not tenable. Tests revealed

significant pairwise differences between the mean scores of pupils who come from families who claimed to speak Cinyanja language at home LC-NY; (*M*= 4.57), RC-NY; (*M* = 2.53), LC-ENG; (M = 6.00); RC-ENG; *(M* = 4.55) and those who claimed to speak English language, LC-NY; (M = 5.35); RC-NY; (M = 3.52); LC-ENG; (M = 8.65); RC-ENG; (M= 8.17).

A post hoc Tukey test showed that the groups differed significantly; Listening comprehension in Cinyanja illustrated non-significant *p= .455;* reading comprehension in Cinyanja non-significant *p = .1.17*; Listening comprehension in English was statistically significant *p = < .05,* reading comprehension in English group presented significantly significant *p = < .05.*

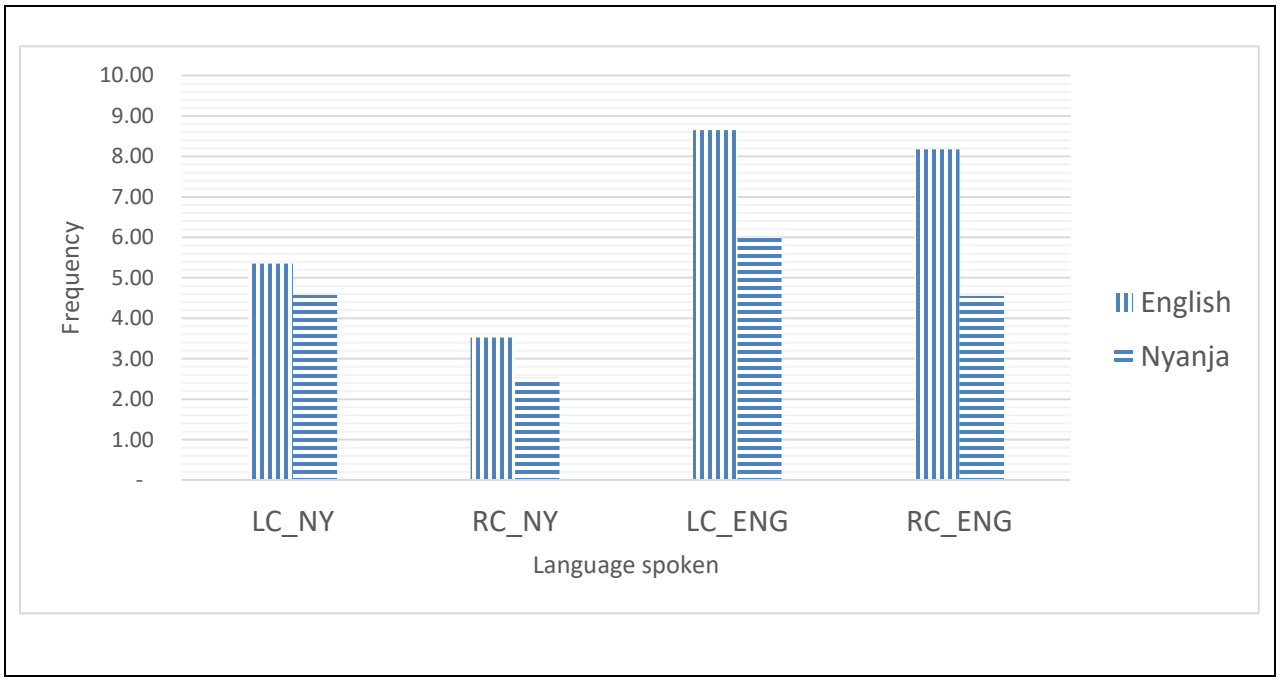

Figure 3: Language spoken at home and performance in comprehension

The majority (58.3%) of the pupils alleged that they used Cinyanja in their homes. Those that alleged that the language spoken at home was English was 19.2 percent and those who indicated that they used other languages were representing 22.4 percent of the total population of the pupils.

As to whether the language spoken at home was same as the one at school, the study revealed that 42 percent of the pupils showed that the language spoken in their homes was the same as the one used at school for instruction, while 58 percent indicated that the language of instruction was different from the language they spoke at home. For more than three out of every five pupils in

Grade five, the language spoken in the home is a local language, that is, it ties with the official language of instruction previously used in the school from Grade one to Grade four.

The above results would have been necessitated by a mismatch between the languages spoken at home, the inability to have access to material especially books written in Cinyanja and preference of school language of instruction by parents. For most children, movement from one region to another due to their parents being transferred or other factors may have contributed to poor performance in the Target language (Cinyanja).

Furthermore, a Multiple Linear Regression was run to evaluate the contribution of variables to performance. Reading comprehension, mother's language, Childs' language, and home language were used to explain the performance variance. Table 5 below shows both unstandardized and standardised beta weights of the contributors of reading comprehension. Overall, the regression model was statistically significant, $F(3,236) = 9.756$, $p < 0.01$. With the four variables accounting for about 12.1% ($R2 = .110$ and Adjusted $R2 = .099$) of the performance in reading comprehension in English language variance.

Mostly, results revealed that reading comprehension ($\beta = -.230$), home language ($\beta = -.352$) made statistically significantly ($\rho < .05$) contributions to pupils' performance in reading comprehension in English language. In contrast, child language was not statistically significant as a contributing factor which would result into the mismatch between familiar language and language of instruction ($\rho > .05$). However, the contribution of home language was smaller than child's language and mother's language as illustrated by the comparison of the beta coefficients.

The results of this study suggests that Pupils from homes where English and local language are used have a clear advantage in performance in both English and Cinyanja. Pupils from homes which used Cinyanja only on the other side obtained lowest scores in English and Cinyanja. The low scores by pupils from Cinyanja speaking homes may suggest that these pupils are not benefiting from the local language use in school as a medium of instruction. The higher scores of those from homes which use both English and local language may be due to the fact that, in such homes, the home language situation is very similar to that of the school, with great flexibility and versatility in moving from one language to the other, and in intermingling the languages, in both home and school.

Table 5: Multiple Linear Regression Results: Unstandardized and Standardised Beta Weights

Model	B	β	P
Mother's language	0.50	.018	.791
Child's language	.127	.036	.641
Home language	-3.865	-.352	.000
Reading comprehension	-.2.524	-.230	.000

Note. The dependent Variable was Performance of Pupils in Reading Comprehension. R2 = .110 and Adjusted R2 = .099. B = Unstandardized Beta Coefficient and β = Standardized Beta Coefficient

Analysis of results revealed that majority of the pupils reported claiming to use English at home did better in reading comprehension both in English and Cinyanja as well as listening comprehension in English but not in listening comprehension in Cinyanja. It was evident from the findings that There are striking differences among children in patterns pupils from schools which was located further in the peri-urban of the district used more of Zambian languages both in class and at home than those within the district. In general, the difference in mean score performance for listening comprehension in both English and Cinyanja with respect to location were statistically significant *p. <.05*

4.6. Summary

The results from cross-tabulation and Chi-Square, ANOVA and Multiple Linear Regression Analysis have given insights into how the mismatch between familiar and language of instruction affect reading comprehension. The results as expected for Language Demographics of the Pupils in the Sampled Schools, proportions of language distribution by ethnicity reveals that the school located in the low densely populated residence and the school located in the medium densely

populated area had the highest number in learner using English Language because of their location as most pupils came from high class residential area.

On the other hand the school situated in the peri-urban of the district recorded a small number in pupils using English language but had the highest number of Zambian language speakers in class in class as its pupils came from a low socio-economical homes. Post hoc comparisons to evaluate pairwise differences among group means tests revealed significant pairwise differences between the mean scores of pupils who come from families who speak English language at home and those who speak Zambian languages, reading comprehension in Cinyanja and listening comprehension in Cinyanja were not statistically significant, while Listening comprehension in English and reading comprehension in English were statistically significant, $p < .05$. Finally, results revealed that geographical location of the school and home language contributed to performance in reading comprehension.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the results of the study and results are presented according the research objectives and other questions that arose in the process of analyzing data and literature review. This study desired to achieve the following: (i)To determine profiles of language diversity in schools, classrooms and individual pupils and to obtain a sense of the extent and nature of multilingualism types of schools in Lusaka, (ii) determine the influence of language familiarity (home and instructional Language) how it affects reading and listening Comprehension and (iii)to determine the extent of how a child's socio-economic status (SES) as defined by schools attended is determined by reading and listening comprehension, (iv) to establish how language spoken at home determines reading and listening comprehension skills in both English and Cinyanja among pupils in Grade five pupils in primary schools. Thus, the discussion is divided into four sections. The first section covers a discussion on results from cross-tabulation and chi square, while the second section covers discussion on results based on the one-way ANOVA and MANOVA. The third and fourth sections cover a discussion on results from correlation and multiple linear regression Analyses.

5.2. Profiles of Language Diversity in Sampled Schools, Classrooms and Individual Pupils in Lusaka District.

The overall finding suggests that the school located in a low densely populated area had the highest number of pupils using English in class while the school located in a peri-urban area had the highest number of pupils using Cinyanja in class. The chi- square test between child's language and class language was statistically significant, x^2 (2, N=240) = 48.336, P<.0.1. In addition, it was observed that the preference of language of use by pupils in class in the three schools varied and reviewed that a considerably small number of pupils in the school located in the low densely populated area preferred Cinyanja while the majority of pupils favoured English. In the peri- urban school, a minority of pupils indicated English as their preferred language in class while the majority of pupils alleged that Cinyanja was their language of communication in class. Pupils in

the school located in a medium densely populated residential area indicated that above 60 percent of the number used English and less than 20 percent of pupils used Cinyanja in class. The overall number of pupils who use English as a language of communication in class was below 40 percent and Cinyanja was submitted by approximately 40 percent pupils.

Cognizant that research on language policy in Zambia suggests that urban communities are far more multilingual than peri-urban area, this study was to compile the language profiles schools in Lusaka District with a focus on individual classrooms and pupils as its first objective. A linguistic profile of pupils, and schools was necessary to see how multilingual they are in practice. The significance of this undertaking lies in providing a guideline for language teachers on how to ascertain the linguistic profile of their pupils and thus reflectively adapt their teaching to their particular classroom context. The implications for policy may be heeded by the national education authorities as there is a mismatch between the skills of pupils and what the policy documents expect pupils are capable of doing.

Further research could be conducted by drafting a standardized test which determines the linguistic profile in order to align policy documents with classroom reality, and to encourage language teachers to focus on the linguistic strengths and weaknesses of the pupils enrolled at schools where English or Cinyanja is the medium of instruction. Such language diversity profiles will help us to understand the extent to which the practice or disregard of familiar language education in various types of schools in Lusaka is informed by the nature of the multilingualism found in them. A related aspect is the proficiency of pupils in their various languages. Pupils were asked to rate this proficiency, and these results are also presented in the previous chapter.

In this case, the language profile devised by this study provides valuable information as there are quite a few sources of information for documenting educational language issues and planning for change. International indices of linguistic diversity (Greenberg 1956; Harmon & Loh 2010) are used by the Ethnologue (Lewis et al 2016) to quantify linguistic diversity over time and by country; these have been used by UNESCO (2009) to discuss cultural diversity, and could be cross-referenced with factors like poverty and language policy to reach conclusions about the degree to which educational systems are addressing the needs of their pupils. Ethnologue is the most authoritative source of data on the world's living languages, which are represented by country and across national borders, using the ISO 639-3 criteria for defining languages in relation to varieties

or dialects. All users should be aware that language classification can be misused to deny people the right to use their own speech varieties, or it can be extremely helpful in identifying local standards in preparation for educational use.

Useful data from national sources include census results, but it is important to look into how questions have been asked so that appropriate linguistic and cultural data are gathered for educational planning, especially with regard to the most socially marginalized groups. Data collected at the regional or local levels, while small-scale, may prove to be more accurate. For example, it is likely that community leaders know which language(s) are spoken by community members. Spoken, read and written, and how well, in a given region, district or community school "catchment" area, and further, what people's attitudes and practices are concerning these languages.

The Ethnologue (Lewis et al 2016) often provides relatively detailed information about which languages are spoken predominantly in which regions. In homogeneous peri-urban area the L1 question tends to be quite easily answered. This does not mean that questions should not be asked, for example on a national census or demographic survey, but care is needed to select appropriate questions and train those who will ask them.

In the case of linguistically heterogeneous regions, the question of which language(s) would meet the educational needs of pupils is more acute. Specialists warn that even if data on languages are collected, questions should be developed that distinguish language from ethnicity, language ability from language use, and oracy from literacy; further, they warn that census samples may not reach non-dominant groups, and governments may inflate ability in dominant languages for political reasons (Baker & Prys Jones 1998). More accurate information might be available through university sociologists, anthropologists and/or linguists, especially those whose studies define regional language varieties and differentiate them from neighboring varieties.

The presence of multiple languages in one school catchment area should not be grounds for ignoring the language of instruction issue; rather, creative solutions should be sought such as organizing classrooms by language rather than by age or grade level (Kosonen 2006), grouping pupils for L1 reading lessons while teaching other subjects bi- or multilingually, or using community members as classroom aides. The linguistic proximity between these languages is also

a factor, as it may be possible for teachers to use one "standard" but make oral adaptations to include all pupils.

Comparable to Banda (2012), the third school was an urban school in Lusaka located in a midium densely populated community. Most of the pupils at this school are from the neighbouring shanty townships where several Zambian languages are spoken though Cinyanja is still the lingua franca and official Zambian language for the region. Notable languages spoken by many pupils in this school once they are home with parents are Cinyanja, Bemba, Tonga, Soli, Lenje, Lozi, Kaonde and many other Zambian languages. This goes to show that although Cinyanja is the language of play and used as the medium of instruction for initial literacy, it is not the mother tongue of many of the children.

Language profiling is a strategy that can be used to determine the languages spoken in a given area or even throughout a school system. One example is the Primary Classroom Language Mapping project implemented in Lao Cai province of Vietnam by the provincial and national Ministry of Education and Training, UNICEF and SIL International (UNICEF 2012). Information was collected from primary pupils and teachers about their language proficiency and academic performance, which was then used to identify homogeneous school sites where L1-based MLE could be implemented, teachers who could teach bilingually, and schools where the needs were particularly great.

5.2.1. Language Demographics of the Pupils in the Sampled Schools: Proportions of Language Distribution by Ethnicity

In many African communities, it is possible for children to grow up with numerous languages which can all be regarded as their L1, a record of linguistic profiles of pupils was called for. The prior chapter tabulates the child's language in the three schools which were under study. Language one (1) is English, two (2) is Cinyanja, three (3) is IciBemba, four (4) represents Chitonga, five (5) Silozi, six (6) Lunda , seven (7) Luvale and eight (8) represents other Zambian Languages.

The results as expected reveals that the school located in a low densely populated area and the school situated in a medium densely populated community had the highest number in learner using English Language because of their location as most pupils came from high class residential areas. In many post-colonial contexts, particularly in multilingual African countries, the distinction

between official (European) and national (African) languages "ironically highlight the social distance between the elite and the masses (Alexander 2007: 5).

On the other hand the school in the peri-urban of the District recorded a small number in pupils using English language in class as it was located in the peri-urban of the district and pupils came from a low socially and economical homes. The peri-urban School had the highest number of Zambian language speakers in class above the school in the low densely populated community and the school located in the medium densely populated community. Surprisingly, the peri-urban (outskirt) school had no child who claimed to have had used English as home language.

Cinyanja seems to be the most dominant language of all the languages tabulated in the study seconded by Icibemba. Almost all the regional languages of Zambia have appeared on the language profile of pupils' language in schools under study of Lusaka District giving the impression of multilingualism of pupils. The impression of multilingualism among pupils is not very different from mother and father language in their homes. This means that children who came from homes were Cinyanja was spoken also received some kind of support from significant others in the home especially homework in Cinyanja.

As educators struggle to improve schooling for pupils, they have paid considerable attention to the mismatch between the language and the culture of the home and that of the school (Philips 1983: Heath 1982; Mohati & Erickson 1981). Recent ethnographic studies have brought into sharp focus just how important it is to the nature of interactions both between homes and schools. Heath demonstrated nonmainstream pupils' academic progress can be hindered by the difference in the ways language is used and questions are posed in homes and schools.

What is less clearly understood is what role pupils play in the process as they negotiate their identity, especially in relation to language, in the context of home and school and how pupils mediate the difference between the two environments. More especially it is important to understand how pupils' self-perceptions affect their language proficiency and their ability to extend and broaden their language use. It is evident that a complex array of factors impinges upon pupils' choice and performance in their academic work and social interaction as well. According to Halliday (1975), as pupils acquire language they "learn to mean" within the context of their community. As children mature, they develop a sense of themselves within the context of their

language and culture. Pupils who come from homes where a language other than English is spoken must struggle not only with the difficulties of learning a second language, but also with all of the affective dilemmas posed by becoming acquainted with and pressured to adopt the values and customs of another culture.

When linguistically different pupils leave home and enter school, they are not only entering a new environment, they must also learn to negotiate new reality. Very quickly they learn what is, and is not, rewarded in the larger society. Equipped with this knowledge, they make choices about how to function both in and out of school. These decisions are likely to impact their possibilities for both language development and academic achievement. As observed in this study, that most pupil's first language did not match with the language of instruction at school which in turn contributed to their low scores in both reading and listening comprehension.

5.3. The Extent of Influence of Language Familiarity (Community and Language of Instruction) and its Effect on Reading and Listening Comprehension

A one way analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the null hypothesis to probe the mismatch between familiar and language of instruction among leaners in primary school and how it affected reading comprehension the sample size consisted 240 participants. Out of the independent variable, reading comprehension in English had the highest Standard Deviation, Reading comprehension in Cinyanja had the equal Mean as LC in Cinyanja while Listening comprehension in English recorded the highest mean, and Listening comprehension in Cinyanja recorded a lowest mean of all the variables. These results suggest that pupils were not familiar with the language in which they practice reading as is indicated by their preference for words from 'town Nyanja' and their own classification. The Cinyanja spoken on the street and at home in Lusaka is inconsistent with the 'standard Cinyanja' in the reading method. According to pupils, they preferred 'town Cinyanja' to 'standard Cinyanja'. They scored somewhat higher on the listening and reading test in English, in line with the hypothesis that the local language spoken in Lusaka in the homes and on the street has no similarity with the Nyanja used for teaching basic reading skills.

Comprehension skills are necessary to understand both written and spoken language (Burgoyne, Kelly, Whiteley, & Spooner, 2009). If a reader is unable to comprehend the text read, he or she

will miss the information. Habibian and Roslan (2014) argued that lack of reading comprehension skill leads to the failure in understanding information and ultimately result in poor academic performance. This is because comprehension is an interrelated skill involving a number of processes at several different levels. Consequently difficulties in any one of several component skills may contribute to comprehension failure (August, Francis, Hsu, & Snow, 2006; Cain & Oakhill, 2006a). Assessing comprehension of both written and spoken text may therefore identify whether comprehension difficulties reflect a general language comprehension problem, or difficulties related to specific comprehension skills (Cain & Oakhill, 2006b). Difficulties with comprehension require specific and targeted support (Burgoyne, Kelly, Whiteley & Spooner, 2009). Therefore, students' specific comprehensions need to be assessed and identified before any teaching and learning process takes place because according to Widdowson (1990) learners do not easily infer knowledge of the language from the input they receive without the English teacher's awareness and also of their own; hence an effort to attract students' attention to the linguistic forms by identifying their strengths and weaknesses is necessary in language learning and therefore becomes the focus in this present stud

The tests employed in reading comprehension in Cinyanja observed the problems that pupils had in answering questions in the Zambian language were not very different from those pupils had in the English test. The major weakness that pupils had exhibited is this study just like in other studies over the years was a serious inability to read with understanding. Pupils in the 2008 Ministry of education National survey exhibited the same reading problems as the ones in this study and other previous surveys. Post hoc comparisons to evaluate pairwise differences among group means revealed significant pairwise differences between the mean scores of pupils who come from families who speak English language at home and those who speak Zambian languages, reading comprehension in Cinyanja and listening comprehension in Cinyanja were statistically significant, listening comprehension in English was not statistically significant whereas reading comprehension in English was not also statistically substantial.

These revelations of the results according the SVR which on the other side has drawn particular attention to poor readers with the second type of reading problem (Cain & Oakhill, 1999; Nation, Cocksey, Taylor, & Bishop, 2010). This group is more often referred to as poor comprehenders or children with a specific comprehension deficit rather than Gough and Tunmer's original

designation of hyperlexic. These children have poor reading comprehension but adequate or better decoding. The SVR assumes that these children have a primary problem in language comprehension. Indeed, research has shown that poor comprehenders have oral language deficits (Catts, Adlof, & Weismer, 2006; Nation et al., 2010). However, poor comprehenders' problems go beyond oral language and include difficulties in working memory, inferencing, and world knowledge (Cain, 2006; Cain & Oakhill, 1999; Compton, Miller, Gilbert, & Steacy, 2013).

The present research rejects Tambulukani and Buss' (2011) the hypothesis that a better fit between children's most familiar Zambian language and the Zambian language in which basic reading skills are practiced leads to better reading skills in the Zambian language. The results showed that the new language-medium policy in Zambia falls short of expectations. Not only is progress in the reading of English rather weak but progress in reading of a local language is as well. The majority's reading ability does not enable them to comprehend simple written sentences in a Zambian language even though they have been exposed to 18 months of reading instruction. The Anova was significant evidence to agree with the null hypothesis and conclude there is a significant difference between familiar and language of instruction among pupils and it affect reading comprehension.

Generally, the findings of this study support the idea that the language designated as the official language in a district may not dominate in the homes and on the street. The current findings are in line with Tambulukani (2015) but contradict the assumption that Zambian children easily switch from a community language to the official local Zambian language that is used for instruction. Even though there is some commonality between pupils' vocabularies and the language of instruction in most Lusaka District schools, children experience serious problems with reading as the low scores of pupils on the reading comprehension in Cinyanja tests indicated.

This research further disputes the suggestion by Kashoki (1990) that an Extension of the period in which reading was to be practiced in the Zambian language with two to four years, as occurs in some neighboring countries, has not improved the success rate of the Zambian language-medium policy because even after receiving instructions in Cinyanja for years, children have not had a chance to become familiar with the Zambian language of instruction, however so far there is no empirical evidence that a longer period guarantees greater success for the local language-medium policy. Not only is progress in the reading of English rather weak but progress in reading of a local

language is as well. The majority's reading ability does not enable them to comprehend simple written sentences in a Zambian language even though they have been exposed to four (4) years of reading instruction.

In the pursuit of ways to improve reading instruction in multilingual countries such as Zambia, it is attractive to entirely blame learning to read in a language that differs from what constitutes the home and playground language of the pupils as the major cause of a low success rate in learning to read. The present research confirms that reading proficiency is substantially improved when there is a close fit between the pupils' home language and an indigenous language serving as a medium of instruction. We may therefore expect that a large number of the 1.25 billion people all over the world who live in a complex multilingual environment run a greater risk of not being able to take optimal advantage of reading instruction.

Simultaneously, the current findings show that there is no easy solution as many Zambian primary school children are not in a position to benefit educationally from the local language-medium policy as currently implemented (Akinnaso, 1994). Despite the language medium policy, most Zambian children are not instructed in their most familiar language. Extension of the period in which reading is practiced in the Zambian language suggested as one possible answer to the present deadlock because children then have more time to familiarize with the indigenous language that is used for instruction has not compensated either. In schools with an on average higher score on reading tests, the difference between low- and high achievers amounts to about 2.0 SD for reading in the Zambian language and in English whereas the differences are less dramatic slightly more than 3.2 SD when children are taught in an unfamiliar Zambian language. This indicates that, in particular after children have learned how to read words by applying letter-sound rules, familiarity with the language in which reading is practiced facilitates word reading and speeds up reading development (Evans et al. 2000; Se ´ne ´chal and LeFevre 2002; Storch and Whitehurst 2002).

The author anticipated, the local language-medium policy to be successful in densely populated communities but not in less densely populated communities and peri-urbans of Lusaka district. For the School located in the peri-urban of Lusaka, pupils were familiar with Cinyanja, the language of instruction: They preferred Cinyanja to English, when asked questions in English, most of them responded in Cinyanja. Pupils from the school situated in a low densely populated, on the other hand were not familiar with the language in which they practice reading as is indicated by their

preference for words from ‘town Nyanja’ and their own classification. The Nyanja spoken on the street and at home in Lusaka is inconsistent with the ‘standard Nyanja’ in the reading method. According to pupils, they preferred ‘town Nyanja’ to ‘standard Nyanja’.

There is evidence however that, in addition to the language issue, other facets of reading instruction explain delays in learning to read but a broader analysis that considers all facets concurrently has not yet been conducted. Especially these findings concerning low achievers suggest that apart from unfamiliarity with the language of instruction, the quality of decoding training and probably also the lack of language or listening comprehension as proposed by Gough and Tunmer(1986) may contribute substantially to pupils’ reading comprehension success rate.

Results of this study illustrates the low correlation coefficient in listening comprehension in English and Cinyanja, which in outlook of the simple view of reading should definitely give advantage in better performance in reading comprehension. The results further reveals the effect of familiarity of language listening comprehension on reading by the minimal margin of mean difference between reading and listening comprehension in English and a significantly high correlation. Interestingly, the results additionally demonstrate that pupils exhibited strength in listening comprehension but could not perform better in reading.

This would call for more research as it contradicts the Simple View of Reading (SVR) model proposed by researchers Gough and Tunmer in 1986 which places emphasis on the vitality of listening comprehension in reading. SVR further shows us that, while reading is a complex activity, it can be represented as two interdependent processes: Word recognition (decoding) and language comprehension. Word recognition is the ability to read and understand the words on a page, and language comprehension is the ability to make sense of the language we hear and the language we read. The SVR has drawn particular attention to poor readers with the second type of reading problem (Cain & Oakhill, 1999; Nation, Cocksey, Taylor, & Bishop, 2010). The SVR assumes that these children have a primary problem in language comprehension. Indeed, research has shown that poor comprehenders have oral language deficits (Catts, Adlof, & Weismer, 2006; Nation et al., 2010). However, poor comprehenders’ problems go beyond oral language and include difficulties in working memory, inferencing, and world knowledge (Cain, 2006; Cain & Oakhill, 1999; Compton, Miller, Gilbert, & Steacy, 2013). These factors, however, may still be

considered to be part of language comprehension, and variability in them may be partitioned into this component along with variability due to oral language.

On the other hand, Sticht and his colleagues have advanced the position that listening comprehension and reading comprehension are highly interrelated (Sticht, Beck, Hauke, Kleinman, & James, 1974). Their extensive review of the available studies led the relationship between listening and reading them to conclude that both listening and reading comprehension depend on the same general comprehension process. Therefore, after decoding skills have been mastered, performance on listening and reading comprehension tasks should be comparable. Moreover, listening comprehension level represents a potential for reading comprehension. Specifically, they have argued that listening comprehension skill facilitates the acquisition and predicts the level of skill that will be achieved in reading (Sticht et al., 1974; Sticht & James, 1984). Their position essentially represents a contrasting unitary process view, according to which the same comprehension process underlies both listening and reading (Sinatra, 1990).

In agreement to Tambulukani (2015) conclusions, this study observes that, reading in both English and Zambian language Lusaka children score higher when they read English comprehension as compared to Zambian Language (Cinyanja) comprehension. These results for Lusaka could point to the possibility that for Lusaka schools, English is a more familiar language to the children than the deep Nyanja used in NBTL although they are both second languages to these children because they have the other Nyanja that is most familiar to them. In agreement with Carlisle and Felbinger (1991), the current findings indicate that assessing both listening and reading comprehension levels with different types of text would provide a more detailed picture of pupils' capabilities and instructional needs. The extent to which listening level reflects reading potential is limited and dependent on age and the materials used.

5.4. The Extent of how a Child's Socio-Economic Status (SES) as Defined by Schools Attended Determine Listening and Reading Comprehension

The nature of the relationship between socioeconomic status (SES) and student achievement has been debated for decades, with the most influential arguments appearing in many studies. How SES influences student achievement is not clear, and there have been many theories to explain the relationship. In one scenario, school pupils from low-SES homes are at a disadvantage in schools

because they lack an academic home environment, which influences their academic success at school. Another scenario argues that school and neighbourhood environments influence academic success, so that low-SES schools are generally lower-performing, and that only extremely resilient young people can escape the 'fate' of low academic achievement. Just as pupils will have varied cultural backgrounds, speak many languages, and have different learning needs, so too will they come from various socioeconomic levels.

A family's socioeconomic level or status (SES) is defined by the income, education, and occupation of members of the household. A family's SES is typically categorized as either high, middle, or low. It is important for teachers to understand that a relationship exists between SES and educational outcomes, specifically. Pupils of parents with higher educational levels and professional careers have stronger language skills than do pupils whose parents have lower educational levels because their parents speak to them more using enhanced vocabulary, longer sentences, direct and open-ended questions, questions that enhances higher-order thinking skills, and more encouraging statements.

This study moreover sought to identify the factors experienced by primary school pupils which affect reading comprehension based on the socio-economic status using a regression test and it suggests strong, cumulative and empirical evidence that the family not only influences school preparedness but also performance. These differential effects on literacy achievement in early school years are closely tied to the quality and quantity of literacy-related experiences and language development in early childhood. To achieve this, the study investigated family factors such as family size, number of children attending school, languages spoken at home, parental support such as helping with homework and the frequency of reading habits for both children and parents. The study furthermore pursued to establish school factors that support reading fluency such as languages of instruction teachers used as well as the number of Cinyanja and English text books children possessed.

A Multiple Linear Regression Analysis evaluated the predictive influence of the variables on Performance in reading and listening comprehension, that is, analysis on reading comprehension in Cinyanja, Listening comprehension in Cinyanja, Reading comprehension in English and Listening comprehension in English. Reading comprehension data sets. Age, school location and home language were the variables used to predict reading and listening comprehension

performance variance. The regression results shows that Pupils' age had a significant impact on performance in reading comprehension in both languages but was a factor only in listening comprehension in English language, and not a factor in listening comprehension in Cinyanja.

Age, school location and home language had statistically significant effect on Listening comprehension in English performance and listening comprehension in Cinyanja, refereeing by the respective largest and smallest proportions of variance accounted for R2. Results indicated that pupils' age had a statistically significant influence on performance in the reading and listening comprehension in English models only. However, the beta coefficient was greater for, Reading comprehension in English than for Listening comprehension in English. Home language had no statistically significant influence on reading and listening comprehension performance for all the four variables. On the other hand, school location had no influence in all the four reading and listening skills.

It seems that school locations influence students' achievement. It is found that pupils in peri-urban area are placed less importance on specific areas of academic achievement skills. Peri-urban pupils display more hesitancy about graduating from lower primary and going on to upper primary; they place less importance on academics (including English) and homework assignments, while their counterparts in medium densely and low densely populated areas performed better than peri-urban pupils in both English and Cinyanja.

This study is consistent to Serpell's (2005) findings which suggested that Parents' own literacy habits influence children's interest and motivation for reading. Serpell's results indicated that pupils from a low economic background (m= 34.9, SD=*15.3)* performed significantly better than those from a high economic background (m=30.8, SD=*14.2*), t *(465) =3.07*, *p<0.001*, d=0.28) with weak effect size. This illustrates that although socio-economic status between schools located in high density areas and schools located in low density areas play a role in the performance of reading comprehension, it does not play significant a role as that of language, which indicates a moderate size of d=0.53.Despite a longstanding dominance in reading research, all three constructs involved in the simple view remain controversial as far as their proper measurement is concerned. In the present study, focus has been directed on type of school and its location as well as other factors that would determine reading comprehension.

Interestingly, despite recording 50 percent of participants who stated residence in medium densely populated areas and claimed that Cinyanja was there home language, the schools located in medium densely populated communities recorded low scores in both listening and reading comprehension in Cinyanja as shown by the significant mean score differences. Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory has critical implications on these findings as his theory acknowledges that children do not develop in isolation, but in relation to the family, school, community and society at large. It recognises that although teachers and school systems can provide a stable long term relationships with children, the primary relationship needs to be with home and community who can provide language and habits that is meant to last long.

It demonstrates that the most important settings for a young child is his/her family and surrounding environment because that is where the child spends most of his/her time. The family also has the greatest language influence on the young child. This theory postulates that child development is influenced by the interaction between characteristics of the child and the parents as well as the environmental context in which the child develops. The implications of these thought-provoking results might be a clear indication that the familiar language and language of instructions at school are not at par.

Surprisingly, the regression analysis further illustrated that age had a significant effect on the performance in reading Cinyanja and English language. On the other hand, School location, age and home language had also a significant effect on listening comprehension in English. In the same vein, research has shown the importance of the type of school a child attends in influencing educational outcomes. While research in the US has found that SES variables continue to influence educational attainment even after controlling for different school types, the school context tends to affect the strength of the relationship between SES and educational outcomes (Portes and MacLeod, 1996). Similarly, research in Britain shows that schools have an independent effect on student attainment (Sparkes, 1999). While there is less data available on this issue in Zambia, several studies using the Longitudinal Surveys of Zambian schools have found that pupils attending urban schools were significantly more likely to stay on at school than those attending rural schools. Pupils from urban schools are also more likely to achieve higher end of school scores.

While school-related factors are important, there is again an indirect link to SES, as schools located in low densely populated areas are more likely to have a greater number of pupils from high SES families, select pupils with stronger academic abilities and have greater financial resources. The school effect is also likely to operate through variation in the quality and attitudes of teachers (Sparkes, 1999). Teachers at disadvantaged schools, for instance, often hold Pupils from non-urban areas are more likely to have lower educational outcomes in terms of academic performance and retention rates than pupils from urban areas (Cheers, 1990; HREOC, 2000).

Despite inadequate number of educational facilities in rural and remote Zambia, school children from these areas remain disadvantaged by other factors. Issues affecting access to education in regional areas include costs, the availability of transport and levels of family income support. In addition, inequity exists with regard to the quality of the education that rural pupils receive, often as a result of restricted and limited subject choice. Furthermore, pupils may also have limited recreational and educational facilities within their school (HREOC, 2000: 12). However, this research compared pupils from across all SES backgrounds to reach the conclusion that low SES adversely affects a range of educational outcomes.

5.5. Language Spoken at Home as a Determinant in Reading and Listening Comprehension Skills among Pupils in Grade Five in Primary Schools

The language spoken at home was factor investigated by the study. This was deemed to be important because ideally initial reading fluency should be based on the language children speak in their homes. It was evident from the findings that there are striking differences among children in patterns pupils from schools which was located further in the outskirt of the district used more of Zambian languages both in class and at home than those within the central business district. Furthermore, linear regression analyses were carried out to predict reading comprehension performance from a number of background variables. The majority (58.3%) of the pupils alleged that they used Cinyanja in their homes. Those that said that the language spoken at home was English was 19.2 percent and those who indicated that they used other languages were representing 22.4 percent of the total population of the pupils.

As to whether the language spoken at home was same as the one at school, the study revealed that 42 percent of the pupils showed that the language spoken in their homes was the same as the one

used at school for instruction, while 58 percent indicated that the language of instruction was different from the language they spoke at home. These findings show that the language policy on the language of instruction in schools of Lusaka district has not been implemented with caution as advised in the 2012 examination council of Zambia national assessment survey recommendations. It was anticipated that children who came from homes which used Cinyanja as home language would perform better than their counterparts who came from English speaking homes. Surprisingly, therefore, results show that home language strongly predicted reading and listening comprehension in both English and Cinyanja. Hart & Risley (1995) proposed that reading achievement is likely mediated by language. Foster et al (2005) have also recorded that the quality of the home environment is widely recognized as a strong contributor to young children's emergent literacy and social competence and to their subsequent educational success.

The 2014 examination council of Zambia survey categorised the location of schools according to high class low densely populated residential or low class medium densely populated divided. It was evident from the findings that pupils from the high class low densely populated residential settings outperformed their counterparts in English language. In Zambian languages the performance was almost at par in both locations with a paltry difference of 0.8 percent in favour of high class low densely populated residential areas. In general, the difference in mean score performance for reading comprehension with respect to location of school in this study were surprisingly statistically significant.

These results are consistent with those of the 2012 examination council of Zambia national assessment survey as well as Super & Harkness' (1986) 'the Developmental Niche', which gives these results a clear picture of interactional processes of the physical, social, customs and psychological processes within the child's environment. Both Bronfenbrenner and Super and Harkness acknowledge that each child comes with his or her own biological tendencies, which in interaction with the environment shape development. While Bronfenbrenner places customs and historical factors at his outermost layer, indirectly influencing development, Super and Harkness places the customs at the immediate family as a practice that directly influences the child's learning and development opportunities.

Reading comprehension in L1 and L2 pupils is determined by decoding and linguistic comprehension skills and their interaction (Hoover & Gough, 1990). Decoding is the mapping of print to sound and linguistic comprehension refers to the processes involved in understanding words and the texts they compose. As L2 pupils on average have a poorer command of the language they are learning, their linguistic comprehension will suffer and they will therefore be at risk of reading comprehension difficulties. But wasn't the case in this research, in agreement with the 2014 examination council of Zambia survey, the results of this study suggests that Pupils from homes where English and local language are used have a clear advantage in performance in both English and Cinyanja reading and listening comprehension.

Pupils from homes which used Cinyanja only on the other side obtained lowest scores in English and Cinyanja. The low scores by pupils from Cinyanja speaking homes may suggest that these pupils are not benefiting from the local language use in school as a medium of instruction. The higher scores of those from homes which use both English and local language may be due to the fact that, in such homes, the home language situation is very similar to that of the school, with great flexibility and versatility in moving from one language to the other, and in intermingling the languages, in both home and school.

Analysis of results revealed that majority of the pupils reported claiming to use English at home did better in reading comprehension both in English and Cinyanja as well as listening comprehension in English but not in listening comprehension in Cinyanja. It was evident from the findings that There are striking differences among children in patterns pupils from schools which was located further in the outskirt of the district used more of Zambian languages both in class and at home than those within the central business district. In general, the difference in mean score performance for listening comprehension in both English and Cinyanja with respect to location were statistically significant. Adequate reading comprehension skills are crucial for virtually all aspects of formal education as well as for full participation in society. A number of concurrent studies have shown that both decoding and oral language skills predict reading comprehension at different points in development and that these skills differ between L1 and L2 pupils.

Theoretically, it seems likely that having a limited vocabulary in the language in which children are being taught will lead to severe problems in understanding texts. A reader may be able to tolerate some unknown words and still be able to infer the meaning of a text with the help of text-

level constraints. However, if too many words are unknown it is likely that comprehension will break down altogether (Carver, 1994). This implies that L2 pupils will have comprehension difficulties if they have to read the same books and texts as their L1 counterparts who have better vocabulary knowledge. If vocabulary knowledge represents a bottleneck in reading comprehension, then variations in vocabulary knowledge may predict rates in the growth of reading comprehension.

The quality and quantity of exposure to the L1 and L2 may play a role in understanding the relationship between L1 and L2 vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension in the L2. The higher scores of those from homes which use both English and local language may be due to the fact that, in such homes, the home language situation is very similar to that of the school, with great flexibility and versatility in moving from one language to the other, and in intermingling the languages, in both home and school. Analysis of results revealed that majority of the pupils reported claiming to use English at home did better in reading comprehension both in English and Cinyanja as well as listening comprehension in English but not in listening comprehension in Cinyanja.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to establish the extent of the mismatch between familiar language and language of instruction among pupils in primary schools and its effect on reading comprehension in Lusaka District of Zambia. The conclusion in this study is line with the findings and discussions. This concluding chapter provides a summary of the findings in this study and discusses the implications of these findings for the mismatch between familiar and language of instruction among pupils in primary schools of Lusaka District. Language profiles of primary schools, individual classrooms, as well as individual pupils were compiled in this study. This was done in order to gain an impression of the nature of multilingualism in Primary schools of Lusaka District. It was thought necessary to establish the linguistic repertoires of schools and individual pupils with the awareness that the language-in education policy requires schools to select a dominant language in the community/school to be used as language of learning and teaching. It is hoped that the recommendations given in this study will be of positive effect to the curriculum planning administrators, teachers in government schools and all interested parties in this study.

6.2. Summary of the Findings

The study assumes that urban schools are multilingual to the extent that they cannot choose a dominant local language; as such, urban schools may use Cinyanja to instruct pupils from early childhood to grade 4 in primary school. However, the linguistic repertoires of individual schools (government), classrooms, and individual pupils have revealed multilingualism as all the regional languages of Zambia are represented. Almost all the regional languages in Zambia have appeared on the language profile of pupils' language in schools under study of Lusaka district giving the impression of multilingualism of pupils. The language of instruction in lower primary schools is one of the most important inputs into the education production function, however, findings from studies done in Lusaka District imply that most children in primary schools are denied the opportunity to develop basic literacy skills using their familiar language as it differs from the language of instruction.

The findings in this study indicate that vocabulary knowledge is not a determinant factor for the success of a reading comprehension activity in L1 and L2 contrary to the suggestion of the simple view of reading (SVR). This view is evident as the participants involved in this study suggest that lack of knowledge in word meaning results in them being unable to process certain information which is crucial to the understanding of the whole text.

Although Cinyanja is their native language, some words that appear in Cinyanja text are still new to the pupils and they are unaware of the meaning of these words. The same situation also occurred when they processed the English text. This study argues that knowledge in vocabulary is one of the major hindrances for reading comprehension. Similarly to what other studies have assumed that knowledge in vocabulary and reading comprehension are interdependent and there is strong correlation between the two in order to successfully process reading text in any language, the results of the present study affirms in disapproval the claims.

One of the possible explanations on Zambian Cinyanja pupils' low vocabulary could be due to their adverse attitudes towards reading in Cinyanja and lack of exposure in Cinyanja formal training. Based on the findings of the current study, vocabulary knowledge does not have its share in both Cinyanja and English reading comprehension performance.

In the pursuit of ways to improve reading instruction in multilingual countries such as Zambia, it is striking to entirely blame learning to read in a language that differs from what constitutes the home and playground language of the pupils as the major cause of a low success rate in learning to read. In relation to reading in both English and Zambian language, Lusaka children score higher when they read English comprehension as compared to Zambian Language (Cinyanja) comprehension.

These results for Lusaka could point to the possibility that for Lusaka schools, English is a more familiar language to the children than the deep Nyanja used in NBTL although they are both second languages to these children because they have the other Nyanja that is most familiar to them. Even though there is some commonality between pupils' vocabularies and the language of instruction in most Lusaka District schools, children experience serious problems with reading as the low scores of pupils on the reading comprehension in Cinyanja tests indicate.

Furthermore, the suggestion of an Extension of the period in which reading was to be practiced in the Zambian language from two to four years, as occurs in some neighboring countries, but the proposal has not increased the success rate of the Zambian language-medium policy because children have no further chance to become familiar with the Zambian language of instruction. However, so far there is no empirical evidence that a longer period guarantees greater success for the local language-medium policy. The performance of pupils in this study was not in any way better than those in the previous surveys, with no significant positive changes in the scores obtained. The results have showed that the situation has remained consistent.

In relation to socio-economic status (SES), School location, age and home language had also a significant effect on listening comprehension in English. In the same vein, research has shown the importance of the type of school a child attends in influencing educational outcomes. While school-related factors are important, there is again an indirect link to SES, as schools located in low densely populated areas are more likely to have a greater number of pupils from high SES families, selected pupils with stronger academic abilities and have greater financial resources. The school effect is also likely to operate through variation in the quality and attitudes of teachers at disadvantaged schools, for instance, often hold Pupils from peri-urban areas are more likely to have lower educational outcomes in terms of academic performance and retention rates than pupils from low densely populated and medium densely populated areas.

6.3. Conclusion

Despite inadequate number of educational facilities in peri-urban areas of Zambia, school children from these areas remain disadvantaged by other factors. Issues affecting access to education in regional areas include costs of educational material, the availability of transport and levels of family income support. In addition, inequity exists with regard to the quality of the education that peri-urban pupils receive, often as a result of restricted and limited subject choice. Furthermore, pupils may also have limited recreational and educational facilities within their school. However, this research compared pupils from across all SES backgrounds to reach the conclusion that low SES adversely affects a range of educational outcomes specifically, reading and listening comprehension.

The Overall findings of this study support the idea that the language chosen as the official language from early childhood to grade four (4) in Lusaka District may not dominate in the homes and on the street. Even though there is some commonality between pupils' vocabularies and the language of instruction in most schools in the District, children experience serious problems with reading as the low scores of pupils on the reading comprehension in Cinyanja tests illustrated in this study. Hence, there is no familiarity of pupils' language of instruction with home and language of play.

6.4 Recommendations

Based on the study findings and their interpretations as well as the conclusions, this study recommends the following:

i. The findings of this study inform helpful recommendations pertaining to the language in education policy and the education system of Zambia. Firstly, there is a need to compile countrywide community and/or school linguistic profiles so as to come up with a well informed and practical language policy.

ii. The study also recommends interrogation of the language policy in line with what is practical on the ground since most of the instructional materials in the schools are in English but not Cinyanja. First, the focus should be on the development of materials in the local languages and then enforcing the policies. The system should also support for the production of reading materials in the children's familiar or language of play to enhance the reading culture.

iii. Teacher language proficiency is key to implementing L1-based MLE. Qualified teachers from the same linguistic communities as pupils are well positioned to teach initial and continuing literacy as well as other academic content through the L1, though they may need training in L1 orthographic conventions and bilingual teaching methods.

    In contexts where qualified teachers with proficiency in pupils' L1s are not available, the two choices are (1) training existing teachers in the pupils' L1s, or (2) training youth or adult L1 speakers to be teachers. Both choices will be rendered unnecessary after the first

cohort of bi- or multilingual pupils graduate and go on to be teachers, but in the meantime, information is needed on the linguistic proficiency of all teachers, both orally and in writing. This information could be collected at the school, district, regional or provincial levels, and it would ideally become part of teachers' job profiles so that school placement can be done with their languages in mind.

iv. Educational reforms should pay attention to the crucial question of the language of instruction and implementation of language policy in education, particularly, the use of the language of the catchment area in lower primary in schools in both urban and peri-urban area because it provides a foundation for all other subsequent learning.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I: Informed Consent Form for Parents or Guardians

THE UNIVERISTY OF ZAMBIA SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY, SOCIOLOGY AND SPECIAL EDUCATION

Please read this document carefully. Sign your name below only if you agree that your child should participate in this research and if you fully understand your child's rights. Your signature is required for your child's participation. For you to sign on this form, you must be a parent or a legal guardian of a Grade 5 pupil who is to participate in this study. If you desire a copy of this consent form, you may request one and we will be very happy to provide it.

Dear Parent(s)/Guardian(s),
My name is **Marvin Kapenda**, a Masters student from the University of Zambia currently undertaking research.

Description of the Study: Your child is being invited to participate in this study on the **mismatch between familiar language and language of instruction among pupils specifically in grade five in selected primary schools of Lusaka district.** The aim of this study is mainly to investigate the disparity between familiar language and language of instruction and if it has any effect on reading comprehension among pupils specifically in Grade five in selected primary schools of Lusaka district. The study will also attempt to compile language profiles of pupils in the study as well as individual schools. The study will furthermore provide a comparison in reading and listening comprehension in English and Cinyanja and additionally propose answers to the vital questions which will lead in the filling up of the gap that is in the language policy which has a major impact on the learning and teaching.

Safety of the study:

We wish to assure you that, during and after children's tasks, this study does not pose any physical, mental or other risks to your child. The nature of the tasks is that your child will be required to do certain age-appropriate speaking, listening and reading tasks. This, therefore, requires your consent which is a very important step in this study. Tasks such as answering some questions, reading two short passages in Cinyanja and English and a listening comprehension in both mentioned languages.

Time Involvement:

Some time may be lost from your work schedule as it is necessary that you are fully explained to how this study will be conducted. In addition, there is a questionnaire for you to which are expected to respond. This is very important as well because we need to get information from you the parent/guardian regarding the home situation in connection to home literacy. Secondly, your child will also be withdrawn from class for a couple of minutes when being assessed and later they will return to class. It should be mentioned that children's assessment will not be completed on a single day because the different activities meant for children cannot be concluded on the same day. An arrangement will be made at school on how best these activities will be conducted.

Activities for Teacher

The class teacher will be requested usher children to the researcher to answer some statements away from the other children. This will be done during the teacher's spare time.

Activities for Children

Responding to a questionnaire and attending assessment tests in reading, listening and speaking.

Foreseeable Benefits:

We cannot guarantee that you and your child will receive any direct benefits from this study. However, as a parent/guardian, you will have an opportunity to contribute to the improvement of education for young pupils, a contribution that will benefit this nation a great deal. You will also

learn one or two other things about your children's education which educationists and researchers are interested in.

Participant Rights:

• Participation in this study is purely voluntary so if you decide to withdraw your child or yourself at any point, you may freely do so, and there will be no consequences for that decision. However, we are very interested in working with you.

• All personal identifying information about you and your child will be kept confidential and the data sheets will be kept in secured lockers in accordance with the standards of the University of

Zambia Research and Ethics Committee. If the results of this study are required for publication as we hope to do, your identity will still be kept very private. This is the standard way of conducting this type of research.

• Feel free to ask any question so that you fully understand this whole important activity.

Signatures:

I,…….....(father/mother/legal-guardian) to ……(name of Grade 5 child) have read and understood the above information. My signature testifies that I understand the nature of this study, consent process and management of confidentiality as indicated above. I also understand that I can withdraw my child and myself at any time during this study.

Signature of participant's parent:……

Phone Number:……

Date…….....

Name of Witness:……

Signature of Witness:……..

Phone Number:……

Date…….

Name of Researcher:……
Signature of Researcher:……

Phone Number:……

Date……

Contacts For further clarifications about this research, please you may contact the following people, the first one is my supervisor in this research.

Dr. Bestern Kaani,
School of Education,
University of Zambia,
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka, Zambia.

Dr. E.K. Mbozi.
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Administrative Secretary,

Humanities and Education Research and Ethics Committee,

Great East Road Campus,

University of Zambia,

P.O. Box 32379,

Lusaka.

Appendix II: Letter of Ethical Approval from Ethics Committee

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA

DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH AND GRADUATE STUDIES

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

Approval of Study

26th October, 2018

REF. No. HSSREC: 2018-AUG-008

The Principal Investigator

Dear Mr. Marvin Kapenda,

RE: "MISMATCH BETWEEN FAMILIAR AND LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION AMONG PUPILS AND ITS EFFECTS TO READING COMPREHENSION IN SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF LUSAKA DISTRICT"

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

Review Type	**Expedited/Ordinary Review**	Approval No. **2018-AUG-008**
Approval and Expiry Date	Approval Date: 17th August, 2018	Expiry Date: 16th August, 2019
Protocol Version and Date	Version-Nil	-
Information Sheet, Consent Forms and Dates	• English.	To be provided
Consent form ID and Date	Version	To be provided
Recruitment Materials	Nil	Nil

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Excellence in Teaching, Research and Community Service

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

Conditions of Approval

- Provide information sheets and consent letters as these were not attached. The information sheets should have had the essential features included. Please use the WHO templates which you could download at www.who.int/rpc/research_ethics/informed_consent/en/). REC would appreciate if the PI could customise the WHO templates and include the domains of what the submitted protocol is positing on tools and the sampling units (people who have been or shall be participating in this study.
- No participant may be involved in any study procedure prior to the study approval or after the expiration date.
- All unanticipated or Serious Adverse Events (SAEs) must be reported to the IRB within 5 days.
- All protocol modifications must be IRB approved by an application for an amendment prior to implementation unless they are intended to reduce risk (but must still be reported for approval). Modifications will include any change of investigator/s or site address or methodology and methods. Many modifications entail minimal risk adjustments to a protocol and/or consent form and can be made on an Expedited basis (via the IRB Chair). Some examples are: format changes, correcting spelling errors, adding key personnel, minor changes to questionnaires, recruiting and changes, and so forth. Other, more substantive changes, especially those that may alter the risk-benefit ratio, may require Full Board review and approval. In all cases, except where noted above regarding subject safety, any changes to any protocol document or procedure must first be approved by the IRB before they can be implemented.
- All protocol deviations must be reported to the IRB within 5 working days.
- All recruitment materials must be approved by the IRB prior to being used.
- Principal investigators are responsible for initiating Continuing Review proceedings. Documents must be received by the IRB at least 30 days before the expiry date. This is for the purpose of facilitating the review process. Any documents received less than 30 days before expiry will be labelled "late submissions" and will incur a penalty.
- Every 6 (six) months a progress report form supplied by The University of Zambia Humanities And Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB must be filled in and submitted to us. There is a penalty of K500.00 for failure to submit the report.
- The University Of Zambia Humanities And Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB does not "stamp" approval letters, consent forms or study documents unless requested for in writing. This is because the approval letter clearly indicates the documents approved by the IRB as well as other elements and conditions of approval.

Should you have any questions regarding anything indicated in this letter, please do not hesitate to get in touch with us at the above indicated address.

On behalf of The University of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB, we would like to wish you all the success as you carry out your study.

Yours faithfully,

Dr. Jason Mwanza
BA, MSoc, Sc., PhD
CHAIRPERSON
The University Of Zambia Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee IRB

Cc Director, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies
Assistant Director – Research, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies
Vice Chairperson, Humanities and Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee
Assistant Registrar- Research, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies
Senior Administrative Officer – Research Affiliation, Directorate of Research and Graduate Studies

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Appendix III: Letter of Approval to Conduct Study from DEBS

All correspondence should addressed
to the District Education Board Secretary

Telephone: 0211 - 240250/240249/0955 623749
E-mail: deshsisk@yahoo.co.uk

DEBS/101/1/19

REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION

DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD SECRETARY
P.O. BOX 50297
LUSAKA

20th July, 2018

Mr. Marvin Kapenda
SIN: 2016145468

usf: The Head of Department
Educational Psychology, Sociology
and Special Education, University of Zambia
P.O. Box 32379
LUSAKA

RE: REQUEST TO CONDUCT RESEARCH ON THE TOPIC, "MISMATCH BETWEEN FAMILIAR AND LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION AND IT'S EFFECT ON READING COMPREHENSION": A CASE STUDY OF SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN LUSAKA DISTRICT UNDER CHILENJE, CENTRAL AND KAUNDA SQUARE ZONES."

Reference is made to the letter dated 9th April, 2018 from the Head of Department – Department of Educational Psychology, Sociology and Special Education, (UNZA) in which you wish to conduct a research project in Schools under Chilenje, Central and Kaunda Square Zones, Lusaka District.

I am pleased to inform you that permission has been granted for you to carry out your project. However, ensure that your programme does not interfere with the learning schedule.

Through this letter, Headteachers are informed to welcome and give you all the necessary support accordingly.

B. Mwanza (Mr.)
DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD SECRETARY
LUSAKA DISTRICT

sw*

Appendix IV: Questionnaire for Pupils in Grade Five

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA SCHOOL OF EDUCATION, DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY, SOCIOLOGY AND SPECIAL EDUCATION

MISMATCH BETWEEN FAMILIAR AND LANGUAGE OF INSTRUCTION AND ITS EFFECT ON READING COMPREHENSION IN SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF LUSAKA DISTRICT

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. **CHILD'S ID: _____ 2. SCHOOL: _____**
3. **AGE: _____ 4. GENDER: _____ 5. CLASS: _____**

This instrument will be completed by the researcher who will interview one pupil at a time while other pupils will be kept away from the interview room. Cinyanja will be used to get information from the pupils, but where necessary a child's familiar language may be used. i.e. (Bemba, Tonga, English)

SECTION 1: LANGUAGE BACKGROUND Ask the child who looks after him/her if some children are not staying with their biological parents ask certain questions appropriately. Say: Nibandani bamene bakusunga kunyumba?

LANGUAGE English (1) Cinyanja (2) OTHERSSPECIFY (3) ……..

Q.6 which language does your mother/caregiver speak best? nicitundu bwanji chamene bamai bako bamakamba maningi? (Ask this question to suit the child's caregiver circumstances) ……

Q.7 which language does your father/caregiver speak best? nicitundu bwanji camene batate bako bamakamba maningi? (Ask this question to suit the child's caregiver circumstances) …….

Q.8 Which language do you use most frequently? Nicitundu bwanji camene umakamba ntawi zambili? ……

Q.9 Which language(s) do you use when playing with others at school? nicitundu bwanji camene mumakamba ngati usobela nabanzako kusukulu?

Q.10 Which language do you mainly use in class? nicitundu bwanji camene umakamba kambili ngati ulimu class? ……..

SECTION 2: EXPOSURE TO LITERACY ACTIVITIES IN CLASS

Q.11 While in class, I have a problem in understanding the following in Cinyanja. (ngati nipunzila muclass, nimapeza mabvuto kumvesesa ivi vintu)

READING	Always [1]	sometimes [2]	Not sure [3]	seldom [4]	rarely [5]
LISTENING	Always [1]	sometimes [2]	Not sure [3]	seldom [4]	rarely [5]
WRITING	Always [1]	sometimes [2]	Not sure [3]	seldom [4]	rarely [5]
SPEAKING	Always [1]	sometimes [2]	Not sure [3]	seldom [4]	rarely [5]

Give reason for the previous answers

……

……

Q.12. Our teacher teaches us all the subjects in Cinyanja. (apunzisi bamatupunzisa ma subjects yonse muCinyanja) Always [1] sometimes [2] Not sure [3] seldom [4] rarely [5]

Q.13. Other teachers at school communicate with us in Cinyanja (apunzisi kusukulu bamatikambisa mu Cinyanja)

Always [1] sometimes [2] Not sure [3] seldom [4] rarely [5]

Q.14. How often does your teacher give you homework in a week? (kodi, ninthau zingati bamamipasa homework kuli apunzisi?)

Most of the time [1] some of the time [2] seldom [3] never [4]

Q.15. Is there someone who helps you with your homework at home? (kuli bamakutandiza kuyanka homework kunyumba?) 1. Yes [ ] 0 .No [ ]

Q.16. If so, who? Ngati kulibamene bamakutandisako kulemba homework kunyumba, nibandani? [Mother] [Father] [Siblings] [Other], please specify_____

Q.17. Did you start your grade one at this school? (kodi unayambila sikulu mugradi one pano?)

1. Yes [ ] 0 .No [ ]

If no is the answer in question 17.in what grade did you come to this school_____

Q.18. what language where you using when learning at your former school? (mwenze kusebenzesa citundu bwanji popunzila pasukulu unachokela?) English (1) Cinyanja (2) others specify (3) ……..

Q.19. Do you ever have change of teachers since you started school here? (kodi kumankalako kuchinja bapunzisi kuchokela pamene unayamba sikulu pano?)

Most of the time [1] some of the time [2] seldom [3] never [4]

20. Do you think that you have learned to read at school? Yes [ ] No [ ]

21. What does the teacher normally do when you are unable to read or read incorrectly?

[1] Teacher assists with some words [2] Teacher encourages me to try again [3] teacher asks another student [4] Teacher scolds, beats and send me out of class [5] teacher does nothing

SECTION 3: EXPOSURE TO LITERACY ACTIVITIES AT HOME

Q.22. Do you read at home? (Kodi umabelenga kunyumba?) 1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]

Note: if the answer the above is, No, go to Section 4.

Q.23. If the response to the question above is yes, ask the child to list titles of books/journals/other reading materials he/she has read. (Ngati umabelenga kunyumba , unganiuzeko mabuku yamene umabelenga? a) _____

Q.24. Does someone help you when you are reading at home? (Kodi kulibamene bamakutandisako kubelenga kunyumba?) 1. Yes [ ] 0 .No [ ]

Q.25. If so, who? (Ngati kulibamene bamakutandisako kubelenga kunyumba, nibandani?) [Mother] [Father] [Siblings] [Other], please specify_____

SECTION 4: AVAILABILITY OF READING MATERIALS IN THE HOME

Q.26. In your home, are there any materials or books that are printed in a local language?

□ Yes □ No a. If yes, what language(s) is it? □ Nyanja □ Bemba □ Tonga □ Lozi □ Luvale □Lunda □Kaonde

Q.27. Are there materials in your home that are printed in English? □ Yes □ No a. What sort of materials are these? _____

Q.28. Does your family have books for your primary school age kids? □ Yes □ No

a. If yes, about how many? Check response below. __ No books ___ 1 – 2 books ___ 3 – 5 books ___ 6 or more books

b. What kinds of these books for kids do you have?

ABC___ Picture___ Story____ Number___ Religious___ Nursery rhyme___ Cartoon_____

Read-along books with records or audiotapes_____ other (specify) _____

SECTION 5: EXPOSURE TO LITERACY ACTIVITIES IN THE COMMUNITY

Q.29. When I am playing with friends in the community, I use Cinyanja. (ngati nisobela nabanzanga pa chipanda, nimasebenzesa Cinyanja)

Strongly agree [1] Agree [2] not sure [3] disagree [4] Disagree Strongly [5]

Q.30. We use Cinyanja at church or at our place of worship. (timasebenzesa Cinyanja ngati tipempela kuchurch) Most of the time [1] some of the time [2] not sure [3] seldom [4] never [5]

Q.31. The bible/holy book we use at church/ place of worship is written in Cinyanja. (Bible yamene tisebenza kuchurch niyolembewa muCinyanja)

Strongly agree [1] Agree [2] Not sure [3] disagree [4] Disagree Strongly [5]

SECTION 6: SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

Q.32.What is your Father's/ caregiver's occupation? (Nincito bwanji yamene batate bako basebenza?) ..... (Ask this question carefully to suit the child's care-giver circumstances)

Q.33.What is your Mother's occupation? Nincito bwanji yamene bamai bako basebenza?..... (Ask this question to suit the child's care-giver circumstances)

Q.34. Did you attend pre-school/nursery school before coming to this school? Kodi unapunzilapo ku nursery pamene ukalibe kuyanmba sukulu? 1. Yes [ ] 0 .No [ ]

Q.35. if the answer to the above is yes, ask the child to state the name of the school he/she went to. (Ngati unapunzilapo ku nursery, tomola zina ya nursery/pre-school unaendako?) .....

SECTION 7: HOME POSSESSIONS

Do you have the following possessions at home?

36	television set	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
37	radio	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
38	stove	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
39	electricity	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
40	running water	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
41	flushable toilet	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
42	a car	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
43	at least two pairs of clothes	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
44	at least one pair of shoes	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
45	a bed with a mattress to sleep on	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
46	a house with cement or tile floors	1. Yes [ ] 0. No [ ]
47	In which residential area do you live	

Appendix V: Home Literacy Questionnaire

A. DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Child's I.D: ……..Child's Sex : □ Male □ Female Name of School: _____ Setting: □ Home □ other (specify) _____

B. BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Highest school level achieved by the child's mother: □ Never been to school □ primary □ junior secondary □ Upper secondary □ college □ University

2. Highest school level achieved by the child's father

□ Never been to school □ primary □ junior secondary □ Upper secondary □ college □ University

3. Occupation: a. Mother: _____ b. Father: _____

4. Are both parents living? □ Yes □ No

5. What is your marital status? □ Single □ married □ divorced □widowed

C. PARENT'S PART

Q.6. The language I learned to read first during my childhood was (tick the correct response)

□ Nyanja □ Bemba □ Tonga □ Lozi □ Luvale □Lunda □Kaonde □English

Q.7. On a scale of 1 – 5, how good a reader do you think you are in English? (Tick one box only) □ cannot read □ poor reader □ average reader □ good reader □ excellent reader

Q.8. Do you read in any other language? □ No □ Yes a. If yes, what language?

□ Nyanja □ Bemba □ Tonga □ Lozi □ Luvale □Lunda □Kaonde □English

Q.9. On a scale of 1 – 5, how good a reader do you think you are in this local language? (Tick one box only) □ cannot read □ poor reader □ average reader □ good reader □ excellent reader

Q.10. Do you know the language that is used in school to teach your child to learn to read?

□ No □ Yes

Q.11. If yes, what language does your child use to learn to read in school? □ Nyanja □ Bemba □ Tonga □ Lozi □ Luvale □Lunda □Kaonde □English

Q.12. Given a choice, what language would you rather your child used when learning to read?

□ Nyanja □ Bemba □ Tonga □ Lozi □ Luvale □Lunda □Kaonde □English

a. Explain your answer in response 12 …….

Q.13. Would you help your child to learn to read Nyanja? □ No □ Yes

Q.14. How would you help your child to learn to read? _____

Q.15. In your opinion, who is most responsible for your child's learning to read?

□ Teacher □ parents □siblings □other (specify) _____

Q.16. Are there some things you read just for your pleasure? □ Yes □ No

a. How often would you say you do this? □ Daily □ once to three times a week □ once a week □ atleast once a month

Q.17. How often do you talk with your family about what you are reading?

□ Every day or almost every day □ Once or twice a week □Once or twice a month □ Never or almost never

Q.18. Given what you read, would you say you read enough?

□ Yes □ No, but I would like to read more □ No, and I don't want to read more

D. CHILD'S CHILDHOOD EXPERIENCES.

Q19. What languages did your child speak before he/she began school? □ Nyanja □ Bemba □ Tonga □ Lozi □ Luvale □Lunda □Kaonde □English

Q.20. What languages does your child speak now?

□ Nyanja □ Bemba □ Tonga □ Lozi □ Luvale □Lunda □Kaonde □English

Q.21. Did your child ever attend preschool, private or government, including kindergarten or community child care? □ YES □ NO a. If YES, what was the age when she/he started?

□ 1 □ 2 □ 3 □ 4 □ 5 □ 6 □ 7

b. How long did he/she attend such programmes? □ 3 years or more □ between 2 and 3 years □ between 1 and 2 years □ 1 year or less

c. If YES, who operates this programme? □ Government □ Church □ NGO □ privately run

d. If YES, do you pay fees? □ YES □ NO

The end.

Thank you for participating in this study.

Appendix VI: Test Items

Task 1. Oral Passage Reading Comprehension in English

1. CHILD'S ID: _____ 2. SCHOOL: _____

3. AGE: _____ 4. GENDER: _____ 5. CLASS: _____

Here is a short story. I want you to read it aloud, quickly but carefully. When you have finished, I will ask you some questions about what you have read. Do you understand what to do?

There are good insects like bees and butterflies. There are some others which carry disease germs from one place to another. Mosquitoes and houseflies are bad insects. They transmit diseases. Houseflies transmit diseases like trachoma, diarrhea and cholera. The female anopheles mosquitoes transmit malaria. Trachoma is a disease which affects eyes. Diarrhea is a condition when a person has a running stomach and passes watery stool now and again. When a person gets cholera, he starts vomiting and gets diarrhea at the same time. Cholera is a very dangerous disease and kills fast. As for malaria, the body temperature sometimes rises or falls. The person usually gets headache, stomachache and vomits. A person with malaria sometimes shivers and needs to be kept warm. If you get any of these diseases, you need to visit the nearest clinic, hospital or medical Centre for treatment.

Responses to the questions				
Questions	**Correct (2)**	**Incorrect (1)**	**NR (0)**	
1. What are the two kinds of insects in the story? (bad and good)				
2. Name two harmful insects in the story?(mosquito and houseflies)				
3. Why are some insects bad? (They Carry diseases)				
4. Which diseases do houseflies transmit? (trachoma and diarrhea)				
5. Which mosquitoes transmit malaria? (female anopheles)				
Check this box if a child reads the passage fluently ☐				
Check this box if a child reads the passage with difficulties ☐				
Check this box if the child is unable to read the passage ☐				

Task 2 - Listening Comprehension in English

1. CHILD'S ID: _____ 2. SCHOOL: _____

3. AGE: _____ 4. GENDER: _____ 5. CLASS: _____

One day Mr. Chanda came home with a new mobile phone. "Look what I have brought", he said. "When my customers need a taxi, they can call me on this phone. When I was a girl, we did not have telephones, "said Mrs. Chanda. "If we wanted to talk to talk to someone in the next village, we used to send a messenger. Long ago, people used to send messages with drums. If they were in danger, they used to beat a big drum.'

"When did you leave your village? "Asked Misozi. "Your father came to work in the town. I used to work in a shop, but soon I found work at the post office. People come there to buy stamps and to post letters and parcels."

Letters are another way of sending messages, said Mr. Chanda. "You can also send messages by computer. If you have a computer, you can send e-mails to people all over the world." "I would love to have a computer one day, "said Misozi. Mr. Chanda laughed." Computers are expensive. If you want a computer, I will need to find a lot of customers for my taxi.

Responses to the questions

Question	Correct (2)	Incorrect (1)	NR (0)
1 What has Mr. Chanda bought? (mobile phone)			
2 Where did Mrs. Chanda live when she was young? (village)			
3 How did people send messages a long time ago? (by sending a messenger or beating drums)			
4 Why do people go to the post office?(to post letters and parcels)			
5 Mention two different ways of sending messages? (e-mail and mobile phone)			

Check this box if the child is unable to understand the passage ☐

Task 3 -Reading Comprehension in Cinyanja

1. CHILD'S ID: _____ 2. SCHOOL: _____

3. AGE: _____ 4. GENDER: _____ 5. CLASS: _____

Nyengo ndi nthawi yosiyana-siyana m'chaka. Nyengo izi ndi dzinja, imene ili nthawi yamvula, chirimwe kunena nthawi ya dzuwa ndi chisanu, nthawi ya mphepo yozizira.

M'kati mwa nyengozi mumakhala zinthu zocitika zambiri ndipo zosiyanasiyana, kulingana ndi nthawi yake iyi. Nyengo yadzinja imayambira kotsirira kwa mwezi wa Mafundi ndi masiku oyambira mwezi wa Kafwiritsira. Umathera m'mwezi wa kafukulira, mwinanso mwezi wa Masika.

Nthawi ya chisanu imayambira Mkati wa Kolola ndi kutsirizira m'mwezi wa phukira ndipo nyengo ya chirimwe imayambira m'wezi wa changululu ndi kuphatikizana ndi miyezi yamvula.

Responses to the questions

Mafunso	**Correct (2)**	**Incorrect (1)**	**NR (0)**	
1. Kodi liu lakuti nyengo litanthauza ciani? (nthawi)				
2. Kodi m'caka muli nyengo zingati? (zitatu)				
3. Chulani nyengo za m'caka …….. , ……. , ndi …….. (dzinja, chirimwe, chisanu)				
4. Dzinja imayambira m'wezi wa ……..				
5. Ulimi umacitika m'miyezi iti? (ya dzinja)				
Check this box if a child reads the passage fluently ☐				
Check this box if a child reads the passage with difficulties ☐				
Check this box if the child is unable to read the passage ☐				

Task 4 - Listening Comprehension in Cinyanja

1. CHILD'S ID: _____ 2. SCHOOL: _____

3. AGE: _____ 4. GENDER: _____ 5. CLASS: _____

Kunali banja lina pa mudzi pa mtandaza. M'banjali munali ana atatu, m'modzi anali mtsikana ndipo awiri anali anyamata. Dzina la bambo wao linali Penjani ndipo amai awo Maiwase.

M'banjali munali kupezeka zobvuta zosiyanasiyana monga ufulu wa cibadwidwe ca anthu. Tiyeni timve zomwe zinali kucitika mkati mwa banja limeneli.

Coyamba ndi cakuti sanali kutumiza ana kusukulu ngakhale atakwanila zaka zoyamba sukulu m'geredi loyamba.

Ana akadwala sanali kufuna kuwapereka kucipatala kuti akalandire thandizo la mankhwala kucokera kumadotolo. Ici cinapagitsa ana awo kukhala wodwala nthawi ndi nthawi. Ngakhale ana awa anali wodwala nthawi ndi nthawi makolo awo anali kuwasenzetsa migomo yaikulu kupambana misinkhu yao. Ana awo anali kuwagwiritsa nchito monga akapolo.

Kulingana ndi mabvuto anawa anali kupitamo, anthu apamudzi sanali kukondwera. Ici cinakhumudwitsa anthu apamudzi kotero kuti anakauza apolisi momwe makolo anali kubvutisa ana ao.

Apolisi atamva, sanataye nthawi kupita kumudzi wa Mtandadza ndiponso kufunsa zambiri la banja la a Penjani kwa anthu omwe anapeza pa mudzipo. Atafufuza-fufuza za khalidwe lao kulingana ndi za kazunzidwe ka ana aja, apolisi anatenga aPenjani ndi azimai ao kuwalonga mcitolokosi. Iyi inali cenjezo kwa mabanja onse apamudzi wa Mtandadza, kuti ana ayenera kukhala ndi maufulu osiyana-siyana monga kupita kusukulu.

Responses to the questions

Mafunso	**Correct (2)**	**Incorrect (1)**	**NR(0)**
1.Chulani dzina la pamunzi panali kucokera a Penjani? (Mtandaza)			
2.M'zimai wa a Penjani anali ndani? (Maiwase)			
3.Kodi anthu apa Mtandadza anaphunzira phunziro bwanji pali banja la a Penjani ndi a Maiwase? (ana afuninika kupelekewa kusukulu)			
4.Chulani bvuto limodzi lomwe ana a bamboo Penjani ndi a Maiwase anali kupitamo? (sanali kutumiza ana kusukulu)			
5.Kodi ndani anawapeleka kucitolokosi a bamboo Penjani ndi a Maiwase? (apolisi)			

Check this box if the child is unable to understand the passage ☐